

FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO JOB SATISFACTION AND TEACHER RETENTION
IN TITLE I VERSUS NON-TITLE I ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

by

Janice Lea Tolliver

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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APPROVED BY:

Michelle J. Barthlow, Ed.D., Committee Chair

Roger Stiles, Ed.D., Committee Member

Jack Garrow, Ph.D., Committee Member

ABSTRACT

The public school systems in the United States are facing a major teacher shortage in the near future due to the fact that teachers are leaving the profession by the thousands each year. It is imperative that this trend is stopped and reversed to ensure that quality teachers remain in schools. The current study employed a causal-comparative design to determine if working conditions in Title I schools versus non-Title I schools were associated with teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention using the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions (NC TWC) Survey. The qualifications of the selected participants were that they were employed in a specific district in North-Central North Carolina during the 2015-2016 school year, and taught in two specific Title I or two specific non-Title I elementary schools. Participants were drawn from a convenience sample of teachers ($n= 110$) in two Title I elementary schools and two non-Title I elementary schools and were randomly selected from that sample for job satisfaction, and fifty Title I elementary schools and fifty non-Title I elementary schools ($n=100$) for teacher turnover rate. The data were analyzed using a t -test for independent means to determine whether the means of the two groups were statistically significant from one another in job satisfaction and a chi-square test to determine whether teacher turnover rate was distributed differently between the Title I schools and non-Title I schools. No significant difference was found in any subcategory for job satisfaction and no significant difference was found in teacher retention. Recommendations for future research include utilizing a larger number of schools and districts in the sample and examining all subcategories of the NC TWC Survey. The results of this study may influence the steps that school systems can take to retain quality teachers.

Keywords: retention, attrition, Title I, turnover, high-poverty schools, elementary, job satisfaction, NC TWC Survey

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Jonathan, and my son, Brody. You both have sacrificed many hours, days, and weeks so that I could achieve my dream. I am forever grateful for your continuous support, for always encouraging me, and for always being my number one fan in any goal that I set out to achieve.

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List of Abbreviations

Behavior-based interviews (BBI)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC)

Graduate Record Exam (GRE)

Knowledge is Power Program (KIPP)

Multicultural Urban Secondary English Program (MUSE)

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)

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

North Carolina Association of Educators (NCAE)

North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (NCDPI)

New Teacher Center (NTC)

North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey (NC TWC)

Novice Teacher Induction Program (NTIP)

Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS)

Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS)

Teacher Shortage Area (TSA)

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

Urban Teacher Residency United (UTRU)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

This chapter begins with a brief background on teacher turnover in the United States and the many implications this rapidly-increasing issue has on the educational system. The problem statement discusses how the literature has not completely addressed the issue of teacher turnover in Title I elementary schools and the purpose statement proposes a solution to this issue. The significance of the study describes how this study will contribute theoretically and empirically to the existing body of knowledge surrounding teacher job satisfaction and turnover. The research questions that form the foundation of this study are listed followed by terms and definitions that are pertinent in this study.

Background

The educational system in the United States is on the verge of reaching a critical point because teachers are leaving the profession in increasingly higher rates than ever before; nationally, about 30 percent of new teachers leave the profession within 5 years, and the turnover rate is about 50 percent higher in high-poverty schools in comparison to more affluent schools (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). Additionally, attrition rates from individual schools and districts are higher because they include both “movers,” those who leave one school or district for another, and “leavers,” who exit the profession temporarily or permanently (Darling-Hammond, 2010a).

There are several factors that can influence high turnover rates such as: salaries, working conditions, preparation, and mentoring and support (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2010a). Less than 20 percent of attrition is due to retirement (Henke, Chen, & Geis, 2000). Teacher characteristics such as gender, race, age, certification, educational level and years of teaching experience have

been associated with teachers' decision to stay in the same school, move to another school, or leave the profession (Dagli, 2012). In recent years, there has been an increase in the percentage of teachers who either leave the profession or transfer to another school.

According to the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF; Barnes, Crowe, & Schaffer, 2007), in the past 15 years, the teacher attrition rate has grown by 50 percent, and the teacher turnover rate has risen to approximately 17 percent across the United States. The current teacher workforce is younger, less experienced, more likely to turnover, and more diverse in preparation experiences than the workforce of two decades ago (Feistritzer, 2011). Ingersoll (2001) stated that studies began reporting in the early 1980s that there would be a coming teacher shortage; it was predicted that there would be a dramatic increase in the demand for teachers because of a “graying” workforce and an increase in student enrollment.

There is a critical need for qualified teachers in the classroom due to the large number of those in the profession getting ready to retire, along with the current problems regarding turnover. In an attempt to solve the teacher shortage issue, school systems use various programs offering support, guidance, and orientation for beginning teachers during the transition into their first teaching job. However, these programs are still not adequate because too many teachers are leaving before retirement. In an analysis of national data, it was found that school staffing problems are not solely due to teacher shortages; the data indicate that school staffing problems are the result of a “revolving door” of those leaving before retirement (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). The teacher turnover rate that the United States is experiencing has far-reaching effects in many areas.

There are academic and economic repercussions when teachers leave the profession for reasons other than retirement. Barnes et al. (2007) estimated the cost of teacher exits at \$9,500

per teacher for Chicago Public Schools and \$8,371 for Milwaukee Public Schools. These estimates include the direct costs of recruitment and hiring as well as indirect costs such as training, orientation, and professional development. A Texas study estimated that the state's annual turnover rate of 15 percent in 1999, which included a 40 percent turnover rate among teachers in their first three years, cost the state approximately \$329 million a year, which translates to \$8,000 for each recruit who left (Texas Center for Educational Research, 2000). Instead of schools using funds to improve buildings or to purchase new textbooks, they are having to spend more money on replacing the teachers who leave.

In a study by Stanford Research International, it was found that in California, many low-income, high-minority schools with large shares of inexperienced, underprepared teachers, high turnover drains financial and human resources (Shields et al., 2001). Scarce resources are squandered trying to re-teach the basics each year to teachers who come in with only a few tools and then leave before they become skilled (Carroll, Reichardt, & Guarino, 2000). Beyond the economic consequences of teacher turnover, student achievement is also affected. A common finding of the teacher effectiveness literature is that there are significant gains to experience during the first few years of a teacher's career (Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2007). Students achieve higher if their teacher has had at least three years of experience, although the effect of experience levels off after the fifth year (Darling-Hammond, 1999).

It can be argued that teacher turnover might disrupt instructional programs or impede efforts to develop collaborative networks of teachers within schools. Higher turnover reduces student achievement and this effect cannot be fully explained by the replacement of more senior teachers with novice teachers (Ronfeldt et al., 2013). Teacher turnover also has long-term costs of remediation, grade retention, and students dropping out of school because of the continuous

“parade” of ineffective teachers in high turnover schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010b). It becomes challenging for schools with ongoing turnover to build instructional capacity and to ensure that students in all classrooms have effective teachers. Turnover also disrupts efforts to build a strong organizational culture, making it difficult to develop and sustain coordinated instructional programs throughout the school (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012).

Using Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs theory as a framework for factors contributing to teacher job satisfaction may assist in determining what specifically makes teachers leave the profession. According to Maslow, a person's most fundamental needs are for air, food, clothing, and shelter; these are survival or physiological needs. Unless these needs are met, the person cannot progress on the continuum to achieve higher levels of growth and development (Hamel, Leclerc, & Lefrancois, 2009). Higher needs on Maslow's pyramid include safety and security, love and belonging, and self-esteem and self-actualization, in that order. Moving from survival needs to more social development needs, one of the highest levels is self-actualization, where persons are concerned about their legacy, the needs of humankind, and how to make the world a better place for its inhabitants (Hamel et al., 2009). If teachers’ survival or physiological needs cannot be met, they will be unable to progress to higher needs on the pyramid, including the self-actualization of the impact that can be made on students. Needs at the bottom of Maslow’s list must be fulfilled before motivation can be derived from the needs at the top of the hierarchy (Gordon Rouse, 2004).

In connection with Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) addresses a person’s intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as they relate to whether the person’s needs are met. The current educational environment that puts pressure on school faculties by imposed reforms, imposed standards, and multiple goals, affect teachers’

well-being, as reflected in their quality and intensity of motivation, affect, and burnout (Retelsdorf, Butler, Streblov, & Schiefele, 2009). As the self-determination theory relates to teachers' job satisfaction, teachers must feel a sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness within their school environment to be motivated. If these factors are lacking, motivation decreases until burnout occurs.

Additionally, the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2006) provides insight in the study of teacher retention because it examines an individual's beliefs and attitudes in relation to their intentions and behaviors of staying in the profession or leaving. Internal or external factors will affect a teacher's motivation to continue in the profession or leave (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007).

Problem Statement

It is clear that school systems across the United States are facing a similar problem each year: teacher retention. The fact remains that about 30 percent of new teachers leave the profession within 5 years, and the turnover rate is about 50 percent higher in high-poverty schools (Ronfeldt et al., 2013). However, the information available seems to lump together all teachers, no matter the kind of school in which they teach. There seems to be a lack of information on how to retain teachers specifically in high-poverty schools. Those who teach in high-poverty schools often experience additional challenges with economically disadvantaged students such as chronic tardiness, lack of motivation, and inappropriate behavior (Jensen, 2009). Teachers in high-poverty schools often deal with students who act out, use profanity, and disrespect others (Jensen, 2009).

With these additional challenges, teachers are not equipped with the proper tools to handle these situations and often end up frustrated and disheartened about why they entered the

profession to begin with. Ultimately, once enough frustration has mounted, teachers will either move to a new position where the need is not quite as high, or leave the profession altogether. When the opportunity is presented, many teachers choose to leave schools that serve greater percentages of low-income, low-performing, and minority ethnic group students and there is not enough research on understanding which specific features of the working conditions in high-poverty schools affect teacher retention and turnover (Lynch, 2012). Issues such as student achievement, student demographics, school finance, student attendance, and teacher experience are factors that could affect teacher retention in Title I schools (Garza, 2011). The problem is that there is a plethora of research regarding the subject of teacher retention; however, there is little research on the unique factors of Title I elementary schools and how those factors relate to teacher retention and what to do about the issue.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, causal-comparative study is to determine the specific factors that affect the job satisfaction and retention rate of teachers in Title I elementary schools. The dependent variables in this study are teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey, and teacher retention rate as measured by school turnover percentage, and the independent variable is school designation: Title I or non-Title I. Schools may receive the designation of Title I if they have a large concentration of low-income students, which is determined by the number of students who are enrolled in the free or reduced lunch program. Schools with 40% or more of their students receiving free or reduced lunch are designated Title I (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Title I of the Elementary & Secondary Act of 1965 (U.S. Department of Education, 2004) was designed to improve the academic success of students with a variety of different needs by

providing schools with extra financial assistance and resources. However, teaching in a school with the Title I designation presents a unique set of challenges not found in a school that does not hold the designation. While Title I schools may receive increased funding to educate disadvantaged students, working environments are often difficult (Darling-Hammond, 2013). Title I schools face additional challenges such as academic deficiencies and lack of motivation that comes with students who live in poverty. Additionally, schools that house large numbers of Title I students characteristically have larger numbers of new teachers (Ingersoll, 2002). Further research by Ingersoll (2001) revealed that Title I districts had a higher turnover rate than more affluent districts. The challenges that Title I schools face may be reflected in the data analyses.

The sample in this study consisted of teachers from two Title I elementary schools and two non-Title I elementary schools in a North Carolina school district. It is the purpose of this study to determine specific factors that influence the job satisfaction and retention rate of teachers in Title I elementary schools and further, to capitalize on the information gleaned from this study to decrease the turnover rate in Title I elementary schools.

Significance of the Study

Over the past three decades, teacher turnover has increased substantially in U.S. public schools (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Teacher attrition and mobility is a larger problem in U.S. schools that serve predominantly minority and low-income students; as many as 20% of teachers leave high poverty schools every year (Djonko-Moore, 2015). This trend is notable and persistent in schools with a large proportion of students coming from disadvantaged backgrounds, belonging to ethnic minorities, and/or facing learning difficulties (Dupriez, Delvaux, & Lothaire, 2016). A high student success rate has a significant positive effect on teachers' stability, but they are more inclined to leave a school, or even the profession, when

there is a large proportion of students from ethnic minorities (Dupriez et al., 2016). High turnover rates in high poverty schools make it difficult for the schools to build instructional capacity as well as retain high-quality teachers. It is essential to curb the constant flow of teachers through high poverty schools if students are to receive the education they deserve (Ronfeldt et al., 2013).

Although the research is plentiful in the factors that influence teachers who leave the profession, there is little research on the factors that keep teachers in high-poverty schools and what motivates them to stay. Policymakers and practitioners who wish to retain talented, effective teachers in high poverty, hard-to-staff schools must pursue retention strategies that are designed to improve the teaching environment (Simon & Johnson, 2013). This study will be significant to the education world because it will allow school systems to identify the factors that are important to teachers as to why they remain in the high-poverty schools in which they teach. When school systems become more cognizant of these factors, they should be able to decrease the turnover rate within their schools and increase the retention rate of their teachers.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study are:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in teacher turnover rate between Title I elementary schools and non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

Definitions

1. *Title I*- Schools with more than 40% of their students eligible for free or reduced lunch (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

2. *NC TWC Survey*- North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey; instrument used to measure teacher job satisfaction (New Teacher Center, 2014).
3. *Attrition*- Any departure from a school, for any reason (Ainsworth, 2013).
4. *Retention*- Teachers who remain in a particular school each year (Hendricks-Harris, 2012).
5. *Turnover*- Teachers who leave the teaching profession or move to another school (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008).
6. *High-poverty schools*- Schools with approximately 50 percent or more of the students on free or reduced lunch (Freedman & Appleman, 2009).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter presents a thorough review of the existing literature that is available on factors that affect teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention. The theoretical framework guiding this study is discussed and describes the theories that are connected to this study. A brief background is provided on teacher attrition and retention before moving into the major factors that influence teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention and the smaller groupings within these broad categories. The chapter culminates with a summary of what is currently known, what is still unknown, and how this study intends to fill the gap in understanding factors that influence teacher job satisfaction and retention in Title I elementary schools.

The literature review revealed various groupings of factors related to teacher retention. First, the theoretical framework section discusses Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, and Ajzen's (1985) theory of planned behavior as they relate to the factors that influence teacher retention in high-poverty elementary schools. Second, the related literature provides the basis for factors that relate to teacher retention and attrition. Third, the experiences in urban residency and teacher induction programs and their effects on retention will be examined. Fourth, the role of the principal will be discussed and its impact on teacher retention. Fifth, the reasons that are stated in recruiting and retaining high-quality teachers will provide a look into how this affects retention and attrition. Finally, teacher incentives and job satisfaction will be discussed as they relate to retention rates.

There is a large amount of research that indicates the factors that influence teacher retention in high poverty, urban schools (Hughes, 2012; Johnson et al., 2012; Kavenuke, 2013; Marston, 2014; Ronfeldt et al., 2013; Simon & Johnson, 2013). Previous research on teacher

attrition and mobility has examined teacher characteristics, school setting characteristics, and school climate being a central area of focus. More recent research on school climate has focused on teachers' perceptions of student behavior, school administration, and degree of autonomy within a school to determine how these variables predict teachers' decisions to change schools or quit (Djonko-Moore, 2015).

In Ingersoll and Merrill's (2012) report using data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS), the largest and most comprehensive source of data on teachers available, an analysis was conducted to determine the trends and changes that have occurred within the teaching force in the past few decades. From this analysis, seven trends and changes emerged. The teacher force is larger, grayer (older), greener (beginning teachers), more female, more diverse by race-ethnicity, consistent in academic ability, and less stable (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Perhaps the most concerning trend is the stability of the profession, particularly in vulnerable populations. The data show that high-poverty, high-minority, urban, and rural public schools have among the highest rates of turnover and there is an asymmetric reshuffling of significant numbers of employed teachers from poor to not poor schools, from high-minority to low-minority schools, and from urban to suburban schools (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is humanist in nature and includes Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985) as they relate to the factors that influence teacher retention in high-poverty elementary schools.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow (1943) constructed a pyramid of five levels of needs. In a paper titled *A Theory of Human Motivation* (Maslow, 1943), Maslow presented the idea that human actions are directed toward goal attainment. Essentially, behavior is meant to satisfy many functions at the same time. Within the pyramid of five levels, the four levels (lower-order needs) are considered physiological needs, and the top level is considered growth needs. In order for growth needs to be met, one must first satisfy lower level needs. The first four levels are considered deficiency or deprivation needs because their lack of satisfaction produces a deficiency that motivates a person to meet those needs. Physiological needs include necessary elements to survive including air, food, and water. These needs are satisfied for most people, but if they are not, they become predominant needs. Safety needs include health and security and are necessary in times of emergency. Once these needs have been met, belongingness needs including love, relationships, and friendships become important to people. Finally, esteem needs include the need for recognition from others, confidence, achievement, and self-esteem. The highest level of need is self-actualization, or self-fulfillment. This is behavior that is motivated by one's own desire for personal growth. When the highest levels of needs have been met, motivation does not decrease, rather it increases to seek out further fulfillment in one's life. Maslow (1968) stated that people who are professionally successful will continuously seek additional means of becoming more successful. Successful people will continue to create new goals for themselves and will explore ways to attain higher achievements. Their motivational drive increases with the success of achieving each goal. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (see Figure 1) may be beneficial in providing an explanation as to the reason why teachers remain in high-poverty elementary schools.

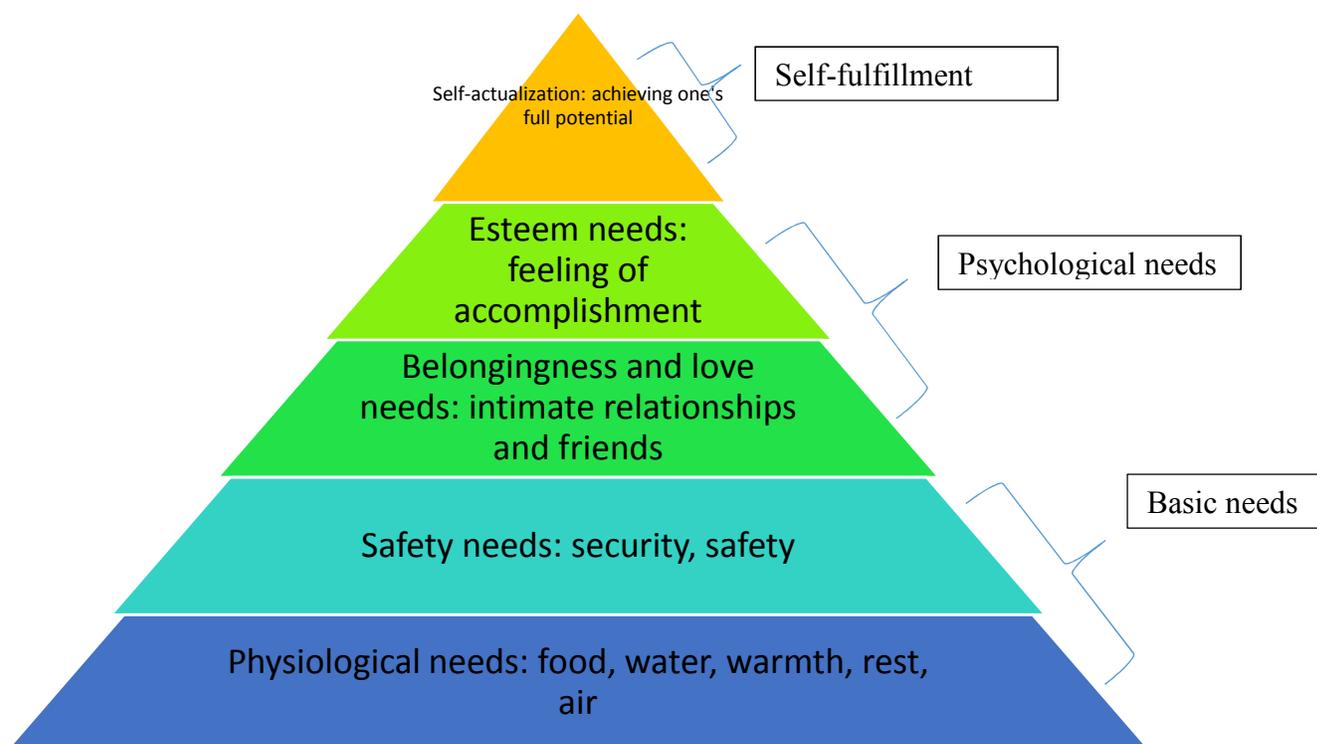


Figure 1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

Teachers must be motivated to remain in their positions and their reasons may vary. However, according to Maslow (1943), teachers' basic needs, and psychological needs must be met before their self-fulfillment needs can be attained. If a lower level need is missing, it is possible that this factor may contribute to why teachers leave a particular school, or the profession. If a teacher's basic needs and psychological needs are met, they are more likely to remain in their position than if these particular needs are missing. Factors such as a safe, collegial environment where teachers feel they have an input in decision making, and where there is a supportive administrator all fall into basic and psychological needs. A teacher will only be able to achieve his or her full potential when the lower level needs are present and fulfilled (Marston, 2014).

Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory is a framework for the study of motivation and personality that addresses three universal, innate and psychological needs: competence, autonomy, and psychological relatedness. This theory addresses intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as they relate to whether a person's needs are met. Intrinsic motivation comes from within a person because of an interest or enjoyment in a particular topic. Extrinsic motivation is when a task is completed to gain a reward or benefit of some kind. Deci, Lens, and Vansteenkiste (2006) conducted a study that demonstrated intrinsic goal framing produced a deeper engagement in learning activities, better conceptual learning, and higher persistence at learning activities. As the self-determination theory relates to teacher retention in high-poverty schools, intrinsic motivation may play a larger role than extrinsic motivational factors in why teachers remain in a school. The self-determination theory (see Figure 2) is beneficial in explaining what factors are responsible for keeping teachers in their positions.

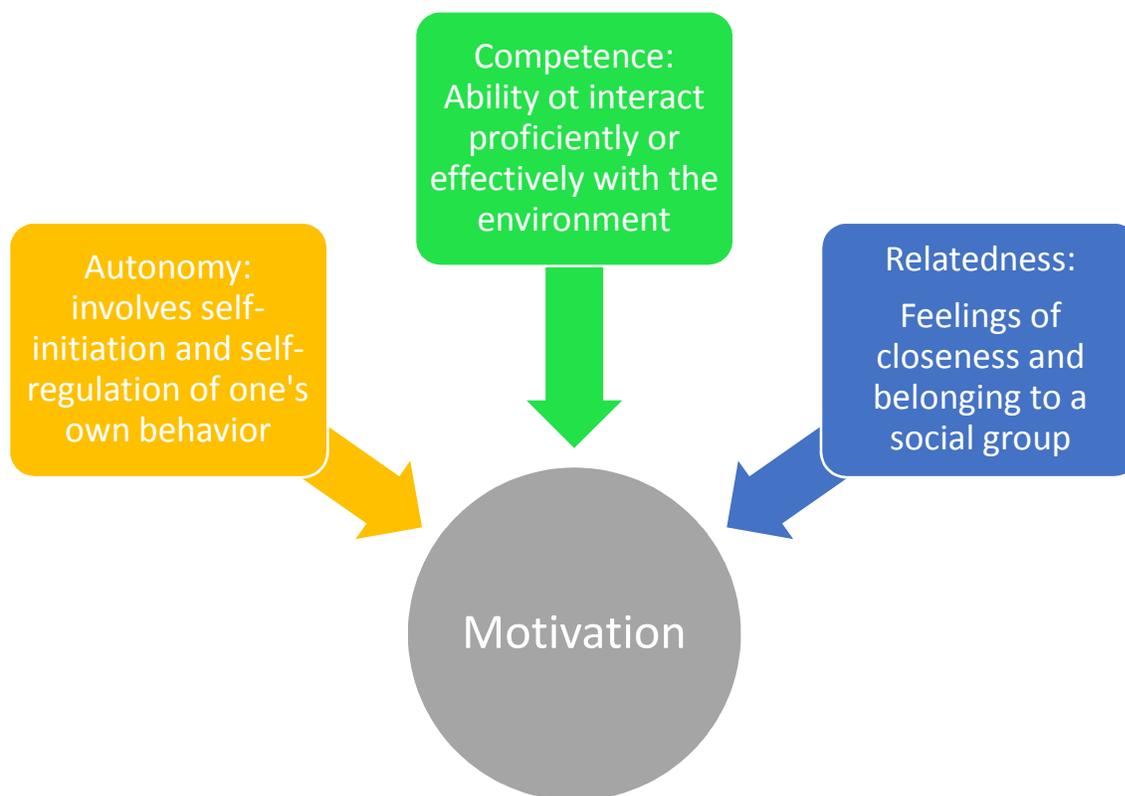


Figure 2. Self-determination theory.

As this theory relates to teacher job satisfaction, teachers must feel a sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness within their school environment. If these factors are not present, motivation will decrease and the chances of the teacher remaining at the school decrease as well. Teachers must have intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors to be satisfied in their job and so they will remain in their teaching position.

Theory of Planned Behavior

Ajzen (1985) developed the theory of planned behavior as a framework for understanding, predicting, and changing human social behavior. This theory is based on three constructs: behavioral beliefs (attitude toward the behavior), normative beliefs (subjective norm), and control beliefs (perceived behavioral control) as they pertain to a person's intentions, and ultimately, their behaviors. Behavioral beliefs link the behavior of interest to expected

outcomes; it is the subjective probability that the behavior will produce a given outcome. The attitude toward a behavior is the degree to which performance of the behavior is positively or negatively valued (Ajzen, 2006). Normative beliefs refer to the perceived behavioral expectations of important individuals or groups in one's life. These normative beliefs, in combination with one's motivation, determine the subjective norm. Subjective norm is the perceived social pressure to engage or not to engage in a behavior (Ajzen, 2006). Control beliefs have to do with the perceived presence of factors that may assist or hinder performance of a behavior. Perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behavior (Ajzen, 2006). The three previously mentioned constructs (behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs), are a predictor, or indication of a person's intention, or readiness to perform a given behavior. Intention is the direct antecedent to a person's behavior, or an observable response to a given situation (Ajzen, 2006).

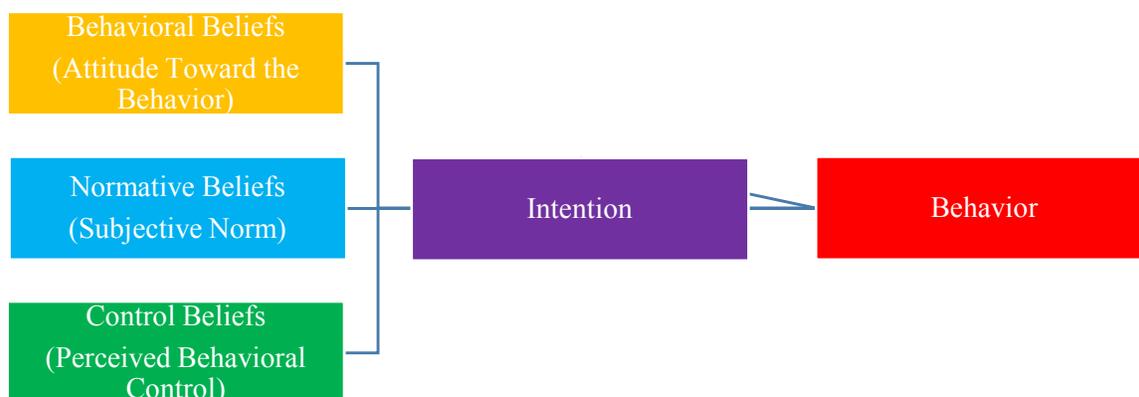


Figure 3. Theory of planned behavior.

The framework of this theory is important in the study of teacher retention because it examines an individual's beliefs and attitudes in relation to their intentions and behaviors of staying in the profession or leaving. When a person enters the teaching profession, he or she holds certain attitudes and beliefs about the goal in mind and what needs to be accomplished to attain that goal. However, at some point during the teacher's career, the perceived behavior control, or the individual's perception of the relative ease or difficulty of engaging in the behavior, changes due to internal or external reasons. This change in perception may affect teacher motivation to stay or leave the profession (Kersaint et al., 2007).

Related Literature

According to a study conducted by Alliance for Excellent Education (2014), approximately half a million U.S. teachers either move or leave the profession each year, which disproportionately affects high-poverty schools. Additionally, the estimate of new teachers leaving teaching after five years ranges from 40 percent to 50 percent, with the greatest exodus

taking place in high-poverty, high-minority, urban, and rural public schools (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014). The 2010 Teacher Shortage Area report (TSA) listed the existence of teacher shortages in each of the fifty states and territories, with cities and rural areas being the most impacted (Miller, 2010). Teacher shortages became a national issue with the passage of No Child Left Behind legislation that required a highly qualified teacher in every classroom (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010). To further explain this current situation, Owings and Kaplan (2013) indicated that turnover follows a U-shaped curve, with younger teachers and retiring teachers leaving at very high rates.

However, researchers over the past few decades identified that retention is closely related to the quality of the first teaching experience. In looking at an analysis of the data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS), administered by the National Center for Education Statistics, there was a positive correlation found between the level of support and training provided to beginning teachers and the likelihood of moving or leaving after their first year (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014). In Gu and Day's (2014) study, interview data was collected for 300 teachers in different phases of their careers. Many of the participants in the study indicated that resilience was a necessary condition for sustaining their capacity to teach at their best and remain in the profession. Additional evidence from this study suggests that a school's socio-economic location and environment affects teachers and their working lives and that efforts to improve school climate and teacher-student relations in disadvantaged communities are important in increasing teachers' job satisfaction and productivity (Gu & Day, 2014). It is imperative to examine which factors will increase teacher retention because it is estimated that the United States will have more than two million job openings between 2014 and 2024 for teachers at all levels (Chen, 2017).

Factors That Influence Teacher Retention

There are various factors that influence teacher retention and resignation, and a study completed by Kersaint et al. (2007) used Ajzen's (1985) theory of planned behavior to examine teachers' plans to remain in their position or resign. It was found that family issues were the greatest concern to all teachers, and those who left placed more emphasis on the time they could spend with their family than those who stayed (Kersaint et al., 2007). Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (TPB) was used as the foundational framework to determine teachers' plans to remain in their position or resign within three years, or the likelihood that teachers who previously resigned would return in the next three years. To better understand how Ajzen's model relates to teachers' transition plans, it is important to understand the major constructs of the model. Ajzen's TPB is "a predictive model based on beliefs about a target behavior. Ajzen's model sorts these beliefs into three constructs that shape an individual's intentions toward the target behavior and, ultimately, whether or not the individual carries out the target behavior" (Kersaint et al., 2007, p. 777). The three constructs that form the foundation for the TPB are behavioral beliefs (attitude toward the behavior), normative beliefs (subjective norm), and control beliefs (perceived behavior control) as they pertain to a person's intentions and their behavior (Ajzen, 1985). When an individual goes into the teaching profession, he or she has preconceived thoughts and beliefs about what will be encountered in the classroom, which make up the individual's behavioral beliefs. The policies and practices that are put in place by the school system that the individual must follow are the normative beliefs that the teacher will adhere to each day. However, despite the normative beliefs, the individual will possess a certain amount of personal control over his or her classroom and the expectations that will be upheld for each student, which are known as the individual's control beliefs. It is possible that the three

constructs may exist in harmony with one another and this would make the perfect situation for any teacher, however, more often than not there are discrepancies between the three constructs and this is when issues arise. If family issues are of great concern to teachers and this affects their decision to stay or leave, it would be beneficial if school systems could work to achieve a greater alignment between their normative beliefs and the teacher's behavioral beliefs.

There are certain demographic and categorical trends that are evident when looking at teachers who decide to remain in the teaching profession, as well as particular influences on their decision; teachers who remain in the profession the longest tend to be male (even though females make up the majority of the workforce), teach at the elementary level, and have lower National Teacher Exam scores, even though they may have several years of experience (Hughes, 2012). In addition, White teachers are 1.36 times more likely to leave teaching than non-White teachers indicating that minority teachers are more likely to remain (Hughes, 2012).

Additionally, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards can have a great influence whether a teacher stays or leaves the teaching profession; when teachers feel forced to work in ways that misalign with their beliefs about teaching and learning, they are unable to secure pleasure and enjoyment in the course of their work (Rooney, 2015). The intrinsic rewards are the pleasure that the teacher gains in working with students, the enthusiasm the teacher has for the subject area he or she teaches, the satisfaction the teacher has in contributing to students' success, and the influence the teacher has over the students. These intrinsic rewards give the teacher the feeling that he or she is truly making an impact on the world by educating students. The extrinsic rewards are special responsibilities/ leadership positions, public recognition, and salaries and bonuses. Although teachers have some control over extrinsic rewards, these types of rewards are usually in the hands of the school system or the teacher's direct administrator. Depending upon the

environment in which the teacher works, certain settings may prove to be more challenging than others in terms of the rewards a teacher may experience. A specific example of an intrinsic reward and a reason that teachers gave for remaining in high poverty schools is the concept of moral rewards, or the belief that one is doing good work in terms of the student and the profession (Rooney, 2015). The teachers who stay are able to overcome great challenges and can positively adapt to adversity, a characteristic that is necessary to urban, high poverty teaching life.

Similarly, there may be certain predictors that can determine a teacher's propensity to stay or leave the teaching profession. In several studies, teacher effectiveness has been raised as a factor in whether a teacher decides to stay or leave the profession. The most academically prepared teachers, as measured by ACT scores, college selectivity, and degrees in technical subjects, are more likely to leave both high poverty and minority schools and the teaching profession (Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Podgursky, Monroe, & Watson, 2004). Similarly, more than two years of experience surfaced as a significant predictor of teacher effectiveness (Sawchuk, 2015).

More effective teachers tend to stay in their initial schools and in the teaching profession; however, there is also evidence that teacher mobility is affected by student demographics and achievement levels and that the least experienced teachers are disproportionately concentrated in low-income, high-minority schools (Kini & Poldosky, 2016). The 2012-2013 Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC) found that schools serving mostly African-American students are twice as likely to have teachers with only one or two years of experience than schools located within the same district that serve mostly white students (Kini & Poldosky, 2016).

It is important to note the types of teacher mobility that occur: within-district moves (moving to another school within the same district), cross-district moves (moving to a school in another district), and moving out of the state altogether. A within-district move may result in a significant change in working conditions, such as school demographics that vary from one school to the next. Cross-district moves may result in both changes in working conditions and salary; however, this type of move may entail relocation costs, and learning a new curriculum and district culture. The interaction between teacher experience and school disadvantage in teacher transfer decisions is more extreme in districts with strong involuntary seniority transfer protections; novice teachers are more likely to stay in disadvantaged schools, and veteran teachers are even more likely to leave disadvantaged schools (Goldhaber, Lavery, & Theobald, 2016).

Urban Residency and Preparation Programs

Although teacher induction initiatives and beginning teacher support programs are beneficial in the efforts to retain teachers, there are proponents that suggest that the teacher selection process in a teacher residency program may be a better determinant of an individual's future in the profession. Within the selection process for a residency program, the most important factors that correlate to selecting teachers are the demonstration lesson that candidates perform and the individual interview (Marshall & Scott, 2015). The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE; 2010) recommended using the Graduate Record Exam (GRE) scores, grade point averages, as well as multiple items such as interviews, writing samples, an interview process, and demonstration lessons for selection into a residency program.

In 2014, the U.S. Department of Education funded grants that created several teacher residency models in urban school districts. This type of model pairs theory with practice by

requiring prospective teachers to co-teach with an established teacher for a year while taking coursework on pedagogy. The purpose of an urban teacher residency program is to train effective teachers, and in turn, retain them (Urban Teacher Residency United [UTRU], 2014). Urban Teacher Residency United (UTRU) has reported that urban teacher residency programs have had success in addressing the issue of urban teacher attrition, with 85 percent of their graduates remaining in the classroom after their initial four-year commitment of service (UTRU, 2014). This success can be attributed to the extended pre-service classroom experience with urban students, which has been linked to teacher retention (Udesky, 2015).

In the Center X program at the University of California, a master's program that helps prepare successful urban teachers, participants acquire knowledge and practices in the context of social justice and design curriculum focusing on injustices in the local community and working with parents in creating a caring atmosphere within their schools. This program prepares the urban teachers for issues that may encounter within the urban schools (Shah, 2012). School systems may place an emphasis on teacher induction or orientation programs during the first year of teaching, however, supportive programs like Center X must continue throughout a teacher's career to ensure retention.

One of the oldest teacher residency programs in the country, The Boston Teacher Residency in Boston Public Schools, has created a successful residency model for its school system. Carefully chosen recruits receive a stipend, health insurance, and student loan forgiveness while they are participating if the teacher agrees to remain within the school system for three years after completing the residency (Headden, 2014). Residents in this program work with mentor teachers who demonstrate lessons, give opportunities for co-teaching, and have frequent discussions about successes and failures of their practice. The role of the residency

mentor is demanding and the person fulfilling the position must be a highly effective teacher. In Boston, mentor teachers score almost an entire effectiveness level higher than the average district teacher (Headden, 2014). The Boston Teacher Residency reports that 80 percent of its residency graduates between 2004 and 2011 stayed for three or more years, compared with 63 percent of other Boston teachers, and 75 percent stayed for five or more years, compared with 51 percent of other teachers (Headden, 2014).

The University of California, Berkeley has a similar approach to prepare urban teachers called the Multicultural Urban Secondary English (MUSE) program (Freedman & Appleman, 2008). The main goals of the MUSE program are to help prepare teachers to teach students who come from poverty and who attend low-performing, urban schools. In the first year of the MUSE program, students take methods courses that focus on a theoretical framework for teaching with an emphasis on social justice and cross-cultural understanding. The second year of the program is devoted to student teaching and writing a thesis. This study found that the students who graduated from MUSE stayed in teaching in significantly high numbers. Nationally only 76 percent are still teaching after one year, 96 percent of the MUSE students in the cohort were still teaching after their first year. Of these, 92 percent stayed at their same school and 4 percent moved to another school. Almost all took jobs in urban, high-poverty settings (Freedman & Appleman, 2008). Students who participated in the MUSE program were about supporting one another and there were many opportunities to reflect and practice and receive feedback from many sources (Freedman & Appleman, 2008).

It is essential to close the gap that this cultural divide has created, particularly within the high poverty, urban schools in the U.S. The residency model gives teachers the preservice

experience that is necessary to understand the diverse cultural backgrounds of urban students. This allows teachers to build relationships with their students and address their academic needs.

Teacher Induction Programs

More than half of the states in the U.S. now require a teacher induction or mentoring program to ensure teachers are better prepared to enter their new career (Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn, 2012). In an attempt to be proactive regarding the issue of teacher turnover, the North Carolina State Board of Education has implemented a policy entitled the Beginning Teacher Support Program to assist beginning teachers with their transition into the profession. This policy was adopted in 2010 and outlines how each district will support its beginning teachers. The Beginning Teacher Support Program is a three year process with specific requirements for each year. In the first year, the beginning teacher is assigned a mentor, is provided an orientation, develops a Professional Development Plan, completes any professional development required by the local education agency, and is observed at least four times with a summative evaluation at the end of the year. During the second year, the beginning teacher continues with a mentor teacher, updates the Professional Development Plan, completes any professional development required by the local education agency, and is observed at least four times with a summative evaluation at the end of the year. In the third year, the beginning teacher completes the same tasks that were required in the second year (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2016).

Within the Beginning Teacher Support Program, there are five standards, which are as follows: systematic support for high quality induction programs; mentor selection, development, and support; mentoring for instructional excellence; beginning teacher professional development; and formative assessment of candidates and programs (North Carolina Department of Public

Instruction, 2016). Each standard's expectations are explained in detail and also include standards for the mentor teacher. It is worth noting that it is important to examine the details of various induction programs to take an in-depth look at the steps school districts are taking in an effort to support new teachers, as well as examining the areas of strength and weakness within these programs. Although a teacher induction program will not always prevent a teacher from leaving a school, it greatly increases the odds that the teacher will remain. An effective teacher induction program allows teachers to establish themselves in their positions, demonstrate excellent performance, and provides sustainability in the teaching profession (Chan, 2014).

In an effort to determine the effectiveness of induction programs for alternate route beginning teachers in low socioeconomic urban schools, LoCascio, Smeaton, and Waters (2016) interviewed 53 teachers at the end of their first year of teaching and found that half of the teachers did not receive an induction program congruent with state guidelines. Additionally, almost half of the teachers indicated that their induction program had no effect on their decision to remain in teaching. The study also found that teachers want mentors who respond quickly, care about their success, are flexible, and engender trust (LoCascio et al., 2016).

In response to school staffing challenges, professors in the Texas State University System have implemented an innovation teacher induction support model designed to increase teacher retention. The Novice Teacher Induction Program (NTIP) was launched in 2002 and researchers have since tracked close to 1,000 participants into their fifth year of teaching. Results indicate that program participants have remained in the profession at higher rates than nonparticipants and that participants and mentors greatly valued the experience (Huling, Resta, & Yeargain, 2012). The NTIP is a collaborative initiative that involves seven university in the Texas State University System and 37 Texas school districts. The model incorporates a variety of training

and support strategies and employs the use of recently retired master teachers as mentors. Mentors observe novice teachers each week and hold conferences to provide feedback and mentors attend weekly ongoing professional development. The novice teachers are enrolled in a field-based graduate course each semester of the program which consist of biweekly group seminars, online assignments, and individualized work assigned by their mentor. The follow-up data of the NTIP indicates that participation in the program has a positive influence on long-term retention of participants compared to other nonparticipating novice teachers and that long-term teacher retention can be positively influenced by high-quality mentoring support during the first year of teaching (Huling et al., 2012).

A well-designed induction program can serve two purposes: reducing attrition rates among new teachers and lower the financial burden on school districts who are constantly recruiting new teachers to replace the ones who leave. Teachers with comprehensive induction packages are half as likely to leave at the end of their first year of teaching when compared with new teachers who do not participate in any induction activities (Gujarati, 2012). For example, over a five year period, California's Beginning Teachers Support and Assessment Program reduced teacher attrition rates among participants by two-thirds through its mandatory two year induction program in which new teachers are partnered with a mentor (Gujarati, 2012).

In an effort to support teachers, Futrell (2010), recommended that teacher education build and sustain professional learning communities across all stakeholders. Teachers who are part of a professional learning community are able to share and gain valuable information and ideas with one another. This type of collaboration builds a culture of teamwork instead of one of isolation. New teachers are in need of support from colleagues and mentors to validate their thoughts and ideas. An effective induction program can help alleviate the 'sink or swim' experience that

many teachers have when they enter the profession (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Young teachers who do not have adequate experience in the teaching profession have been deemed to be most likely to leave teaching for one reason or another. The oldest and most experienced teachers have the lowest probability of leaving teaching unless they have reached retirement age (Kavenuke, 2013).

Although school systems may employ various teacher induction models or programs, a model linking novice teachers with leader teachers provides intensive support in evidence-based practices and connects teachers with their colleagues (Shernoff, Marinez-Lora, Frazier, Jakobsons, & Atikins, 2011). Collaboration with colleagues is also important because new teachers in particular are the most at risk for experiencing social isolation and most dependent upon interacting with other teachers (Shernoff et al., 2011). Additionally, induction programs and professional development for new teachers that lack a sustained support may need further resources such as a mentor teacher. A mentor teacher can assist in building new teachers' skills and confidence in classroom management, which is particularly crucial for urban educators, where prevalence rates for disruptive behaviors are almost three times national estimates (Shernoff et al., 2011). In addition, classroom-based coaching by veteran teachers and professional learning communities can assist new teachers in connecting with colleagues within their own school or grade level.

Role of the Principal in Teacher Retention

There are many responsibilities of the leadership within a school, including being a factor in teachers' decisions to stay or leave. Although school size, location, wealth, student composition, school grade level, and school type all have a role in teacher recruitment and retention, leadership styles of school administrators have an impact on teacher retention.

Research indicates that the two components of effective schools – teachers and school leaders – are linked, and that principals' leadership (or lack thereof) often determines whether teachers are satisfied with their jobs and whether they stay (Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Urick, 2016). Two perspectives have dominated the study of principal roles: instructional leadership and transformational leadership. Instructional leadership theory focuses on the principal's role in aiding and monitoring the school's instructional program and developing a positive learning culture (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Transformational leadership focuses on increasing the organization's capacity to innovate – that is, to adapt to change successfully (Bass, 1998). The literature is divided on whether one theory is superior over the other and there are also scholars who argue for an approach that combines the two theories of leadership (Marks & Printhy, 2003).

In one particular study that placed an emphasis on leaders' actions and skills, it was found that principals' organization management skills consistently predicted student achievement growth and other measures of school success. However, other leadership skill domains they identified – instruction management, internal relations, administration, and external relations – were not associated with measures of school success (Grissom, Loeb, & Master, 2013). Similarly, when looking at the relationship between a school's effectiveness during a principal's tenure and the retention, recruitment, and development of its teachers, three key findings emerged: more effective principals are able to retain higher-quality teachers and remove less effective teachers; more effective principals are able to attract and hire higher-quality teachers to fill vacancies; and more effective principals have teachers who improve at a greater pace than those in schools with less effective leadership (Beteille et al., 2012). The key

component in each of these findings is that the principal must be highly effective to obtain the results that were found.

Leadership characteristics are especially important in high-poverty schools where school leaders face numerous challenges and increasing responsibilities. A case study conducted by Suber (2012) of high-poverty, high-performing schools in South Carolina discovered five characteristics found in the principals of these schools; effective principals align instruction and assessment, supervise teacher behavior and student achievement, ensure professional development activities are aligned with the needs of students and teachers, retains teachers, and promotes a positive school culture. When the principals in this study were interviewed, the common factors that emerged were teacher empowerment, relationships, and setting the example for all stakeholders (Suber, 2012).

Additionally, teachers who were above the mean of teacher value-added are less likely to transfer from more effective principals, teachers who are below the mean of teacher value-added are more likely to transfer from schools with more effective principals, and among teachers who transfer, higher value-added teachers are more likely to transfer to schools with effective leadership (Beteille et al., 2012). Again, the key component in these findings is that a highly effective principal is more capable of not only recruiting effective teachers, but retaining them as well. A responsible administrator is aware of the challenges that new teachers face and the many advantages of having effective veteran teachers on staff. Lower levels of teacher attrition and migration have consistently been found in schools with more administrative support for teachers (emotional, environmental, and instructional), and opportunity for teachers' personal growth (Hughes, Matt, & O'Reilly, 2014). A collaborative principal-teacher relationship is important

and must include open forums, discussions, meetings, and reviews to evaluate the needs of the school, teachers, and students (Hughes et al., 2014).

Administrators serve as a catalyst in their buildings by creating a collaborative culture among faculty and this can have an impact on teachers' attitudes about their workplace environment and expectations. Teacher perception of leadership is a well-established predictor of attitudes associated with teachers' decisions to stay or leave (Urick, 2016). Teachers who view principals as building a positive climate for them through core leadership behaviors, communication of a mission, shared decisions, supportive professional development, a sense of teacher community, and public relations with the broader community, feel more empowered and committed in their position (Urick, 2016). Additionally, shared instructional leadership may have the largest contribution to outcomes since it contains characteristics of other leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and instructional) that have been included in school effectiveness research over the past few decades (Urick & Bowers, 2014).

In an effort to determine how principals are prepared for their important roles, Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) conducted a study on five university-based principal preparation programs to analyze the key features of each that align with effective leadership practices. The seven key features of these programs included: a clear focus and values about leadership and learning; standards-based curriculum emphasizing instructional leadership; organizational development and change management; field-based internships with skilled supervision; cohort groups for teamwork and collaboration in practice-oriented situations; instructional strategies that link theory and practice such as problem-based learning; rigorous recruitment and selection of candidates; and strong partnerships with schools and districts to support quality, field-based learning.

Additionally, Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) have identified six critical abilities of the principal to impact teaching and learning that could be assessed by credential programs. A principal must have the ability to: influence teacher feelings of efficacy, motivation, and satisfaction; establish the organizational and cultural conditions that foster a positive environment for teaching and learning; promote professional collaboration; promote and support the instructional abilities and professional development of teachers; focus resources and organizational systems toward the development, support, and assessment of teaching and learning; and enlist the involvement and support of parents and community stakeholders.

It is important to understand how the role of the principal can affect teacher job satisfaction. A principal's leadership behavior is one of the positive factors that have a direct relationship with job satisfaction, and the principal's decision-making style also affects teacher job satisfaction (Hui, Jenatabadi, Ismail, & Radzi, 2013). Working with a principal who encourages teachers to be involved in decision-making tasks has a positive influence on teachers' involvement and commitment to their teaching duties and teachers who work with principals who share information with them, and involve them more in management decisions are more satisfied (Hui et al., 2013).

Teacher empowerment is one important responsibility in the role of principal. Teacher empowerment influences teachers' perceptions of their profession, and therefore, their satisfaction with the profession (Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, & Ma, 2012). Empowerment has been found to enhance performance and productivity; improve self-esteem, morale, and work efficiency; increase content and pedagogy knowledge; result in higher levels of motivation, energy, and collegiality among teachers and higher levels of motivation and achievement among

students; and develop a more trusting attitude toward colleagues, the principal, and school district leaders (Shen et al., 2012).

Involved teachers and supportive principals are essential to open communication so that each side is able to discuss their wants and needs. The ability of teachers and administrators to work together to maintain and improve organizational effectiveness and efficiency, is directly related to the organizational climate of the school and district (Strunk & Grissom, 2010). Placing new teachers in an environment where they are not respected will result in frustration, and will ultimately contribute to their exit from the profession. Effective principals listen to their teacher's opinions and allow teachers to have input in site-based decisions which is a crucial factor in whether educators make plans to stay or leave specific schools (Darling-Hammond, 2013). Administrators have a great responsibility in serving their school and this includes creating a supportive environment teachers will want to remain in so they will stay in the school for many years to come. These studies indicate that the role of the administration within a school, and the administrative climate they create have a significant impact on teachers and their decision to remain in the school or to leave.

Teacher Satisfaction and Working Conditions

In addition to administrative support, teacher job satisfaction is a major factor in retaining teachers who are new to the profession. Although salary increases are important, research also indicates that teachers in high-needs schools want smaller class sizes, more planning time, more visible administrators, access to technology, more autonomy, better working conditions, collegial relationships, and support with student discipline issues (Petty, Fitchett, & O'Connor, 2012). In addition, the socio-economic status of the student body can also be a factor in determining teacher job satisfaction. Shen et al. (2012) found that teacher job satisfaction decreases as the

percentage of students who are from poor families increases. In a multi-state study, The New Teacher Center (2010) conducted a survey on working conditions and identified common themes: teachers are generally positive about teaching, leadership is the most important condition influencing teacher retention, teachers and principals perceive working conditions differently, and perceptions of teaching and learning conditions can vary across states and school sites.

Various aspects of school processes are found to be associated with teacher job satisfaction including classroom control, collegiality, working conditions, administrative leadership, parental support, and student behavior (Xia, Izumi, & Gao, 2015). Additionally, Shen et. al. (2012) discovered that teacher job satisfaction is higher in elementary school teachers (as opposed to secondary), in more experienced teachers, and teachers with advanced, regular, or probationary certification (as opposed to teachers with provisional, temporary, emergency, or no certification).

To further add to this evidence, a study by Scholastic and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2010) surrounding factors impacting retention found that supportive leadership was the top-ranked item. School leadership emerges as the most consistently relevant measure of working conditions (Ladd, 2011). In addition to the previously mentioned factors that influence satisfaction, there are other factors to consider such as teacher involvement in decision making, the physical condition of the school, and time for professional development and collaboration (Protheroe, 2011). Significant levels of stress can also play an important role in teacher job satisfaction. Stress can have negative consequences such as reduced teacher self-efficacy, lower job satisfaction, lower levels of commitment, higher levels of burnout, and increased teacher attrition (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). Causes of stress can range from disruptive student behavior, workload time and pressure, student diversity and working to adapt teaching to student

needs, lack of autonomy, lack of shared goals and values, problems and conflicts related to teamwork, and lack of status (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Working conditions are found to be highly predictive of teachers' intended movement away from their schools and school leadership is the most important aspect of working conditions (Ladd, 2011). To understand the definition, working conditions include "the physical features of the workplace, the organizational structure, and the sociological, political, psychological, and educational features of the work environment" (Ladd, 2011, p. 237). Poor working conditions can include a wide range of variables such as a shortage of textbooks or outdated books, lack of technology, leaky roofs, and nonfunctioning heating and air conditioning.

Teachers working in more supportive professional environments improve their effectiveness more over time than teachers working in less supportive contexts. "On average, teachers working in schools at the 75th percentile of professional environment ratings improved 38% more than teachers in schools at the 25th percentile after 10 years" (Kraft & Papay, 2013, p.489). This analysis indicates that the long-term sustainability of keeping effective teachers within the schools depends upon a supportive working environment. In addition, it is worth noting the length of time it can take for a teacher's effectiveness to improve with the support of colleagues and administrators.

Teacher working conditions can be divided into two central domains: organizational function and organizational culture. Organizational function includes the routines, procedures, and expectations (and the extent to which these are stable or volatile) that shape the workplace and organizational culture is the quality of the relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators, and the degree to which teachers feel supported and respected

(Cucchiara, Rooney, & Robertson-Kraft, 2015). In schools with positive working conditions, teachers appreciate the organizational stability and clear focus on instruction and climate, as well as the supportive culture developed by administrators; in challenging schools, teachers are frustrated by constant changes to programs and schedules, disrespectful treatment from administrators, and their own sense of powerlessness (Cucchiara et al., 2015).

When teachers can have a degree of control over decisions that directly affect them, such as the resources they need to become more effective teachers, they may be more apt to participate in professional development experiences that meet their needs. Structural supports for teachers, such as professional meetings, must be carefully planned so that teachers have a chance to communicate with one another, learn from each other, and eventually, lead one another through the challenges that only they fully understand in their contexts (Yonezawa, Jones, & Robb Singer, 2011). In further discussion surrounding professional development, it should be mentioned that the type of professional development that is offered to teachers should be carefully planned to maximize effectiveness. Teachers need to be able to implement newly-acquired skills from a professional development activity into their classes, which means the content must be relevant to the curriculum and effective in increasing student achievement. Professional development is most effective when it provides teachers active learning opportunities that are intensive, focused on discrete skills, aligned with the curriculum and assessments, and applied in context (Kraft & Papay, 2013).

Recruiting and Attracting Teachers

Teacher attrition tends to be highest in schools serving high concentrations of low-income students and students of color, so school districts must place an emphasis on their recruitment strategies to attract teachers who will want to stay (Podolsky, Kini, Bishop, &

Darling-Hammond, 2017). Research points to five major strategies and policies that can positively influence teachers' to enter and remain in the teaching profession: strengthen preparation; improve hiring; increase compensation; provide support for new teachers; and improve working conditions, with emphasis on school leadership, professional collaboration and shared decision making, accountability systems, and resources for teaching and learning (Podolsky et al., 2017).

School districts must develop and use a systematic approach for sorting and hiring the best teachers. One such plan includes behavior-based interviews (BBI) and objective evaluations (Clement, 2013). BBI is a style of interviewing that is based on the premise that past behavior is the best predictor of future performance. BBI questions begin with phrases such as, "tell me about a time when...", "tell about your experience with...", or "describe how you have..." (Clement, 2013). These types of questions require the candidate to discuss their experience and expertise in various areas. The interview is generally the most important factor in hiring teachers and limiting data collection points to only one or two areas could negatively impact student achievement (Schumacher, Grisby, & Vessey, 2015). If a school system or administrator only rely on the interview and calling references, there could be a great deal of information that is missing such as teacher performance data. Thus, the importance of using NCATE's (2010) recommendations of using multiple data points (i.e. interviews, writing sample, and demonstration lessons) is imperative in the teacher selection process.

The need for a systematic recruiting process is evident due to the fact that many principals are not properly trained on how to interview candidates. In a study of 170 principals across the United States about hiring practices, principals reported that they frequently created the interview questions without much guidance, were unlikely to receive much assistance from

human resources personnel, and rarely received training on how to conduct effective interviews (Ellis, Skidmore, & Combs, 2016). Additionally, the timing of the hiring process is a challenge for principals. Engel (2012) conducted a study of 368 Chicago school principals who reported that 45 percent of teachers were hired late (i.e. during the second half of the summer or once school already started). Districts with high populations of economically disadvantaged students tend to hire the majority of their teachers late in the hiring season (Ellis et al., 2017). In a report released by the New Teacher Project (Levin & Quinn, 2013), a problem that urban school districts have in attracting teachers is poor planning and organization, including making late job offers well into July and August. In these instances, candidates have most likely accepted other job offers even though they originally applied in May and were qualified for the position in which they applied. With these challenges, it can be difficult for principals to ensure that they are hiring the most qualified candidate for the position.

If an effort to determine which strategies may work best in recruiting teachers to high-needs schools, Shuls and Maranto (2013) conducted a study on Knowledge is Power Program (KIPP) schools, which are successful schools serving high poverty students. It was found that a combination of teacher-centered incentives and student-centered incentives appeal to candidates. Teacher-centered incentives are advancement opportunities, benefits, personal growth, and higher compensation while student-centered incentives include public service, teamwork, allow teachers more innovation in the classroom, and the expectation of high standards. KIPP websites make significantly more use of student-centered incentives in recruiting teachers. 36 percent of KIPP websites compared to 8.8 percent of the traditional public school websites contained enticements for results-driven individuals; four times as many KIPP websites offered teachers the ability to innovate in the classroom; and 90.0 percent of KIPP websites compared to 32.4 of

the traditional public school websites mentioned public service motives (Shuls & Maranto, 2013). The results of this study are an indication that teachers are attracted to positions which provide a holistic description of the responsibilities and opportunities that are available.

In an attempt to attract and retain teachers in hard-to-staff schools and subjects, four school districts have implemented the Opportunity Culture Model. Charlotte-Mecklenberg and Cabarrus County, North Carolina; Syracuse, New York; and Nashville, Tennessee are keeping more teachers in the classroom by offering leadership opportunities, on-the-job training, and higher pay (Barrett, 2015). The Opportunity Culture provides ways for teachers to advance professionally without leaving teaching in three ways: multi-classroom leadership, time-technology swaps, and subject specialization. Multi-classroom leadership allows teachers to lead a teaching team by establishing goals, offering feedback and support, and being held accountable for the team's success. Time-technology swaps allow students to be taught through age-appropriate digital instruction for a short period of time during the day.

These innovative strategies enable the teacher to work with individual students, plan lessons, and collaborate with peers. Subject specialization places the teacher in the subject in which he or she feels most knowledgeable. This gives students the best instruction available in each subject because they are being taught by a content expert. Teachers are also able to plan more creative lessons and provide differentiated instruction because they are only planning for one or two content areas. The Opportunity Culture also provides increased pay for excellent teachers up to 10 to 50 percent of their salary. In Charlotte-Mecklenberg County, multi-classroom leaders can earn pay supplements up to \$23,000, which increases their salary to 50 percent above the state's average teacher salary (Barrett, 2015). This particular model is only one example which exhibits how school systems are "thinking outside the box" and using non-

conventional strategies to recruit teachers in hard-to-staff schools. As a statement of the impact and relevance that this new strategy has had on other school systems, 50 additional school districts have expressed interest in joining The Opportunity Culture initiative (Project Impact, 2013).

Principals look for certain characteristics when interviewing candidates for a position within their school. Among these characteristics are candidates who are enthusiastic, have strong communication skills, are caring and can manage a classroom (Cannata & Engel, 2012). Principals in lower-achieving schools focus more on classroom management skills and a teacher's ability to improve test scores (Engel, 2013). During the recruitment, screening, and selection process, principals rely on a variety of tools including resumes, works samples, personality tests, and interviews. Principals rely most heavily on interviews when making hiring decisions, however, administrators in urban districts spend less time interviewing and conduct fewer second interviews (Engel & Finch, 2014).

Teacher Pay Incentives

Traditional methods of teacher compensation are generally derived from a scale from which education and years of experience determine the annual salary. However, in recent years there has been a shift towards performance-based pay incentives through teacher evaluations. This shift in how teachers are compensated is because the traditionally accepted measures of teacher quality, such as experience and years of schooling, are only weakly linked with student achievement and are not reliable proxies for effective teaching (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2012). In a study conducted by Dee and Wyckoff (2015), results indicated that “dismissal threats increased the voluntary attrition of low-performing teachers by 11 percentage points and improved the performance of teachers who remained by 0.27 of a teacher-level standard deviation.

Additionally, financial incentives further improved the performance of high-performing teachers” (Dee & Wyckoff, 2015, p. 267). This study was based on evidence from IMPACT, the District of Columbia’s teacher evaluation and compensation system.

Teacher salary literature implies pay incentives can have a positive influence on teacher attraction and retention in high-needs schools and several states are experiencing success with recruitment and retention using various methods of pay incentives such as signing bonuses, bonuses for staying in high-needs schools, and pay incentives based on performance (Almy & Tooley, 2012). Fulbeck (2014) completed a study on Denver’s Professional Compensation System for Teachers (“ProComp”), one of the most prominent teacher compensation reforms in the United States. Through a combination of 10 financial incentives, ProComp seeks to increase student achievement by motivating teachers to improve their instructional practices and by attracting and retaining high-quality teachers to work in high-poverty schools within the district (Fulbeck, 2014). The results of this study suggest that financial incentives may help decrease the chances that a teacher will leave a particular school system or high-needs school.

A new strategy some districts are using capitalizes on the understanding that compensation plays a part in teacher decision making by offering bonuses as a way to attract teachers to high-poverty and hard-to-staff schools. The Talent Transfer Initiative, funded by the U.S. Department of Education, offered \$20,000 bonuses to effective teachers in 10 districts for moving to low-achieving schools within their district (Almy & Tooley, 2012). Charlotte-Mecklenburg County Schools launched the Strategic Staffing Initiative in 2008 in an effort to bring strong leaders and strong teachers to the schools that need them the most. The initiative started in seven of the district’s most struggling elementary and middle schools and has added a cohort of school each year thereafter. The Strategic Staffing principals were offered a 10 percent

salary increase for taking on the challenge and teachers who agreed to move to these schools were offered a salary increase of \$10,000 in their first year and \$5,000 for the next two years (Almy & Tooley, 2012).

Another form of compensation that promotes collaboration and cooperation among teachers is a group-based teacher incentive pay design. This type of pay system pays teachers based on grade- or school-specific performance on standardized exams in a given subject (Imberman & Lovenheim, 2015). The size of the group can play a role in directing teacher responses to group-based incentive pay. For example, larger groups may promote more cooperation and coordination of teaching strategies across teachers and encourage teachers to team teach or peer monitor (Imberman & Lovenheim, 2015). In the United States, a few studies have used randomized experiments to assess the impact of school-level group incentive pay in New York and found no significant impact of teacher incentives on student performance on average (Fryer, 2013; Goodman & Turner, 2013).

In an effort to assist states with offering financial incentives to keep their best teachers, the federal government stepped in to offer support in 2009 with the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act. Under this program, the government issued \$4.35 billion Race to the Top funds to states who applied. One goal of this program was to reform educator compensation systems by providing additional pay to highly effective teachers (Liang & Akiba, 2015). Additionally, the National Education Association supports providing extra compensation to teachers for teaching in hard-to-staff schools, earning National Board Certification, and assuming extra duties, but opposes to tying teacher pay to student test scores (Liang & Akiba, 2015). In a high-need, high school study in which teachers took an online survey on what they perceived as the most important characteristics of successful high-need teachers, it was found

that teachers would be more attracted to high-need high schools if they were provided more money (Petty et al., 2012).

As of 2010, 30 states either offered financial incentives for teachers to complete the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) process or bonuses for certified teachers (Cowan & Goldhaber, 2015). In 2000, Washington state introduced a bonus of 15% of base salary for teachers who held National Board Certification; this was changed to \$3,500 in 2002 and \$5,000 in 2008. Additionally, the state introduced the Challenging Schools Bonus, an additional \$5,000 bonus for National Board Certified teachers working in high-poverty schools (Cowan & Goldhaber, 2015). Additionally, Washington provides other incentives such as loan assistance and professional development credit for National Board Certification.

According to expectancy theories, financial incentive pay is a promising factor in motivating teachers when the rewards are substantial and desirable in relation to the perceived effort required (Liang & Akiba, 2015). The key point to these theories is that the financial incentives must be a measurable increase in pay in order for teachers to put forth the extra effort it takes to teach in a high-needs school. A well-designed incentive pay program could improve teacher effectiveness because it encourages teachers to upgrade their skills or adopt more effective practices (Springer & Taylor, 2016). In addition to incentive pay, other financial incentives that attract teachers to high-needs schools such as canceling student loans, or financial assistance for attaining another degree may be beneficial in not only recruiting teachers, but retaining them as well (Petty et al., 2012).

Summary

Chapter Two consisted of a review of the literature and studies regarding teacher retention, teacher recruitment, and teacher job satisfaction. The literature review included the

theoretical framework for this study: Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, the self-determination theory, and the theory of planned behavior and how each theory is related to teacher retention. Additionally, relevant studies were reviewed and analyzed to gain a greater understanding of the correlation between teacher recruitment practices and teacher retention, as well as teacher induction and preparation programs and teacher retention. Further studies were reviewed that discussed teacher satisfaction and working conditions as factors that influence teacher retention.

Based on the review of the literature, the teacher turnover rate continues to increase. It is becoming harder to recruit teachers, particularly in high-poverty schools where the need for qualified teachers is even greater. Highly effective teachers are needed to produce the next generation of critical thinkers; however, a pressing issue that school systems must look at closely is how to retain their best teachers for a period longer than five years. A great deal of literature surrounding this topic discusses teacher working conditions and teacher job satisfaction as predictors that influence whether teachers will leave or remain in the profession. This study sought to address gaps in the existing literature to determine whether a relationship exists between teacher job satisfaction, teacher retention, and the designation (Title I or non-Title I) of the school in which they teach.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter describes the study's research design and methodology that were used to test the hypotheses that school designation (Title I or non-Title I) has an impact on teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention rates, and includes the research questions and hypotheses. It also contains the description of the participants and setting that were involved in this study. This section is followed by an in-depth description of the instrumentation and the procedures that were used to collect data. The chapter culminates with a description of the data analysis procedures that were conducted.

Design

This quantitative study employed a non-experimental, causal-comparative design to discover if working conditions in a Title I school versus a non-Title I school had an impact on teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention rates. Since the purpose of a causal-comparative design is to discover possible causes and effects of a specific characteristic by comparing individuals or groups, it matches what this study sought to determine. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) stated,

Causal-comparative research is a type of nonexperimental investigation in which researchers seek to identify cause-and-effect relationships by forming groups of individuals in whom the independent variable is present or absent-or present at several levels-and then determining whether the groups differ on the dependent variable. (p. 306)

In causal-comparative research, the independent variable is measured in categories; in this study, the nominal categories were Title I school and non-Title I school (working conditions). Teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention, the dependent variables, were measured using the North

Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey and teacher turnover rate percentages as reported by the schools to determine if the teachers' working conditions had an impact on these factors.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study are:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in teacher turnover rate between Title I elementary schools and non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Time.

H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Facilities and Resources.

H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Teacher Leadership.

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured

by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of School Leadership.

H05: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Professional Development.

H06: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Instructional Practice and Support.

H07: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and overall teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey.

H08: There is no statistically significant difference between school designation (Title I or non-Title I) and teacher turnover rate as measured by schools' teacher turnover percentage reported by North Carolina School Report Cards.

Participants and Setting

The participants for this study were drawn from a convenience sample of teachers employed in four elementary schools (two Title I and two non-Title I) in North Carolina during the spring semester of the 2015-2016 school year. Participants were selected by using a random number generator to select 55 responses from the Title I schools and 55 responses from the non-Title I schools. The school district consisted of 69 elementary schools, 23 middle schools, 28 high schools, and 10 alternative schools that serve a community of approximately 280,000

people. For this study, the number of participants that were sampled was 110, which exceeds the required minimum for a medium effect size. According to Gall et al. (2007), for an independent samples *t*-test, $N=100$ is the required minimum sample size for a medium effect size, a statistical power of .7 and an alpha level of .05. The sample came from four elementary schools in the district. Two had a Title I designation and the other two did not have a Title I designation. Schools may receive the designation of Title I if they have a large concentration of low-income students, which is determined by the number of students who are enrolled in the free or reduced lunch program. Schools with 40% or more of their students receiving free or reduced lunch are designated Title I (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Title I of the Elementary & Secondary Act of 1965 (U.S. Department of Education, 2004) was designed to improve the academic success of students with a variety of different needs by providing schools with extra financial assistance and resources. However, teaching in a school with the Title I designation presents a unique set of challenges not found in a school that does not hold the designation.

Within each school, all teachers were asked to participate in the 2016 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions (NC TWC) Survey. The sample consisted of 55 teachers from two Title I elementary schools and 55 teachers from two non-Title I elementary schools. Demographic information was unknown for the participants in this study because teachers completed the NC TWC Survey anonymously and there were no questions on the survey that asked for demographic information.

Instrumentation

The instrument that was used to measure teacher job satisfaction was a survey called the 2016 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey (NC TWC Survey). Teacher retention rates were gathered from North Carolina School Report Cards, a website from the North

Carolina Department of Public Instruction that reports teacher turnover rate in a percentage for each school in the sample. The NC TWC Survey is used to assess school working conditions and is a partnership effort between the North Carolina State Board and North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (NCDPI), and the North Carolina Association of Educators (NCAE). This survey was developed in 1999 by the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission to address teacher turnover and has been given biennially by the New Teacher Center (NTC) since 2002. The NC TWC Survey assesses eight research-based teaching and learning conditions standards that are empirically linked to student achievement and teacher retention: Time, Facilities and Resources, Community Support and Involvement, Managing Student Conduct, Teacher Leadership, School Leadership, Professional Development, and Instructional Practices and Support (Swanlund, 2011). The description of each construct as well as the number of questions related to the construct on the survey are as follows:

Time (7)- Available time to plan, collaborate, provide instruction, and eliminate barriers to maximize instructional time during the school day

Facilities and Resources (9)- Availability of instructional, technology, office, communication, and school resources to teachers

Community Support and Involvement (8)- Community and parent/guardian communication and influence in the school

Managing Student Conduct (7)- Policies and practices to address student conduct issues and ensure a safe school environment

Teacher Leadership (7)- Teacher involvement in decisions that impact classroom and school practices

School Leadership (11)- Ability of school leadership to create trusting, supportive

environments, and address teacher concerns

Professional Development (13)- Availability and quality of learning opportunities for educators to enhance their teaching

Instructional Practices and Support (17)- Data and support available to teachers to improve instruction and student learning (New Teacher Center, 2014, p. 2).

The NC TWC Survey is an anonymous statewide survey of licensed school-based educators. The survey was given entirely online and was made available from March 1, 2016 through March 25, 2016. The survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete and consisted of 79 questions. The instrument used a five-point Likert scale with responses that ranged from Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Agree = 3, Strongly Agree = 4, and Don't Know = (North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey, 2016). For the purposes of this study, six out of eight standards were examined: Time, Facilities and Resources, Teacher Leadership, School Leadership, Professional Development, and Instructional Practices and Support.

An external analysis of validity and reliability were conducted in addition to an internal analysis. The external validity testing conducted for the NC TWC Survey assessed the structure of the response scale and the alignment between survey items and the broader survey constructs. The review used the Rasch rating scale to examine the item-measure correlations, item fit, rating scale functioning, unidimensionality and generalizability of the instrument. Results from the external validity testing prompted several edits to increase the statistical stability of the survey (Swanlund, 2011). The external review analyzed the reliability of the survey using both the Rasch model and Cronbach's alpha. The Swanlund (2011) study concluded the survey is capable of producing consistent results across participant groups. The external analysis confirms that the NC TWC Survey offers "A robust and statistically sound approach for measuring

teaching and learning conditions” (Swanlund, 2011). The New Teacher Center conducted an internal analysis of validity and reliability; tests of validity included factor analysis and reliability tests that generated internal consistency estimates (New Teacher Center, 2014). The NTC performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using principle components analysis and varimax rotation procedures, to verify that the data reflects the structure expected from the external validation study (New Teacher Center, 2014). Overall factor analysis of the data suggest that the NC TWC Survey provides stable and generalizable measures of teaching and learning conditions (New Teacher Center, 2014). The reliability analysis produced Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranging from 0.86 to 0.96. (New Teacher Center, 2014). Alpha coefficients above 0.70 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2003). The alpha coefficients for the six categories that were used in this study are as follows: Time 0.861, Facilities and Resources 0.876, Teacher Leadership 0.939, School Leadership 0.948, Professional Development 0.956, and Instructional Practices and Support 0.910, confirming the internal consistency of the NC TWC Survey constructs (New Teacher Center, 2014). See Appendix A for permission from the New Teacher Center to use the NC TWC Survey as the instrument in this study and the use of NC TWC Survey response data.

Procedures

Prior to collecting any data, approval was sought and granted from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Liberty University (see Appendix B). Once the study was approved by the IRB, the researcher began to review and analyze the survey results from the NC TWC Survey that are publicly available, as well as the teacher turnover percentage for each school in the study that is available on the North Carolina state department of instruction’s website. The data used in this study is archival data and was provided by The New Teacher Center, the company who

has previously collected the survey response data. The survey response data did not include demographic information, however, it did include individual teachers' responses for each survey question. Data for teacher turnover percentage and total number of teachers at each school in this study were retrieved from the State of North Carolina Department of Public Instruction's (2016) publicly available website using the school report cards. Survey results were entered into an Excel sheet, coded, and then uploaded into SPSS. Survey files with individual responses from the NC TWC Survey were stored on a password-protected computer and will be deleted by the researcher after the appropriate amount of time set forth by the IRB.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using the *t*-test for independent means and a chi-square test. The *t*-test for independent means was used for hypotheses H₀₁, H₀₂, H₀₃, H₀₄, H₀₅, H₀₆, and H₀₇ to determine whether the means of the two groups (participants in Title I elementary schools and participants in non-Title I elementary schools) were statistically significant from one another in job satisfaction. According to Gall et al. (2007), the use of the *t*-test depends on four assumptions: the scores form an interval or ratio scale of measurement, the observations within each variable must be independent, scores in the population under study are normally distributed, and score variances for the populations under study are equal (p. 315). The chi-square test was used for hypothesis H₀₈ to determine whether teacher turnover rate was distributed differently between the Title I schools and non-Title I schools.

Assumption testing for normality was examined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and assumption testing for equal variances was examined using Levene's Test for Equality of Variance. Cohen's *d* was used to determine effect size at an alpha level of .01. A Bonferroni Procedure was used to guard against a Type I error using the alpha level of $p < .01$ for the null

hypotheses. The p value was determined by dividing the original α value by the number of analyses on the dependent variable ($.05/7 = .01$). Additional items that were reported include: descriptive statistics- mean and standard deviation (M , SD) and inferential statistics- Number (N), Number per cell (n), Degrees of freedom (df), t value (t), and Significance level (p). Data were analyzed using SPSS software.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter reports the findings of this study and the differences in job satisfaction and teacher turnover rate in Title I and non-Title I elementary schools. The research questions and null hypotheses are stated, followed by descriptive statistics and assumption testing for each hypothesis. The study found no significant difference in any subcategory for job satisfaction and no significant difference in teacher turnover rate.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in teacher turnover rate between Title I elementary schools and non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

Null Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Time.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Facilities and Resources.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured

by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Teacher Leadership.

H04: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of School Leadership.

H05: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Professional Development.

H06: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Instructional Practice and Support.

H07: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and overall teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey.

H08: There is no statistically significant difference between school designation (Title I or non-Title I) and teacher turnover rate as measured by schools' teacher turnover percentage reported by North Carolina School Report Cards.

Descriptive Statistics

Data obtained for the dependent variable job satisfaction by school designation (Title I, non-Title I) and subcategory of the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey (overall

job satisfaction, Time, Facilities and Resources, Teacher Leadership, School Leadership, Professional Development, Instructional Practices and Support) can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Difference in School Designation and Subcategory of the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey on Job Satisfaction

	School Type	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE Mean</i>
Time	Non-title one	55	1.95	.23	.03
	Title one	55	1.85	.36	.05
Facilities	Non-title one	55	1.91	.29	.04
	Title one	55	1.87	.34	.05
Teacher Lead	Non-title one	55	1.89	.31	.04
	Title one	55	1.89	.31	.04
School Lead	Non-title one	55	1.93	.26	.04
	Title one	55	1.89	.31	.04
Prof Dev	Non-title one	54	1.98	.14	.02
	Title one	55	1.95	.23	.03
Instruction	Non-title one	54	1.94	.23	.03
	Title one	55	1.95	.23	.03
Overall	Non-title one	55	1.95	.23	.03
	Title one	55	1.95	.23	.03

Results

Data Screening

The assumption test for normality was performed to test the null hypothesis that data sets (null hypotheses one, two, three, four, five, six, and seven) for each group were normally distributed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for each one. As indicated in Table 2, the

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was utilized and it was determined that null hypotheses one, two, three, four, five, six and seven were normally distributed because all significance values were greater than .05. See Table 2 for a table depicting the data.

Normal Distribution of Data

Table 2

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality

Null Hypothesis	Test	Significance	Decision
H ₀₁	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.98	Retain H ₀₁
H ₀₂	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₂
H ₀₃	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₃
H ₀₄	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₄
H ₀₅	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₅
H ₀₆	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₆
H ₀₇	Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov	1.00	Retain H ₀₇

Notes. Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was examined using Levene's test for equality. See Table 3 for Levene's test.

Table 3

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances for Job Satisfaction

	<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>df</i>
Time	11.05	.00	92.23
Facilities	1.50	.23	108
Teacher Lead	.00	1.00	108
School Lead	1.76	.19	108
Prof Dev	4.11	.05	107
Instruction	.00	.96	107
Overall	.00	1.00	108

Results

Null Hypothesis One

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to test the first null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Time. The analysis did not produce a significant *t* value ($t_{(108)} = 1.59, p = .11$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had lower job satisfaction ($M = 1.85, SD = .36$) than did non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.95, SD = .23$) in the subcategory of Time. The first null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples *t*-test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Two

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to test the second null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Facilities and Resources. The analysis did not produce a significant *t* value ($t_{(108)} = .61, p = .55$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had lower job satisfaction ($M = 1.87, SD = .34$) than did non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.91, SD = .29$) in the subcategory of Facilities and Resources. The second null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples *t*-test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Three

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to test the third null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Teacher Leadership. The analysis did not produce a significant *t* value ($t_{(108)} = .00, p = 1.00$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had equal job satisfaction ($M = 1.89, SD = .31$) as the non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.89, SD = .31$) in the subcategory of Teacher Leadership. The third null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples *t*-test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Four

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to test the fourth null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of School Leadership. The analysis did

not produce a significant t value ($t_{(108)} = .66, p = .51$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had lower job satisfaction ($M = 1.89, SD = .31$) than did non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.93, SD = .26$) in the subcategory of School Leadership. The fourth null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples t -test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Five

An independent samples t -test was performed to test the fifth null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Professional Development. The analysis did not produce a significant t value ($t_{(107)} = 1.00, p = .32$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had lower job satisfaction ($M = 1.95, SD = .23$) than did non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.98, SD = .14$) in the subcategory of Professional Development. The fifth null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples t -test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Six

An independent samples t -test was performed to test the sixth null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Instructional Practice and Support. The analysis did not produce a significant t value ($t_{(107)} = -.02, p = .98$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had higher job satisfaction ($M = 1.95, SD = .23$) than did non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.94, SD = .23$) in the subcategory of Instructional Practice and Support. The sixth null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples t -test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Seven

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to test the seventh null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and overall teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey. The analysis did not produce a significant *t* value ($t_{(108)} = .00, p = 1.00$). An examination of the means revealed that Title I teachers had equal job satisfaction ($M = 1.95, SD = .23$) as the non-Title I teachers ($M = 1.95, SD = .23$) overall. The seventh null hypothesis was not rejected. Independent samples *t*-test can be found in Table 4.

Null Hypothesis Eight

A chi-square analysis was performed to test the eighth null hypothesis; there is no statistically significant difference between school designation (Title I or non-Title I) and teacher turnover rate as measured by schools' teacher turnover percentage reported by North Carolina School Report Cards. The analysis produced a nonsignificant χ^2 value ($27, N=100$) = 26.89, $p = .47$, indicating that there was no difference in retention of teachers between Title I and non-Title I schools. The eighth null hypothesis was not rejected. Chi-square test can be found in Table 5.

Table 4

Independent Samples t-test for Job Satisfaction

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	SE Diff	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
Time	Equal var. assumed	11.05	.00	1.59	108	.11	.09	.06	-.02	.20	
	Equal var. not assumed			1.59	92.23	.11	.09	.06	-.02	.20	
Facilities	Equal var. assumed	1.49	.22	.61	108	.55	.04	.06	-.08	.16	
	Equal var. not assumed			.61	105.72	.55	.04	.06	-.08	.16	
Teacher Lead	Equal var. assumed	.00	1.00	.00	108	1.00	.00	.06	-.12	.12	
	Equal var. not assumed			.00	108	1.00	.00	.06	-.12	.12	
School Lead	Equal var. assumed	1.76	.19	.66	108	.51	.04	.06	-.07	.15	
	Equal var. not assumed			.66	104.58	.51	.04	.06	-.07	.15	
Prof Dev	Equal var. assumed	4.11	.05	1.00	107	.32	.04	.04	-.04	.11	
	Equal var. not assumed			1.00	88.16	.32	.04	.04	-.04	.01	
Instruction	Equal var. assumed	.00	.96	-.02	107	.98	.00	.04	-.09	.09	
	Equal var. not assumed			-.02	106.92	.98	.00	.04	-.09	.09	
Overall	Equal var. assumed	.00	1.00	.00	108	1.00	.00	.04	-.09	.09	
	Equal var. not assumed			.00	108	1.00	.00	.04	-.09	.09	

Table 5

Chi-square Test of Independence

	Value	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.89	27	.47
Likelihood Ratio	34.83	27	.14
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.80	1	.00
<i>N</i> of Valid Cases	100		

Note. 54 (96.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter begins with a discussion of the purpose and findings of this study according to each research question as well as each null hypothesis. Implications for this study are provided, followed by the limitations and recommendations for future research. The findings provide additional data to the existing body of knowledge and theory of job satisfaction and retention among Title I elementary school teachers.

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to determine the specific factors that affect job satisfaction and retention rate of teachers in Title I elementary schools. Using the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey, as provided by New Teacher Center, and teacher turnover rate, the researcher could determine any differences in job satisfaction and teacher retention between teachers in Title I elementary schools and teacher in non-Title I elementary schools. Examining and understanding job satisfaction in Title I elementary teachers can assist school districts and administrators with creating an environment where teachers will want to remain. This will ultimately increase retention rates and decrease turnover rates within Title I elementary schools.

An independent samples *t* test was performed to determine if there was a difference in means between teachers in Title I and non-Title I elementary schools.

The first research question for this study was:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

The corresponding null hypotheses for this study were:

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Time.

H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Facilities and Resources.

H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Teacher Leadership.

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of School Leadership.

H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Professional Development.

H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey based on the subcategory of Instructional Practice and Support.

H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between teaching in a Title I elementary school and a non-Title I elementary school and overall teacher job satisfaction as measured by the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey.

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis one there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of Time between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. A closer look at the data shows that the mean of Title I teachers ($M= 1.85$) was lower than the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.95$), indicating that this is an area where Title I teachers were significantly less satisfied. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in the area of Time. The subcategory of Time included questions pertaining to having sufficient instructional and non-instructional time and collaborating with colleagues. This finding is supported by Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2015) study that found that teachers are experiencing an increased workload and a hectic workday; this combination with little time for rest and recovery is referred to as "time pressure." Different measures of time pressure have been found to predict teacher stress. In addition, teachers often face schedules that extend well beyond an eight-hour work day without additional compensation which leads to job dissatisfaction, stress, and burnout (Ritz, Burns, Brashears, & Frazee, 2013).

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis two there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of Facilities and Resources between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. A closer look at this data shows that the mean of Title I ($M= 1.87$) teachers was lower than the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.91$). However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree=2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in the area

of Facilities and Resources. The subcategory of Facilities and Resources included questions pertaining to having access to instructional materials and technology, as well as the physical environment within the school. This finding supports previous research that indicates that resources and working environment impact job satisfaction. The Title I program provides compensatory education grants to high-poverty schools, which translates to extra money for Title I schools that can be used for educational resources. However, due to the fact that Title I schools receive extra financial assistance from the federal government, they are also required to implement other reforms that can place extra demands on teachers (Cascio & Reber, 2013). In high-poverty schools, turnover compromises instruction by diverting resources from classrooms, which widens the gap between low-income and wealthier schools because schools that struggle to retain teachers incur large costs when they must repeatedly recruit, hire, induct, and develop replacement teachers (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

The findings of this study also indicated that for null hypothesis three there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of Teacher Leadership between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. The data for this subcategory shows that the mean for Title I teachers ($M= 1.89$) and non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.89$) was the same. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are equally dissatisfied in the area of Teacher Leadership. The subcategory of Teacher Leadership included questions pertaining to teachers participating in school leadership roles and being involved in the decision-making process. This finding is supported by previous research that indicates that teachers in participative leadership positions may take on more stress and additional strain, which may lead to burnout and job dissatisfaction (Benoliel & Barth, 2017). Additionally, a recent study by

Bassett (2015) reported that 70 percent of teachers feel they are left out of the loop in the district decision-making process, and 80 percent feel they are rarely consulted about what happens in their schools. Teachers need to feel that they have a voice in the decision-making process because teacher empowerment influences their perception and level of satisfaction of their profession (Shen et al., 2012).

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis four there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of School Leadership between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. A more in-depth look at the data reveals that the mean of Title I teachers ($M=1.89$) was lower than the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.93$) indicating that Title I teachers have less satisfaction in this area. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in the area of School Leadership. The subcategory of School Leadership included questions pertaining to the school leadership supporting teachers and an atmosphere of trust and respect between school leadership and teachers. This finding is supported by previous research on school leadership. Grissom and Loeb (2011) identified principals' organizational management skills as a predictor of student achievement and that teachers leave when they are frustrated by poor management. In their study, one school had 70 percent of its faculty leave due to poor management, which ultimately impacted their amount of effective instructional time. Teachers who leave their schools routinely report dissatisfaction with their administration as a chief reason (Simon & Johnson, 2013). Essentially, the school leader sets the tone of the culture in a building, which in turn, impacts whether a teacher has a positive or negative teaching experience.

The findings of this study also indicated that for null hypothesis five there was no

significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of Professional Development between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. A closer examination of the data reveals that the mean of Title I teachers ($M= 1.95$) was lower than the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.98$) indicating that Title I teachers have less satisfaction in this area. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in the area of Professional Development. The questions in this subcategory pertained to the professional development offerings, how meaningful the professional development was to teachers, and if the professional development was data-driven and evaluated. This finding is supported by previous research on professional development. LoCascio et al. (2016) conducted a study on teachers in low socioeconomic urban schools and interviewed 53 teachers at the end of their first year of teaching. They found that almost half of the teachers indicated that their induction program had no effect on their decision to remain in teaching and their job satisfaction. In addition, teachers in challenging schools are often frustrated by receiving professional development on constantly changing programs and schedules (Cucchiara et al., 2015).

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis six there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in the subcategory of Instructional Practices and Supports between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools. A closer look at the data reveals that the mean of Title I teachers ($M= 1.95$) was slightly higher than the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.94$) indicating that Title I teachers are only slightly more satisfied than non-Title I teachers in this area. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in the area of Instructional Practices and Supports. The questions in this subcategory pertained

to teachers' class assignments, support through professional learning communities, and knowledge of the content they are teaching. Previous research supports the finding that teachers are dissatisfied in this area. Research by Donaldson and Johnson (2010) found that too often, high-poverty schools lose teachers when they are assigned large classes, classes that are outside their field, or assignments that span multiple subjects or grade levels. Even when teachers' grade level assignments are reconfigured, the negative effects on student achievement are especially pronounced on new teachers (Ost, 2014). Additionally, teachers rely on their colleagues for professional and personal support and in schools where students' needs are great, as they often are in high-poverty schools, teachers depend on one another even more than they do in other schools; however, stress and burnout can hinder teachers from providing that needed support (Simon & Johnson, 2013).

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis seven there was no significant difference in overall job satisfaction between teachers in Title I elementary schools and those in non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina. Looking closer at the data, the mean of Title I teachers ($M= 1.95$) was the same as the mean of non-Title I teachers ($M= 1.95$) for overall job satisfaction, indicating that both groups are equally dissatisfied overall. However, these values correspond to the Likert scale values between Strongly Disagree= 1 and Disagree= 2. This indicates that both groups are dissatisfied in overall job satisfaction. This finding is supported by what other studies have reported. Gu and Day's (2014) study found that a school's socio-economic location and environment affects teachers and their working lives, and that efforts to improve school climate and teacher-student relations in disadvantaged communities are important in increasing teachers' job satisfaction and productivity. Additionally, Shen et al. (2012) found that job satisfaction decreases as the percentage of students who come from poor

families increases. Overall, teachers are not satisfied with their job because teachers are leaving the profession at increasingly higher rates; between 40 and 50 percent of new teachers leave the profession within five years (Ronfeldt et al., 2013).

The second research question for this study was:

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in teacher turnover rate between Title I elementary schools and non-Title I elementary schools in North Carolina?

The corresponding null hypothesis for this study was:

H₀₈: There is no statistically significant difference between school designation (Title I or non-Title I) and teacher turnover rate as measured by schools' teacher turnover percentage reported by North Carolina School Report Cards.

The findings of this study indicated that for null hypothesis eight there was no significant difference in teacher turnover rate between Title I schools and non-Title I schools. Although the means for both groups in all subcategories of the NC TWC survey were below a mean response of 2, indicating low job satisfaction, this finding strongly contradicts previous studies on teacher turnover in high-poverty schools. Ingersoll and Merrill (2012) found that high-poverty, high-minority, urban, and rural public schools have among the highest rates of turnover and there is an asymmetric reshuffling of significant numbers of employed teachers from poor to not poor schools, from high-minority to low minority schools, and from urban to suburban schools. Additionally, the estimate of new teachers leaving teaching after five years ranges from 40 percent to 50 percent, with the greatest exodus taking place in high-poverty, high-minority, urban, and rural public schools (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014).

Implications

The purpose of this study was to determine the specific factors that affect job satisfaction and retention rate of teachers in Title I elementary schools. After looking at overall job satisfaction, and job satisfaction in the subcategories of Time, Facilities and Resources, Teacher Leadership, School Leadership, Professional Development, Instructional Practices and Support, as well as teacher turnover rates, no significant difference was found in any subcategory. Participants completed the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey to provide their insight on various aspects of their working conditions. This study specifically targeted elementary teachers who worked in a Title I school or non-Title I school in 2016, when the survey was administered.

The findings of this study add to the existing body of knowledge regarding job satisfaction and teacher turnover because it was able to identify the areas in which teachers from both Title I schools and non-Title I schools are dissatisfied. Teachers from both school designations were dissatisfied in all subcategories of the NC TWC Survey. Teachers want time to collaborate with their colleagues during non-instructional time. However, they also want sufficient instructional time without being interrupted. Additionally, teachers understand that their essential role is to educate students and extra duties or paperwork that take away from that role can be detrimental to their satisfaction and motivation to do their job well. This finding directly relates to Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory that addresses three universal, innate and psychological needs: competence, autonomy, and psychological relatedness. These needs motivate people to complete tasks and are essential for well-being and job satisfaction. What is interesting, is that this is an area where school systems can improve without spending any extra money. If schools will provide teachers with common planning time,

uninterrupted instructional time, and remove nonessential duties, teachers will be happy. These small changes can have an enormous impact on teacher job satisfaction. Teachers who enjoy their job are more likely to remain in their school, and in turn, have a positive impact on student success.

This study benefits the current research on job satisfaction and teacher turnover because it strengthens the data by providing more specific evidence, however, it will only be beneficial if school systems and administrators take action and use the data to improve the environment within their schools. It is clear, from the results of this study, that all teachers, Title I and non-Title I alike, are dissatisfied with their job. It is estimated that the United States will have more than two million job openings between 2014 and 2024 for teachers at all levels (Chen, 2017) and with turnover rates of new teachers being between 30 and 50 percent during their first 5 years (Ronfeldt et al., 2013), student achievement is going to be affected. Students experience higher levels of achievement if their teacher has had at least 3 years of experience (Darling-Hammond, 1999). As the prediction of a teacher shortage grows near, it will become increasingly more difficult for school systems to recruit and hire teachers with more than 3 years of experience. Additionally, student achievement is also directly correlated to teachers' attitudes towards students; teachers who are dissatisfied with their job are more likely to have a negative attitude towards their students (Ahmad & ur Rehman, 2014). It is imperative for the future of our students that school systems take action now to increase job satisfaction, decrease turnover rates, and ultimately, increase student achievement.

Limitations

This study is limited to one specific school district in North-Central North Carolina, and four specific elementary schools within that district when examining job satisfaction. The study is also limited to two school districts in North Carolina when examining teacher turnover rate. Therefore, because of the generalization, it cannot be determined if job satisfaction results in these schools would be representative of all elementary schools. This study is also limited in randomization because a convenience sample was initially used. However, participant responses were selected randomly from that sample using a random number generator.

The data indicated that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in any subcategory, however, it cannot be determined if job satisfaction is the sole reason for teacher retention. It is possible that a teacher may not be satisfied with his or her job, but does not leave the position for other reasons. The scope of this study does not examine reasons for teacher turnover. Participants in this study independently completed the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey and the results are dependent upon participants answering the questions honestly. Participants completed the survey anonymously, so it is the hope of this researcher that participants did answer truthfully and to the best of their knowledge.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher recommends that future research should be conducted in a larger number of Title I and non-Title I elementary schools inside and outside of North Carolina. Additionally, more than one district could be selected. This study only encompassed one school district in the area of job satisfaction and two school districts in the area of teacher turnover rate. It is also recommended that future research include all subcategories of the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey; this study omitted Community Support and Involvement and

Managing Student Conduct. It is also suggested that future studies look at all elementary schools in North Carolina to compare teacher turnover rates between Title I and non-Title I schools to determine if there is a difference.

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APPENDIX A: PERMISSION OF SURVEY AND DATA USE



NEW TEACHER CENTER DATA SHARING AGREEMENT

This Data Sharing Agreement ("Agreement") by and between **New Teacher Center**, a California public benefit corporation ("NTC") and **Janice Lea Tolliver** ("Requestor") is effective upon a fully executed New Teacher Center Data Sharing Agreement being in place.

WHEREAS, NTC offers K-12 induction, teacher and school leader professional development, and teaching and learning condition survey services for teachers and school administrators.

WHEREAS, NTC's Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) survey originates from the Governor's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative in the Office of the Governor, North Carolina (2002–2009), has been adapted by NTC, and has been externally validated by the American Institute for Research.

WHEREAS, NTC has collected TELL data for North Carolina for 2016;

WHEREAS, Requestor would like access to TWC North Carolina 2016 without demographics ("Data") for the purposes of doing research regarding the question(s) described in Requestor's TELL data request that was sent to NTC ("Research").

NOW, THEREFORE, in consideration of the mutual covenants and promises contained herein and for other good and valuable consideration, the receipt and adequacy of which are hereby acknowledged, the parties hereby agree as follows:

1. **License.** Subject to Requestor's complete and ongoing compliance with this Agreement, NTC grants Requestor a non-exclusive, non-transferable, non-sublicenseable, revocable license to access and use the **Data** solely for the Research. As between the parties, NTC retains all right, title and interest in and to all Data. Requestor obtains only the rights specifically granted in this Agreement; NTC reserves all rights not specifically granted. Requestor may not directly or indirectly receive remuneration, financial or otherwise, from or on behalf of the recipient in exchange for Data and may not use or disclose Data for marketing purposes. Requestor may not access or use the Data for any purpose other than expressed in this Agreement. Researcher is not permitted to attempt to or successfully re-identify any anonymized or aggregate Data.
2. **Fees.** No fee applies.
3. **Procedures for Exchanging and Storing Data.** Requestor agrees to use the secure website provided by NTC to access and download the Data files. NTC agrees to provide a username and password for the website.
4. **Confidentiality.** For the purposes of this Agreement, Confidential Information includes all Data, including data that identifies a school, district, or individual. Requestor agrees to preserve the confidentiality and anonymity of the Data. Requestor agrees to implement reasonable and appropriate administrative, physical and technical safeguards to protect the confidentiality of the Data and develop and enforce related policies and procedures. Requestor shall not lose, provide, disclose, release, publish or otherwise make Data available in any form to a third party. Anonymized and aggregate data derived from Data shall not be considered Confidential Information and may be published in accordance with this Agreement and for the purposes of the Research permitted under this Agreement.

5. **Personnel.** Requestor shall ensure that its workforce members and employees are aware of and agree to comply with the provisions of this Agreement.
6. **Security Incident.** Requestor shall immediately, and without unreasonable delay, report to NTC any use or disclosure of Data not permitted by this Agreement, or applicable law ("Security Incident") of which Requestor becomes aware. Such notification shall be given to NTC immediately after Requestor discovers the Security Incident, but in no case more than 24 hours after such discovery. The time of discovery shall be the moment Requestor, its workforce, agents or contractors become aware of the Security Incident. The obligations of this paragraph shall apply whether or not the Security Incident is determined by Requestor to constitute a data breach under any federal or state law. Requestor shall mitigate, to the extent practicable, any harmful effect that is known to Requestor or to NTC related to the Security incident. In the event either party discovers a Security Incident that Requestor's acts or omissions were a factor in causing, Requestor shall fulfill the following responsibilities: immediately investigate, at its sole expense, the Security Incident and shall produce to NTC a fulsome, detailed report of the Security Incident, which is updated as necessary to remain current and accurate; provide timely and accurate responses to NTC questions regarding the Security Incident; indemnify NTC for any costs associated with the Security Incident, including without limitation breach notification costs, credit monitoring and call center costs, and costs, including reasonable attorneys fees, damages, and penalties from associated government investigations and private litigation.
7. **Publication.** Requestor agrees that for any publications that result from the use of the Data, Requestor will provide NTC with a copy of such publication at least thirty (30) days prior to submission for publication to allow NTC to reasonably review and amend the publication. NTC may in its sole discretion disallow the publication if it determines that Requestor has violated any provision of this Agreement. Any (i) data derived from Data and (ii) conclusions, other findings or statements resulting from analysis of Data (collectively "Analysis"), that Requestor makes public must be aggregated at a school district level or less granularly. Any Analysis shall not include personally identifiable information (i.e., information that can reasonably be used to identify an individual).
8. **License to Publications.** Upon publication in accordance with Section 7, Requestor grants NTC a perpetual, worldwide, non-exclusive, non-transferable, non-sublicenseable, royalty-free license to use, reproduce, distribute, publish, and display for any purpose – including marketing or any other commercial purpose – publications that result from the use of the Data. Requestor shall furnish, upon NTC's request, a digital copy of any publications covered under this Section.
9. **Term of the Agreement.** The license granted by this Agreement is effective upon the full execution of the New Teacher Center Data Sharing Agreement and shall last for one year from the effective date. This Agreement shall automatically renew for successive one-year terms until terminated at the end of a one-year term by either party after the terminating party gives at least 30 days' notice to the other party. NTC may terminate this Agreement at any time following 30 days notice to Requestor. Upon termination, Requestor agrees to destroy all copies of the Data in any form, including electronic and paper form and shall retain no copies of Data. This provision also shall apply to Data that is in the possession of subcontractors or agents of Requestor. Requestor's subcontractors and agents shall destroy and retain no copies of the Data upon termination of this Agreement. Requestor may retain anonymized and aggregate data derived from Data following termination of this Agreement.
10. **Trademarks.** NTC's trademarks, trade names, logos and other proprietary notices (the "NTC Marks"), including "TELL," are proprietary to NTC. NTC hereby grants to Requestor a limited, non-exclusive, non-transferable, non-sublicenseable license to display the NTC Marks as part of the attribution requirements set forth in this Agreement. Any display of the NTC Marks is subject to the NTC's trademark usage guidelines as may be provided by NTC in writing to Requestor from time to time.

- 11. Attribution.** Requestor must provide attribution to NTC in any publication that incorporates Data or findings or analysis derived from Data by including the following language: "This publication was made possible through research conducted by the New Teacher Center as part of its TEACHING, EMPOWERING, LEADING AND LEARNING (TELL) Survey Initiative."
- 12. Independent Contractor.** NTC is an independent contractor. Neither party shall represent itself as the agent or legal representative of the other party for any purpose whatsoever, and shall have no right to create or assume any obligation of any kind, express or implied, for or on behalf of the other party in any way whatsoever. This Agreement will not create or be deemed to create or imply any relationship between the parties in the nature of any joint venture, employer/employee, principal/agent or partnership.
- 13. Limitation of NTC Liability.** Under no circumstances, and under no legal theory, whether in tort, contract, or otherwise will NTC or its directors, officers, employees, or agents be liable for any special, indirect, incidental, consequential, punitive or exemplary damages (including, without limitation, loss of goodwill, or cost of cover) arising out of or relating to this Agreement, even if NTC has been advised of the possibility of such damages.
- 14. No Warranties by NTC.** The Data is provided to Requestor on an "as is" basis. NTC makes no representations or warranties of any kind, whether oral or written, whether express, implied, or arising by statute, custom, course of dealing or trade usage, with respect to the Data.
- 15. Indemnification.** Requestor shall defend, indemnify, and hold harmless NTC from and against any and all losses, costs, damages, government-issued fines, or expenses, including reasonable attorneys' fees, that arise out of any contractual breach of this Agreement by Requestor, violations of any applicable privacy and security laws and regulations by Requestor, and/or the need for NTC to enforce any provision of this Agreement.
- 16. Notice.** Any notice required or permitted by the terms of this Agreement shall be sent via email if possible to:

New Teacher Center
 c/o Phillip G. Lee
 110 Cooper Street, Suite 500
 Santa Cruz, CA 95060
 plee@newteachercenter.org

Janice Lea Tolliver
 [REDACTED]
 Greensboro, NC 27407
 jltolliver@liberty.edu
 [REDACTED]

- 17. Compliance with Law.** With respect to the Data and any data derived from Data, Requestor agrees to comply with applicable laws including, without limitation, any laws related to the collection, receipt, use, maintenance, disclosure, and security of information.
- 18. Governing Law; Jurisdiction.** This Agreement is governed by California law. NTC and Requestor consent to the exclusive jurisdiction of the state and federal courts for Santa Cruz, California.
- 19. Force Majeure.** Neither party will be required to perform or be held liable for failure to perform if, beyond the control of either party, nonperformance is caused by destruction, material damage, or other unavailability of facilities at project sites; strikes or other labor disputes; national emergency; acts of God; the elements; power failures, computer system hacking, or software or hardware failures; or any other causes beyond the control of the party unable to

perform. The non-performing party will notify the other of such problems and will use reasonable efforts to address the problem and carry out its obligations.

- 20. Injunction.** Notwithstanding any other rights or remedies provided for in this Agreement, NTC retains all rights to injunctive relief to prevent or stop the unauthorized use or disclosure of Data by Requestor, or any agent, subcontractor or other third party that received Data as a result of this Agreement.
- 21. No Assignment.** Requestor may not assign its rights or delegate its duties under this Agreement to anyone else without the prior written consent of NTC.
- 22. Entire Agreement.** This Agreement sets forth the entire agreement of the parties with respect to the subject matter hereof and supersedes all prior or contemporaneous writings, negotiations, and discussions. Neither party has relied upon any such prior or contemporaneous communications.
- 23. Amendment.** This Agreement may be amended only as stated in and by a writing signed by both NTC and Requestor which recites that it is an amendment to this Agreement.
- 24. Severability.** If any provision in this Agreement is held invalid or unenforceable, the other provisions will remain enforceable, and the invalid or unenforceable provision will be considered modified so that it is valid and enforceable to the maximum extent permitted by law.
- 25. Survival.** Sections 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18 shall survive termination or expiration of this Agreement.
- 26. Counterparts.** This Agreement may be executed in one or more counterparts, each of which will be deemed an original and all of which will be taken together and deemed to be one instrument. Transmission by fax or PDF of executed counterparts constitutes effective delivery.

In witness whereof, the parties have executed this Agreement:

NEW TEACHER CENTER

JANICE LEA TOLLIVER

By: 
 Name: Phillip G. Lee
 Title: Corporate Controller
 Date: 7/18/2017

By: 
 Name: Janice Lea Tolliver
 (Print)
 Title: Doctoral Student
 Date: 7/17/2017

APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL

August 30, 2017

Janice Tolliver

IRB Application 2975: Factors That Contribute to Job Satisfaction and Teacher Retention
in Title I Versus Non-Title I Elementary Schools

Dear Janice Tolliver,

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 does not classify as human subjects research. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your IRB application.

Your study does not classify as human subjects research because it will not involve the collection of identifiable, private information.

Please note that this decision only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued non-human subjects research status. You may report these changes by submitting a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Application number.

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

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP

Administrative Chair of Institutional Research

The Graduate School

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