THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION, AND CASELOAD AND TEACHER RETENTION

by

Corbett Ray Hawks

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

Teacher retention has long been a major issue in the educational sector. In today's schools, effective teachers are a necessity for meeting the fluctuating needs of society. The purpose of this quantitative, correlational, predictive study was to examine the relationship between satisfaction, motivation, and caseload in relation to teacher retention for elementary special education teachers in southwest Virginia. This study incorporates the Three C's of Education theory (Sher, 1983) and the influence of characteristics, conditions, and compensation. Non-experimental research with a correlational design was implemented along with the criterion variable (retention) and the predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload). Participants included 151 elementary special education teachers from six public school districts located in southwest Virginia during the 2015-2016 school year. A multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data collected. Instrumentation used in this study included the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Work Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST) to measure job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload as factors that contribute to the attrition and retention of special education teachers. No significant relationship was found between satisfaction, motivation, and caseload in relation to teacher retention between elementary special education teachers in southwest Virginia.

Keywords: Retention, Motivation, Caseload, Job satisfaction, Attrition, Title I, Self-Contained, Inclusion

Dedication

I would like to genuinely thank my Committee Chair, Dr. Gary Kuhne, Associate Professor at Liberty University, for his unwavering guidance and support throughout every step of this process. His encouragement and feedback have been essential in making this dream of mine a reality. I am also grateful to Dr. Angela Smith, Assistant Professor at Liberty University, for her knowledge and expertise in special education along with her willingness to share all of this with me. I would also like to thank Dr. Mark Crummey, my professional mentor and principal at Roanoke City Schools, for his countless hours of advice and guidance through my career and the dissertation process.

As one of the first members of my family to pursue higher education, I am thankful to my Mom for her love and support of my many academic endeavors. She has always pushed me to achieve more than I thought possible even when times were tough. My Mom has been my biggest cheerleader through my entire life and even more so through the dissertation process. I will forever be grateful for her unconditional love and support of my academic pursuits. I think my wife, Jennifer, for her patience through this process. Your love and care is appreciated!

I would like to thank God for giving me the strength and ability to complete the dissertation process which has been a dream of mine for many years. Proverbs 13:12 says, “Hope deferred makes the heart sick, but a longing fulfilled is a tree of life.” I am very thankful that the Lord has seen fit to fulfill this longing in my life.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Education for Handicapped Children Act (EHA)

Free appropriate Public Education (FAPE)

Individualized Education Program (IEP)

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Limited English Proficient (LEP)

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF)

Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC)

Work Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background

Special education teachers are under a great deal of scrutiny because of the legal implications of their work. Special education teachers are responsible for creating and implementing Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) for the students on their caseload. The IEP is a legal document, and not adhering to that document can have legal implications for the special education teacher and the school system. Each child on a special education teacher's caseload represents an IEP which must be implemented with fidelity. The responsibility of implementation falls primarily to the special education teacher (Cancio, Albrecht, & Johns, 2013).

Cancio et al. (2013) indicated educators who teach students with special needs often endure a high level of teacher stress, a low level of job satisfaction and school commitment, and a lack of administrative support. The results of the study also indicated that teachers who decide to stay in the field of education often are provided opportunities for growth along with job appreciation and trust. Effective special education teachers can be plagued by the legalities associated with their work, which can take time away from other tasks of their job and can lead to a lower sense of job satisfaction.

Special education teachers often work with the students who possess the most significant needs and present more discipline and behavior problems. Modifying or redirecting difficult behaviors with special education students often requires a great deal of time and energy, and special educators can feel as if little progress is occurring. The daily stress of working with these children can wear on even the most experienced and effective educators, which can cause a decrease in the motivation of teachers (Cancio et al., 2013).

Administrative support is another issue when dealing with the discipline and behaviors of special education students (McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008). Positive administrative support for teachers when dealing with these behaviors contributes to job satisfaction; however, lack of administrative support can lead to job dissatisfaction. Schaefer, Long, and Clandinin (2012) conducted a longitudinal study from 1999-2010 regarding novice teacher attrition and retention. Over this period, the authors researched problems associated with attrition such as burnout, support, and salary. However, the study indicated the need to focus on sustaining teachers and creating a positive school landscape. Special education teachers need administrative support to remain in their positions.

Retaining effective teachers will remain a problem within education if current trends continue. According to Daughtrey (2010), 50% of new teachers leave within the first five years. The educational system cannot continue to absorb the cost of recruiting and training new teachers if these new teachers only remain in the profession for less than five years. Teacher retention needs to become a priority of education.

Recruiting teachers with specialized training in special education has been a difficult task. According to Wasburn-Moses (2006), teachers who were not fully certified filled 33,000 special education positions, and 4,000 special education positions remained vacant. Statistics show that finding special education teachers is difficult; however, it is essential to keep these teachers in their special education positions. Retaining certified teachers in the field of special education has become a priority in recent years.

According to Billingsley (2004), 13.2% of special educators leave their positions each year, and 6% completely leave the field of education. In addition, 7% transfer out of special education and into general education classrooms. As early as the 1970s, teacher attrition was

recognized as a major problem affecting the educational system (Ingersoll, 2012). It is estimated that during a given year, 33% of all beginning teachers leave the field for a variety of reasons (Brown &Wynn, 2009; Ingersoll, 2012; McLauren, Smillie, & Smith, 2009; Sass, Flores, Claeys, & Perez, 2012). Reasons beginning teachers cite for leaving the profession include feelings of isolation, lack of support, and failure of schools to implement induction programs (Ingersoll, 2012). Indeed, two common trends in the teaching profession have been the steady increase of new and beginning teachers and escalating attrition rates. As the teaching profession grows to match increasing enrollments, more school districts have failed to provide support for the high number of newly hired teachers, which could include strategies such as mentors, professional collaboration, and peer support. The high incidence of special education teachers transferring into general education suggests this lack of support could be especially impactful for these teachers.

The costs associated with teacher attrition in special education classrooms are particularly high. These costs increase as more positions need to be filled, often with increasingly underqualified teachers who require additional support and training to develop instructional competency in a special needs classroom. The annual projected cost of teacher attrition in the United States is $2.2 billion, with an upward estimate of $4.9 billion when teacher transfers are considered (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2012). However, the more substantial costs are a result of underqualified teachers in the classroom and high student to teacher ratios. The outcomes of these conditions include inferior academic achievement and students who are underprepared for professional or academic life after graduation.

One theory that relates to the conditions affecting teacher retention rates is the Three C's of Education (Sher, 1983). The three C's in this case are (a) teacher characteristics, (b)

conditions, and (c) compensation. Teacher characteristics include background, training, pre-service, and personal experience. In many ways, a teacher's characteristics can determine the likelihood of retention and ultimately a lasting career in the teaching profession. If a teacher does not acquire the pre-service training required for a position, he or she will not be likely to stay in that position. This is partially because the teacher is not properly prepared for the demands of the position, which could lead to frustration and a lack of student progress. S. Johnson (2004) discussed this theory and noted a positive relationship existed between pre-service training and levels of competency.

A key teacher characteristic is the competency or ability of the teacher. Research shows that competency is a major part of reducing attrition. Teachers who teach in classrooms in which student learning is poor and instruction is inefficient can easily be frustrated with the pacing necessary to follow academic standards of learning. This frustration is often a precursor to leaving the profession, especially in an academic setting (Stempien & Loeb, 2002).

According to Sher (1983), teacher conditions are an integral component of job satisfaction and teacher retention. This includes the location of the job, the school environment, cultural attitudes, community involvement, and social opportunities (Sher, 1983). This theory proposes that the conditions of the job and the overall school environment often have either a negative or positive effect on teacher retention, which helps determine if beginning teachers will remain at the school for an extended period. Similar cultural attitudes of the teacher toward community involvement and support also affect teacher retention. For example, when teachers believe they are receiving the support of parents and administrators, these teachers are more likely to remain in their current positions. Consequently, school administrators should work to

develop a unified learning community wherein their teachers can thrive. The absence of this type of professional network of support is associated with negative outcomes (Sher, 1983).

Teacher compensation is the final piece of Sher's (1983) theory. Teacher compensation can be defined as salary and any other benefits provided to the teacher. Just as is the case with any profession, teachers desire to feel justly compensated for the work they are performing on a daily basis. According to Henke, Choy, Chen, Geis, and Alt (1997), teacher compensation is closely associated with determinations of job satisfaction, and ultimately, attrition.

Compensation is often described as psychic or emotional benefits from helping students achieve in the classroom. This is especially true of teachers working with students who have special needs or who need additional instructional attention. However, the absence of competitive pay rates can undermine job satisfaction. Kirby and Grissmer (1993) reinforced this theory with research on teacher salary and the positive relationship with teacher retention. Kirby and Grissmer found that adequate compensation positively affected teacher retention rates.

Problem Statement

Research indicates that special education teacher retention rates are a significant problem in the education. Although various researchers have studied teacher attrition, a gap in the literature exits on what satisfies and motivates a special education teacher to stay in the field (Boeddeker, 2010). Nance and Calabrese (2011) recommended future studies be conducted on the high attrition rate among special education teachers and how to keep more certified special education teachers in the classroom. Sheldrake (2013) noted, "More in depth research should be conducted on the impact of a combination of perceived causes of attrition and the implementation of perceived interventions to increase retention rates" (p. 121).

As special education teachers make decisions regarding their future as educators, many professionals point to factors such as motivation, job satisfaction, and a high number of students on their caseloads (Major, 2012). These factors heavily contribute to the teacher's decision to remain in education or not. Billingsley (2007) discussed the areas that contribute to caseload overload. Caseload overload is another factor affecting special education teacher retention. Lack of motivation and job satisfaction are key factors when discussing retention among special education teachers.

Major (2012) stated, "Special education teachers, especially those that teach students with behavioral/emotional challenges, have high attrition rates stemming from stress, job dissatisfaction, and low motivation" (p. 1). The problem is a gap in the literature exists concerning what factors best predict special education teachers to stay teaching (Boeddeker, 2010). The intent of the proposed quantitative, predictive, correlational study is to survey elementary special education teachers from public school districts in southwest Virginia using quantitative methodology with multiple regression.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, predictive, correlational study is to examine the relationship between satisfaction, motivation, and caseload in relation to teacher retention between elementary special education teachers in southwest Virginia. The study included six school districts with 51 public elementary schools with a sample size of 151 participants. The criterion variable was retention, defined as maintaining teachers within the school or field of education (Murnane & Steele, 2007). The predictor variables were satisfaction, motivation, and caseload. Although factors such as burnout, passion, and transfer are important in considering the welfare of disabled students in the classroom, teacher retention was the primary concern of

administrators and researchers. Retention has been identified as a top priority of school administrators in the United States. High retention rates are associated with several negative outcomes.

Each of the predictor variables has a close correlation with the criterion variable. Along with additional factors, job satisfaction is associated with productive work environments and professional collaboration (Leko & Smith, 2010). Mehta (2012) defined job satisfaction as "the perception of the person towards his or her job, job-related activities, and environment. It is a combination of psychological and emotional experiences at work" (Mehta, 2012, p. 54). Stempien and Loeb (2002) indicated significant differences exist between predictors of job satisfaction between general education and special education teachers. The failure of administrators to recognize and address these differences has been associated with poor job satisfaction rates among teachers and ultimately high rates of attrition. Job satisfaction correlates have been studied as a product of teacher experience levels and demographic characteristics to narrow down trends in satisfaction.

Additional predictor variables include motivation and caseload. Naseer Ud Din (2008) defined teacher motivation as "an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior" (p. 1). Teacher motivation is a frequent subject of research in the public sector. School climate is a close partner to teacher motivation; teachers generally demonstrate increased motivation when the school climate is positive.

The workload, classroom sizes, and students that teachers are responsible for on a regular basis indicate caseload. A large caseload has been connected with low job satisfaction and feelings of being underappreciated by peers and administrators (Billingsley, 2007). Furthermore,

factors that influence a school leader's ability to recruit and retain include caseload size and isolation of the school district (Berry & Gravelle, 2013).

Significance of the Study

Multiple reasons explain why educators should be alarmed with the retention rates of special education teachers. The gap in qualified special education teachers poses a significant threat to the quality of education available to students with disabilities. Teacher attrition represents a primary component of low retention rates, which contributes to the need for stakeholders to recognize and respond to correlations of attrition. Special education teachers are necessary to help students with disabilities receive equitable academic instruction and exposure to resources in public schools. Nance and Calabrese (2011) noted a top priority of school administrators is to develop work environments that are conducive to sustaining high levels of commitment. Billingsley (2007) indicated the lack of highly qualified teachers has many contributing factors, including an insufficient supply of candidates. The lack of qualified candidates creates scenarios where the services available to students with disabilities are diminished. In some cases, it means that students with disabilities simply cannot have their needs met by local public school districts.

One of the most profound impacts of the special education teacher gap is that underqualified teachers are leading more classrooms of disabled students (Billingsley, 2007). Underqualified teachers lead to an increased likelihood of possible negative outcomes for students, including inadequate academic experiences for students, limited educational achievement for students, and graduates who are unprepared for professional life or future academic pursuits. On average, it takes three to seven years for teachers to develop skills that enable them to improve student achievement at a consistent pace (Haycock, 2006). If special

education teachers are leaving the profession before five years of service then they are not able to develop skills to improve student achievement. Special education students are then in the hands of teachers who have not honed those skills. The consequences of insufficient academic resources for students with disabilities are dire. In many cases, families with children with disabilities rely heavily on special education services from public schools. This is especially true for families who lack resources for privately funded programs and services, which could be necessary for the remainder of the life of a person with disabilities (Courtade, Servilio, Ludlow, & Anderson, 2010). However, public school settings that are sufficiently directed and funded can provide a unique platform for preparing students for life after graduation.

Teacher attrition rates are highest in the fields of science, math, and special education (McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008). According to the Data Accountability Center (2011), 19,242 teachers who were not highly qualified were holding teacher positions in the United States in 2010. It is not difficult to extrapolate this figure to estimate the number of students impacted by this shortage. High rates of teacher turnover adversely affect high-risk populations. Teacher burnout and teacher shortages sometimes lead to mismatched classrooms, with students from multiple grades combined. In other cases, teachers who leave their jobs during the school year caused a disruption in the academic experience of students, often during a time when structure and consistency are helpful tools for educational achievement. This issue has raised attention from the academic and educational communities, which has led to an increased examination of factors contributing to teacher burnout and attrition. However, insufficient attention has been paid to this issue on the national stage, especially as more states and school districts are coping with budget shortfalls and hiring freezes (Suh, 2014).

The high teacher attrition rate and early career exodus of beginning teachers suggest that traditional methods fall short of providing the support needed by beginning teachers (Berridge & Goebel, 2013). Teacher attrition also represents high costs for school systems that must devote resources for hiring and training new teachers. The cost of teacher replacement can range from $5,000 to $17,000 on a yearly basis (Alvarez, 2012). Often, high costs lead to school districts that are not able to fill teaching positions with highly qualified teachers. The higher frequency of new teachers often equates with lower levels of student achievement (Beaugez, 2012). Lower levels of student achievement can force schools to add additional costs in terms of curriculum development and educational materials, which could be minimized or eliminated if highly qualified teachers are in place. Nance and Calabrese (2011) focused on the legal ramifications of non-certified teachers being placed in the public educational sector. According to Ingersoll (2012), the reasons for high attrition rates are not always clear because of the variety of reasons and the variation in teacher motivation and peer support from one environment to the next. Ingersoll's study demonstrates the need for further research into attrition rates among teachers of students with disabilities. The current study seeks to add to the literature by presenting a collection of the most recent research on special education teacher attrition as well as the findings from this study.

Research Question

The following research question was proposed:

RQ1: How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload for special elementary education teachers?

Null Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was proposed:

$H_0$1: There will be no significant predictive relationship between the outcome variable (retention) and the linear combination of predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers.

Definitions

1. *Retention*- Murnane and Steele, (2007) defined retention as maintaining teachers within the school or field of education. Several studies on the conditions of special education teachers have reported on the value of retention and the challenges that school administrators face in improving retention rates. Nance and Calabrese (2011) described teacher retention as the most significant challenge to administrators in special education. Teacher retention includes teacher intentions to leave special education environments or to leave the field of education altogether.

2. Attrition- For the purposes of the study, attrition was defined as the rate at which teachers leave the special education profession (Aquila, 2008). Attrition encompasses a macro-level perspective of the same school and teacher centered approach offered by retention. Attrition is closely associated with the core variables of this study, including job satisfaction, caseload, and motivation. Beaugez (2012) indicated several variables are associated with teacher attrition and all are worthy of close examination and additional study.

3. Caseload- Berry (2012) specified that caseload affects job satisfaction in multiple ways, including placing additional job pressure and adding to feelings of isolation or absence of peer support. A heightened caseload often carries additional requirements in terms of student responsibility, paperwork, and independent attention that can distract from classroom duties and instructional planning.

4. Job satisfaction- Mehta (2012) defined job satisfaction as "the perception of the person towards his or her job, job related activities and environment. Job satisfaction is a combination of psychological and emotional experiences at work" (p. 54). While job related satisfaction is often considered valuable in most job industries, it is especially important in education, where the value of satisfied teachers and threats to this satisfaction have been found to be uncommonly relevant to performance (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is also closely associated with retention rates among special education teachers.

5. Motivation- Naseer Ud Din (2008) defined teacher motivation as "an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior" (p. 1). Among the predictors of teacher motivation identified by researchers are student improvement, specialized instruction, and peer support (Fernet, Senecal, Guay, Marsh, & Dawson, 2008). Teacher motivation can be more broadly considered as intrinsic and positively correlated with commitment to the professional organization. Motivation might be examined as contributing to a willingness to endure difficult challenges in the classroom over the course of time. Motivation can come from several factors, including a commitment to the school district, the teaching profession, or individual students in the classroom.

6. Title I- A Title I school wide program is defined as a school that has a 40% or more poverty rate. Title I is a federally funded program that provides funding to schools at low poverty levels. Schools identified as part of the Title I allocation feature high percentages of children from low-income families. Resources are designed to help ensure that all students have the means in place to reach challenging academic standards. Examples of resources allocated for Title I schools include free student lunches, funding for academic

programs, and curriculum materials. The United States Department of Education reported that 56,000 schools in the United States were identified as recipients of Title I funding during the 2009-2010 school year (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

7. Self-Contained- Self-contained classrooms are classrooms specifically designated for children with disabilities. Self-contained programs are usually indicated for children with more serious disabilities who may not be able to participate in general education programs at all. These disabilities often include autism, emotional disturbances, severe intellectual disabilities, multiple handicaps, and children with serious or fragile medical conditions. Self-contained classrooms are classrooms catering to students who have special educational needs due to severe learning difficulties or physical disabilities. A self-contained classroom is a classroom setting in which children with special needs are placed with other children with similar needs (Maggin, Oliver, Partin, Robertson, & Wehby, 2011).

8. Inclusion- Students with special educational needs spend most of their time with non-disabled students. Inclusion involves increasing the opportunities for special education students to be included in the general education setting (Smith & Bell, 2015). Inclusion is based on the belief that students should be a part of the school or classroom, which they would attend if they did not have a disability (Gehrke & Cocchiarella, 2013).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Significance of the Research

Many educators, educational researchers, and policy makers acknowledge that special education teachers have distinctive responsibilities, which make the challenges they face unique (M. Johnson, 2011). Apart from providing direct instruction, these teachers are expected to lead the development and implementation of Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) for learners with special educational needs or disabilities (Christle & Yell, 2013). IEP, as defined in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), refers to "a written statement for each child with disability that is developed, reviewed, and revised in accordance with: the child's present levels of academic achievement and functional performance; and measurable annual goals, including academic and functional goals" (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2001, 2004, , Section 614(d)(1)(i)). The IDEA is based on the belief that each learner with one or more learning disabilities is entitled to a free appropriate education (Christle & Yell, 2013; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004). Based on this law, it is the special education teacher's responsibility to help general education teachers understand how a learner's disability affects his or her participation in the learning process, the general education curriculum, as well as curricular and extracurricular activities. As such, special education teachers help general education staff to understand the learner's educational needs arising from his or her disability, instructional strategies, and education programs necessary to provide the learner with appropriate education (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004). This responsibility makes it important for schools to consistently employ experienced and effective special education teachers (S. Johnson & Simon, 2013).

However, previous studies have shown that special education teachers have high attrition rates (Morrison, 2012), which result from stress, job dissatisfaction, low motivation, and other factors (Calabrese & Nance, 2011; Floyd, Hayes & Vittek, 2013; Horrison-Collier, 2013; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012; Ingersoll, Merrill & Stuckey, 2014; Major, 2012; Sheldrake, 2013). Major (2012) observed an even higher trend among special education teachers who teach learners with behavioral or emotional problems. As such, school districts are experiencing significant challenges retaining special education teachers (Hughes & Nickson, 2010; Sheldrake, 2013). The challenge to recruit and keep special education teachers made this study important as it desired to unravel the causes of this phenomenon and present possible solutions.

History of Teacher Retention Problems

According to the Virginia Board of Education (2009), finding and retaining qualified special education teachers has been a persistent problem for local divisions and school districts since the beginning of the 21st century. Furthermore, the board reported Virginia is experiencing an annual turnover rate of over nine percent. Based on the reports presented by Ingersoll et al. (2014) and Ingersoll and Merrill (2012), teacher retention and attrition challenges are not new. These reports are based on data obtained from the Schools and Staffing Survey and the Teacher Follow-Up Survey, which are both collected by the National Center for Education Statistics. Since 1987-1988, the National Center for Education Statistics has administered the Schools and Staffing Survey with nationally representative samples (Ingersoll et al., 2014). The authors noted that since the early 1970s, both elementary and secondary schools have been experiencing relatively high rates of attrition compared to other traditionally respected professions such as engineering, architecture, and law. As early as the 1970s, education leaders have identified teacher attrition as a major problem affecting the country's educational system (Claeys, Flores,

Pérez & Sass, 2012). The teacher attrition problem has been growing. For example, from 1988-1989 to 2008-2009, the annual attrition rate grew from 6.4% to 9% (Ingersoll et al., 2014). Brown and Wynn (2009) and McLauren et al. (2009) estimated that about 33% of all new teachers leave the teaching profession for various reasons in any given year. Carlson (2012) estimated the number of teachers who leave their teaching positions every year to be about 450,000. Boe, Cook, and Sunderland (2005) used aggregated data from the Teacher Follow-Up Surveys to note rapidly increasing turnover trends among new teachers. In 1991-1992, the attrition rate was 7.1%; in 1994-1995, it was 7.8%; and in 2000-2001, it was 8.4%. From the aggregated data, Boe et al. (2005) reported that 6.3% of the special education teachers left teaching, 8.3% moved to general education, and 7.9% moved to a different school. Consequently, less than 80% of special education teachers remain in the same school after about three years.

Prominence of Teacher Retention Problems

A review by Sheldrake (2013) found special education teachers have higher attrition rates compared to their general education colleagues. Loeb and Stempien (2002) found that after just one year, 11% of special education teachers had left the teaching profession as opposed to 6% of the general education teachers. Morrison (2012) analyzed the vacant positions in South Carolina at the beginning of the 2008-09 school year and found special education teachers were the most likely to leave. The higher rates of attrition among special education teachers have a significant impact on the provision of appropriate education to learners eligible for special education and related services per the IDEA. Due to the high demand for these teachers, once a school fills a vacant special education position, the position only remains filled for a relatively short period before the teacher moves to another school. Often, special education teachers leave the position

either to become a general education teacher or to move to another profession (Horrison-Collier, 2013; Sheldrake, 2013).

Drawing from previous research, Horrison-Collier (2013) reported that as high as 9.3% of special education teachers leave the field at the end of their first year of teaching and 7.4% shift to general education every year. Piotrowski and Plash (2006) reported that 13.2% of special education teachers leave their positions within their first year of teaching for positions in urban districts. The number was almost double for the teachers in rural districts. The attrition rates increase with the number of years of service (Piotrowski & Plash 2006). These figures are very important for this study considering Robinson and Strunk's (2006) findings, which indicated that variation in teachers' likelihood of attrition between states is only two percent. Much can be learned from other studies of teacher attrition because of the findings that these rates remain similar between different states. One state can apply principles discovered by another state with the understanding that a slight variation is possible.

Using aggregated data for 1991-1992, 1994-1995, and 2000-2001 from the Teacher Follow-Up Surveys, Boe et al. (2005) estimated that within four years, 24% of full-time special education teachers leave teaching and 31% switch to general education. Piotrowski and Plash (2006) reported that about 39% of special education teachers would leave the teaching profession by the end of their fifth teaching year. As such, it is common to find unfilled special education positions at both elementary and secondary schools (Sheldrake, 2013). School districts and even private schools face a major challenge of retaining special education teachers; however, many educators and researchers agree that student learning and achievement is dependent on the quality (highly qualified and experienced) and effectiveness of the teacher (Borman & Dowling,

2008; Carroll & Foster, 2010; Floyd et al., 2013; Hughes & Nickson, 2010; M. Johnson, 2011; Sheldrake, 2013).

Proposed Research Contribution to Society

The persistent problem of turnover among special education teachers has been increasing, which means the cycle of recruiting and retaining high-quality teachers remains. Meanwhile, it is obvious that retaining highly competent and capable special education teachers is crucial (Claeys et al., 2012). Claeys et al. emphasized more research is needed to find ways to retain high quality special education teachers. Therefore, the proposed study could help understand the factors that contribute to special education teachers' retention and attrition; as a result, the results from this study could help educational leaders manage these factors. In particular, this study could help school administrators understand how teacher characteristics as well as school condition variables influence special education teacher attrition (Claeys et al., 2012). By examining this issue, society would be better prepared to strengthen school systems because it could better ensure special education programs' stability and quality, which Claeys et al. noted to be directly associated with teacher retention. Society advances through attempting to better educate our most fragile and neediest students by understanding how to attract and keep the most qualified teachers.

The purpose of this study was threefold. First, it sought to establish whether common trends associated with special education teachers as well as school variables continue to influence special education teacher attrition. Second, this study introduced another variable acquired from the three Cs of teacher retention, compensation. Understanding the moderating effect of compensation on teacher attrition can aid the education department in playing its part to avert this problem. Third, since this study was built on previous research, it desired to provide

additional insight, which can influence policy development about special education teacher attrition.

Whether because of relocation or simple attrition, Morrison (2012) acknowledged teacher turnover significantly affects the stability and the quality of education. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) noted each school district throughout the nation is affected by this persistent teacher turnover (Carlson, 2012). According to Brown and Wynn (2009), "The high teacher turnover rates result in: [a] a deficit of quality teachers and instruction; [b] loss of continuity and commitment; and [c] devotion of time, attention, and funds to recruitment rather than support" (p. 37). These factors affect the provision of appropriate special education and related services to learners with disabilities (Sheldrake, 2013). Thus, the present study could help education stakeholders understand the issue of special education teacher attrition as well as retention. This understanding could help administrators implement intervention programs to remedy the problem and improve special education learners' educational achievement and social conditions. Learners with special needs require more than just academic instruction. They also need teachers who can accommodate and take care of their behavioral, communication, motor, and nursing needs (Sheldrake, 2013). These particular needs make it important to retain experienced teachers who possess strategies to meet their academic, behavioral, social, mental, as well as physical needs (Sheldrake, 2013). Inexperienced, less effective teachers cannot meet all of these needs (McLaurin et al., 2009).

Theoretical Framework

Landmark Cases in Special Education

The history of special education started with the 1971 court case: *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Pennsylvania – Free appropriate Public Education*

(FAPE) (Perkins, 2011). Parents of children with mild to severe disabilities joined PARC and brought litigation against the state to establish a free and appropriate education for all children with mental retardation between the ages of six and 21 years old in the state of Pennsylvania. The parents and PARC were successful in this endeavor, which led to the establishment of FAPE in Pennsylvania. Furthermore, a 1972 court case, *Mills v. District of Columbia Board of Education-Due Process,* was brought on behalf of over 18,000 children in the district. Based on the 14th amendment, this litigation claimed that children with disabilities were excluded from public education without due process (Perkins, 2011).

In 1990, the Education for Handicapped Children Act (EHA) became the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA). The IDEA guarantees equal opportunity for individuals with disabilities in employment, public accommodations, transportation, state and local government services, and telecommunications (Yell, 2011). *P.L. 101-336 Americans with Disabilities Act* prevents discrimination based on ability (Yell, 2011). The establishment of FAPE for children with disabilities and the IDEA established the need for special education teachers in schools. Before the enactment of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, the federal government did not make it a requirement for states to offer comprehensive special education for learners with disabilities (Osborne & Russo, 2007). The *Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia* helped develop the legal basis for what developed into the IDEA (Perkins, 2011). The parents of seven exceptional children filed the case as a class action suit on behalf of many learners with disabilities who were not receiving special education and related services (Osborne & Russo, 2007). The petitioners sought a declaration of their rights as well as "an order directing the school board to provide a publicly supported education to all students with disabilities" (Osborne & Russo, 2007, p. 8). The federal trial court rejected the school board's

argument that it did not have the resources for all of its learners, which made it justifiable to deny special education services to these learners. The school board's claim was found to contradict the United States Constitution's Bill of Rights, the District of Columbia Code, and the regulations of the school. The Supreme Court ruled the school board must use its funds equitably to ensure that all learners were offered an education at one with their needs as well as abilities (Osborne & Russo, 2007). Moreover, the court issued an order requiring the board to establish due process safeguards to ensure that no other children would be excluded from public schools, have their special education services terminated, or drop out because of lack of or inappropriate educational services. The Supreme Court also outlined detailed due process procedures, which formed the foundation for the due process safeguards currently in the IDEA (Osborne & Russo, 2007).

Prior to the enactment of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, currently known as the IDEA, Congress acknowledged the educational needs of millions of children in the United States; the children were not offered appropriate educational services. IDEA (2004), notes the following:

> The children were excluded entirely from the public school system and from being educated with their peers; undiagnosed disabilities prevented the children from having a successful educational experience"; or due to inadequate resources within the public school system which often compelled families to seek special education services outside the public school system. (Section 601(c)(2))

Although in its wisdom, Congress made a provision requiring schools to provide free appropriate public education (FAPE), it did not set a fixed standard for FAPE (Crockett & Yell, 2008). Therefore, the definition of *appropriate* remained ambiguous until the *Board of*

Education of the Hendrick Hudson Central School District v. Amy Rowley Supreme Court ruling on June 28, 1982 (Crockett & Yell, 2008). The respondents included a child with hearing problems that had been provided with special hearing aids for use in the classroom. The school system had offered the child additional instruction from tutors. The respondents filed a suit at the Federal District Court to have "the New York proceedings that had upheld the school administrators' denial of the parents' request that the child also be provided a qualified sign-language interpreter in all her academic classes reviewed" (FindLaw, n.d., p. 1). The court ruled that *appropriate* meant education services adapted to a child's individual needs, "not to the needs of the school system, and that access to public schooling for children with disabilities fell short of requiring schools to provide the very best programming" (Crockett & Yell, 2008, p. 382). The court held that FAPE is satisfied when the school system provides an eligible child with personalized instruction along with sufficient support services to allow him or her to benefit educationally from the instruction.

The instruction and special needs services must meet the state's educational standards, must be appropriate to the child's grade level as in the state's regular education system, and must be in accordance with the child's IEP as provided for in the Act (FindLaw, n.d). This interpretation is the same as what is currently contained in the IDEA as the definition of FAPE under Section 602(9). IDEA requires schools to offer eligible students special education academic services as well as related services such as speech, occupational therapy, and physical therapy. IDEA requires school systems to conduct assessment that meet the state's standards and are in conformity with the child's IEPs. IDEA also requires that highly qualified special education teachers handle these learners (Public Law, 108-446).

The Three Cs

Various researchers focused on the reasons special education teachers leave or remain in the profession or transfer to other schools. Sher (1983) developed a valuable framework for examining the literature as well as research on the recruitment and retention of teachers. Although Sher developed the framework in the context of rural teachers, the framework can be applied to understand the factors that moderate the retention of special education teachers in any environment. Sher (1983) maintained that the difficulty in recruiting and retaining well prepared as well as properly qualified teachers is primarily "a function of the three C's: characteristics, conditions, and compensation" (p. 126).

Characteristics. Characteristics refer to the presence of personal qualities associated with preparation, preservice training, as well as background experiences that would enable the teacher to have the capacity to effectively carry out his or her roles (Sher, 1983). Storey (1993) summarized characteristics as "the quality of personnel produced by pre-service programs" (p. 161) as well as a background or training that has oriented the individual to the roles and responsibilities associated with the field. Essentially, trained special education teachers who have background experience with learners with special needs or teachers who sympathize with these students are attracted to teaching them. These teachers would be more effective in their jobs because they already understand the educational, social, and emotional needs of these learners (Busby & Freed, 1985). Conversely, Anderson and Fry's (2011) findings, which supported this theory, suggest that beginning teachers with high self-efficacy would be more resilient and persistent in the face of challenges. Anderson and Fry noted that teachers with a strong work ethic as well as belief about their ability to change the world are likely to have high sense of self-efficacy in their ability to perform their roles and responsibilities effectively.

Conditions. Conditions include the environmental surroundings of the school, including

geographical, cultural, recreational, and the school's facilities (Sher, 1983). Schools are not equipped the same way; therefore, some schools would be appealing to work in while others would not be attractive. Busby and Reed (1985) suggested that school districts with good facilities (school buildings and other curricular and extracurricular learning facilities), pleasant climate, recreational facilities, and near shopping areas would be more attractive to teachers and may encourage teachers to remain in their position. In addition, McLaurin et al. (2009) cited several studies that demonstrated schools in high-poverty areas experience higher teacher attrition. Cowan (2010) found that teachers in the rural areas often left because of isolation including social, cultural, geographic, and professional issues. Drawing from previous studies, Borman and Dowling (2008) noted urban schools as well as schools with a high percentage of minority learners find it difficult to retain teachers because the teachers left whenever a more attractive opportunity presented itself. Ingersoll et al. (2014) and McLaurin et al. (2009) supported this phenomenon. Ingersoll et al. reported that the 2004-2005 Schools and Staffing Survey and Teacher Follow-Up Survey data showed that "high-poverty, high-minority, urban, and rural public schools have among the highest rates of turnover" (p. 23). According to McLaurin et al. (2009), teacher turnover rates in schools that serve underprivileged and minority learners are almost double of those in low poverty schools. Many of these teachers leave high poverty schools because of poor working conditions, which make it difficult for teachers to teach or help their learners to learn (S. Johnson & Simon, 2013). Drawing from the findings of previous studies, S. Johnson and Simon (2013) concluded that the reasons why these teachers leave are related to school leadership, collegial relationships, as well as aspects of school culture, which can contribute to job satisfaction.

Carlson (2012), M. Johnson (2011), and Morrison (2012) cited several studies which

found beginning teachers leave because of working conditions as well as school factors such as inadequate induction and support programs, school culture that cultivates failure and not success, and inadequate professional development. These teachers are persuaded to remain in their positions when they experience a collaborative school environment as well as support from their colleagues and school administrators (Morrison, 2012). M. Johnson (2011) cited studies that demonstrated "a rigorous, relevant, and supportive school environment is positively correlated with special education teachers' decisions to remain in the field" (p. 26). Teacher empowerment and support help decrease job related stress and promote learner achievement which, in turn, promotes teacher job satisfaction (M. Johnson, 2011). Conversely, unproductive and unsupportive school environments create: "[a] role confusion; [b] feelings of powerlessness; [c] decreased intrinsic rewards; and [d] increased student behavior and academic concerns" (M. Johnson, 2011, p. 27).

One of the latest studies that supported Sher's theory was conducted by Moore (2012), which indicated that school environment significantly influenced teacher dissatisfaction. The researcher used the 2007-2008 School and Staffing Survey to examine the relationship between the school environment and teacher dissatisfaction. The variables of the school environment included teacher perceptions of control in the classroom, perceptions of colleagues as well as administrative support, perceptions of school community problems, as well as perceptions of problems in the school. The job dissatisfaction variable sought to gauge the teachers' feelings about their profession as measured on a five-point, Likert-type scale. Using logistic regression, Moore (2012) found, "School environment played a statistically significant role in the dissatisfaction of teachers" (p. 383). In particular, teacher autonomy as well as principal leadership reduced the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction, whereas learner as well as

community problems increased the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction. Rural school location and school status were also found to moderate teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Larger student to teacher ratios as well as a larger proportion of limited English proficient (LEP) learners also increased the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction, which suggests work overload could influence teacher dissatisfaction and ultimately attrition.

Compensation. The final C, compensation, includes salary, incentives, rewards as well as benefits such as allowances, subsidized or cheaper loans, and other incentives (Sher, 1983). Busby and Reed (1985) argued this could be the most important factor to attract competent teachers. Busby and Reed contended that to be able to recruit and retain teachers, school districts should offer a range of incentives besides salary, such as salary supplements, housing allowances, in-service education, as well as favorable pupil to teaching ratios. Busby and Reed's study provided support to Sher's theory as 71.6% of the districts that reported teacher attrition offered low retention incentives; this suggests that districts offering more rewards would have lower teacher attrition. Busby and Reed indicated when school districts provide more incentives as well as rewards to teachers, the attrition rate reduced despite the rural location of the schools, which many studies have shown to have relatively higher attrition rates (Anderson & Fry, 2011; Moore, 2012; Sher, 1983). As a result, Busby and Reed (1985) recommended all school districts should provide incentives to retain their teachers. Busby and Reed argued the benefits influence teachers to increase their effectiveness because they offer them ample time and resources for personal as well as professional development.

Teacher Retention in Education

Drawing from Ingersoll's (2012) organizational analysis of teacher turnover, Morrison (2012) concluded the major reasons that influence teacher turnover are poor administrative support and lack of empowerment, which can lead to job dissatisfaction. Brown and Wynn (2009) and Carlson (2012) supported this observation and noted one of the major contributing factors to the high teacher turnover is the lack of support by the administration. Carlson argued that teachers working in school environments that do not foster a sense of support as well as collaboration are more likely to leave their positions compared to those working in positive environments. Leadership of the school is one of the major sources of job dissatisfaction for teachers that affect their working conditions within the school (Carlson, 2012). Brown and Wynn (2009) argued the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the leadership of the school's head teacher directly affects the satisfaction of the teachers in the school. Similarly, Cornelia (2010) concluded the way school principals and administrators execute their leadership influences "school organization, culture, and working condition, which, in turn, affect job satisfaction and teacher retention" (p. 3).

Borman and Dowling (2008) conducted an extensive meta-analysis on teacher career trajectories, comprising 34 studies with 63 teacher attrition moderators. The researchers sought to establish the causes of attrition or factors that moderate attrition outcomes. The individual studies used data from several national and state databases; however, only quantitative studies that measured teacher retention or attrition were selected for analysis. Because meta-analysis involves combining samples of individual studies or analyzing group-level statistics (Cooper & Patall, 2009; Garg, Hackam, & Tonelli, 2008), it offers a more accurate estimate of the underlying *true effect* than any individual primary study because the overall sample size is

increased significantly (Garg et al., 2008). In other words, meta-analysis helps establish accurate estimates of the relationship under study.

Borman and Dowling's (2008) meta-analysis showed personal characteristics of the teacher significantly predict teacher turnover. The study found gender moderated teacher attrition compared to any other teacher or school characteristic. The results suggested that women's likelihood to leave the profession was 1.3 times that of men. These findings are consistent with Moore's (2012) findings that indicated female teachers' likelihood of being dissatisfied was 1.074 times that of male teachers or 7.4% higher than that of male teachers. Race or ethnicity was also found to be a moderator of teacher attrition, with being Caucasian found to be more associated with attrition compared to not being Caucasian. These findings contradict Moore's (2012) findings that suggested being African American was more associated with dissatisfaction. However, it should be noted that the influence of race or ethnicity was moderated by the demographic characteristics of the school environment. Age was another teacher characteristics moderator, with younger teachers more likely to leave compared to older teachers. The odds of attrition for teachers five years younger than their colleagues were found to be 5.32 times that of their older colleagues. Specifically, teachers who entered the teaching field at age 31 or older were less likely to leave compared to those who entered the field at age 30 years or younger.

Moore (2012) indicated that being a new teacher (first three years of teaching) increased the likelihood of dissatisfaction. Claeys et al. (2012) also found that the age of a beginning teacher and gender moderated teacher attrition rates. However, Borman and Dowling's (2008) meta-analysis indicated more experienced teachers (five to six years of experience) were also more likely to leave at 1.57 times that of those within their first five years of their experience. In fact, the odds of attrition increased with additional years of experience. Similarly, more qualified

and skilled teachers were more likely to leave than less qualified and skilled teachers were although the magnitude of odds of attrition between the less skilled and more skilled was small. Borman and Dowling's (2008) meta-analysis also indicated that school environment and condition contributed to teacher retention and attrition. Borman and Dowling's findings showed teachers in urban and suburban environments were more likely to leave than were those teachers from rural locations at 1.13 times. However, having a consistent, supportive administration significantly reduced the odds of teacher attrition (Borman & Dowling, 2008). Carlson (2012) also examined the effect of the leadership of the school principal on teacher retention by analyzing data obtained from the School and Staffing Survey as well as the Teacher Follow Up Survey. Carlson's study sought to examine teachers' responses to various statements regarding their teaching positions. The findings showed a relationship between the principal's leadership and the teacher's decision to remain in his or her teaching position and the principal's leadership and "the number of teachers who do not feel an overall sense of job satisfaction" (Carlson, 2012, p. 48).

Overall, the research shows teachers with supportive administration are less likely to leave their teaching positions. In fact, as high as 89% of the teachers who remained in their teaching positions during the 2008-2009 school year indicated that their school administration was supportive and encouraging. A supportive and encouraging administration is not the only factor in teacher retention, but research indicates administration does play a role in the teacher's decision. Anderson and Fry (2011) also found that administrative and colleague support contributes to increased self-confidence as well as self-efficacy of the teacher, which increase the sense of accomplishment, hence, job satisfaction.

Another moderator for retention is having a school mentoring program (Carlson, 2012;

Morrison, 2012), which Borman and Dowling's (2008) meta-analysis found to reduce attrition associated with beginning teachers significantly. On the contrary, school expenditures for teacher support as well as expenditures for teaching materials had no statistically significant attrition outcomes. Likewise, learner to teacher ratios and average class size had no significant impact on teacher retention or attrition. However, additional spending on instructional needs was found to reduce the odds of teacher attrition ($z = -3.87$, $p < .01$). Ashiedu and Scott-Ladd (2012) examined this issue by sampling the views of retired teachers and found working conditions, personal characteristics of teachers, school conditions, and workload as the most important teacher retention factors.

Borman and Dowling's (2008) findings provided support for Sher's (1983) view on the contribution of compensation on teacher retention or attrition. The analysis showed that for all teachers, regardless of the number of years of experience, higher salaries significantly reduced odds of attrition. The impact was strongest among teachers in later years of their careers. Moore's (2012) findings suggested that increasing the salary of teachers might not reduce the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction. The study found that a salary increment of $1,000, United States dollars, might only increase the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction by 1.6%.

Teacher Retention Problems in Special Education

Major (2012) argued that attrition among special education teachers is the result of stress, job dissatisfaction, and low motivation. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor (2010), was the foundation of this view. This report noted special education teachers always face significant stressors from the heavy workloads, piles of administrative tasks, as well as the special needs of their learners, which drain them emotionally and physically. Emery and Vandenberg (2010) observed special education teachers are likely to suffer "low job satisfaction,

low self-efficacy, as well as increased stress and burnout" (p. 126). Piotrowski and Plash (2006) reported special education teacher burnout is caused by "role ambiguity, role conflict, perceived workload, and perceived principal support" (p. 126), which is beyond their control. This is consistent with M. Johnson's (2011) observation that work overload on the special education teacher influences the feelings of emotional exhaustion, which is a major contributing factor to special education teacher attrition.

Similarly, Piotrowski and Plash's (2006) study, which surveyed highly qualified special education teachers, found that stress related to work overload was largely accountable for special educators' attrition or relocation (turnover). The special education teacher has many demanding responsibilities, which include (a) planning and providing direct instruction; (b) maintaining legal paperwork; (c) holding recurrent meetings with learners, colleagues, as well as parents; (d) maintaining compliance with the provisions of the IDEA and other federal mandates; (e) engaging in collaborative work other educators; and (f) participating in extracurricular activities (M. Johnson, 2011; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006). More importantly, these teachers are expected to work with learners diagnosed with various disabilities as well as varying levels of severity in a variety of settings (M. Johnson, 2011). Clearly, lack of administrative support results in elevated levels of emotional exhaustion and as a result lowers the teacher's sense of accomplishment (Carlson, 2012; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006). Previous studies have shown job satisfaction as well as the special education teacher's intent to remain in the profession increase when their workload is reduced and greater administrative support is offered (Brown & Wynn, 2007, 2009; Carlson, 2012; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006). Major (2012) concluded that special educators' jobs (workload) can be designed in a way that promotes participatory empowerment, which would, in turn, reduce the likelihood of the above factors.

Major (2012) argued stress leads to disengagement among special educators because of emotional exhaustion, which results from the broad scope of responsibilities. Special education teachers' stress often comes from a mismatch of their expectations and the actual job. The mismatch could result from (a) difficulties in identifying the needs (cognitive, social, and emotional) of the learner, (b) the instruction because of inadequate time to understand the learner in relation to the curriculum, and (c) how to implement successfully the learning program or provide instruction (M. Johnson, 2011; Major, 2012; Pollak, 2009). This stress is likely to diminish a teacher's sense of accomplishment, reduce their job satisfaction, or cause job dissatisfaction (Piotrowski & Plash, 2006). The stress may be aggravated by lack of administrative and collegial support, opportunities for on the job learning, as well as autonomy, coupled with lack of role clarity as well as role conflict. Without administrative and collegial support as well as the capacity to make decisions on job conditions and to relieve oneself of related tasks, special educators experience stress, which may disengage them from work. High levels of protracted stress could result in teacher dissatisfaction, which could lead to "withdrawal from work, burnout, health problems, and attrition" (Major, 2012, p. 2). The intention to leave may be increased by availability of a more rewarding job (Major, 2012).

McLaurin et al. (2009) argued one recurring factor that can moderate teacher attrition throughout all the teaching disciplines as well as grade levels is the individual's ability to manage stress. With the overwhelming demands currently on teachers, many new teachers enter the profession without the necessary skills to cope with these demands and then find themselves unable to perform the duties required of them. Beginning teachers who are not able to develop coping mechanisms for dealing with the many stresses inherent in their profession are likely to leave the profession (McLaurin et al., 2009).

Piotrowski and Plash (2006) found special education teachers in particular are more vulnerable to stress or professional burnout compared to their general colleagues. The stressors according to McLaurin et al. (2009) are greatly influenced by the teacher's teaching experience as well as pre-service training. Little experience in the classroom, including training on the teaching methods for different learning styles and abilities in the classroom, implementation strategies, and how to develop and maintain positive relationships with these learners, their parents, as well as colleagues, are a major source of this stress (McLaurin et al., 2009). Moore (2012) defined a new teacher as one who has taught less than four years. Moore's study found that new teachers had a very large effect on the likelihood of teacher dissatisfaction (as a school) by 63.4%.

Similarly, special education teachers whose pre-service training did not focus on helping them understand probable upcoming challenges and how to manage them were also likely to experience stress when they finally began teaching (McLaurin et al., 2009). Without sufficient training, these teachers do not have a comprehensive, realistic perception of their field. These challenges may frustrate teachers and lower their self-efficacy to do well in teaching and their sense of accomplishment in their roles (McLaurin et al., 2009). This could lead to feelings of emotional exhaustion as well as depersonalization, which undermines their sense of personal accomplishment. They begin to exhibit the same symptoms experienced by other human service professionals such as nurses, physicians, and others who are deeply involved with people who experience physical, emotional, as well as social problems (Piotrowski & Plash, 2006). Carlson (2012) argued beginning teachers who do not experience a sense of success with their learners are less likely to feel satisfied with their positions and as a result, are less likely to remain in the classroom.

Hughes and Nickson (2010) sought to understand the views of former special education teachers who transferred to other education fields. These researchers found a stressful job was a major reason they left the field of special education. Another reason that made these educators leave the field of special education was undesirable salaries, a reason that was also noted in Sheldrake's (2013) study.

Related Studies

Several researchers sought to establish factors that influence special education teacher retention and attrition (Abushaira, 2012; Coughlin & Ringlaben, 2011; Floyd et al., 2013; Hanson, 2011; Horrison-Collier, 2013; Hughes & Nickson, 2010; M. Johnson, 2011; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006; Plash, 2005; Sheldrake, 2013). Coughlin and Ringlaben (2011) noted the level of qualification or certification significantly moderated the intention to leave or stay in the special education field. In this study, all those who indicated they intended to leave teaching or transfer from the current school had obtained traditional certification while all those who had alternative certification had intended to remain at the school. Sheldrake (2013) sought to establish the causes of and solutions to the special educators' attrition problem. Consequently, a survey instrument on special educator retention and attrition was administered to 66 administrators and 200 special educators and teachers on special assignment across Portland. The results indicated high caseload as the most important factor influencing special education teacher attrition followed by excessive paperwork. Conversely, special education teachers rated high caseload as the highest factor followed by lack of administrative support. Although the administrators also acknowledged the significance of lack of administrative support, they did not rate it the same way as the teachers. Both the administrators and teachers acknowledged that too much paperwork and high caseload were the primary causes of special education teachers' attrition.

This finding is consistent with the conclusion made by Hanson (2011) in his systematic review that included studies that analyze data from the National Center for Education Statistics that utilized surveys completed by novice special education teachers and principals. The findings and conclusions demonstrated administrative support significantly influences special education teachers' decision to remain or exit the profession (Hanson, 2011). Overall, both the administrators and special education teachers in Sheldrake's (2013) study agreed on the causes of attrition: (a) high caseload, (b) excessive paper work, (c) lack of administrative and collegial support, (d) lack of teacher mentor support, (e) poor job design, (f) role dissonance, (g) too many meetings to attend, (h) low pay, inadequate teacher preparation, (i) fear of failure/diminished sense of success/accomplishment, and (j) lack of professional development opportunities. Both groups remarked that increasing retention of special education teachers can be achieved by the following: (a) increasing administrative support; (b) increasing administrators' and general teachers' understanding of special education instructional practices, procedures, and policies; (c) creating a school environment for collaboration between special education teachers and general teachers and other special education teachers from outside the school; (d) providing opportunities for professional development; (e) reducing special education teachers' caseloads and paperwork requirements; (f) redesigning the special education teacher position; and (g) increasing salaries. Hughes and Nickson (2010) interviewed both current and former special education teachers in Texas and found administrative, mentor and colleague support, as well as parental support as important influencers of the decision to stay or leave the field of special education.

Floyd et al. (2013) noted reports which have consistently indicated that beginning special education teachers' turnover is higher than it is for those who have been in the field for longer durations. Participants included practitioners who included beginning special education teachers,

induction mentors, as well as building level administrators. The researchers wanted to understand the effectiveness of induction programs for novice teachers on retention and attrition. The findings indicated a perceived need for various support for novice teachers including an effective mentoring program consisting of a mentor, administrative support, as well as an overall support system throughout the country to guide novice teachers through the challenges they face in their first year in the field. All the participants noted an effective mentor as an important element of an effective induction program for supporting early career special education teachers. However, the study did not find that the induction program would have a significant influence on special education teacher retention and attrition.

Horrison-Collier (2013) went further and examined the impact mentoring and job satisfaction would have on special education teacher retention. Data from the 2007-2008 Georgia Teacher Survey was used to establish these relationships by performing logistic regression analysis to determine the impact of mentoring as well as job satisfaction on teacher retention. The analysis indicated both mentoring and job satisfaction have significant influence on the intent to remain in the profession; however, the influence was moderated by race, gender, as well as the number of years of teaching. Horrision-Collier (2013) concluded mentoring would be most effective if it offered "opportunities in the learning community for mentors and mentees to meet and share ideas with colleagues in a similar content area" (p. ii). This relationship influences the intention to remain. In fact, the analysis indicated those who were dissatisfied with the amount of time as well as opportunity to discuss ideas with other teachers were more likely to leave than those who were satisfied at a rate of 1.53 times that of satisfied teachers. This suggests that a school environment where special education teachers have the opportunity to engage in discourse with other teachers is a major source of job satisfaction. However, opportunities for professional

development offered by the school or the education system were not found to have any statistically significant impact on job satisfaction.

Variables in Retention

The literature review revealed several independent variables which Sher's (1983) theoretical framework summarized into three factors: (a) conditions, which include school conditions and the environmental surroundings of the school; (b) teacher characteristics, which include background and personal experience and pre-service training; and (c) compensation, which includes salaries and benefits. The school conditions variables include workload (caseload, paper work, and required meetings), administrative support, collegial support, mentorship and induction programs, job design (autonomy), student to teacher ratio, and role dissonance. Teacher characteristic variables include teacher preparation, professional qualification, years of teaching in the field of special education, gender, race, age, and sense of success or accomplishment or self-efficacy. Compensation variables include salaries, benefits, and professional development opportunities. These independent variables are expected to have an impact on dependent variables, which include stress, job satisfaction, and motivation, which in turn are expected to have an impact on the primary dependent variables in special education teacher retention and attrition.

Need for Continued Research

Although several studies (Coughlin & Ringlaben, 2011; Floyd et al., 2013; Hanson, 2011; Horrison-Collier, 2013; Hughes & Nickson, 2010; M. Johnson, 2011; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006; Sheldrake, 2013) discussed special education teacher attrition, none of these studies were founded on Sher's (1983) Three Cs theoretical framework. As a result, a gap in the literature exists on what causes job satisfaction and motivation among special education teachers, which

could moderate retention and attrition (Boeddeker, 2010; Sheldrake, 2013; Sher, 1983). Special education teacher retention and attrition remains a serious problem in the educational sector. Calabrese and Nance (2011) and Claeys et al. (2012) recommended future studies be conducted on the high attrition rate among special education teachers to find ways to increase the retention of qualified special education teachers in schools and in the profession.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as "the perception of the person towards his or her job, job-related activities, and environment" (Mehta, 2012, p. 59). Many components contribute to the job satisfaction of teachers and other professionals. One study reports that job satisfaction is a "combination of psychological and emotional experiences at work" (Mehta, 2012, p. 61). Analyzing the components that relate to job satisfaction is important in raising job satisfaction.

Creating an environment that provides high job satisfaction for employees has many pragmatic benefits. For example, job satisfaction is important for teacher retention as it is in most professions. One study surveyed teachers and asked them whether they intended to leave the profession of teaching or whether they intended to stay in the profession. According to the results of the study, stayers scored significantly higher than leavers on emotional factors, school and community support, instructional support, preparation in teaching curriculum, managing students, and assessing students, compensation and benefits, and culture shock, which shows the importance of job satisfaction in teacher retention (Giacometti, 2005).

Another practical benefit of job satisfaction is teacher efficacy. Spector (1997) found that teachers who enjoy professional satisfaction are more effective in the classroom. In a study of Taiwan based technological and vocational colleges, it was found that "(1) teacher job satisfaction has a positively significant effect on teaching quality assurance; (2) teaching quality

assurance has a positively significant effect on teaching effectiveness; and (3) teacher job satisfaction has a positively significant effect on teaching effectiveness" (Huang, Huang, Chang, Chang, & Kao, 2013). The study notes that it is important and necessary for administrators to focus on job satisfaction because:

> Apparently, teaching quality assurance, as well intentioned as it may be, has no more than a partial mediating effect and, as this study's findings implied, is not the sole silver bullet for increased teaching effectiveness [and must be supplemented by improving job satisfaction for teachers]. (Huang et al., 2013, p.17)

Job satisfaction can be a product of many factors including the academic progress of students, the level of recognition from teachers, or the support of colleagues within the school. To understand what the most important factors in job satisfaction are existing literature should be considered. Threats to teacher job satisfaction can be sudden and meaningful. To stop threats to job satisfaction, administrators should take action. It is recommended by one study that emotional factors are the most important area for administrators to address. The strongest relationship between a teacher's satisfaction level and choosing to leave or stay in the profession is based on emotional factors. This area includes stress, burnout, motivation, self-confidence, and commitment. Efforts to retain teachers should include interventions that are specific to the emotional domain factors (Giacometti, 2005). Through such preventative action, retention rates can be increased. This is important because higher retention rates are more cost effective.

Job satisfaction is increasingly becoming a target for school administrators who often recognize the value of a productive school environment and how it can cultivate satisfied teachers (Billingsley, 2007). To achieve higher job satisfaction targets, schools have taken a variety of steps. One strategy that is used to raise job satisfaction for teachers is to focus on

providing emotional support, particularly to new teachers (Giacometti, 2005). Another method used is to improve workplace conditions (Ma & MacMillan, 2010).

Overall, based on existing literature on job satisfaction for teachers, it is clear that job satisfaction is necessary in ensuring high teacher retention rates. Because of this, taking steps to improve job satisfaction is not only beneficial for teachers, but is also pragmatic for administrators, schools, and school districts. High job satisfaction is associated with higher teacher retention rates and higher teacher efficacy. By raising job satisfaction, better educational outcomes are achieved in the long term at lower cost. Through using the methods discussed in these articles, job satisfaction can be raised.

Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Teacher motivation is generally defined as an internal drive to maintain commitment to a specific activity. This may be motivation to teach, motivation to complete some project, motivation to reach some particular educational outcome, or other motivation related to completing teaching duties.

There are many factors that contribute to teacher motivation. One study lists the main components of teacher motivation as "teacher perceived security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization need deficiencies" (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984, p.110). These are potential areas for further investigation.

According to one study, teacher motivation is closely associated with commitment and desire to endure difficult challenges in the classroom. This means that better educational outcomes can be achieved by raising teacher motivation. In this way, motivation can be one factor that allows teachers to work through the absence of other correlative predictors of teacher attrition. In order to maintain this motivation, it is important to take steps to address and prevent

teacher burnout. Teacher motivation is linked to burnout in the long term (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984). The study found that "generally, the higher level self-actualization and esteem need deficiencies explained a significant amount of the variance in burnout among teachers" (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984, p.111).

Motivation was chosen because it is often intrinsic and positively correlated with commitment to the professional organization. Further, commitment to the goals of a school or school district on a broad scale is important for schools because such commitment can improve educational outcomes. A case study of education systems in Nigeria claimed that teacher motivation can improve educational outcomes even when a school system is facing external challenges. As stated in the study, "[when] teachers are highly motivated, they [are able] to render quality services, increase their productivity/performances and commitments to their jobs, [which] enhanc[es] quality assurance in the[se] educational system[s]" (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010, p. 416).

Motivation can be the product of several factors, including a commitment to the school, the district, or students within the classroom. Existing literature suggests that there are many factors that contribute to teacher motivation. One factor that contributes to this motivation is teachers' attitudes toward work (Ofoegbu, 2004). Additional factors are "teachers' desire to participate in the pedagogical processes within the school environment" and "teachers' interest in student discipline and control particularly in the classroom" (Ofoegbu, 2004, p.81).

Classroom environment is also a substantial factor in teacher motivation:

> Classroom climate is important in teacher motivation. If a teacher experiences the classroom as a safe, healthy, happy place with supportive resources and facilities for teaching for optimal learning, he/she tends to participate more than expected in the

> process of management, administration, and the overall improvement of the school. (Ofoegbu, 2004, p.81)

This means that improving classroom environments is a useful technique in raising teacher motivation.

Absence of motivation could be a strong predictor of low retention in a special needs classroom environment. However, it is important to collect and analyze empirical data on the subject to crystallize understandings of this connection, which could inform criteria for teacher hiring and training policies. Currently, there is limited information available on this subject. One relevant study is an investigation of teacher motivation for special education programs in China. The study found that teachers in special education programs had lower motivation than those in other areas of education, which contributed to higher teacher burnout and turnover rates in special education (Yan, 2008).

The information above on teacher motivation has been utilized to anticipate teachers who are considering a career change. This is important for two reasons. First of all, being able to determine if a teacher is at risk for changing jobs allows for targeted intervention before teachers actually decide to leave. Second, it may be possible to prevent teachers from ever considering a career change if appropriate preventative measures are taken. If work environment, benefits, and the other contributing factors related to motivation are provided before the situation becomes a problem, harms can be prevented.

Caseload (Work Load) and Job Satisfaction

Caseload is defined as the number of students with IEPs, for whom a teacher must serve as a case manager (Klein, 2004). It is common for students with special needs to have IEPs that require teachers to write and implement individualized lesson plans. This often requires teachers

to take time away from other students to work in a one on one or close environment with the student. This is a primary reason that special education teachers tend to have classroom sizes that are smaller than those in a general education setting. However, many factors can lead to increased classroom size, number of IEPs, and overall caseload. Among the most important causes is lack of qualified special education teachers, which can in turn lead to a higher caseload for those teachers who are qualified.

Caseload was chosen as a correlative variable because understanding the connection between caseload and retention would directly affect classroom sizes and IEPs for special education teachers. Although administrators can save short-term resources by simply increasing the number of students a teacher must instruct, the long-term result can be increased spending in the budget because of additional hiring and training, as previously stated. One example of a constructive impact of a positive correlation in this factor could be establishing ceilings on caseloads for special education teachers across the board.

The criterion variable retention and the predictor variable caseload was measured by using demographic data that was asked in conjunction with the JSS and the WTMST. The question that was asked in relation to retention was, "Do you intend to return to teaching next year as a special education teacher?" Teachers responded by marking yes or no. In addition, the survey asked, "What is the number of students on your caseload?" Responses to these questions helped provide information on the relationship between caseload and special education teacher retention.

The most robust feedback on teacher retention comes from schools and districts that simply ask if a teacher intends to return. The state of Virginia utilizes intent forms which are distributed to all teachers during the month of January indicating what the teacher intends to do

the next year. These intent forms are not binding but merely a declaration of intent for the next school year. However, while this is a simple response, data collection of this variable is also a formal process for school administrators and districts, in part because of the challenges associated with staffing a public school. Administrators must be aware of the number of positions they will need to fill, which means that collecting accurate data on teacher retention rates is an important task each year. Each of these variables indicates reasons that accurate teacher retention data are an important measure for administrators at the district level.

Summary

Chapter Two provided the literature review, the theoretical foundation, and conceptual framework for the study. The literature review showed that all the factors thought to moderate special education teacher retention or attrition were founded on the Three C's theoretical framework. Based on the Three C's, the literature review showed the school conditions moderators of retention and attrition are workload (caseload, paper work, meetings to be attended), administrative support, collegial support, mentorship and induction programs, job design (autonomy), student-teacher ratio, and role dissonance. Teacher characteristic moderators include teacher preparation, professional qualification, years of teaching in the field of special education, gender, race, age, and sense of success/accomplishment. Finally, retention and attrition moderators associated with compensation include salaries, benefits, and professional development opportunities. These factors moderate stress, job satisfaction, and motivation, which influence the intention to remain or leave the special education field.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Design

The purpose of this quantitative, predictive, correlational study was to determine which variables (e.g., satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) best predict teacher retention for elementary special education teachers in southwest Virginia. The criterion variable for this study was retention. The predictor variables for this study included job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), this is the best design because a correlational design will determine the relationship between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable.

The current literature indicates that each of these variables is strongly associated with teacher retention rates. Determining the extent to which each of these is connected could provide administrators and school stakeholders with a set of priorities for determining how best to guide productive, valuable teachers toward remaining with their schools. Research on these variables provided information on the practices needed to decrease the high levels of teacher attrition currently found in school systems.

These three variables were chosen because they stand out among the current literature as providing a likely correlation with retention. In addition, it is feasible in most cases for school administrators to work to make strides in each of these variables over the course of a school year. Job satisfaction is strongly linked to teachers who remain loyal to their school districts, schools, and students. Job satisfaction has been closely associated with productive work environments and professional collaboration; two factors that administrators can make improvements to in most cases (Leko & Smith, 2010). Teacher motivation may often be intrinsic and result from a complex range of criteria. However, it is possible for administrators to develop strategies that can

improve teacher motivation. For example, providing professional development opportunities to teachers can motivate them toward making improvements in terms of instruction and classroom environment (Stempien & Loeb, 2008). The quality and character of school life can profoundly affect teacher motivation and commitment to students, especially when these factors are further compromised by internal factors. Finally, it was important to study retention as a product of caseload, especially in connection with special education teachers. While the connection between caseload and retention is not in question, understanding it as a predictor of attrition in comparison the other two variables could help administrators make adjustments to classroom sizes and the professional support that teachers receive.

Research Question

The following research question was proposed:

RQ1: How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables (job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers?

Null Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was proposed:

$H_0$1: There will be no significant predictive relationship between the outcome variable (retention) and the linear combination of predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers.

Participants and Setting

The participants for the study included a convenience sample of naturally occurring groups of special education elementary school teachers from six school districts in southwest Virginia. School district A consisted of a combined 17 public elementary schools. The school district included 14 Title I elementary schools. A Title I school is a school that has a 40% or

above poverty rate. Title I is a federally funded program that provides funding to schools located in low poverty levels. School district A consisted of approximately 6,300 elementary students, 575 elementary teachers, and 75 elementary special education teachers. The school district was ranked among the top 10 in terms of student population in Virginia. School District B consisted of a combined seven public elementary schools. The school districts included seven elementary Title I schools. School district B consisted of approximately 1,700 elementary students, 150 elementary teachers, and 30 elementary special education teachers. School District C consisted of a combined 10 public elementary schools. The school district included 10 elementary Title I schools. School district C consisted of approximately 3,300 elementary students, 300 elementary teachers, and 45 elementary special education teachers. School District D consisted of a combined eight public elementary schools. The school district included eight elementary Title I schools. School district D consisted of approximately 2,300 elementary students, 200 elementary teachers, and 35 elementary special education teachers. School District E consisted of a combined five public elementary schools. The school district included four elementary Title I schools. School District E consisted of approximately 2,100 elementary students, 220 elementary teachers, and 35 elementary special education teachers. School District F consisted of a combined four public elementary schools. The school district included two elementary Title I schools. School District F consisted of approximately 1,800 elementary students, 140 elementary teachers, and 25 elementary special education teachers.

School districts A-F were chosen because of the researcher's relationship with the school division's central office leaders. In addition, the schools are all located within a 150-mile radius of the researcher's home school. Among the criteria for inclusion in the study are that all participants must (a) be certified to teach in Virginia public schools, (b) be employed full time as

a special education teacher by school district A- F, and (c) be employed in a K-5 setting. The demographics questionnaire in the study was analyzed with descriptive statistics including gender, age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, years teaching in special education, degree level, special education certification, other certifications, current special education population, intent to return as a special education teacher, intent to return to this school district as a special education teacher, number of students on caseload, and currently working in a Title I school.

The study included 51 public elementary schools from six public school districts. Surveys were given to the teachers who met criteria from all 51 schools. For this study, the number of participants sampled was 151 teachers, which according to Gall et al. (2007), exceeded the required minimum (66) for a medium effect size with statistical power of .7 at the .05 alpha level.

Instrumentation

Job Satisfaction

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was the instrument intended for use in this study to measure the predictor variable job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Nine areas of job satisfaction were addressed in the questionnaire (Spector, 1997). The nine areas of job satisfaction are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1997). Each subscale was measured by four items for a total of 36 items. Respondents were required to reply to all 36 items. A total score was calculated from all items. There were six options along a summated rating scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Fewer than half of the items were written in the opposite direction (e.g. questions are asked negatively, so that strongly disagree correlates with job satisfaction). These items must be reverse-scored, and researchers must take care to identify

these items in advance of scoring.

Scores for the four items within each subscale were calculated with a score from one to six, for a total range of four to 24. Scores for total job satisfaction correspond to a sum of all 36 items, in which a total score can range from 36 to 216 after each item has been scored from one to six. High scores on the scale represent high job satisfaction with a score of six signifying the strongest agreement. As stated previously, the scorer must be careful to invert the scores of negative questions. Within the six-point rating scale, scores of five or six indicated satisfaction, while scores of one or two indicated dissatisfaction. The exception to this involved negatively worded items, in which scores of one or two indicated satisfaction. Scores of three or four in either type of item indicated a neutral response. In this way, for each subscale, a summated score that falls within a range of 4-12 will be considered to correlate with dissatisfaction and 16-24 will correlate with satisfaction. A summated score that falls from 13 to 15 was considered neutral (Spector, 1997).

The researcher included directions on the survey for respondents. Estimated time to complete the entire survey was 10 minutes based on the experiences of past respondents (Spector, 1997). Subjects were instructed to refer to instructions or to ask the researcher if there were any questions regarding the survey. A few factors rendered a filled out survey invalid, including missed items and misunderstood instructions. Surveys that were not filled out completely (e.g. all items scored) made it impossible to render a complete summation of results. In additions, participants were asked to avoid discussing their results with other subjects. The highest value was placed on honesty and candor, which was stated within the instructions for completion of the survey.

According to Spector (1997), the JSS was originally developed for use in human service

organizations. It is widely applicable in all work environments, in part because of the wide range of variables and universal themes that are covered. Subscales such as pay, promotion, fringe benefits, and nature of work are highly generalizable, meaning that information on these variables can be understood in any industry. The ease of use and universality of the JSS made it a helpful tool for understanding important factors related to job satisfaction.

In addition, the internal validity of the JSS has been demonstrated through repeated investigation over time (Sector, 1997). The nine subscales of internal consistency are measured with a score of 0.60 for coworkers to 0.91 for the total scale. The overall average of 0.70 for internal consistency was obtained out of a sample of 3,067 individuals. During an 18-month period, the internal consistency of 0.37-0.74 was calculated for a smaller sample of 43 workers. Studies using various scales for job satisfaction on a single employee supported the validity of the survey. A correlation of 0.61 for coworkers to 0.80 for supervisors was calculated between five of the Job Satisfaction subscales and some of the subscales on the Job Description Index (Spector, 1997).

Evidence from prior studies demonstrated that nature of work and supervision have received the highest mean scores, while promotion, salary, and conditions received the lowest mean scores (Spector, 1997). The JSS has been administered to primary and secondary education teachers throughout the years since it was developed. However, past findings had no bearing on the current results. Permission was obtained in order to implement the JSS into the study (see Appendix B).

Motivation

The instrument used in this study to measure the predictor variable motivation was the WTMST. The WTMST has been demonstrated to measure five tasks of teacher motivation as

carried out by six specific tasks (Fernet et al. 2008). In contrast to the JSS, the WTMST is specific to the teaching profession and provides valuable feedback regarding levels of motivation and energy in the classroom. Teacher motivation has been closely linked with academic performance and job satisfaction (Fernet et al., 2008). Teachers who are motivated in the classroom are more likely to have motivated students. In addition, motivation has also been connected to burnout and low rates of retention (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984). At the same time, motivation levels among teachers are among the lowest for any profession in the United States (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984).

The WTMST scale supported the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to display the 90 questions from five types of motivation for the six teacher work tasks. The six teacher work tasks covered in the WTMST are class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, classroom management, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks. These task groups were chosen as representative of the work that most public school teachers perform at the elementary and middle school levels. Each of the five types of motivation was defined as intrinsic motivation, identified motivation, introjected motivation, external regulations, and amotivation. The five types of motivation were assessed with respect to the six work groups. These types of motivation reflect the internal and external sources of motivation, which teachers feel and show how these can be manifested in the classroom. Fernet et al. (2008) indicated that this specified breakdown allows teachers to self-report their varying levels of motivation regarding specific tasks. This data allowed researchers to account for the tendency of teachers to describe motivation as a temporary condition, or one that is relative to individual tasks. While understanding global measures of motivation is the goal of research on the subject, it is not always possible given the challenges of self-reporting as the primary metric. For example, when answering questions about specific

motivation levels, teachers may be more likely to describe their motivation regarding specific tasks or current mood (Neves de Jesus & Lens, 2005). In addition, motivation levels may correspond more to internal or external factors at a given point in the day. A one-time self-report of motivation is inherently challenged by multiple factors.

The main goal of the WTMST is to measure intrinsic motivation, identified motivation, external regulations, and amotivation toward the above six work tasks. The survey consists of 90 questions that cover the work tasks. The completion time for the survey was estimated to be 25 minutes. No specific directions were originally placed on the survey. Therefore, the researcher included instructions for completion.

Participant answers were scored on a seven-point scale with answers receiving numerical scores ranging from one (does not correspond at all) to seven (corresponds completely). The Cronbach's alpha for the subscales are .90 and .73. According to Fernet et al. (2008), correlational analyses provided support for the convergent and divergent validity of the scale. The authors concluded that the convergent validity was authenticated with all 15 correlations positive and significant for each type of motivation.

The correlation for intrinsic motivation displayed low positive interrelations (.15 to .47; mean r = .29) and identified regulations (.21 to .54; mean r = .37) but moderate and positive interrelations for introjected regulation (.51 to .75; mean r = .63), external regulation (.27 to .71; mean r =.55), and amotivation (.33 to .64; mean r = .44). The divergent validity results indicated that overall convergent correlations (mean r = .46) were higher than divergent correlations (mean r = .14) (Fernet et al., 2008). However, the correlations between intrinsic motivation for each work task and teachers' self-efficacy will vary from .18 to .49. These correlations suggest that the perception of teachers' efficacy depends more on intrinsic motivation toward teaching (r =

.49) than on intrinsic motivation toward complementary tasks (r = .18). Permission was obtained in order to implement and modify the WTMST into the study (see Appendix C).

Caseload

Caseload was measured with a single item included within the demographic questions. Teachers responded to the question on the survey, "What is the number of students currently on your caseload?" The teacher gave a numerical answer. This question did not have a multiple-choice response.

Retention

Teacher retention was measured with a single item along with the demographic questions. Teachers were asked the extent to which they agree with the following statement, "I plan to return to this school district next year as a special education teacher." Subjects responded on a 5-point Likert Scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. A higher rating indicated a greater intention to remain in the position.

Procedures

The researcher initiated the study by securing a permission letter from the superintendents of school districts A-F authorizing the study within their school districts (see Appendix D). Once IRB approval was attained (see Appendix E), the researcher contacted the superintendents and/or special education directors from the six school divisions to gain access to the participants and obtain the email addresses of the participants. The researcher uploaded demographic questions, satisfaction questions, and motivation questions to SurveyMonkey. A link was generated to send to participants in order to access the survey.

Next, the researcher sent an email with directions, an introduction letter, a link to the

survey, and time constraints. The teachers were informed there would be no penalty for not volunteering, their participation was voluntary, and they may withdraw from the study at any time simply by informing the researcher of their intent. No coercion was used. After the first email, a second email was sent to the teachers through the special education coordinators (two weeks later); the third attempt was emailed through school administration.

Once participants accessed SurveyMonkey, they were first presented with the purpose of the study, instructions, and a reminder that the survey was voluntary and they may withdraw at any time without penalty. The participant was informed that the survey would take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Two entrance questions were asked to access the survey: "Are you currently a certified special education teacher in Virginia?" and "Are you currently teaching special education in school districts A-F?" If both questions were answered in the affirmative, the survey opened; if not, the survey ended with a thank you for your participation message. Demographic questions were presented first. Next, questions concerning job satisfaction were presented followed by questions on motivation.

The two surveys were uploaded into SurveyMonkey by the researcher. The surveys were completed in two parts. The Job Satisfaction Survey consisted of 36 questions. The survey was displayed on the screen, and respondents would scroll through all 36 questions. After completion of all questions, the participants submitted their answers into the SurveyMonkey data bank. The survey was not timed; participants had as much time as they needed to complete it. A thank you message appeared on the screen upon completion of the survey.

The Work Tasks Motivation Scale for Teachers survey was uploaded to Survey Monkey by the researcher. The survey was displayed on the initial screen, presenting all 30 questions (modified from the original 90 questions) at once pertaining to motivation. After completing all

questions, the participants submitted their answers into the SurveyMonkey data bank. A thank you message appeared on the screen with completion of the survey. At the end of all questions, the participants were thanked for their time. The researcher's email address was given in the event a participant had any questions or wished to withdraw. After the desired number of surveys were completed, the researcher notified SurveyMonkey staff to close survey access.

Data Analysis

Once the desired number of surveys was completed, the results were downloaded into Excel and SPSS version 20 for analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to measure central tendencies, measures of variability, and measures of relative standing among the data measured on interval and ratio scales as well as the mean, standard deviation, and the information gathered (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2012). All demographic data was presented on charts and graphs for comparison and analysis. Quantitative data from the survey questions was computed using a regression analysis.

The assumptions of regression analysis were tested prior to testing the hypothesis. First, the data was examined for outliers. Univariate and multivariate outliers were identified using box plots and removed. In addition, the key variables were assessed for normal distribution using skewness and kurtosis, as well as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The assumption of linearity was tested using scatterplot; a scatterplot was created for each set of predictors and the criterion variable. Finally, multicollinearity was tested using Pearson correlations; tolerance and VIF (variance inflation factor) values were also assessed in the regression model.

The Pearson *r* correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of a relationship between the variables. The researcher used a Pearson's correlation in order to find a correlation between at least two continuous variables. The value for such a correlation lies between 0.00 (no

correlation) and 1.00 (perfect correlation) (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2012). Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether a relationship exists, to predict outcomes, and to measure influence between the predictor variables and the criterion variable (Gall et al., 2007). The standardized beta score was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable. SPSS software was used to plot the relationship of multiple independent variables against the dependent variable. Once the best fit line was established, a linear equation for the line was determined. To evaluate the quality of the regression line, the deviation of the data points from the line was measured. To calculate *R*-square, the residual values were determined (Fields, 2009; Hill & Lewicki, 2007). Once R-square was calculated, the correlation coefficient, R, was calculated (Fields, 2009; Hill & Lewicki, 2007). The findings were reported to the administrators and special education teachers from school districts A-F.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Research Question

The following research question was proposed:

RQ1: How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload for special elementary education teachers?

Null Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was proposed:

H01: There will be no significant predictive relationship between the outcome variable (retention) and the linear combination of predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers.

Descriptive Statistics

The majority of participants in the sample were female (91.4%). Although age responses varied among participants, the most frequent responses were 20-25 (17.2%), 31-35 (17.9%), and 36-40 (16.6%). The bulk of participants indicated Caucasian as their ethnicity (89.4%). Many participants had spent one to five years teaching any one subject (31.8%) and one to five years teaching in special education (33.8%). Over half of participants in the sample held a Master's degree (65.6%). The majority of participants intended to return to their post as a special education teacher the following year (96.7%). When asked if they planned to return to their school district next year, most either agreed (39.7%) or strongly agreed (32.5%). The student caseloads of the teachers ranged from five to 26 students (M = 15.11, SD = 4.54). Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 1

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 151)

Variable	Category	*n*	%
Gender			
	Male	13	8.6
	Female	138	91.4
Age group [a]			
	20-25	26	17.2
	26-30	20	13.2
	31-35	27	17.9
	36-40	25	16.6
	41-45	17	11.3
	46-50	15	9.9
	51-55	9	6.0
	56-60	7	4.6
	61+	5	3.3
Ethnicity			
	Caucasian	135	89.4
	Black/African American	4	2.6
	Hispanic	2	1.3
	Other	10	6.6
Years teaching any subject [b]			
	1-5	48	31.8
	6-10	24	15.9
	11-15	33	21.9
	16-20	17	11.3
	21-25	13	8.6
	26-30	8	5.3
	31+	8	5.3
Years teaching in Special Education [c]			
	1-5	51	33.8
	6-10	31	20.5
	11-15	32	21.2
	16-20	19	12.6
	21-25	9	6.0
	26-30	8	5.3
	31+	1	0.7

Variable	Category	*N*	%
Highest degree			
	Bachelor's	45	29.8
	Master's	99	65.6
	Specialist	7	4.6
Do you intend to return to teaching next year as a special education teacher?			
	Yes	146	96.7
	No	5	3.3
Plan to Return (Retention)			
	Strongly disagree	9	6.0
	Disagree	2	1.3
	Neither disagree nor agree	31	20.5
	Agree	60	39.7
	Strongly agree	49	32.5
Caseload [d]			
	5 to 9	26	17.2
	10 to 14	28	18.5
	15 to 19	75	49.7
	20 to 26	22	14.7
Type of Classroom			
	Self-contained classroom	24	15.9
	Inclusion teacher	127	84.1
Title I School			
	Yes	143	94.7
	No	8	5.3

Note. [a] *Mdn* = 38 years; [b] *Mdn* = 13 years; [c] *Mdn* = 8 years; [d] *M* = 15.11, *SD* = 4.54.

Table 2 displays the psychometric characteristics for the ten satisfaction scores and the five motivation scores. The resulting 15 Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranged in size from $\alpha = .69$ to $\alpha = .95$ with the median sized alpha being $\alpha = .86$. This suggested that all scales had acceptable levels of internal reliability (Gall et al., 2007). The highest and lowest rated satisfaction scales were nature of the work (*M* = 4.92, *SD* = 1.19) and pay (*M* = 2.06, *SD* = 1.13), respectively. The highest and lowest rated motivation scales were identified regulation (*M* = 5.03, *SD* = 1.20) and amotivation (*M* = 2.32, *SD* = 1.30), respectively (see Table 2).

Table 2

Psychometric Characteristics for the Aggregated Scale Scores (N = 151)

Scale	# of items	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	α
Pay	4	2.06	1.13	1.00	5.50	.82
Promotion	4	3.15	1.02	1.00	6.00	.83
Supervision	4	4.91	1.25	1.00	6.00	.92
Fringe Benefits	4	2.76	1.15	1.00	5.75	.81
Contingent Rewards	4	3.49	1.12	1.00	6.00	.80
Operating Conditions	3	2.39	0.78	1.00	4.75	.69
Coworkers	4	4.86	1.16	1.00	6.00	.89
Nature of work	4	4.92	1.19	1.00	6.00	.91
Communication	4	4.51	1.32	1.00	6.00	.91
Total Satisfaction	36	3.67	0.81	1.03	5.44	.95
Intrinsic Motivation	5	3.93	1.35	1.00	6.00	.86
Identified Regulation	5	5.03	1.20	1.00	6.00	.90
Introjected Regulation	6	4.08	1.58	1.00	6.00	.92
External Regulation	4	4.89	1.10	1.25	6.00	.75
Amotivation	5	2.32	1.30	1.00	6.00	.86

Statistical Assumptions

A multiple linear regression was used to test the null hypothesis. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumptions of multiple regression were assessed. Box plots were created to examine the patterns of outliers for the primary study variables. After four rounds of outlier removal along with inspection of normal Q-Q plots, the number of suitable respondents declined from $N = 153$ to $N = 106$. The assumption of normality was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated that the assumption of normality was violated for all of the variables of interest. Table 3 presents the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Table 3

Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Normality (N = 151)

	Statistic	*Df*	*P*
Plan to Return (Retention)	.254	151	.001
Total Satisfaction	.126	151	.001
Caseload	.154	151	.001
Intrinsic Motivation	.083	151	.001
Identified Regulation	.211	151	.001
Introjected Regulation	.186	151	.001
External Regulation	.158	151	.001
Amotivation	.164	151	.001

All variables had significant skewness based on both tests. This reduction in sample size was considered to be unacceptable so a decision was made to perform linear transformations on the primary variables using either square root or log transformations as needed to minimize skewnesss (Howell, 2011). Multicollinearity was deemed to not be a problem in either regression model by examination of tolerance and VIF statistics. The examination of residual scatterplots provided evidence that the assumption of linearity was met.

Results

The research question asked, "How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload for special elementary education teachers?" The related null hypothesis stated that, "$H_0$1: There will be no significant predictive relationship between the outcome variable (retention) and the linear combination of predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers."

To investigate this effect, the multiple regression model was used to predict retention based on the variables of interest. Results of the regression analysis, F (7, 143) = 4.14, $p < .001$, R^2=.169, were significant, indicating the model with satisfaction, motivation, and caseload predicted retention in elementary special education teachers. The full seven–variable model was statistically significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 16.9% of the variance in teachers planning to stay. Further examination of the predictors revealed that satisfaction ($B = 0.56$, $p = .001$), indicated that for every one-unit increase in satisfaction retention increased 0.56 units. Results of the regression are included in Table 4.

Table 4

Results of the Regression with Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload Predicting Retention in Elementary Special Education Teachers

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*
Satisfaction	0.56	0.15	.43	.001
Caseload	-0.01	0.02	-.03	.74
Intrinsic Motivation	0.10	0.10	.13	.31
Identified Regulation	-0.04	0.14	-.05	.75
Introjected Regulation	-0.06	0.08	-.09	.45
External Regulation	0.10	0.09	.11	.26
Amotivation	-0.15	0.09	-.19	.100

Note: F (7, 143) = 4.14, $p = .001$. $R^2 = .169$.

In summary, this study used data from 151 special education teachers to examine the relationship between satisfaction, motivation, and caseload in relation to teacher retention. The research hypothesis (prediction of retention) was supported with the only significant variable being job satisfaction. In the final chapter, these findings will be compared to the literature, conclusions, and implications will be drawn, and a series of recommendations will be suggested.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine whether satisfaction, motivation, and caseload predicted teacher retention in elementary special education teachers in schools in southwest Virginia. The investigation of the factors that predict retention of special education teachers is necessary because of high attrition rates of special education teachers (Sheldrake, 2013). Special education teachers are difficult to retain because of the demanding responsibilities of special education learners and because of teachers' labor-intensive roles in creating and implementing IEPs (Cancio et al., 2013; Christle & Yell, 2013). High attrition rates mean the loss of qualified special education teachers (Morrison, 2012; Loeb & Stempien, 2002), which can have negative implications for institutions and for the educational experience of students as well. Although researchers have found that job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload may be connected to the retention of special education teachers, researchers are still not certain what factors best predict retention among special education teachers (Boeddeker, 2010; Rhodes, 2012; Sheldrake, 2013). More research was needed to determine if job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload predict retention among special education teachers so that administrators can more effectively target those areas in their efforts to retain special education teachers.

Consequently, the research question asked, "How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload for special elementary education teachers?" The related null hypothesis stated that, "$H_0$1: There will be no significant predictive relationship between the outcome variable (retention) and the linear combination of predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload) for elementary special education teachers." The research hypothesis (prediction of retention) was supported, with the

only statistically significant variable being job satisfaction. Motivation and caseload were found not to predict teacher retention. Findings related to each variable are discussed below.

Satisfaction

The findings of the present study, that job satisfaction predicts special education teacher retention, support the findings of previous research (Cancio et al., 2013; Emery & Vandenberg, 2010; Major, 2012). Cancio et al. (2013) and Emery and Vandenberg (2010) found that special education teachers were likely to suffer low job satisfaction, and Major (2012) found that attrition among special education teachers was the result of low levels of job satisfaction. Due to the special needs of their learners, special education teachers have several demanding responsibilities (e.g., direct instruction, legal paperwork, IEPs, regular meetings with parents) that can act as stressors and lead to low levels of job satisfaction (Cancio et al., 2013; Johnson, 2011; Piotrowski & Plash, 2006).

According to Sher's (1983) Three C's theory of education, teacher retention is influenced by teachers' *characteristics*, work *conditions*, and *compensation*. Teachers' working conditions include school location and environment, cultural attitudes, community involvement, and the needs of learners. The demanding responsibilities of special education instruction are part of special education teachers' working conditions, and according to Sher, teacher work conditions are an integral component of job satisfaction, which can influence teacher retention. In addition to working conditions, compensation can also influence job satisfaction and retention, especially for special education teachers whose learners require additional attention. Special education teachers need to feel justly compensated for their work, and the absence of competitive pay rates can undermine job satisfaction leading to attrition (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Moore, 2012). Kirby and Grissmer (1993) found that adequate compensation positively affected teacher

retention rates. More recently, researchers confirmed the positive relationship between salary increases for teachers and teacher retention (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Moore, 2012). Thus, the findings of the present study in conjunction with previous research were consistent with Sher's Three C's theory.

Motivation

The findings of the present study that motivation did not predict retention in special education elementary teachers do not align with the findings of Major (2012), who found that special education teachers have high attrition rates stemming from low motivation. However, according to Ingersoll (2012), the connections between high attrition rates and motivation among special education teachers are not always clear because of variations in factors influencing motivation from one educational environment to the next. Factors influencing teacher motivation include peer and administrative support, teachers' attitudes toward work, and teachers' commitment to their schools (Ofoegbu, 2004; Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010; Yan, 2008). Other than the findings of Major, the connections between motivation and retention among special education teachers remain unclear and inconclusive.

Teacher motivation has been associated with commitment and the ability to endure difficult challenges in the classroom (Aderson & Iwanicki, 1984). Ofojebe and Ezugoh (2010) also concluded that when teachers were highly motivated they were able to deliver quality education. In addition, motivation may represent an important teacher characteristic that may connect to teacher retention (Sher, 1983). Still, more work is needed to determine whether motivation is connected to retention in special education teachers. The findings of the present study add to the inconclusive nature of the connection between motivation and retention in special education teachers and suggest that additional research is needed in this area.

Caseload

Billingsley (2007) and Major (2012) found that caseload is another factor affecting special education teacher retention, and Sheldrake (2013) found that high caseloads were the most important factors influencing special education teacher attrition. However, the findings of the present study that caseload did not predict retention in special education elementary teachers do not align with the findings of previous studies. Special education teachers' caseload involves the number of IEPs for which teachers are responsible, and caseload represents an extremely important and work-intensive component of the working conditions of special education teachers (Cancio et al., 2013; Sher, 1983). The findings of the present study also did not support Sher's theory that caseload as a component of the working conditions of special education teachers influences the retention of special education teachers. This finding suggests that more research is needed on the connection between caseload and special education teacher retention, or it may represent a limitation of the present study. For example, even though teachers may have high caseloads, they may feel satisfied in their jobs if they perceive that they have administrative support and they are compensated adequately (Major, 2012). The regression analysis of the present study allowed only for determining whether caseload predicted retention. A mediation analysis using job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between caseload and retention may have yielded different results.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the present study and on the findings of previous literature, job satisfaction is an important predictor of retention among special education teachers. Consequently, job satisfaction may be one of the factors that best predicts retention among special education teachers. Job satisfaction among special education teachers is influenced by

teachers' working conditions and compensation. Due to the demanding nature of the work of special education teachers, job satisfaction is crucial to the retention of special education teachers.

However, motivation as a teacher characteristic of Sher's (1983) Three C's theory may or may not be a reliable predictor of retention among special education teachers. More work is needed to confirm whether motivation predicts retention among special education teachers and to determine conclusively whether motivation is connected to retention. In addition to motivation, researchers should seek to confirm whether caseload predicts retention among special education teachers, and it may be that job satisfaction mediates caseload and retention in special education teachers. A mediation analysis using satisfaction as the mediator in the relationship between caseload and retention, and between motivation and retention may have yielded different results. Switching to an analysis that allowed the researcher to assess the influence on the two predictors on retention may have revealed that a relationship between motivation and caseload were present; however, those effects were masked by the presence of job satisfaction.

Implications

The findings of the present study have several implications for both theory and practice. For example, findings confirmed that job satisfaction is a reliable predictor of retention among special education teachers; consequently, this information helps fill the gap on what factors best predict retention in special education teachers. Additionally, the findings did not confirm that motivation and caseload predicted retention among special education teachers, suggesting inconclusive connections between these factors and retention, and that more and different kinds of research may be necessary. The findings suggested that job satisfaction might mediate motivation and retention as well as caseload and retention.

Practical implications of the findings include that administrators can focus on increasing job satisfaction of special education teachers to help retain qualified teachers. Increasing job satisfaction in special education teachers might include improvement in the working conditions of special education teachers. For example, administrators might offer demonstrative support, continued professional development of special education teachers, and increased compensation for the demanding work of special education teachers. Practical implications for teachers might include ways for them to increase their own sense of job satisfaction through avenues such as professional and peer support networks.

Limitations

The primary limitation of the research process and data collection for the present study was the manner and rate in which teachers chose to participate in the interview process. Specifically, subjects were chosen by proximity to the researcher and by meeting specific requirements, which reflected some concerns about the generalizability of the findings. Mayring (2007) stated generalization is necessary for qualitative research insofar as it yields testable foundations for theory formulation based on specific observations. However, a methodology must be in place to avoid abstraction from these observations and to generate tangible consequences that can be put into practice. The relationship between the participants of this study and the population of special education teachers at large may be unclear because the present study was confined to quantitative data obtained from certified special education teachers in southwest Virginia. However, the connection between these findings and those of similar studies on teacher retention might represent sufficient generalizability and the potential for future studies covering other teacher populations.

Another limitation of the research process might have been ensuring a high level of

honesty in the responses provided by the participants. The study was limited by the honesty and memory of the participants' responses. The veracity of self-reporting leads to questions regarding authenticity and the extent to which teachers revealed their true feelings within the time available to complete the surveys, which could have affected the quality of the data collected. This limitation might have been difficult to overcome because of the nature of the study, which relied on self-assessment. Although teacher responses remained strictly confidential and participants were informed of confidentiality in advance of taking the survey, other measures, such as peer reporting or retention rates, may have yielded different results.

A final limitation was that regression analysis of the present study allowed only for determining whether job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload predicted retention. A mediation analysis using job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between caseload and retention may have yielded different results and more information on the relationship between motivation and retention as well as between caseload and retention.

Recommendations for Future Research

Since the findings of the present study confirmed that job satisfaction predicts retention among special education teachers, researchers might focus on finding additional incentives and practical ways to increase job satisfaction in special education teachers. Researchers might study stress reduction strategies for special education teachers and practical ways that administration can support special education teachers in their work, including increased professional development opportunities. Researchers might also conduct local and regional studies on ways administrators and officials might increase compensation and decrease workloads for special education teachers while working within allocated budgets and teaching load requirements.

In addition, different research methods and designs would yield more and different kinds

of information to paint a more complete picture of how job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload influence retention of special education teachers. Qualitative studies, for example, would provide in-depth information on the experiences of special education teachers from their own perspectives. In addition, longitudinal studies could provide insight into how to sustain special education teachers over time in order to better retain qualified teachers. Researchers might also use different measures, such as peer report and objective measures (e.g., retention rates), to provide more comprehensive data than that provided by self-report measures. Researchers might focus on how motivation and caseload might be connected to retention as mediated by job satisfaction rather than being connected to retention by correlation. Future research with a larger sample size may be able to more accurately represent the data for special education teachers and either corroborate or refute the findings of the present study based on the responses of the 151 special education teachers in southwest Virginia. Finally, future research might focus on further testing Sher's (1983) underused Three C's theory of education to better understand and explain the factors related to special education teacher retention.

Further research could be conducted to determine the likelihood of retention based on the situation of the special education teacher. A study in which the attitudes, opinions, and retention of a self-contained teacher as opposed to a collaborative teacher working with general education teachers would provide insight into the more specific factors involving job satisfaction. In summary, the findings of this study demonstrate that special education teachers are willing to face all the challenges and difficulties if they are in a supportive environment. Another facet of this research would be to examine if the satisfaction a teacher feels is dependent on their personal value of the particular program they teach.

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APPENDIX A: Demographic Questions

1. Gender:

   Male ( ) Female ( )

2. Age group:

   20-25 ( ), 26-30 ( ), 31-35 ( ), 36-40 ( ), 41-45 ( ), 46-50 ( ), 51-55 ( ), 56-60 ( ), 61 + ( )

3. Ethnicity:

   White ( ), Black/ African American ( ), Hispanic ( ), Asian ( ), Other ( )

4. Years teaching:

   1-5 ( ), 6-10 ( ), 11-15 ( ), 16-20 ( ), 21-25 ( ), 26-30 ( ), 31+ plus ( )

5. Years teaching in special education:

   1-5 ( ), 6-10 ( ), 11-15 ( ), 16-20 ( ), 21-25 ( ), 26-30 ( ), 31+ plus ( )

6. Degree level (education attainment):

   Bachelor's ( ), Master's ( ), Specialist ( ), Doctoral ( )

7. Are you certified in special education; if not, what is your area of certification?

   Yes ( ), No ( ), _____

8. If certified in special education, what is your certification area?

   _____

9. What special education population (LD, ED, ID, etc.) are you currently teaching?

   _____

10. Do you intend to return to teaching next year as a special education teacher?

    Yes ( ), No ( )

11. I plan to return to this school district next year as a special education teacher.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree,

4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

12. What is the number of students currently on your caseload? _____

13. Do you currently teach in a self-contained classroom (more than 50% of the day in a special education classroom) or are you considered an inclusion teacher (less than 50% of the day in a special education classroom)?_____

14. Are you currently working in a Title I school? _____

APPENDIX B: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Dear Cory:

You have my permission to reproduce the JSS as long as you include the copyright notice as noted below.

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of the JSS. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
813-974-0357
pspector [at symbol] usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector

From: Corbett R. Hawks [mailto:chawks@rcps.info]
Sent: Tuesday, February 16, 2016 7:24 PM
To: Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu>
Cc: Corbett R. Hawks <chawks@rcps.info>
Subject: Job Satisfaction Survey permission to Reproduce: Liberty University: Cory Hawks

Permission Email

Greetings!

I am contacting you because I would like to ask permission to reproduce your instrument- Job Satisfaction Survey in my Dissertation. After defending my Dissertation, my program requires me to submit it for publication in the Liberty University open-access institutional repository, the Digital Commons, and in the Proquest thesis and dissertation subscription research database. If you allow this, I will provide a citation of your work as follows:

Spector, P. (1994). Job Satisfaction Survey. Department of Psychology, University of South Florida. Retrieved May 1, 2015, from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jsspag.html.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter!

Cory Hawks
Liberty University

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida 	
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. 	Disagree very mcuh / Disagree moderately / Disagree slightly / Agree slightly / Agree moderately / Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1 2 3 4 5 6

APPENDIX C: The Work Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST)

Dear Cory Hawks,

Thank you for your request. You can consider this email as permission to use the material as detailed below in your upcoming dissertation. Please note that this permission does not cover any 3rd party material that may be found within the work. You must properly credit the original source, *Journal of Career Assessment*. Please contact us for any further usage of the material.

Best regards,
Michelle Binur
Rights Coordinator
SAGE Publishing
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, CA 91320
USA
www.sagepublishing.com
Los Angeles | London | New Delhi
Singapore | Washington DC | Melbourne

Permission Email

Greetings!
I am contacting you because I would like to ask permission to reproduce your instrument- The Work Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST) in my Dissertation. After defending my Dissertation, my program requires me to submit it for publication in the Liberty University open-access institutional repository, the Digital Commons, and in the Proquest thesis and dissertation subscription research database. If you allow this, I will provide a citation of your work as follows:

Fernet, C., Senecal, C., Guay, F., Marsh, H., & Dowson, M. (2008). The Work Tasks Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST). *Journal of Career Assessment, 16,* 256-279.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter!

Cory Hawks
Liberty University

Different reasons may explain why teachers engage in their work tasks. The following statements represent some of these reasons. Using the scale below, please indicate for each statement to what degree they correspond to one of the reasons for which you are doing the following work tasks.

Why are you doing this work task?

CLASS PREPARATION

(e.g., deciding on instruction topics and material, determining the presentation forms and sequences, and establishing the work procedure)

Does not correspond at all	**Corresponds very little**	**Corresponds a little**	**Corresponds moderately**	**Corresponds strongly**	**Corresponds *very* strongly**	**Corresponds completely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because it is pleasant to carry out this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2.	I don't know, I don't always see the relevance of carrying out this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.	Because I like doing this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4.	Because my work demands it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.	Because I find this task important for the academic success of my students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Why are you doing this work task?

TEACHING

(e.g., presenting instruction, answering questions, and listening to the students' needs)

Does not correspond at all	Corresponds very little	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds strongly	Corresponds *very* strongly	Corresponds completely
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because the school obliges me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Because if I don't carry out this task, I will feel bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Because it is important for me to carry out this task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	To not feel bad if I don't do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I don't know, sometimes I don't see its purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Why are you doing this work task?

EVALUATION OF STUDENTS

(e.g., constructing assessments and exams, correcting, entering marks, giving remarks to the parents)

Does not correspond at all	**Corresponds very little**	**Corresponds a little**	**Corresponds moderately**	**Corresponds strongly**	**Corresponds *very* strongly**	**Corresponds completely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because I'm paid to do it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2.	Because I find this task interesting to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.	I don't know, sometimes I don't see its purpose.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4.	Because it is pleasant to carry out this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.	Because I would feel guilty not doing it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Why are you doing this work task?

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

(e.g., handling discipline, applying the rules, and managing students' interruptions and conflicts)

Does not correspond at all	**Corresponds very little**	**Corresponds a little**	**Corresponds moderately**	**Corresponds strongly**	**Corresponds *very* strongly**	**Corresponds completely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because I would feel guilty not doing it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2.	Because this task allows me to attain work objectives that I consider important.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.	Because it is important for me to carry out this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4.	Because if I don't carry out this task, I will feel bad.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.	I don't know, sometimes I don't see its purpose.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Why are you doing this work task?

ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS

(e.g., recording and transmitting absences, building disciplinary files, and participating in meetings with the parents and principals to study disciplinary cases, meetings with teachers, meetings with the administration, meetings with the union, and school assemblies)

Does not correspond at all	**Corresponds very little**	**Corresponds a little**	**Corresponds moderately**	**Corresponds strongly**	**Corresponds *very* strongly**	**Corresponds completely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because my work demands it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2.	I don't know, sometimes I don't see its purpose.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.	Because if I don't carry out this task, I will feel bad.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4.	Because I like doing this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.	Because I find this task important for the academic success of my students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Why are you doing this work task?

COMPLEMENTARY TASKS

(e.g., tutorial guidance, involvement in committees, extracurricular activities, continuous improvement training, and extra class monitoring)

Does not correspond at all	**Corresponds very little**	**Corresponds a little**	**Corresponds moderately**	**Corresponds strongly**	**Corresponds *very* strongly**	**Corresponds completely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1.	Because it is important for me to carry out this task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2.	Because I find this task important for the academic success of my students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.	I don't know, sometimes I don't see its purpose.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4.	Because if I don't carry out this task, I will feel bad.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.	I used to know why I was doing this task, but I don't see the reason anymore.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX D: School District Participation Letters

Superintendent Letter

February 15, 2015

Dear Superintendent:

Currently I am a _____ administrator who has become very interested in retaining and supporting special education teachers. As a doctoral candidate at Liberty University, my research/dissertation is focused on the factors that impact retention of special education teachers. My study is titled, "The Relationship Between Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I am writing to ask for your permission for elementary special education teachers to participate in the study. Teachers are asked to complete a survey to participate in the study. The survey can be conducted outside of a typical school day and will be completed on a voluntary basis.

Criteria to participate:

- Participants must be certified to teach special education in Virginia public schools.
- Participants must be employed full time by school district A or school district B as a special education teacher.
- Participants must be teaching special education in an elementary school setting (Kindergarten-5th grade) or have taught in an elementary setting.

With permission from you, I will email the special education teachers in your division asking them to complete an electronic survey. The email will contain a link to the electronic survey if the teacher wishes to participate. The data collected will not be used in any manner that will identify the teacher or the division. All information will be used for research purposes only and kept confidential. School divisions will be given pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.

The survey has an estimated completion time of 25 minutes. Although teachers will not receive monetary compensation, their participation will provide valuable information in the field of special education and the retention of special education educators.

If you wish to allow teachers from your division to participate, please copy and paste the paragraph below to division letterhead, sign the document, and mail to 8704 Little Hoop Road Roanoke, VA 24019. For a quicker response, it can also be signed, scanned, and emailed to chawks@rcps.info. Thank you so much for your attention to this matter.

Sincerely,

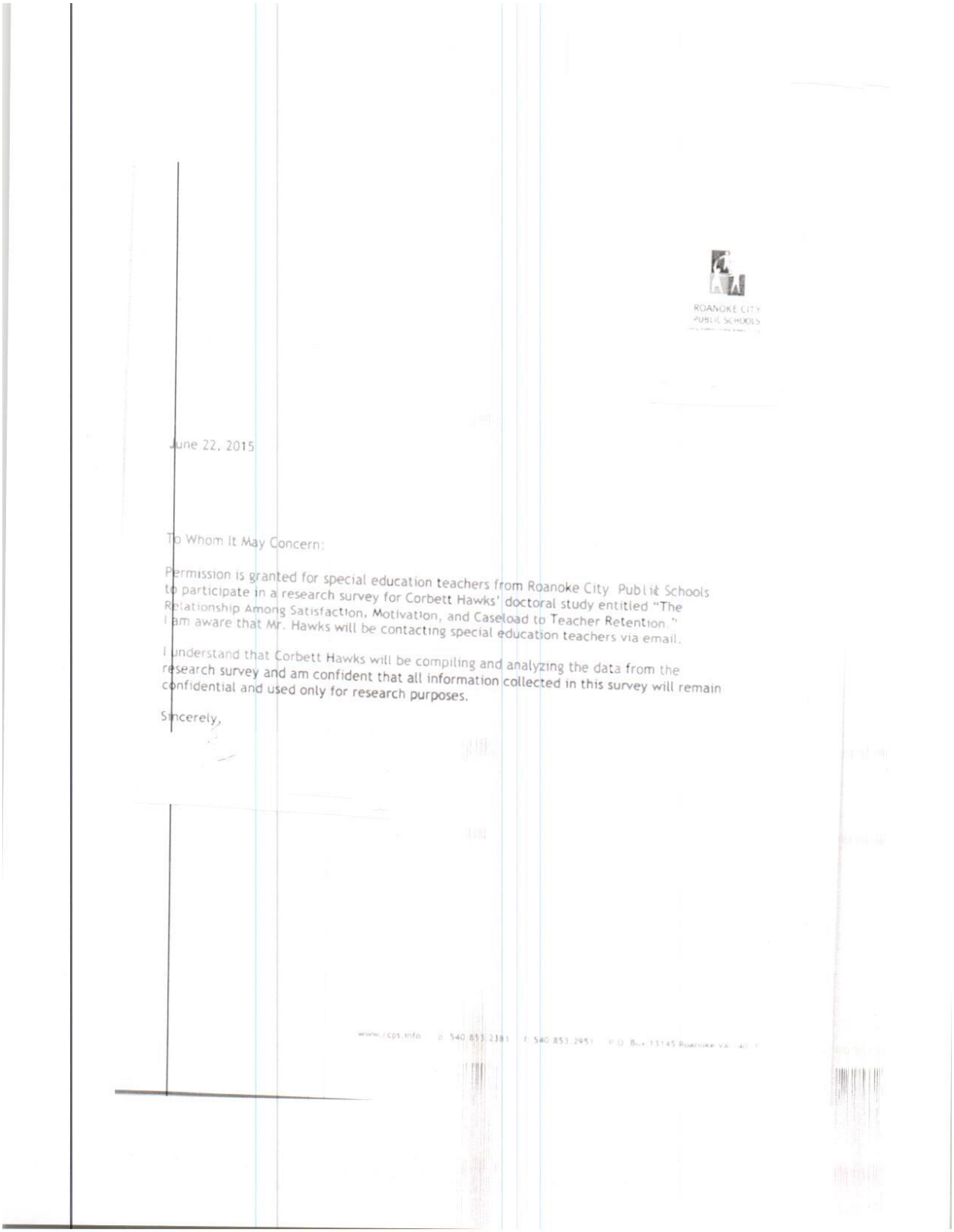
Corbett R. Hawks
Liberty University

To Whom It May Concern:

I give permission for special education teachers from _____ schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Between Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used for only research purposed.

Sincerely,

Superintendent



ROANOKE CITY
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

June 22, 2015

To Whom It May Concern:

Permission is granted for special education teachers from Roanoke City Public Schools to participate in a research survey for Corbett Hawks' doctoral study entitled "The Relationship Among Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email.

I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey and am confident that all information collected in this survey will remain confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

www.rcps.info | P: 540.853.2381 | F: 540.853.2951 | P.O. Box 13145 Roanoke VA 24031

CARROLL COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
605-9 Pine Street
HILLSVILLE, VIRGINIA 24343
TELEPHONE: (276) 730-3200
FAX: (276) 730-3210
(276) 236-8145

July 1, 2015

To whom it may concern:

I give permission for special education teachers from Carroll County Public schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Between Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

July 8, 2015

School of Education: Liberty University,

I give permission for special education teachers from Henry County Public Schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Among Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

Russell County Public Schools

July 14, 2015

School of Education: Liberty University,

I give permission for special education teachers from Russell County Public Schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Among Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

Reach Each Child.

Pulaski County Public Schools

July 21, 2015

School of Education: Liberty University,

I give permission for special education teachers from Pulaski County Public Schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Among Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

CITY OF SALEM SCHOOL DIVISION

July 21, 2015

School of Education: Liberty University,

I give permission for special education teachers from Salem City Public Schools to participate in a research survey for the doctoral study entitled, "The Relationship Among Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload to Teacher Retention." I understand that Corbett Hawks will be compiling and analyzing the data from the research survey. I am aware that Mr. Hawks will be contacting special education teachers via email. I am confident that all information collected in this survey will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

Sincerely,

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
8/11/15 to –
Protocol 2266.081115

CONSENT FORM

The Relationship between Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload and Teacher Retention

Corbett R. Hawks
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study of teacher retention and the relationship among the variables satisfaction, motivation, and caseload. You were selected as a possible participant because you fit the below criteria:

1. Participants will currently be employed in school districts A- G (see below) in southwest Virginia (No identifying information will be given to the researcher from the participant).
2. Participants will be certified to teach in Virginia public schools.
3. Participants will be employed full time as a special education teacher by school district A-G.
4. Participants will be employed in a K-5 setting.

School District A = Roanoke City Public Schools
School District B = Carroll County Public Schools
School District C = Henry County Public Schools
School District D = Russell County Public Schools
School District E = Pulaski County Public Schools
School District F = Salem City Public Schools
School District G = Montgomery County Public Schools

I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study. This study is being conducted by Corbett R. Hawks, a doctoral candidate in Liberty University's School of Education.

Background Information:

The purpose of this quantitative correlational predictive study is to examine the relationship between satisfaction, motivation, and caseload in relation to teacher retention among elementary special education teachers in southwest Virginia. This study seeks to examine the conditions, characteristics, and compensation experienced by special education teachers which has been defined as the Three C's of Education (Sher, 1983). Non-experimental research with a correlational design will be implemented along with the criterion variable (retention) and the predictor variables (satisfaction, motivation, and caseload).

The following research question is proposed:

How accurately can retention be predicted from a linear combination of the variables job satisfaction, motivation, and caseload among special elementary education teachers?

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

1. Select the agree button below, and proceed to the survey.
2. Two entrance questions will be asked to access the survey: Are you currently a certified special education teacher in Virginia? Are you currently teaching special education in school district A-G? If both questions are answered in the affirmative, the survey will open; if not, the survey will end with a thank you participation message.
3. Demographic questions will be presented first. Next, questions concerning job satisfaction will be presented followed by questions on motivation. All questions will be on one page with participants having the option to not answer a question.
4. The survey will take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study:

This study involves minimal risks. Minimal risks are no more than the participant would encounter in everyday life. No identifying information will be given to the researcher from the participant.

There is no direct benefit from participating in this study.

Compensation:

Participants will not receive any monetary compensation for participation.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

Collected data will be stored securely on a password protected computer and only the researcher will have access to the records. If hard copies are printed, they will be stored in a locked file cabinet. The only individuals who will see the information gained from the surveys will be the researcher or Dr. Gary Kuhne, Chair of the Dissertation Committee. The data collected will be stored for no more than three years. After three

years, all collected data will be deleted from the computer's hard drive. All stored hard copies of the collected data will be shredded after three years.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is Corbett R. Hawks. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact him at chawks@liberty.edu. You may also contact his advisor, Dr. Gary Kuhne at gwkuhne@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd, Carter 134, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

If you would like a copy of the consent page, you may print this consent document or contact me at chawks@liberty.edu.

APPENDIX E: IRB Approval

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

August 11, 2015

Corbett Ray Hawks
IRB Exemption 2266.081115: The Relationship between Satisfaction, Motivation, and Caseload and Teacher Retention

Dear Cory,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

> (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
> (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRE and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

(434) 592-4054

LIBERTY
UNIVERSITY.

Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971

1971 UNIVERSITY BLVD. LYNCHBURG, VA 24515 IRB@LIBERTY.EDU FAX (434) 522-0506 WWW.LIBERTY.EDU