Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



International Journal of Educational Research

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ijedures

School factors that are related to school principals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment



癯

Educational Research

Yan Liu^{a,*}, Mehmet Sukru Bellibas^b

 ^a Department of Educational Leadership, Policy an Instructional Technology, School of Education & Professional Studies, Central Connecticut State University, Barnard Building-Room 23106, 1615 Stanley St., New Britain, CT 06050, USA
 ^b College of Education, Adiyaman University, Turkey

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: School principal Job satisfaction Organizational commitment Social interaction School safety School autonomy Management type Funding resource

ABSTRACT

Despite that principals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment are substantial for recruitment and retention of effective leaders, research exploring school factors for the deterministic role in such attitudes has been unexpectedly rare. Given the crucial role of a school principal in leading school success, understanding the status of the principal's psychological conditions and the antecedent school factors is important. This research is a secondary analysis using the TALIS 2013 dataset, and applied a rigorous quantitative approach. Latent Trait method was first applied to construct latent variables of principals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment to compare the interests across countries. Then a two-level Generalized Structural Equation Model was used to detect the structured relationship between a set of school factors and principals' attitudes with pooled 32-country data. Finally, Generalized Structural Equation Model was fitted for each country's data to investigate how school factors influence principals' attitudes in different contexts. The study revealed significant variations among countries and continents in the principal's job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The school's positive social interaction, safety, human resource, autonomy for staffing, school management type and the funding resources significantly predict the principal's attitudes towards the job and the school.

1. Introduction

The principal is regarded as an imperative leading force for school success (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2011). Through the principal's leadership, schools can create optimal conditions to support student learning by fostering positive social interaction and stimulating intellectual development (Dimmock, 2013; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). A school's organizational learning (Schechter, 2008) of maintaining effectiveness or transforming from failure to success needs consistent focus and continuous effort guided by school leaders (Fuller, Young, & Baker, 2007; Louis, Dretzke, & Wahlstrom, 2010). However, principals' turnover will potentially interrupt or even terminate the process because of inconsistency in school goals, missions, and efforts (Baker, Punswick, & Belt, 2010; Miller, 2013).

Retaining experienced principals is fundamental for school success (Printy, 2010). However, a report (Markow, Lara, & Helen, 2013) by Metlife revealed that regardless of demographic backgrounds, almost three-quarters of principals in the US indicated that their jobs had become too complicated. This same survey conducted since 2001 indicated the principal turnover intention was at a historical high that one-third was likely to leave the job in five years. The increase of principal turnover rate (Clifford & Chiang, 2016; Palmer, Watch, & Gibson, 2017) has resulted in extra costs and labor for schools to fill the vacancy. In addition, excessive principal

* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* yanliu@ccsu.edu (Y. Liu).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2018.04.002

Received 23 November 2017; Received in revised form 31 January 2018; Accepted 26 April 2018 0883-0355/ © 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.



Fig. 1. Framework of the relationship among school factors, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and outcomes.

turnover is also associated with increased teacher turnover and decreased student outcomes (Fuller et al., 2007; Miller, 2009). Such negative effects of high principal turnover are even more notable and detrimental in low-performing and minority-student dominant schools (Béteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012).

To prevent principal turnover, it is strategically important to find out principals' attitudes toward the job before they leave. Job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) are two essential indicators for this purpose because job turnover intention is closely related to JS and OC (Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011). Therefore, delving in the status and antecedents of these two job-related psychological features are crucial in providing supportive interventions. In addition, JS and PC are important factors that influence organizational empowerment (Humborstad & Perry, 2011), in-role behaviors (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Therefore, the research on the principal JS and OC is vital not only for preventing turnover, but also for increasing principal effectiveness. Fig. 1 illustrates such relationship.

Despite the importance, there is surprisingly limited research for the topic. To date, researchers have been exclusively interested in JS and OC of teachers while mostly overlooking JS and OC of school leaders (Dude, 2012). There are only few studies that have provided empirical evidence on influential factors of principal JS and OC respectively (Chang, Leach, & Anderman, 2015; Eckman, 2004; Federici & Skaalvik, 2012; Suman & Srivastava, 2012). Given that JS and OC are related to each other (Liu & Printy, 2017), there is little evidence regarding how determining factors are related to JS and OC by controlling the covariance between them. In addition, there are few studies that have conceptualized school-related factors through a comprehensive lens and investigated the effect of the whole-school experience on principal JS and OC. The gap in the literature calls for rigorous research to investigate to what extent comprehensive school-related factors impact a principal's JS and OC in order to provide the information needed to prevent turnover of school principals. An international comparative study is even more meaningful as it can situate each individual country in a global community in order to reveal cross-national variation in principal attitudes and the factors that might impact such attitudes in different contexts.

2. Literature review

2.1. Principal job satisfaction

There is no agreed-upon definition for JS. Yet, the conceptual investigations of JS have revealed two major components in the definition and measuring of the concept: affective (emotional) and cognitive. One of the most widely used definitions of JS was produced by Locke (1976), who defined JS from an affective perspective. According to his statement, job satisfaction can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). From this perspective, JS is substantially related to one's emotions and therefore, "an individual's appraisal of the degree to which the job fulfils one's own job values can cause a positive emotional state of satisfaction or a contrasting negative feeling of dissatisfaction" (Coomber & Barriball, 2007, p. 297). In addition to affect, cognitive component of JS has also been acknowledged in the literature. Cognitive component of JS is defined in terms of discrepancy between an individual's perceptions of the situation and a known standard or his/ her expectation level (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Although two components (affective and cognitive) of JS may have different effect on organizations (Moorman, 1993), research has provided evidence that they are not totally separated from one another; indeed, they operate in parallel (Edwards, 1990).

JS is not only derived from how people perceive and feel about their jobs, it is also related to their experiences with the job. Therefore, the study of JS has drawn on two major theoretical bodies of knowledge (Spector, 1997). One is Process Theory, which emphasizes "how" and deals with processes by which factors such as expectations and procedures impact JS. The other one is Content Theory, which emphasizes "what" and is concerned with individual needs and goals for the job. For instance, Maslow (1975)'s Hierarchy of Needs, which list several categories of needs to be met for an individual to be satisfied with the work and (Herzberg (1966)'s Two-Factor Theory, which identifies maintenance and motivating factors determining an individual's satisfaction with the

job, are among two prominent Content Theories (Coomber & Barriball, 2007). In the present study, the primary focus was on Content Theory because principal JS is related to a broad of school factors that impact the principal experience (Waskiewicz, 1999). However, the focus here is not limited to the school factors in order to provide a comprehensive understanding of "what" influence principals' JS. Raelin (1980) argued that JS research needs to consider two fundamental aspects: (1) the characteristics of the job condition and (2) the individuals' traits. From this classification, not only do job-related factors influence the extent of JS, but also the principal's individual characteristics. Therefore, it is imperative to take into consideration both job-related school factors and principal characteristics when exploring what matters for principal JS.

2.2. Factors predicting principal job satisfaction

As to what factors impact principal JS, the available research has an intense interest in how principal and school characteristics matter. It has been reported that there is variation of JS among principals according to race (Barry, 2002), gender (Eckman, 2004), experience and location (Sodoma & Else, 2009), as well as school enrollment (Graham & Messner, 1998). Previous research has also identified both extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of a principal's job that can impact JS, including the expectation of safety (Halawah, 2005), trust (Louis, Louis, Murphy, & Murphy, 2017), a sense of success and autonomy for school decision-making (Dou, Devos, & Valcke, 2017), career advancement opportunities and salary (Sun & Ni, 2016), perceived school effectiveness (Eckman, 2004), and student behavioral issues and resources (Friedman, Friedman, & Markow, 2008). The research has also examined how school accountability and increased instructional responsibilities, changes in student demographics, lack of support, politics, and the job stress impact principal JS (Byrd, 2010).

By reviewing these studies, it stands out that previous research has focused intensively on how principals' characteristics, needs, expectations, school resources, and daily job-related experiences impact satisfaction. One important school factor that has not been fully examined is the dynamic relationship among the staff. School social capital is an imperative element in building organizational capacity (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton; Dimmock, 2013).

2.3. Principal organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is the individual's psychological attachment to their organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). It refers to an individual's strong belief in and acceptance of goals and values of his/her organization, willingness to do best for his/her organization, and eagerness to stay as a member of the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). A committed person is more likely to remain with the organization, possess substantial motivation to achieve the goals of his/her organization (Steers, 1977), and is ready to give something of his/her self for the success of the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). An individual's commitment is not limited to his/her expression of belief or opinions but could be inferred from his/her daily actions (Mowday et al., 1979). OC is therefore seen as a substantial solution for the personnel's turnover intention (Steers, 1977; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

The foci of the OC research had been the definition and the scale of measurement until Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the Three-Component Model. Their model integrated previous definitions of OC that had proliferated in the literature. They generalized three themes: affective attitudes toward the organization (affective commitment), perceived costs associated with leaving the organization (continuance commitment), and obligation to remain with the organization (normative commitment). These three types of the OC established a decent framework to define and interpret the OC research, and have provided the groundwork for current research measuring principal OC more focusing on affective commitment.

2.4. Factors impacting principal organizational commitment

The majority of studies examining the antecedent of OC in education have focused on working conditions and experiences. The scope of research in this category is broad as researchers have looked into different aspects including socialization practices (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), work challenge (Colquitt, Lepine, & Wesson, 2011), task autonomy (Aubé, Rousseau, & Morin, 2007), the roles of the job (Williams & Anderson, 1991), and group relationship (Farooq, Payaud, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2014), among others. The scope of the work experience has been found to have the strongest and most consistent correlations with affective commitment across studies (Morrow, 2011). These studies reaffirm that explorations of antecedents of principal OC need to include complete school factors because these factors influence the work experience of a principal and their social attachment to the school.

One study focusing on school principals particularly found that job autonomy, psychological empowerment, and distributive justice are associated with principal OC (Dude, 2012). Another study found perceived fairness, organizational tenure, perceived organizational support, and the principal's age to be positive predictors of OC (Hawkins Jr, 1998). Nevertheless, studies of the antecedents of OC for the school principals are very limited in the literature (Chang et al., 2015).

2.5. School factors, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment

In earlier parts of the literature review, a discussion for the definitions of JS and OC and related school factors is provided. It is indicated that both JS and OC has substantial consequence for organizations by their inverse effect on employee turnover. However, the two concepts do not refer to the same phenomenon. There exist several points that enable us to differentiate JS from OC (Mowday et al., 1979). First of all, while OC is the key to the employee to determine whether to remain with the organization, JS refers to the

extent to which a job fulfils one's values or the degree to which the job meets a given standard or specific expectations of the employee. Second, OC refers to an individual's attachment to the employing organization in general, including the goals and values, yet JS is more about a specific task environment in which the individual performs his responsibilities. Third, OC develops slowly and remains stable over time yet JS includes immediate reactions to a specific task related to the work. Therefore, an individual could be dissatisfied with a specific part of his/her work (eg. payment) but may still not have an intention of leaving the job. Finally, OC is not affected by day to day events but JS is likely to chance by every day experience of the employee.

As discussed earlier, when principal JS and OC are the interest of a study, it is important to explore the reciprocal relationship among school factors, principal characteristics, and principal JS and OC. School factors and the impact on staff have continuously been an interest of research, exploring what a school is like, and how this may impact the people inside (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009). Over time, researchers look at the atmosphere, culture, resources, social networks of a school (Loukas & Murphy, 2007) to investigate how one aspect or aspects impact people. From a comprehensive perspective, each school has its unique social, financial, managerial and physical factors, which Cohen et al. (2009) synthesized as four dimensions: physical and social-emotional factor, quality of teaching and learning, interpersonal relationship and collaboration, and the structural environment. Prior research has demonstrated that school factors are essential for teacher JS (De Nobile, McCormick, & Hoekman, 2013; Desai, Karahalios, Persuad, & Reker, 2014), teacher commitment (Bogler & Somech, 2004), and student outcomes (Bryk et al., 2010). However, there is no solid evidence to validate how broad aspects of school factors impact principal JS and OC.

3. Current study

In sum, the knowledge base is not yet complete about principal JS and OC, and the antecedents of such attitudes. There are three major limitations. First and foremost, there is very limited research about principal JS and OC generally. Given the importance of school principals for the success of schools, and the increasing principal turnover rate, there is not enough evidence regarding what makes principals feel satisfied with their jobs and committed to their schools. Second, previous research has investigated the antecedents of school principal JS and OC with personal and organizational demographic factors as well as the expectations and needs of the job. However, this research has failed to investigate how a comprehensive model of school factors including school safety, social interaction, resources, organizational structural, professional development opportunity, student composition as well as school and principal characteristics impact principals' JS and OC. Third, a large-scale, international comparative study is missing from the literature, so there is no opportunity to situate countries in an international context to understand the status of principal JS and OC as well as what makes principals more satisfied and committed in different contexts. Outside the educational arena, a comparative study done by Karin Andreassi, Lawter, Brockerhoff, and Rutigliano (2014) found regional patterns for JS. Asian employees were among the least satisfied, followed by European workers. North American employees were more satisfied but still not comparable to their counterparts in South America. Whether this finding translates to school principals in educational settings remains unknown.

Specifically, we have three research questions. First, the researchers intend to compare the current status of principal JS and OC across counties and regions. Second, the researchers aspire to provide empirical evidence regarding how a comprehensive scope of school factors might be related to principals' JS and OC, by controlling the variation between countries, principals and schools. We separate this question into two sub-questions, and were particularly interested in first, how the relationship exists between school factors and principals' JS and OC using international pooled data through a global lens. Second, given TALIS data was actually conducted in each individual country, the researchers are interested in how a comprehensive scope of school factors are related to principals' JS and OC within each participating country. Fig. 2 illustrates such interest in the conceptual framework of the study.

4. Method

4.1. Data sources and samples

The data employed in this study comes from the second round of the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) conducted in 2013. TALIS was administered by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which aims to understand educational systems of the participant countries. The TALIS study focuses on multifaceted issues. While 24 countries participated in TALIS in 2008 during the first round, the number of participants increased to 34 in 2013 for "core" study (OECD, 2014b). TALIS had two surveys for teachers and principals. This study used 6045 principals' survey data at the lower secondary level from 32 countries. TALIS study used a two-stage cluster sampling approach that first sampled 200 schools from each participant country, then randomly sampled 20 teachers from each selected school. Given the feature of the complex survey design, the weight has to be used to adjust for the unequal probability of selection due to the cluster sampling approach and the varied response rates (OECD, 2014b). The principal survey final weight was used for the study. OECD calculated the final weight as the product of a base weight and of one or many adjustment factors; the former is the inverse of the selection probability, the latter compensates for non-response and other random occurrences that could possibly induce biases in the estimates (OECD, 2014b).

The OECD's report (OECD, 2014a) provides a preliminary descriptive analysis by comparing participating countries' principal JS for profession and environment, but the data have not been fully utilized to its capacity when it comes to investigating the nuanced relationship between a comprehensive set of school factors and principal JS and OC.



Fig. 2. Conceptual framework for the study.

4.2. Dependent variables

Principal JS and OC are the dependent variables. In the TALIS data, there is a set of questions probing principals' attitudes toward their job and school on a four-point measurement, namely "strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree" and "strongly agree". Whilst we can rank the levels, we cannot place a "value" to them; we cannot say that " strongly agree " is twice as positive as "agree". Since the items are categorical variables, this study used the Latent Trait Analysis (LTA) to transform these categorical variables into two continuous latent variables in one model with covariance between JS and OC. LTA is form of factor analysis for binary (dichotomous) or ordered-category data (Langeheine & Rost, 2013; Muthén, 1984). LTA tends to be used over Confirmative Factor Analysis if the data set is large and the focus is on the scale and the item character, which is the case for this study (Meade & Lautenschlager, 2004). Fig. 3 might be able to adequately illustrate the connection between theory, measurement and the data.

The construct of the latent variables was specified to handle the complex data appropriately (Langeheine & Rost, 2013; Muthen &



Fig. 3. Connections between theory, measurement and data.

Table 1

VARIABLE	Items	Mean	SD	Min	Max	CFI	TFI	RMSEA
Principal Satisfaction (PSATIS)	TC2G39A The advantages of this profession clearly outweigh the disadvantages TC2G39H I am satisfied with my performance in this school TC2G39I All in all, I am satisfied with my job	-0.019	0.819	- 2.998	1.433	0.977	0.967	0.041
Principal Commitment (PCOMIT)	TC2G39 B If I could decide again, I would still choose this job/ position TC2G39E I enjoy working at this school TC2G39F I would recommend my school as a good place to	-0.020	0.859	- 3.292	1.592			

Model fit index and descriptive statistics for principal job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

work

Muthen, 2015). The TALIS 2013 used a two-stage stratified sampling method that may amplify the estimated error. Therefore, OECD calculated sample weights to compensate for the unequal probability due to stratified sampling and varied response rates, as well of overlapping samples at individual levels (OECD, 2014b). The school level final sampling weight, which was the combination of the base weight and the other weights that need to be adjusted necessarily, was included when fitting the model (Asparouhov, 2005). The overall model fit (see Table 1) was satisfactory according to the rule of thumb (Hu & Bentler, 1999) that the CIF and TFI are both above 0.95, and RMSEA is below 0.08. The latent variables were used for the country-wide comparison.

4.3. Independent variables

The independent variables in this study include social interaction, safety, resources, organizational structure and support, as well as student composition. Items used for latent variable construct have been listed in the appendix.

4.3.1. Staff mutual respect

The variable staff mutual respect was constructed through Latent Trait analysis using four questions. These questions asked about school principals' perceptions regarding whether "school staffs have an open discussion about difficulties; there is mutual respect for colleagues' ideas; there is a culture of sharing success, and relationships between teachers and students are good" on a four-point Likert scale. The internal reliability for pooled samples was above 0.70.

4.3.2. School safety

School safety was constructed through four items asking how often the following activities occur: vandalism and theft; intimidation or verbal abuse among students; physical injury causes by violence among students; and intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff. All questions were answered using a 1–5 measurement where 1 was "never", 2 was "rarely", 3 was "monthly", 4 was "weekly" and 5 was "daily". All the items were reversely-coded when generating factor scores. The internal reliability from the international pooled samples was above or close to 0.70.

4.3.3. Organizational resources

The set of variables measure whether the school was short of human and material resources. The human resource variable is constructed with three items asking whether the school was lack of teachers and staff. The lack of material resource is constructed using five items asking whether the school had the shortage or inadequate instructional supplies, computers, or other materials. All items were measured using 1 for "not at all", 2 for "very little", 3 for "to some extent" and 4 for "a lot"

4.3.4. Organizational structure

This category includes three sets of variables: school autonomy, school management type and funding structure. School autonomy variables were coded using a set of questions asking whether the school leader and teachers had the responsibility for school staffing, budgeting, and instructional practice (OECD, 2014b). The coded variables are dummy variables with 1 for "autonomous", and 0 for "no autonomy." The school management type and funding structure are single items coded as one (versus zero) if the school is a public school and it receives funding from the public sector.

4.3.5. Organizational support

This index was constructed using variables indicating whether principals received professional development either in a professional network, mentoring, research activity, courses, conferences or observational visits. The variable was coded from 1 to 5 to indicate the strength of the professional development.

4.3.6. The school compositional variables

This set include three single variables asking the proportion of students from low social-economic families, minority students, and students with special needs using 5 categories (1 for none, 2 for 1% to 10%, 3 for 11% to 30%, 4 for 31% to 60%, 5 for more than 60%).



Fig. 4. Two-level GSEM for pooled data of all countries.

The control variables include a set of principal demographic information with two school variables as size and school location. The statistics are in Appendix

4.4. Data analysis

To answer the first research question, we first constructed latent variables for both JS and OC, thereafter, we applied ANOVA to compare the extent of principals' JS and OC across countries and continents.

4.4.1. Two-level generalized structural equation model

Two answer the second question, a two-level Generalized Structural Equation Model (GSEM) was fitted using the pooled data of all 32 countries. This hierarchical model could appropriately deal with the nested data structure to control effect of the country variation on dependent variables (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). TALIS used a stratified sampling method so the schools selected are dependent to one another within each individual country (OECD, 2014b). GSEM is a multivariate statistical approach that handles multiple dependent variables for the structural relationship with capacity to deal with categorical variables (Bowen & Guo, 2012) that we have as the manifests to measure the JS and OC.

The model is illustrated in Fig. 4. GSEM uses the ordinal logit to link categorical manifests to responding latent variables of JS and OC (Huang, Wang, Chen, & Su, 2013). The structural models investigated how a set of school factors are related to principal JS and OC with the school and principal backgrounds controlled. Principals' JS and OC have been proven to be related (Liu & Printy, 2017). A covariance model using both the JS and OC as dependent variables while simultaneously controlling for the covariance is more appropriate for this study. In addition, the two-level model added a country-level measurements of both JS and OC in order to include country-level variance in the model that might impact JS and OC (De La Torre & Douglas, 2004; Muthén, 1984; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002)

4.4.2. Generalized structural equation model for the individual country

To answer the third research question to examine how school factors are related to principals' JS and OC in each country. We



Fig. 5. GSEM for Each Individual Country.

Table 2 ANOVA Result for principals' satisfaction and commitment comparison (32 countries).

		Job Satisfaction			Organizational Co	ommitment	
Country	Ν	mean	sd	se(mean)	mean	sd	se(mean)
MEX	186	0.615	0.723	0.053	0.605	0.662	0.049
AUS	109	0.397	0.752	0.072	0.439	0.721	0.069
CHL	148	0.375	0.844	0.069	0.337	0.828	0.068
MYS	145	0.372	0.833	0.069	0.296	0.687	0.057
ISR	181	0.360	0.843	0.063	0.330	0.793	0.059
SGP	142	0.33	0.855	0.072	0.301	0.782	0.066
DNK	123	0.32	0.757	0.068	0.352	0.716	0.065
CAB	173	0.292	0.833	0.063	0.115	0.829	0.063
ESP	192	0.175	0.883	0.064	0.169	0.856	0.062
ROU	195	0.126	0.840	0.060	-0.046	0.814	0.058
ENG	150	0.124	0.917	0.075	0.150	0.918	0.075
USA	98	0.113	0.840	0.085	0.185	0.820	0.083
PRT	175	0.086	0.749	0.057	0.147	0.748	0.057
AAD	128	0.024	0.977	0.086	-0.033	0.919	0.081
NOR	106	0.023	0.730	0.071	0.072	0.72	0.07
BRA	1050	-0.021	0.889	0.027	-0.065	0.831	0.026
KOR	162	-0.038	0.991	0.078	-0.063	0.866	0.068
FIN	146	-0.057	0.804	0.067	0.024	0.786	0.065
BFL	151	-0.074	0.795	0.065	-0.045	0.801	0.065
NLD	115	-0.111	0.790	0.074	0.010	0.734	0.068
POL	187	-0.183	0.747	0.055	-0.155	0.724	0.053
SVK	186	-0.209	0.685	0.050	-0.192	0.712	0.052
CZE	220	-0.218	0.699	0.047	-0.137	0.707	0.048
SWE	170	-0.229	0.778	0.060	-0.183	0.807	0.062
SRB	185	-0.242	0.792	0.058	-0.300	0.800	0.059
HRV	196	-0.257	0.781	0.056	-0.284	0.745	0.053
BGR	197	-0.260	0.801	0.057	-0.307	0.785	0.056
FRA	173	-0.267	0.811	0.062	-0.159	0.767	0.058
ITA	194	-0.282	0.799	0.057	-0.179	0.759	0.054
LVA	110	-0.282	0.664	0.063	-0.290	0.666	0.064
EST	195	-0.297	0.716	0.051	-0.155	0.684	0.049
JPN	192	-0.733	0.806	0.058	-0.645	0.754	0.054
Total	6080	-0.02	0.859	0.011	-0.019	0.819	0.011
One-way ANOVA		$F = 21.06^{***}$			$F = 19.21^{***}$		

Note. *** P < 0.001.

applied single-level Generalized Structural Equation Modeling (GSEM) for each country (Fig. 5).

5. Findings

5.1. The variation of principals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Our first interest was to compare principals' JS and OC across participant countries. The ANOVA result indicated that there is a significant difference for principals' JS (F=21.06***) and OC (F=19.21***) across countries. On average, principals in Mexico, Australia, Chile, Israel, Malaysia, Singapore, and Denmark reported higher level of JS and OC. On the other hand, principals in Italy, Japan, Latvia, Estonia, France, Bulgaria, Croatia, and Serbia exhibited the lower level of JS and OC.

Table 3 Principals' satisfaction and commitment across five continents.

		Job Satisfactio	n		Organizational	Commitment	
Continent	Ν	mean	sd	se(mean)	mean	sd	se(mean)
Oceania	109	0.397	0.752	0.072	0.439	0.721	0.069
North America	271	0.227	0.838	0.051	0.141	0.825	0.05
South America	1384	0.107	0.894	0.024	0.068	0.846	0.023
Asia	950	0.023	0.972	0.032	0.008	0.877	0.028
Europe	3366	-0.117	0.798	0.014	-0.09	0.783	0.013
Total	6080	-0.02	0.859	0.011	-0.019	0.819	0.011

Table 4

-

Two-Level GSEM Results.

	PRINCIPAL JOB SATISFACTION	PRINCIPAL ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
Independent Variable		
Mutual respect and Collaboration	0.418***	0.286***
Collaboration	(0.014)	(0.014)
Safety	0.108**	0.114**
bullety	(0.013)	(0.013)
Lack humanresource	-0.165***	-0.160***
Lack_Inumanresource	-0.105	-0.100
Tools motorial	(0.010)	(0.010)
Lack_material	0.062	0.053
A	(0.023)	(0.024)
Autonomy_stan	0.065	0.072
	(0.067)	(0.0/2)
Autonomy_budget	-0.082	-0.085
	(0.072)	(0.070)
Autonomy_instructional policy	-0.065	-0.064
	(0.054)	(0.056)
Public	-0.033	-0.056
	(0.069)	(0.067)
Publicfund	-0.106^{***}	-0.116^{***}
	(0.062)	(0.062)
PD	0.009	0.024
	(0.027)	(0.027)
Minority	-0.054	-0.037
	(0.028)	(0.027)
SPED	0.034	0.034
	(0.045)	(0.044)
LowSES	0.074*	0.103**
	(0.023)	(0.022)
Controlled Variables		a a=a*
Location	0.064	0.078
	(0.021)	(0.021)
Size	0.121	0.121
	(0.000)	(0.000)
Gender	0.017	0.045
	(0.051)	(0.053)
Age	-0.014	0.027
	(0.004)	(0.004)
Degree	0.023	0.026
	(0.102)	(0.110)
Experience	0.122***	0.115***
	(0.004)	(0.004)
Tenured	0.039	0.049
	(0.122)	(0.120)
	(0.309)	(0.308)
Variance		
variance	0.040*	
var(cnuy)	(0,020)	
VOT(O DE ATIE)	0.517***	
val(e.roA110)	0.01/	
	(U.U31) 0.527***	
var(e.PCOIVII1)	0.52/	
	(0.024)	
cov(e.PCOMITE.PSATIS)	0.489	
	(0.026)	
N	4879	

Note: Standardized beta coefficients, Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 2 displays that there is a substantial difference in principals' JS and OC across the five continents. On average, the highest level of JS and OC is among principals in Oceania. Oceania is followed by North America and South America. The lowest level of JS and OC are found among European and Asian principals (Table 3).

5.2. Two-Level generalized structural equation model results for pooled data

We report the standardized coefficient, so the effect size is comparable as small(.1), medium(.3) or large (.5) (Jacob Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). The results of the two-level GSEM in Table 4 indicated there was a significantly positive relationship

between principal JS and staff mutual respect ($\beta = 0.418^{***}$), school safety ($\beta = 0.108^{**}$), and the proportion of low income students ($\beta = 0.074^{*}$), yet negative association with a school's lack of human resources ($\beta = -0.165^{***}$), school autonomy in budgeting ($\beta = -0.082^{**}$), school autonomy in instructional policy ($\beta = -0.065^{*}$), and receiving more than 50% public funding ($\beta = -0.106^{***}$).

There is a significantly positive relationship between principal commitment and staff mutual respect ($\beta = 0.286^{***}$), safety ($\beta = 0.114^{*}$) and the proportion of low-income students ($\beta = 0.103^{**}$). On the other hand, there was a significantly negative correlation between principal OC and a school's lack of human resources ($\beta = -0.160^{*}$), school autonomy in budgeting ($\beta = -0.085^{**}$), school autonomy in instructional policy ($\beta = -0.064^{*}$) and public funding ($\beta = -0.116^{***}$). In addition, the one demographic factor that was positively associated with a principal's JS and OC is the principal's experience.

5.3. Results of generalized structure equation model for each country

5.3.1. Influential factors of principals' job satisfaction

This section reveals how school factors impact principals' JS and OC within different countries. Resules are included in Table 5. First of all, the most important finding is that there is a significantly positive correlation between principals' perceived JS and their perception of staff mutual respect of all participating countries in TALIS 2013. The effect size ranges from medium to high 0.268 to 0.573.

In addition, the result showed that school safety was an influential factor of principals' JS in countries including the United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi) ($\beta = 0.233^{**}$), Brazil ($\beta = 0.168^{**}$), Denmark ($\beta = 0.258^{**}$), France ($\beta = 0.201^{*}$), Japan ($\beta = 0.206^{***}$), Slovak ($\beta = 0.166^{**}$), and the US ($\beta = 0.300^{**}$). This implies that principals' JS declines with an increase in school delinquency and violence in these countries.

As for school resources, a school's lack of human resources was negatively related to JS in Australia ($\beta = -0.372^{**}$), Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = -0.177^{**}$), Canada (Alberta) ($\beta = -0.134^{*}$), Chile ($\beta = -0.204^{*}$), England ($\beta = -.411^{***}$), and the US ($\beta = -0.343^{**}$). A lack of material resources was a negative factor in Czech ($\beta = -0.122^{*}$), Serbia ($\beta = -0.225$), Slovak ($\beta = 0.190^{***}$), and Sweden ($\beta = 0.187^{*}$), but it was positively associated with principal JS in the US ($\beta = 0.271^{**}$).

In addition, results indicated that school autonomy in staffing was positively related to principals' JS in Bulgaria ($\beta = 0.189^{**}$), Japan ($\beta = 0.403^{***}$), Romania ($\beta = 0.067^{***}$) and the US ($\beta = 0.245^{**}$), but was a negative indicator in England ($\beta = -162^{*}$). School autonomy in budgeting was positively associated with principals' JS in Bulgaria ($\beta = 0.169^{**}$), while it was a negative factor in Canada (Alberta) ($\beta = -0.176^{*}$), Singapore ($\beta = -0.122^{*}$), and Sweden ($\beta = -0.148^{*}$). Finally, school autonomy in instructional policies was negatively related to principals' JS in the United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi) ($\beta = -0.174^{*}$), Czech ($\beta = -0.139^{*}$), and the US ($\beta = -0.267^{***}$), but it was positively related to JS in Latvia ($\beta = 0.193^{*}$) and Sweden ($\beta = 0.238^{**}$). In addition, principals in public schools were more satisfied in Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = 0.156^{*}$) and Japan ($\beta = 0.363^{***}$), but less satisfied in Bulgaria ($\beta = -0.132^{***}$). With regard to the school funding structure, publicly-funded schools tended to have more satisfied principals in Singapore ($\beta = 0.076^{***}$) but less satisfied principals in France ($\beta = -0.199^{*}$) and Poland ($\beta = -0.103^{*}$). The professional training was a significant indicator for principal JS only in Sweden ($\beta = 0.248^{*}$).

With regard to student composition, the proportion of minority students was negatively related to principal JS in Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = -0.316^{**}$), Spain ($\beta = -0.283^{**}$), and Portugal ($\beta = -0.201^{*}$), but positively associated with principal JS in Norway ($\beta = 0.345^{***}$). The percentage of special-need students was negative in Croatia ($\beta = -0.173^{*}$), but positive in Czech ($\beta = 0.204^{**}$), Italy ($\beta = 0.177^{*}$), Mexico ($\beta = 0.145^{*}$), and Poland ($\beta = .144^{*}$). Lastly, the proportion of low socioeconomic students was positively related to JS in Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = 0.310^{**}$); Canada (Alberta) ($\beta = 0.186^{*}$), Chili ($\beta = 0.291^{*}$), and Korea ($\beta = 0.163^{*}$). Two countries had a negative relationship: Italy ($\beta = -0.221^{*}$) and Norway ($\beta = -0.404^{***}$).

5.3.2. Factors influencing principals' organizational commitment

This section reports results how school factors are related to principals' OC. Resultes are inlcuded in Table 6. Again, the most consistent and important finding is that there is a positive and significant relationship between staff mutual respect and principals' OC in 30 countries with an effect size ranging from 0.156 to 0.483. The only two exceptions to this trend are Sweden and the US.

The second most important result indicated that school safety is an influential factor for principals' OC in the United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi) ($\beta = 0.257^{***}$), Brazil ($\beta = 0.125^{*}$), Denmark ($\beta = 0.190^{*}$), Finland ($\beta = 0.214^{*}$), Japan ($\beta = 0.204^{**}$), Slovak ($\beta = 0.184^{**}$), and the US ($\beta = 0.337^{**}$).

With regards to school resources, a school's lack of human resources was negatively related to OC in Australia ($\beta = -0.379^{**}$), Canada (Alberta) ($\beta = -0.195^{**}$), England ($\beta = -0.435^{***}$), Finland ($\beta = -0.155^{**}$), Italy ($\beta = -0.212^{**}$), Singapore ($\beta = -0.176^{**}$), and the US ($\beta = -0.341^{***}$). The principal' OC was positively related to a school's lack of material resources in the US ($\beta = 0.307^{***}$) and Japan ($\beta = 0.144^{**}$), but the lack of material resources was negatively associated with principal OC in the United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi) ($\beta = -0.225^{***}$), Mexico ($\beta = -0.228^{**}$), Serbia ($\beta = -0.282^{***}$), Slovak ($\beta = -0.212^{***}$), and Sweden ($\beta = -0.210^{**}$).

Other key variables are school autonomy. The results indicated that school autonomy in staffing is positively related to commitment in Belgium ($\beta = 0.173^*$), Japan ($\beta = 0.404^{***}$), Romania ($\beta = 0.075^{***}$), and the US ($\beta = 0.253^*$). However, the relationship was negative in England ($\beta = -0.193^*$) and Malaysia ($\beta = -0.125^{***}$). School autonomy in budgeting was positively associated with principals' OC in Bulgaria ($\beta = 0.194^{**}$) and Italy ($\beta = 0.228^*$), but there was a negative association in Canada ($\beta = -0.247^{**}$), Poland ($\beta = -0.176^*$), Singapore ($\beta = -0.130^*$), and Sweden ($\beta = -0.171^*$). Finally, the correlation between school autonomy in instruction and principals' OC was positive in Netherlands ($\beta = 0.229^*$) and Sweden ($\beta = 0.221^{**}$). However,

Table 5 Influential 1	factors for principal j	job satisfaction.								
	Social Interaction	Physical Safety	Resources		Organizational Str	ucture				Organizational
	Mutual respect and Collaboration	Safety	Lack_Humanresou- rce	Lack_material	Autonomy_staff	Autonomy_budget	Autonomy_instruc- tion	Public	Publicfund	Indque
AAD	0.328***	0.233***	0.168	-0.148	0.169	0.059	-0.174^{*}	0.229	-0.092	0.063
AUS	0.507	-0.275*	-0.372	-0.011	0.109	0.046	0.015	0.045	-0.079	- 0.075
BFL	0.533	0.016	-0.177^{**}	0.041	0.139	0.058	-0.040	0.156^{*}	0.000	0.060
BGR	0.503	-0.029	-0.036	-0.114	0.189**	0.169**	0.044	-0.132^{***}	0.000	0.101
BRA	0.472	0.168	-0.052	0.005	0.034	0.065	-0.118	0.125	-0.128	0.014
CAB	0.393	0.150	-0.134^{*}	-0.074	-0.076	-0.176^{*}	-0.020	0.007	-0.076	0.079
CHL	0.474***	0.188	-0.204^{*}	-0.009	-0.064	0.069	0.020	0.095	0.032	-0.082
CZE	0.334***	0.123	-0.141	-0.122^{*}	0.025	-0.050	-0.139^{*}	-0.014	-0.049	0.063
DNK	0.470	0.258	-0.003	0.091	-0.015	-0.150	0.100	-0.032	0.000	0.081
ENG	0.360	-0.010	-0.411^{***}	-0.028	-0.162^{*}	0.089	-0.016	-0.109	0.043	- 0.009
ESP	0.517***	0.038	-0.122	0.053	0.018	-0.043	0.120	0.128	0.057	0.009
EST	0.486***	0.071	-0.102	-0.012	-0.009	0.055	-0.053	0.046	0.072	0.078
FIN	0.356	0.139	-0.129	-0.091	-0.091	0.003	0.100	0.014	0.053	-0.006
FRA	0.375	0.201*	-0.065	-0.133	0.026	0.000	0.047	0.085	-0.199	-0.015
HRV	0.546	0.089	-0.000	0.014	0.020	0.031	-0.010	-0.136	-0.049	0.052
ISR	0.509	0.096	0.076	-0.141	-0.043	-0.028	0.004	0.078	-0.107	0.109
ITA	0.326	0.069	-0.141	-0.082	0.049	0.132	0.016	0.107	0.040	0.029
Ndſ	0.501	0.206	-0.006	0.124	0.403	-0.174	0.076	0.363	-0.088	0.102
KOR	0.393	0.145	-0.094	-0.035	0.047	0.053	-0.056	0.116	0.002	0.013
LVA	0.316	0.081	-0.111	0.086	0.009	0.121	0.193^{*}	-0.144	-0.129	0.226
MEX	0.521	0.108	0.081	-0.136	0.255	0.008	-0.066	0.313	-0.058	0.149
MYS	0.548	0.015	-0.069	0.050	- 0.069	-0.022	0.057	0.000	-0.039	-0.032
NLD	0.573	0.043	-0.019	0.014	0.015	0.026	0.115	-0.152	0.000	0.137
NOR	0.558	-0.016	-0.068	0.181	-0.059	0.078	0.153	0.110	0.072	0.087
POL	0.469	0.039	0.010	-0.067	-0.077	-0.107	0.054	0.058	-0.103	-0.122
PRT	0.361	0.193	-0.093	0.087	-0.072	-0.064	-0.110	0.115	0.128	-0.058
ROU	0.555	0.044	0.129	-0.060	0.067	0.069	0.027	0.000	-0.071	0.021
SGP	0.428	0.056	-0.154	-0.021	-0.086	-0.122	-0.070	0.000	0.076	-0.026
SKB	0.455 0.960	0.150	-0.075	-0.10	-0.040	- 0.062	- 0.076	0.000	0.000	0.090
SWF	0.267	0.100	C /0.0-	-0.187	0.030	-0.148	0.738	-0.152	0000	0.1.00
NSA	0.314***	0.300**	-0.343**	0.271**	0.245***	-0.124	-0.267	-0.094	0.106	0.015
	Student Composi	tion	Sch	ool Characteristics	Princi	pal Characteristics				
	Minority	SPED	LowSES	ation Size	Gende	r Age	Education	Experience	Tenured	Sample Size
AAD	0.024	- 0.060	0.003 - 0	0.315 0.315	0.311	.126	0.001	- 0.087	-0.432	109
AUS	0.180	0.032	-0.196 -0	.023 -0.0	58 0.010	-0.258	0.075	0.145	1.009	100
BFL	-0.316	0.028	0.310** 0.0	68 0.406	0.006	0.111	0.005	- 0.051	-0.769	119
BGR	-0.080	0.086	-0.029 -0	.008 0.28	l*** – 0.01	7 -0.051	0.142^{**}	-0.069	0.000	141
BRA	-0.005	0.037	0.022 0.0	51 0.116	0.054	0.143	-0.049	-0.025	0.114	530
CAB	0.001	-0.087	0.186* 0.0	88 0.081	0.045	0.227^{*}	-0.001	0.182^*	0.103	158
CHL	-0.009	0.046	0.291 [*] 0.1	86 0.101	-0.05	33 0.066	0.114	-0.013	-0.181	105
									(conti	nued on next page)

Y. Liu, M.S. Bellibas

	Student Composit	tion		School Characteri	stics	Principal Characte	eristics				
	Minority	SPED	LowSES	Location	Size	Gender	Age	Education	Experience	Tenured	Sample Size
CZE	0.033	0.204**	0.067	0.034	0.076	0.043	-0.073	-0.098	0.083	-0.268	210
DNK	0.034	-0.050	0.041	-0.025	-0.044	0.106	-0.010	0.000	0.080	0.000	104
ENG	0.117	0.011	-0.018	0.009	-0.125	-0.134	-0.122	0.147***	0.086	-0.956^{*}	135
ESP	-0.283**	0.084	-0.054	0.087	-0.026	0.054	-0.143	0.050	0.271^{**}	-0.020	178
EST	-0.011	-0.039	-0.044	0.165^{*}	0.038	0.117	0.080	-0.016	0.024	0.169	189
FIN	0.012	-0.080	-0.024	0.036	0.094	-0.004	0.106	-0.026	0.026	0.505^{*}	139
FRA	0.091	0.063	0.029	-0.007	0.094	-0.138	0.123	-0.136^{*}	-0.066	0.000	158
HRV	-0.053	-0.173^{*}	0.095	-0.065	0.099	0.108	0.037	0.201^{*}	0.125	0.000	150
ISR	-0.012	0.072	-0.073	0.020	0.103	-0.033	0.037	0.049	0.100	1.449^{***}	149
ITA	-0.000	0.177^{*}	-0.221^{*}	-0.021	0.103	0.171^{*}	0.214^{*}	-0.117	0.005	0.000	163
Ndſ	-0.045	-0.015	-0.044	0.082	0.029	0.021	-0.104	-0.140^{***}	0.156	0.000	184
KOR	-0.040	-0.042	0.163^{*}	0.002	- 0.006	0.042	0.151^{*}	0.058	-0.082	0.000	150
LVA	0.164	0.170	-0.090	-0.086	0.191	-0.126	0.186	0.000	-0.175	0.188	102
MEX	-0.050	0.145^{*}	0.073	0.080	-0.049	0.063	-0.075	0.041	0.035	0.104	138
MYS	-0.105	0.138	0.025	0.113	-0.101	-0.134	0.030	0.000	0.121	0.000	128
NLD	0.068	0.033	0.000	-0.167^{*}	-0.032	0.094	0.077	-0.130^{*}	-0.047	-1.103^{*}	113
NOR	0.345***	0.032	-0.404^{***}	0.162	0.009	-0.065	-0.052	0.000	0.037	-0.090	93
POL	-0.040	0.144*	-0.165	0.038	0.131*	0.169^{*}	0.015	0.038*	0.057	-0.031	158
PRT	-0.201*	0.097	-0.120	0.045	-0.168	-0.016	-0.178	0.088	0.205^{*}	0.805	116
ROU	-0.049	-0.023	-0.019	0.068	0.110	0.128^{*}	0.119	-0.072	0.083	0.274^{**}	184
SGP	-0.121	-0.019	0.042	0.000	0.120^{*}	-0.055	0.015	0.158^{*}	0.086	0.000	138
SRB	-0.011	-0.042	0.128	-0.053	0.222^{*}	-0.077	0.030	-0.195	0.012	0.000	137
SVK	-0.002	-0.030	0.050	-0.046	0.165	0.217	-0.188	0.066	0.391	-0.071	168
SWE	-0.157	0.007	0.116	0.058	0.161	0.119	0.044	-0.041	-0.095	0.429	134
USA	-0.086	0.014	-0.045	0.178	0.174^{*}	-0.017	-0.071	0.079	0.212^{**}	-0.386	98
Note: Standard:	ized beta coefficie	ents. Standard erro	ors in parenthese	S.							
$^{*} p < 0.05.$		×	4								
$^{**} p < 0.01.$											
^{***} p < 0.00)1 .										

12

	Social Interaction	Physical Safety	Resources		Organizational	Structure				Organizational
	Mutual respect and Collaboration	Safety	Lack_Human resource	Lack_material	Autonomy_staf	f Autonomy_budge	et Autonomy_instruc- tion	Public	Publicfund	PD
AAD	0.222**	0.257***	0.249**	-0.225**	0.134	0.089	-0.186^{*}	0.227	-0.129	0.058
AUS	0.368	-0.152	-0.379	- 0.021	0.110	0.127	- 0.060	0.164	-0.042	-0.029
BFL	0.346	0.080	-0.094	0.057	0.173^{*}	0.073	- 0.090	0.074	0.000	0.102
BGR	0.314**	-0.018	-0.080	-0.117	0.124	0.194**	0.066	-0.176^{***}	0.000	0.126
BRA	0.391	0.125^{*}	-0.069	-0.040	0.034	0.196	-0.158	0.119	- 0.085	0.025
CAB	0.242^{*}	0.131	-0.195	-0.052	-0.115	-0.247	-0.062	-0.083	-0.087	0.073
CHL	0.412***	0.142	-0.173^{*}	- 0.099	-0.093	0.092	0.081	0.131	0.044	-0.111
CZE	0.176*	0.080	-0.124	-0.135	0.057	-0.086	-0.158^{*}	-0.011	-0.059	0.097
DNK	0.334***	0.190^{*}	-0.010	0.029	-0.004	-0.161	0.149	-0.019	0.000	0.037
ENG	0.177^{*}	-0.061	-0.435	-0.032	-0.193*	0.068	0.035	-0.102	0.027	-0.034
ESP	0.375***	0.160	-0.101	0.078	0.056	-0.084	0.111	0.217	0.048	0.025
EST	0.369	0.077	-0.093	-0.045	-0.017	0.009	-0.011	0.083	0.022	0.083
FIN	0.219	0.214	-0.155	-0.144	-0.089	0.022	0.084	-0.054	0.060	-0.014
FRA	0.245	0.171	-0.064	- 0.096	0.005	0.000	0.044	0.019	-0.156	-0.035
HRV	0.466	0.122	0.030	-0.004	0.002	-0.003	0.024	-0.156	-0.085	0.074
ISR	0.291	0.134	0.021	-0.110	-0.038	0.061	- 0.019	0.038	-0.060	0.104
ITA	0.156	0.115	-0.212	-0.080	0.049	0.228^{*}	0.034	0.189	0.060	0.019
Ndſ	0.383	0.204	0.071	0.144	0.404	-0.173	0.075	0.325	-0.058	0.143
KOR	0.325	0.143	-0.017	-0.075	0.027	0.054	-0.073	0.165	0.028	0.052
LVA	0.193	-0.003	-0.166	0.157	-0.030	0.162	0.114	-0.126	-0.186	0.227
MEX	0.378	0.124	0.089	-0.228	0.220	0.030	0.017	0.432	-0.169	0.159
MYS	0.513	0.043	0.000	0.036	-0.125	-0.042	0.067	0.000	-0.042	-0.022
NLD	0.439	-0.061	-0.095	0.076	-0.039	-0.031	0.229	-0.153	0.000	0.112
NOR	0.439	-0.037	-0.113	0.142	-0.042	0.022	0.128	0.088	0.002	0.095
POL	0.374	0.094	0.015	- 0.062	-0.024	-0.176	0.066	0.035	-0.106	-0.136
PRT	0.258	0.126	-0.081	0.073	-0.090	-0.130	0.028	0.116	0.160	-0.067
ROU	0.483	0.006	0.118	- 0.061	0.075	0.109	- 0.019	0.000	-0.082	0.046
SGP	0.267	0.033	-0.176	-0.023	-0.070	-0.130	- 0.038	0.000	0.092	-0.045
SKB	0.307	161.0	0.008	-0.282	100.0-	-0.110	- 0.14/	0.000	0.014	0.104
SVK	961.U	0.184	-0.0/3	7 TZ O	- 0.03/	0.048	- 0.0/2	0.033 0.200*	- 0.069	0.032
JVE LISA	0.147	0.337	- 0.044 - 0.341	0.307	0.253	-0.115	-0.270	-0.119	0.133	0.018
			1 000	0000						
	Student Composi	tion		School Characteristi	ics Pr	incipal Characteristics				
	Minority	SPFD	I OWSES	I ocation	Size	nder Age	Education	Frnerience	Tenured	- Samnle Size
	ATTOTTA	OF ELD	FOMOTO	TOCALIOII	217C		Fuucanon	rypetietice	1 climen	outilitie otec
AAD	0.045	-0.024	-0.033	-0.120	0.341** 0.5	306*** 0.172	0.006	-0.116	-0.032	109
AUS	0.162	0.053	-0.180	-0.041	- 0.027 -	0.031 -0.26	9* 0.079	0.164	0.096	100
BFL	-0.306	0.060	0.355	0.082	0.429 0.0	0.152 0.152	0.033	-0.063	-0.129	119
BGR	-0.090	0.106	0.029	-0.023	0.297 -	0.021 -0.07	1 0.151	0.040	0.000	141
BRA	- 0.007	0.042	0.033	-0.028	0.144 0.0	0.161 0.161	-0.044	-0.026	0.070	530
CHI	-0.120	- 0.140 0 1 20	0.203 0.220	0.128	- 01170 0170	0.015 0.290	0.043	0.134 -0.030	0.024 -0.037	861 105
									(conti	inued on next page)
									,	· O. J

Y. Liu, M.S. Bellibas

(pənu
(conti
e 6
Tabl

CZE DNK ESP	Minority					undersees s					
CZE DNK ENG ESP		SPED	LowSES	Location	Size	Gender	Age	Education	Experience	Tenured	Sample Size
DNK ENG ESP	0.045	0.195*	0.025	0.042	0.045	0.020	- 0.067	-0.021	0.120	-0.081^{*}	210
ENG	0.041	-0.054	-0.019	-0.039	0.007	0.121	0.032	0.000	0.109	0.000	104
ESP	0.056	-0.060	0.053	0.063	-0.152	-0.171	-0.053	0.132	0.081	-0.145^{*}	135
	-0.256	0.096	0.003	0.153	-0.036	0.064	- 0.096	0.041	0.299**	-0.021	178
EST	0.030	-0.129	0.019	0.165	0.075	0.065	0.078	-0.021	0.024	0.036	189
FIN	-0.002	-0.091	-0.014	0.032	0.107	-0.010	0.157	-0.027	0.021	0.143	139
FRA	0.070	0.089	0.094	-0.016	0.135	-0.164	0.171^{*}	-0.097	-0.053	0.000	159
HRV	-0.045	-0.115	0.097	-0.047	0.045	0.049	0.033	0.220	0.083	0.000	150
ISR	-0.104	0.141	-0.061	-0.007	0.121	-0.027	0.054	0.030	0.160	0.175***	149
ПА	0.061	0.217^{*}	-0.189^{*}	-0.057	0.115	0.203^{*}	0.257**	-0.057	0.050	0.000	163
Ndf	0.005	-0.108	-0.062	0.121	0.009	0.039	-0.073	-0.183	0.167	0.000	184
KOR	-0.043	-0.059	0.159	-0.002	0.003	0.036	0.117	0.057	-0.090	0.000	150
LVA	0.120	0.127	-0.088	-0.077	0.147	-0.098	0.231	0.000	-0.161	0.115	102
MEX	-0.029	0.120	0.061	0.095	0.039	0.062	-0.037	0.063	0.007	0.087	138
MYS	-0.142	0.100	0.058	0.123	-0.065	-0.107	0.047	0.000	0.071	0.000	128
NLD	0.003	-0.004	0.007	-0.149	-0.014	0.101	0.185	-0.151^{**}	-0.139	-0.191^{*}	113
NOR	0.355**	-0.057	-0.319^{**}	0.145	-0.005	-0.106	-0.070	0.000	0.038	- 0.006	93
POL	-0.041	0.127	-0.111	0.081	0.141^{*}	0.202^{*}	-0.008	0.009	0.064	-0.030	158
PRT	-0.228^{*}	0.133	-0.169	0.076	-0.197^{*}	0.012	-0.167	0.070	0.176^{*}	0.313	116
ROU	-0.064	0.005	-0.001	-0.025	0.142^{*}	0.119	0.044	-0.074	0.192^{**}	0.133	184
SGP	-0.107	-0.015	0.030	0.000	0.105	-0.059	0.062	0.190	0.028	0.000	138
SRB	-0.080	-0.049	0.209**	-0.047	0.277^{*}	-0.026	0.054	-0.315	0.001	0.000	137
SVK	0.051	0.030	0.096	0.076	0.153	0.250	-0.219^{*}	0.071	0.435	-0.002	168
SWE	0.022	-0.032	0.047	-0.010	0.136	0.129	0.127	0.020	-0.104	0.037	134
NSA	-0.079	-0.021	-0.028	0.205^{*}	0.150	0.064	-0.016	0.082	0.176	-0.115	98

Note: Standardized beta coefficients, Standard errors in parentheses. ${}^*_p \ p \ < \ 0.05.$ ${}^{***}_{**} \ p \ < \ 0.01.$

school autonomy in instructional policies was negatively related to principals' OC in the United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi) ($\beta = -0.186^{\circ}$), Czech ($\beta = -0.158^{\circ}$) and the US ($\beta = -0.270^{\circ*}$).

In addition, principals in public schools were more committed to their schools in Japan ($\beta = 0.325^{**}$) and Mexico ($\beta = 0.432^{*}$), but less committed in Bulgaria ($\beta = -0.176^{***}$) and Sweden ($\beta = -0.200^{*}$). Publicly-funded schools had more committed principals in Singapore ($\beta = 0.092^{***}$) but less committed principals in Mexico ($\beta = -0.169^{*}$) and Poland ($\beta = -0.106^{*}$). Organizational development opportunity was a positive indicator for principal OC in Japan ($\beta = 0.143^{*}$) and Sweden ($\beta = 0.277^{*}$).

When it came to student demographics, the proportion of minority students was a positive factor in Norway ($\beta = 0.355^{**}$), but negatively related to principal OC in Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = -.306^{**}$), Spain ($\beta = -0.256^{**}$) and Portugal ($\beta = -0.228^{**}$). The percentage of special-need students was positively related to principal OC in Czech ($\beta = 0.195^{**}$) and Italy ($\beta = 0.217^{**}$). Lastly, the composition of low social-economic students was positively associated with principals' OC in Belgium (Flanders) ($\beta = 0.355^{**}$); Canada (Alberta) ($\beta = 0.263^{**}$), Chili ($\beta = 0.229^{**}$), and Serbia ($\beta = 0.209^{**}$). Two countries exhibited a negative relationship: Italy ($\beta = -0.189^{**}$) and Norway ($\beta = -0.319^{**}$).

6. Discussion

The present research has the interest in comparing principal JS and OC across countries and continents, and investigating how school factors impact principal JS and OC globally and in each country. School improvement research has indicated that leadership is the second most important school-related factor influencing school success, after teachers (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). The recruitment and retention of effective school principals depend substantially on the extent to which they are satisfied with and committed to their job and schools (Fraser & Brock, 2013).

The findings of the study indicated that compared to their peers in Oceania, South American, North American, European, and Asian principals (especially principals in Japan, Latvia, Italy, France and Estonia) exhibited the lowest JS and/or OC, which is compatible with existing research (Karin Andreassi et al., 2014) finding that Asian employees were the least satisfied.

The results revealed that the most important factor accounting for variation in principal JS and OC is staff mutual respect. The effect is positive and significant in all participant countries for JS and 30/32 countries for OC. Therefore, a principal's JS and OC is associated significantly with the social interactions and the relationship among staff. This suggests the importance of a positive school climate, especially a respectful and collaborative relationship among staff and students, which is consistent with prior research that revealed the same importance of positive social relationships for teachers (De Nobile et al., 2013; Desai et al., 2014).

In several countries or regions, including Abu Dhabi, Brazil, Denmark, Finland, Japan, Slovakia, and the United States, the level of school safety also appeared to be relevant to principals' OC and JS. More specifically, while principals in all countries are more likely to be committed to and satisfied with their job when positive social relationship among staff is evident, principals in these countries are also more likely to be committed to and satisfied with their job when their school is a safe place. This finding emphasizes the importance of what Bryk et al. (2010) addressed in their Chicago Study-that a school has to possess a safe and orderly structure to help build organizational capacity.

As to the other factors investigated in this research, school human resource is a determining factor as the lack of human resource was negatively associated with principals' JS and OC. Such finding is not surprising as human capital is the most important element in building organizational capacity (Dimmock, 2013; Tutt & Williams, 2012) and student achievement (DuFour & Mattos, 2013). In addition, this finding is extended to the positive effect of school autonomy in staffing on JS and OC. The previous evidence (Markow et al., 2013) supported that principals rate a lack of control over school staffing as the main reason for job dissatisfaction. The autonomy for staffing has been viewed by principals as the essential pathway for building strong school human capital (Dimmock, 2012). On the other hand, autonomy in budgeting and instructional policies are less likely to be the positive influences on JS and OC. This indicates that dealing with budgeting, fundraising, and instructional management is challenging for principals.

As to school management type and funding resources, the results are mixed. Principals have higher JS and OC in public and publicly-funded schools in some countries while opposite results were found in other countries. This finding is partially reflected by the challenges and difficulties public school principals might face in different contexts. When linked with the finding of the negative effect of budgeting autonomy, this discussion could be extended to whether sufficient school funding and resources is a key variable for principal attitudes, partially due to the fact that public schools tend to face more funding challenges (Harding & Kershner, 2015; Mestry & Ndhlovu, 2014).

School composition appeared as an important factor predicting principal JS and OC. That is, principals working in schools with a higher proportion of minority students are less likely to be satisfied and committed. Diverse schools are more likely to struggle with underachievement, high teacher turnover (Simon & Johnson, 2015), and disciplinary issues (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). However, it is interesting to note that the proportion of low socioeconomic students is positively related to principals' JS and OC, which suggests further research is needed to explore the emotional status of the principal serving low-income kids. A connection with students and schools, and a high level of normative commitment, might be reasons for them to remain in a disadvantaged school.

7. Conclusion

The principal is an indispensable ingredient for school success. Therefore, principal JS and OC are extremely important in assuring school achievement (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2011; Yousef, 2017). However, there is very limited research evidence regarding the topic. This current study is therefore valuable in that it addresses the gaps by drawing on comparative cross-national data, situating each country in an international context to explore variations in principal JS and OC, and developing a framework of a

comprehensive set of school factors that impact JS and OC.

The present study suggests the existence of significant variations among individual countries and regions. Such evidence is important for the countries struggling with high principal turnover and burnout. More importantly, this research provides evidence about what school factors are related to the low level of satisfaction and commitment. Moving forward from previous research that focuses on working conditions and student populations (Ni, Sun, & Rorrer, 2015; Sun & Ni, 2016), this study added essential components to the analysis and found that social interaction among the staff, school safety, school human resources, and autonomy for staffing are all important factors influencing principal satisfaction and commitment. Among all factors, however, mutual respect appeared to be the most important.

Although researchers (Bellibas & Liu, 2016) generally believe it is imperative for principals to create a school climate in which safety and respect are evident for teachers to be successful, it is evident in the current research that principals themselves benefit from such a positive environment. Considering the current pressure on principals for accountability and achievement, which might cause dissatisfaction and less commitment, it is imperative now that the positive staff interaction, collaboration, school safety and developing strong human capital are crucial for retaining principals.

7.1. Limitations and future research

Though this research takes advantage of large-scale international data and rigorous data analysis, it still carries limitations. First of all, this study adopted a comprehensive model to investigate how wide-ranging school factors impact school principal JS and OC. However, caution needs to be applied when interpreting the results of this study. First of all, the research used self-reported data that could be skewed because respondents may be too embarrassed or concerned to reveal certain details. In addition, the individual biases or feelings of the respondents may affect the results as well (Northrup, 1996). Though the consistency of a positive correlation between JS and OC within each country is a good sign of validity of the data, the limitation of self-reported data should be acknowledged.

Second, TALIS is a large-scale international study that collects data from different contexts. This study has indicated that factors influencing principal JS and OC are generally not consistent across contexts. Though the provision of comparative evidence is a pioneering feature of this study, this study cannot answer why some factors are particularly critical in certain countries and not in others. It will be up to future research to explore why certain factors impact JS and OC differentially in the particular context.

Third, although we have tried to include a wide range of school factors in this analysis, our model still has approximately 50% of the variance in both JS and OC left unexplained, which indicates that principals' attitudes still depend on other factors that are not included in our model.

Furthermore, the correlations described here have an obvious recursive nature. Where the school's physical, social, and managerial environment impacts the principal's JS and OC, the principal's attitude would simultaneously impact how he/she works to build school climate, which is a very important dynamic that we would like to investigate in further research. However, the TALIS survey collects cross-sectional data from principals and teachers every five years, and there have been only two rounds of studies done so far (2008 and 2013). These two surveys have different measures and items investigating the primary interests of this study. Therefore, it is fundamentally difficult to conduct a recursive analysis using a set of longitudinal data to track the trajectory of the mutual effects between principal attitudes and school factors for now, therefore, is recommended for the future study.

Latent Variable	Variables Used from TALIS 2013	Item Wording					
How strongly do you agree or di	isagree with these statemen	ts as applied to this school?					
1 as strongly disagree, 2 as disag	gree, 3 as agree, and 4 as st	trongly agree					
Mutual Respect and	TC2G30C	School staff have an open discussion about difficulties					
Collaboration	TC2G30D	There is mutual respect for colleagues' ideas					
	TC2G30E	There is a culture of sharing success					
	TC2G30F	The relationships between teachers and students are good					
In this school, how often do the following occur?							
1 as "never", 2 as "rarely", 3 as "monthly", 4 as "weekly" and 5 as " daily (These variables have been reversely coded)							
School Safety	TC2G32D	Vandalism and theft					
	TC2G32E	Intimidation or verbal abuse among students (or other forms of					
		non-physical bullying)					
	TC2G32F	Physical injury caused by violence among students					
	TC2G32G	Intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff					
In this school, how often do the 1 as "never", 2 as "rarely", 3 as "r School Safety	TC2G30F following occur? monthly ", 4 as "weekly" an TC2G32D TC2G32E TC2G32F TC2G32G	The relationships between teachers and students are good d 5 as " daily (These variables have been reversely coded) Vandalism and theft Intimidation or verbal abuse among students (or other forms of non-physical bullying) Physical injury caused by violence among students Intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff					

Appendix A. Items used for latent variable construction

In this school's capacity to provide quality instruction currently hindered by any of the following issues 1 for "not at all", 2 for "very little", 3 for " to some extent" and 4 for "a lot"

Lack of human resource	TC2G31A TC2G31B	Shortage of qualified and /or well performing teachers Shortage of teachers with competences in teaching students with special needs
	TC2G31C	Shortage of vocational teachers
Lack of materials	TC2G31D	Shortage of inadequacy of instructional materials
	TC2G31E	Shortage of inadequacy of computer instruction
	TC2G31F	Insufficient internet access
	TC2G31G	Shortage of inadequacy of computer software for instruction
	TC2G31H	Shortage of inadequacy of library materials

Regarding this school, who has a significant responsibility for the following tasks? (As Principals and Teacher were coded as autonomous (1), as external authority was coded as No Autonomy = 0

School autonomy for staffing	TC2G18A 1 -	Appointing or hiring teachers
	TC2G18A 5	
	TC2G18B 1-	Dismissing or suspending teachers from employment
	TC2G18B 5	
School autonomy for budgeting	TC2G18C 1 -	Establishing teachers' starting salaries, including setting pay scales
	TC2G18C 5	
	TC2G18D 1 -	Determining teachers' salary increase
	TC2G18D 5	
	TC2G18E 1 -	Deciding on budget allocations within the school
	TC2G18E 5	
School autonomy for	TC2G18F 1 -	Establishing student disciplinary policies and procedures
instructional policies	TC2G18F 5	
	TC2G18G 1 -	Establishing student assessment policies, including < nationals/
		regional > assessments
	TC2G18G 5	
	TC2G18J 1 -	Determining course content, including < nationals/
		regional > curricula
	TC2G18J 5	
	TC2G18K 1 -	Deciding which courses are offered
	TC2G18K 5	

Appendix B. Descriptive statistics for all variables

	Ν	mean	sd	se(mean)	max	min
Depend Variables						
Principal Jobs satisfaction	6078	-0.020	0.859	0.011	1.592	-3.292
Principal Organizational commitment	6078	-0.019	0.819	0.011	1.433	- 2.998
Independent Variables						
Mutual respect and Collaboration	6065	0.004	0.495	0.006	1.268	-0.813
Safety	6052	0.000	1.803	0.023	3.968	-6.140
Lack_humanresource	6063	0.000	1.816	0.023	4.681	-3.208
Lack_material	6064	0.006	1.184	0.015	2.871	-1.967
Autonomy_staff	5996	0.335	0.472	0.006	1	0
Autonomy_budget	5881	0.206	0.404	0.005	1	0
Autonomy_instruction	5888	0.289	0.453	0.006	1	0
Public	6114	0.858	0.350	0.004	1	0
Public fund	6095	0.869	0.337	0.004	1	0
PD	5684	3.546	.770	.010	5	1
Minority	6001	1.873	1.046	0.014	5	1
SPED	6037	2.154	0.666	0.009	5	1
LowSES	6030	2.838	1.085	0.014	5	1
Control Variables						
Location	6092	3.762	1.431	0.018	6	1
Size	6023	658.524	493.737	6.362	4335	6
Female	6120	0.519	0.500	0.006	1	0

Age	6101	50.582	8.218	0.105	73	23
Degree	6089	2.991	0.301	0.004	4	1
Experiences	5733	8.673	7.186	0.095	45	0
Tenured	6061	0.952	0.214	0.003	1	0

References

Asparouhov, T. (2005). Sampling weights in latent variable modeling. Structural Equation Modeling, 12(3), 411-434.

Aubé, C., Rousseau, V., & Morin, E. M. (2007). Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment: The moderating effect of locus of control and work autonomy. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22(5), 479–495.

Aydogdu, S., & Asikgil, B. (2011). An empirical study of the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. International Review of Management and Marketing, 1(3), 43.

Béteille, T., Kalogrides, D., & Loeb, S. (2012). Stepping stones: Principal career paths and school outcomes. Social Science Research, 41(4), 904-919.

Baker, B. D., Punswick, E., & Belt, C. (2010). School leadership stability, principal moves, and departures: Evidence from Missouri. Educational Administration Quarterly, 46(4), 523–557.

Barry, D. A. (2002). Job satisfaction and leadership style: A study of Michigan high school principals. [Retrieved from http://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/1158]. Bellibas, M. S., & Liu, Y. (2016). The effects of principals' perceived instructional and distributed leadership practices on their perceptions of school climate.

International Journal of Leadership in Education, 1-19 [Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2016.1147608 https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2016.1147608].

Bogler, R., & Somech, A. (2004). Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(3), 277–289.

Bowen, N. K., & Guo, S. (2012). Structural equation modeling. Oxford; New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bryk, A. S., Sebring, P. B., Allensworth, E., Luppescu, S., & Easton, J. Q. (2010). Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Byrd, J. K. (2010). Determining factors that influence high school principal turnover over a five year period. [Retrieved from https://digital.library.unt.edu/ark:/67531/ metadc28476/m2/1/high_res_d/dissertation.pdf].

Campbell, A., Converse, P. E., & Rodgers, W. L. (1976). The quality of American life: Perceptions, evaluations, and satisfactions. Russell Sage Foundation.

Chang, Y., Leach, N., & Anderman, E. M. (2015). The role of perceived autonomy support in principals' affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Social Psychology of Education, 18(2), 315–336. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11218-014-9289-z.

Clifford, M., & Chiang, E. (2016). The great american principal turnover: And how districts can stop the churn. [Retrieved from http://www.realcleareducation.com/ articles/2016/08/25/the_great_american_principal_turnover_1303.html].

Cohen, J., McCabe, L., Michelli, N. M., & Pickeral, T. (2009). School climate: Research, policy, practice, and teacher education. Teachers College Record, 111(1), 180–213.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences. Routledge.

Colquitt, J., Lepine, J. A., & Wesson, M. J. (2011). Organizational behavior: Improving performance and commitment in the workplace. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin. Coomber, B., & Barriball, K. L. (2007). Impact of job satisfaction components on intent to leave and turnover for hospital-based nurses: A review of the research

literature. International Journal of Nursing Studies, 44(2), 297-314.

De La Torre, J., & Douglas, J. A. (2004). Higher-order latent trait models for cognitive diagnosis. Psychometrika, 69(3), 333-353.

De Nobile, J., McCormick, J., & Hoekman, K. (2013). Organizational communication and occupational stress in Australian Catholic primary schools. Journal of Educational Administration, 51(6), 744–767. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JEA-09-2011-0081.

Desai, P., Karahalios, V., Persuad, S., & Reker, K. (2014). Social-emotional learning. *Communique*, 43(1), 14–16.

Dimmock, C. (2012). Leadership, capacity building and school improvement: Concepts, themes and impact. Abingdon, Oxon; New York, NY: Routledge.

Dimmock, C. (2012). School-Based management and school effectiveness. New York, NY: Routledge.

Dou, D., Devos, G., & Valcke, M. (2017). The relationships between school autonomy gap, principal leadership, teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 45(6), 959–977.

DuFour, R., & Mattos, M. (2013). Improve schools? Educational Leadership, 70(7), 34-39.

Dude, D. J. (2012). Organizational commitment of principals: The effects of job autonomy, empowerment, and distributive justice. [Retrieved from http://ir.uiowa.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3233&context=etd].

Eckman, E. W. (2004). Similarities and differences in role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction for female and male high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(3), 366–387. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013161X03257835.

Edwards, K. (1990). The interplay of affect and cognition in attitude formation and change. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59(2), 202.

Farooq, O., Payaud, M., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2014). The impact of corporate social responsibility on organizational commitment: Exploring multiple mediation mechanisms. Journal of Business Ethics, 125(4), 563–580.

Federici, R. A., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2012). Principal self-efficacy: Relations with burnout, job satisfaction and motivation to quit. Social Psychology of Education: An International Journal, 15(3), 295.

Fraser, J., & Brock, B. L. (2013). Catholic school principal job satisfaction: Keys to retention and recruitment. Catholic Education: A Journal of Inquiry and Practice, 9(14), 425–440.

Friedman, B. A., Friedman, M. A., & Markow, D. (2008). Predictors of principals' satisfaction with their schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(5), 598–612. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09578230810895519.

Fuller, E. J., Young, M. D., & Baker, B. (2007). The relationship between principal characteristics, principal turnover, teacher quality, and student achievement. Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

Graham, M. W., & Messner, P. E. (1998). Principals and job satisfaction. International Journal of Educational Management, 12(5), 196–202. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513549810225925.

Gregory, A., Skiba, R. J., & Noguera, P. A. (2010). The achievement gap and the discipline gap two sides of the same coin? *Educational Researcher*, *39*(1), 59–68. Halawah, I. (2005). The relationship between effective communication of high school principal and school climate. *Education*, *126*(2), 334–346.

Harding, S., & Kershner, S. (2015). Counter-recruitment and the campaign to demilitarize public schools. Palgrave Macmillan US: Springer.

Hawkins, D. W., Jr (1998). Predictors of affective organizational commitment among high school principals. [Retrieved from http://theses.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-32298-1310/unrestricted/DISSERTATION.PDF].

Herzberg, F. I. (1966). Work and the nature of man.

Hu, L.t., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling:* A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6(1), 1–55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118.

Huang, H.-Y., Wang, W.-C., Chen, P.-H., & Su, C.-M. (2013). Higher-order item response models for herarchical latent traits. Applied Psychological Measurement, 37(8), 619–637.

Humborstad, S. I. W., & Perry, C. (2011). Employee empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment: An in-depth empirical investigation. Chinese Management Studies, 5(3), 325–344.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. Psychological Bulletin, 127(3), 376.

Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Wanberg, C. R. (2003). Unwrapping the organizational entry process: Disentangling multiple antecedents and their pathways to adjustment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(5), 779.

Karin Andreassi, J., Lawter, L., Brockerhoff, M., & Rutigliano Peter, J. (2014). Cultural impact of human resource practices on job satisfaction: A global study across 48 countries. Cross Cultural Management, 21(1), 55–77.

Langeheine, R., & Rost, J. (2013). Latent trait and latent class models. New York, NY: Springer Science & Business Media.

Leithwood, K. A., & Seashore-Louis, K. (2011). Linking leadership to student learning. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Ltd.

Leithwood, K. A., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). Executive summary: How leadership influences student learning. [Retrieved from http://cehd.umn. edu/CAREI/leadership/ExecutiveSummary.pdf].

Liu, Y., & Printy, S. M. (2017). Distributed leadership and educator attitudes. In T. S. Ransaw, & R. Majors (Eds.). Emerging issues and trends in education. Michigan State University Press.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1297–1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Louis, K. S., Dretzke, B., & Wahlstrom, K. (2010). How does leadership affect student achievement? Results from a national US survey. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 21(3), 315–336.

Louis, K. S., Louis, K. S., Murphy, J., & Murphy, J. (2017). Trust, caring and organizational learning: The leader's role. Journal of Educational Administration, 55(1), 103–126.

- Loukas, A., & Murphy, J. L. (2007). Middle school student perceptions of school climate: Examining protective functions on subsequent adjustment problems. Journal of School Psychology, 45(3), 293–309. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2006.10.001.
- Markow, D., Lara, M., & Helen, L. (2013). The MetLife survey of the American teacher: Challenges for school leadership. [Retrieved from https://www.metlife.com/assets/ cao/foundation/MetLife-Teacher-Survey-2012.pdf].

Maslow, A. H. (1975). Motivation and personality. Harper & Row.

Meade, A. W., & Lautenschlager, G. J. (2004). A comparison of item response theory and confirmatory factor analytic methodologies for establishing measurement equivalence/invariance. Organizational Research Methods, 7(4), 361–388.

Mestry, R., & Ndhlovu, R. (2014). The implications of the national norms and standards for school funding policy on equity in South African public schools. South African Journal of Education, 34(3), 1–11.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61–89. Miller, A. (2009). *Principal turnover, student achievement and teacher retention*. [Retrieved from http://harris.princeton.edu/seminars/pdfs/miller.pdf].

Miller, A. (2013). Principal turnover and student achievement. Economics of Education Review, 36, 60-72.

Moorman, R. H. (1993). The influence of cognitive and affective based job satisfaction measures on the relationship between satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Relations*, 46(6), 759–776.

Morrow, P. C. (2011). Managing organizational commitment: Insights from longitudinal research. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79(1), 18-35.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*(2), 224–247. Muthén, B. (1984). A general structural equation model with dichotomous, ordered categorical, and continuous latent variable indicators. *Psychometrika*, *49*(1), 115–132.

Muthen, L., & Muthen, B. (2015). Mplus user's guide. [Retrieved from https://www.statmodel.com/download/usersguide/MplusUsersGuidev6.pdf].

Ni, Y., Sun, M., & Rorrer, A. (2015). Principal turnover: Upheaval and uncertainty in charter schools? *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 51(3), 409–437.
Northrup, D. A. (1996). *The problem of the self-report in the survey research*Institute For Social Research11 [(3). Retrieved from http://www.math.yorku.ca/ISR/self.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 492–499.

OECD (2014a). TALIS 2013 results: An international perspective on teaching and learning. [Retrieved from http://www.istruzione.it/allegati/2014/OCSE_TALIS_Rapporto_Internazionale_EN.pdf].

OECD (2014b). TALIS 2013 technical report [Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/edu/school/TALIS-technical-report-2013.pdf].

- Palmer, J., Watch, O., & Gibson, B. (2017). Oklahoma schools beset by high principal turnover. [Retrieved from http://kgou.org/post/oklahoma-schools-beset-high-principal-turnover].
- Printy, S. M. (2010). Principals' influence on instructional quality: Insights from US schools. School Leadership & Management, 30(2), 111–126. http://dx.doi.org/10. 1080/13632431003688005.

Raelin, J. A. (1980). A mandated basis of interorganizational relations: The legal-political network. Human Relations, 33(1), 57-68.

- Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Robinson, V. M. J., Lloyd, C. A., & Rowe, K. J. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(5), 635–674. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013161X08321509.

Schechter, C. (2008). Organizational learning mechanisms: The meaning, measure, and implications for school improvement. Educational Administration Quarterly, 44(2), 155–186.

Simon, N. S., & Johnson, S. M. (2015). Teacher turnover in high-poverty schools: What we know and can do. Teachers College Record, 117(3), 1–36.

Sodoma, B., & Else, D. (2009). Job satisfaction of Iowa public school principals. *Rural Educator*, 31(1), 10–18.

Spector, P. E. (1997). Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, cause, and consequences. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 46–56.

Suman, S., & Srivastava, A. K. (2012). Antecedents of organisational commitment across hierarchical levels. Psychology and Developing Societies, 24(1), 61–83.

Sun, M., & Ni, Y. (2016). Work environments and labor markets: Explaining principal turnover gap between charter schools and traditional public schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 52(1), 144–183.

Tutt, R., & Williams, P. (2012). How successful schools work? Thousand Oaks, Calif: London.

Waskiewicz, S. P. (1999). Variables that contribute to job satisfaction of secondary school assistant principals. [Dissertation/Thesis. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi = 10.1.1.4.2672&rep = rep1&type = pdf].

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17(3), 601–617.

Williams, L. J., & Hazer, J. T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent variable structural equation methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(2), 219.

Yousef, D. A. (2017). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and attitudes toward organizational change: A study in the local government. International Journal of Public Administration, 40(1), 77–88.