A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF PERCEPTIONS OF FAVORITISM, JOB SATISFACTION, AND JOB ATTENDANCE

by

Edwanda Landrum Jackson

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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ABSTRACT

Researchers posit that teachers' excessive absences may be caused by a lack of commitment or dissatisfaction with their jobs due to school environments and relationships, and a lack of commitment can ultimately influence student achievement. This correlational study sought to determine any relationship between teachers' absenteeism and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism. The participants included 38 teachers among 24 primary and secondary schools in a medium-size, rural, school district. This correlational, quantitative research study utilized instruments titled Job Satisfaction Survey and the Nepotism, Favoritism, Cronyism questionnaire to examine the perceptions of job satisfaction and favoritism among 38 primary school and secondary school teachers in a school district in the southeastern United States. Results were analyzed using demographic analyses using the Spearman correlation and the Pearson product-moment correlation to determine the statistical relationship between the variables. The results of the study indicated there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and attendance. Additionally, there is a significant negative relationship between favoritism and job satisfaction. The results provide beneficial information principals can utilize to better understand the relationship between teachers' absences, job satisfaction, and favoritism in their schools. Continued research related to how teacher job satisfaction and other demographic variables influenced teacher attendance would add to the body of literature.

Keywords: Absenteeism, Favoritism, Job Dissatisfaction, Job Satisfaction, School Environment, School Relationships, Work Attendance

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my 98-year-old maternal grandmother, Tiny Ree Heggs, to my late paternal great-grandmother, Ethel Owens Williams, and to my dear mother, Joyce Heggs Landrum.

This work is also dedicated to my children. Finally, this work is dedicated to the awesome God that has kept me in the midst of everything on this tedious journey. I give God the glory for all the great things He has done in my life.

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First, I acknowledge the school district that allowed me to utilize their teachers as participants in my study. Teachers are a district's number one resource. While new information into their attendance, perceptions, and satisfaction is important, so is their time. So, thank you again to the medium-sized, rural Georgia school system that allowed me to conduct my research.

To my dissertation committee, Dr. Jeff Rector, Dr. Travis Bradshaw, and Dr. Wizda Robinson may God continue to bless you so you can be a blessing to others like myself. I appreciate all the insight and direction you all provided. Dr. Rector, I cannot express how grateful I am that you took over leading the committee during the critical time of transition. Your continuous positive support throughout the entire process was always refreshing.

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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT 3

Dedication 4

Acknowledgements 5

List of Tables 10

List of Figures 11

List of Abbreviations 12

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION 13

- Overview 13
- Background 13
- Problem Statement 17
- Purpose Statement 19
- Significance of the Study 20
- Research Questions 22
- Definitions 22
- Summary 23

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW 24

Overview 24
Theoretical Framework 25
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs 25
Social Exchange Theory 28
Porter and Lawler Model 28
Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth Theory 29
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory 29
Job Characteristics Model 32
Related Literature 34
Absenteeism 34
Employees in Georgia 43
Teachers in Georgia 45
Overall Teacher Job Satisfaction 49
Environment, Climate, Culture, Relationships, and Leadership 51
Teacher Backgrounds and Demographics 59
Summary 61
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS 64

Overview 64
Design 64
Research Questions 64
Null Hypotheses 65
Participants and Setting 65
Instrumentation 67
Procedures 70
Data Collection 70
Data Analysis 72
Descriptive Analysis 72
Correlational Analysis 72
Summary 73
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS 75
Overview 75
Research Questions 75
Null Hypotheses 75
Descriptive Statistics 76
Results 80
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS 82

Overview 82

Discussion 82

Hypothesis One 83

Hypothesis Two 84

Implications 85

Limitations 86

Recommendations for Future Research 87

Summary 88

REFERENCES 89

APPENDIX A: Teacher Job Perceptions Survey 157

APPENDIX B: District Approval Letters 170

APPENDIX C: Principal Recruitment Letter 172

APPENDIX D: Author's Permission Letters 173

APPENDIX E: Application for the use of human research participants 175

APPENDIX F: Teacher Recruitment Letter 189

APPENDIX G: Teacher Follow-up Letter 190

APPENDIX H: Consent Form 191

List of Tables

Table 1. Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) Reliability 68

Table 2. Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (*N* = 38) 77

Table 3. Frequency Counts for Teacher Category Sorted by Highest Frequency (*N* = 38)..... 78

Table 4. Psychometric Characteristics for Aggregated Scale Scores (*N* = 38)..... 79

List of Figures

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework 33

List of Abbreviations

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Nepotism, Favoritism, Cronyism questionnaire (NFCQ)

Teacher Absences (TA)

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

Teacher Job Satisfaction (TJS)

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

Overview

School districts in the United States are struggling to retain good teachers. Historically, the lack of compensation for educators, along with high levels of stress and low levels of independence, explain why some of the nation's best and brightest, choose careers that pay more and grant more freedom (Curtis, 2012). In fact, 16% of educators leave their jobs each year in comparison to 11% of workers in other occupations (Curtis, 2012). The attrition of novice teachers has long been a concern among educators and administrators who have reacted with increased recruiting efforts (Huling, Resta, & Yeargain, 2012). These efforts, however, have not had the intended result of developing a consistent workforce necessary to execute much needed school reform. Buchanan et al. (2013) reported that retention of quality educators is a major priority for the teaching profession.

Background

According to Jackson (2018), those knowledgeable and concerned about public education in the United States understand that having a good teacher is integral to student success. Parents believe having a quality teacher for their child has a positive and lasting effect (Jackson, 2018). Educational researchers, however, have long reported high rates of teacher attrition impacting school effectiveness (Callahan, 2016). Additionally, the high rate of teacher attrition has social and real costs. Spoon, Thompson, and Tapper (2018) reported that teacher attrition costs the United States more than $4 billion per year. Beyond the fiscal costs associated with attrition, there are obvious social costs associated with the loss of good teachers. Simon and Johnson (2015) found these costs included (a) decreased student achievement, (b) lower graduation rates, (c) low staff morale, and (d) poor school culture.

One area of research interest has been the reasons teachers choose to leave. Recent studies suggested evidence that teachers choose to leave schools due to poor working conditions, and sometimes these conditions are more prevalent in schools with predominantly minority and low-income students (Kraft et al., 2015; Ye, 2016). Kraft et al. (2015) examined how working conditions predicted teacher job satisfaction and teacher intentions to remain in the profession. Kraft et al. (2015) found that the conditions in which teachers work matter, and teachers are more satisfied and plan to stay longer in schools with a positive work environment. Furthermore, they reported that social conditions best predicted teacher job satisfaction and career intentions. Thus, job satisfaction can affect students because dissatisfied teachers will leave (Kraft et al., 2015). In fact, teacher perception of positive working conditions predicted higher levels of student academic growth and achievement (Kraft et al., 2015).

Other researchers focused on factors that increase job satisfaction. Bailey, Albassami, and Al-Meshal (2016) found that greater job satisfaction leads to increased organizational commitment, and that women are more committed to organizations than men are. Bailey et al. (2016) found that satisfied teachers are productive. Furthermore, satisfied teachers will maintain high levels of performance and produce highly-competitive learners (Bailey et al., 2016).

Teacher absenteeism has been another area of research interest within the teaching profession. A great deal of research attention has focused on teacher absences, teacher attrition, and teacher retention. Specifically, teacher absences cost school districts significant resources to address the issue of attrition (Rumschlag, 2017). According to research (Gershenson, 2016), a reduction in teacher absences led to a 0.17 standard deviation improvement in student test scores. This indicates that teacher absences negatively affect students' academic performance.

Researchers studied the effects of teacher absences. Spoon, Thompson, and Tapper (2018) reported estimated financial costs to be $4 billion a year. Others found a relationship between teacher absenteeism and overall job satisfaction (Balwant, 2016). Recently, the research focus has shifted. Increased teacher absenteeism has resulted in lower student achievement, particularly in the elementary grades (Muralidharan, Das, Holla, & Mohpal, 2017). In fact, Miller (2012) found that 10 days of teacher absences lowered students' mathematics scores by 3.3%.

Despite significant research on job satisfaction (Cantarelli et al., 2016; Lăzăroiu, 2015; Magee et al., 2016; Roncalli & Byrne, 2016; Tongchaiprasit, & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016; Troesch & Bauer, 2017), there has been little educational research regarding the potential relationship between job satisfaction and attendance; even less research has been conducted regarding perceptions of favoritism from school administrators toward teachers in situations where some teachers are shown preference over others. Caroline (2015) found that employee absenteeism and perceptions of favoritism can negatively affect an organization. Other studies have shown that employees' level of job satisfaction can contribute to other factors, such as attendance (Bailey et al., 2016). Some educational research revealed that teachers experiencing job satisfaction are more likely to come to work (Kraft et al., 2015). Masuda and Fu (2015) studied favoritism, or *playing favorites,* across multiple disciplines using multiple models. Turan (2015) indicated that favoritism attitudes and behaviors of school administrators had a negative effect on staff.

Prendergast and Topel (1996) were perhaps the first to analyze favoritism in an organization. They found that a supervisor who had the task of evaluating subordinates' performances showed favoritism because he received benefits when his preferred subordinates'

wages were higher. Chen and Tang (2015) suggested this causes favoritism in recruitment to be a widespread phenomenon with substantial costs. These costs include inequitable salaries and negative culture in private and public organizations (Chen & Tang, 2015). While researchers have begun to explore favoritism and its consequences, (Bramoullé & Goyal, 2016; Pearce, 2015) those studies have not fully ascertained its relationship to teacher absences and job satisfaction.

According to Bramoullé and Goyal (2016), favoritism is the act of offering jobs and resources to representatives of one's own social group over others who are outside the group. Bramoullé and Goyal argued that acts of favoritism result in negative consequences on society, especially in developing countries. Merkel (2017) stated that favoritism is both irresponsible and illegal. They reported that employers have an ethical responsibility to know and do better than their employees, yet they violate employees' legal rights by discriminating against them (Merkel, 2017). Pearce (2015) also stressed that favoritism has an effect on employees, and it changes the way managers operate when inappropriate personal relationships are persistent.

Maslow's (1954) and Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theories provided theoretical foundation for much of the early job satisfaction research, as well as the present study which is further discussed in Chapter Two. According to Weiner (2020), when two theories of motivation are consistently applied to an organization, it will be more effective. Therefore, organizations should adjust their mode operation to satisfy both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors of their workers (Yusoff, Kian, & Idris, 2013). In addition, other theorists' constructs particularly aligned with the current study including Aldefer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG) theory (1972). However, according to Ahmed (2015), Locke (1976) gave the mostly widely accepted description of job satisfaction. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as the perception

of the fulfillment of important values. Locke used his multifactorial theory on job satisfaction to indicate that while needs are at the starting point of motivation, an individual's values govern a person's actions and choices. Locke's theory is an inductive theory and researchers who studied Locke's theory (McAbee et al., 2017) established that if individuals simply obtain what they desire from their jobs, they have job satisfaction. Job values that are most important to a person will have the most influence, and dissatisfied workers are more likely to participate in negative behaviors such as absenteeism.

Problem Statement

There exists a gap in the current research on the impact of favoritism on teacher absences and job satisfaction. Research has primarily focused on the impact of teacher attrition and attendance on fiscal conditions and student achievement (Huling et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2011; Muralidharan et al., 2017; Simon & Johnson, 2015; Singh & Rawat, 2010). Additionally, researchers have focused on teacher attendance as it relates to job satisfaction (Duflo & Hanna, 2012; Miller, 2012; Muralidharan et al., 2017). There is a gap in the literature regarding how teacher attendance and job satisfaction may be mitigated by perceptions of favoritism. New research is emerging regarding the use of favoritism by administrators and its effect on teacher attendance and satisfaction. School districts are now more closely monitoring teacher attendance and job satisfaction and its effect on student achievement (Duflo & Hanna, 2012; Johnson et al., 2012). Recent research has established a connection between teacher absences and lower student achievement, particularly in the elementary grades (Muralidharan, Das, Holla, & Mohpal, 2017). Teacher absences contribute to lower student achievement (Miller, 2012). These studies confirm a connection between teacher attendance and job satisfaction, and underscore the need for additional research to explore the impact of favoritism on teacher attendance and job satisfaction.

Primary and secondary teachers may not perceive the effect of attendance on student achievement because so much of the focus has been placed on assessment results, but research indicates that as little as 10 days of teacher absences lowers students' mathematics scores by 3.3% (Miller, 2012). Hamre et al. (2012) argued that parents believe having a quality teacher for their child can have positive and lasting effects, yet, there is little research into the perceptions of teacher attendance and overall job satisfaction in K-12 schools. The literature also has not addressed perceptions of favoritism as it relates to administrators and teachers in the K-12 setting. A number of studies have been conducted on teacher job satisfaction (Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012; Dana, 2014; Kronholtz, 2013; Nagar, 2012). They have surveyed elementary and high school teachers to measure their perceptions of job satisfaction and their attendance levels. However, researchers have not connected these levels of teacher satisfaction and attendance to perceptions of favoritism. Given that public education can benefit from more satisfied and present teachers, and these teachers directly impact student achievement in all areas, the K-12 school setting seems appropriate for more research into the relationship between teacher attendance and job satisfaction and the simple existence of favoritism among administrators and teachers.

Previous research lacks the depth and specificity necessary to formulate meaningful relationships between teacher attendance, job satisfaction, and favoritism. According to Hassan, Wright, and Yukyl (2014), employee absenteeism and perceptions of favoritism can negatively affect an organization. Hassan et al. (2014) reported that employees' level of job satisfaction contributes to other factors, such as attendance. The past focus of research on teacher job satisfaction and attendance has not contributed to understanding of the influence of favoritism on teacher attendance and job satisfaction.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this correlational study is to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers. Research has shown the negative effects of teacher attrition (Buchanan et al., 2013; Huling et al., 2012; Ingersoll, 2001; Simon & Johnson, 2013), and the negative effects of teacher absences (Clotfelter et al., 2006; Hill, 1955; Lewis, 1981; Miller, 2012; Miller et al., 2008; Muralidharan, Das, Holla, & Mohpal, 2017). However, the research has not shown teacher absences and job satisfaction as they relate to perceptions of favoritism. There was a need, therefore, for a study to determine the possible relationships between teacher job satisfaction and teacher attendance as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school administrators to some of their teachers.

The first independent variable, teacher job satisfaction, is generally defined as having a positive reaction to an individual's work situation or an overall positive feeling about one's job or career (Sailaja & Naik, 2016). The second independent variable, favoritism, is defined as the tendency for individuals to show preference to members of a certain group over members of other groups (Masuda & Fu, 2015). The dependent variable, teacher attendance, is defined as presence in a job setting measured by the number of days an employee is scheduled to be at work (Akinduyite, Adetunmbi, Olabode, & Ibidunmoye, 2013).

The participants in the study were 38 primary and secondary school teachers among 24 schools in a medium sized, rural school district in the southeastern United States. Participants were certified grades K-12 teachers employed during the 2017-2018 school year and holding a

contract for the 2018-2019 school year. Only teachers employed in the previous school year were included in the study.

Significance of the Study

Although researchers have studied teacher job satisfaction and absenteeism separately (Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012; Dana, 2014; Kronholtz, 2013; Muralidharan, Das, Holla, & Mohpal, 2017; Nagar, 2012), few studies have explored the possible relationship between teacher job satisfaction and absenteeism (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Perie et al., 1997). There is little empirical research about the possible relationship between job satisfaction and attendance, and even less research has been conducted about attendance and favoritism. Thus, there is a gap in the literature regarding what is known about teacher attendance and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism. This study addresses a gap in the available extant published literature regarding teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism. This study influences the current body of research and adds new perspective.

Absenteeism is one of the negative outcomes of job dissatisfaction, and other symptoms include stress and attrition (Abbas & Raja, 2014). According to Klassen and Chiu (2010), teaching can lead to personal satisfaction but it can be stressful, which may lead to absenteeism. Those who experience high levels of stress may be more likely to be absent from work.

As absenteeism is a manifestation of problems at work, Bentley (2013) and Patrick (2013) added that unexcused absences lower productivity, result in low morale, and add undue stress for employees. The present study will focus on teacher's absenteeism and satisfaction in K-12 schools, in a small, rural, school district in the Southeast US. Teachers of all grades participated because that population includes teachers in a variety of capacities, rather than teachers at only one grade level. This study provided contribution to research on what is known

regarding the correlation between teacher absences and job satisfaction, as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers.

Research indicates that secondary teachers are more dissatisfied with their working environments than elementary teachers are. According to Markow et al. (2013), secondary educators are less likely than elementary teachers to regard their relationships with students, colleagues, and parents as highly satisfying, and they were less likely than elementary educators to describe their schools as having high academic standards. Likewise, Ingersoll (2001) revealed there were fewer teachers in high poverty, high minority, urban, and rural areas due to the limited number of teachers available. Additionally, Dana (2014) recommended further research about how job satisfaction affects teacher absenteeism at other grade levels. This study includes grades kindergarten through twelfth.

In the southeastern US, teacher job satisfaction has decreased with the implementation of new common core standards and a new teacher evaluation system (Nathaniel et al., 2016). There is a need for more research on teacher job satisfaction after the implementation of these new systems. Van Droogenbroeck, Spruyt, and Vanroelen (2014) stated that teaching is historically a demanding occupation, and it has now become even more demanding. Therefore, examining teacher satisfaction levels related to attendance and teachers' perceptions of favoritism will provide educational leaders more information useful to identify teachers' needs. Although the study was conducted in the southeastern US it contributes to the body of knowledge on teacher

attendance and job satisfaction, as mitigated by favoritism, and is applicable to other educational organizations and populations across the United States.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between teachers' level of job satisfaction and their job attendance?

RQ2: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in a teacher's workplace and that teacher's level of job satisfaction?

Definitions

1. *Absenteeism* - Abseentism is the lack of physical presence when and where one is expected (Gosselin, Lemyre, & Corneil (2013).
2. *Favoritism* - Favoritism is the tendency for individuals to show preference to members of a certain group over members of other groups (Masuda, & Fu, 2015).
3. *Job dissatisfaction* - Job dissatisfaction is when one's attitude towards his or her job is negative (Bos et al., 2013).
4. *Job satisfaction* - Job satisfaction is having a positive reaction to an individual's work situation or an overall positive feeling about one's job or career (Sailaja & Naik, 2016).
5. *Motivation* - Motivation is the factor that drives employees to positivity (University of Colorado Department of Human Resources, 2012).
6. *Work attendance* - Work attendance is presence in a job setting measured by the number of hours and days an employee is scheduled to be at work (Akinduyite, Adetunmbi, Olabode, & Ibidunmoye, 2013).

Summary

This chapter explained the background of teacher job satisfaction from the early 1940s until present day where teachers are becoming more and more frustrated with their working conditions and the pressures of accountability. There are a variety of factors affecting teacher job satisfaction and attendance. This chapter discussed intrinsic and extrinsic factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. There has been little research on the relationship between teacher job satisfaction, attendance, and favoritism. The next chapter will identify the theoretical framework for this study as it examines teacher attendance, perceptions of job satisfaction, and favoritism. This framework will be based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1966).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The teaching field attracts many talented people and more and more researchers (Umair et al., 2016); however, teaching is also a highly stressful job (Clement, 2017). Consequently, absenteeism has become an increasing concern for educators and administrators. One factor that may contribute to the rate or frequency of absences is job dissatisfaction (Imo, 2017). Jackson (2018) noted that teachers may not respond positively to typical incentives to come to work, presenting a case for seeking other external factors that lead to job satisfaction.

This study attempted to determine whether there is a relationship between teachers' attendance and job satisfaction as measured by the teacher job satisfaction survey (Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Landers et al., 2008). Maslow's hierarchical theory of human needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory served as the theoretical framework for this study (Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943, 1954, 1970). Primary and secondary teachers were the participants of this study.

This chapter will review literature from a variety of scholarly journals, books, and research studies in education and the business sector, including resources that inform this study by providing background and context. The chapter will be divided into two major sections: The theoretical framework and the related literature, both grounded in Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), Alderfer's existence, relatedness, and growth theory (1969), Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959), and multiple leadership and organizational theories. The researcher examined these theories as they framed the present study and show how they relate to factors that contribute to teacher attendance and job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Organizations exist to serve people (Maslow, 1943). Because schools are major organizations in every community, schools support that community by educating youth, with teachers having the most direct contact and influence on students. Serving students, parents, and other stakeholders creates multiple teacher responsibilities, with needs explaining many teachers' actions (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy has been often used to illustrate both human needs and levels of achievement. Maslow's hierarchy illustrates five basic categories of needs that humans must reach to proceed to the next level of accomplishment. These five needs include the basic physical need for living, the need to feel safe, to be in the company of others, to achieve prestige within a group, and to reach self-fulfillment and accomplishment through personal growth. Maslow's hierarchy illustrates that basic needs must be satisfied before the higher level needs can be achieved. He also believed that when a need is satisfied, it no longer functions as the impetus for an individual's behavior. Thus, when lower needs are satisfied, higher needs become motivators for behavior (Maslow, 1954).

Maslow's theory (1954) is among the most referenced motivational theories in educational psychology literature. Again, the major consensus of Maslow's theoretical framework (1954) is that individual needs are prioritized according to how basic and physical needs are met. The hierarchy of needs includes physiological needs; the fundamental need for existence including water, food, and other basic existence needs; security-safety needs; the need for freedom from fear, pain, or threat; and social needs including the need to be accepted, feel part of a group, be loved, and engage in social activity. The hierarchy also includes self-esteem needs such as the need for respect and recognition and a sense of achievement and competence;

and self-actualization which is the need for personal fulfillment and intrinsic satisfaction accomplished through achieving maximum personal potential (Maslow, 1954).

In addition to the hierarchy, Maslow (1954) also articulated 16 propositions:

1. The individual is an integrated whole;
2. Hunger should not be used as a paradigm for all other motivational states;
3. The average desires that we have in daily life have the characteristic of being a means;
4. Ultimate desires are dependent on the culture that one lives in;
5. Some types of behavior or conscious desires may serve other motivational purposes;
6. One motivating state can result in a variety of other motivating states;
7. When one desire is satisfied, another replaces it;
8. A list of drives is too isolated and too hierarchical;
9. Some classifications for motivations are erroneous;
10. Animal experiments used for motivation should be used with caution;
11. Environmental theories need to be used in combination with goals and drives of the individual;
12. Sometimes, the individual behaves as a whole, and sometimes it does not;
13. Sometimes, behavior is motivated by gratification, and sometimes it is simply a defensive or protective reaction;

14. The difference in motivations between various socio-economic and ethnic classes is built upon the idea that individuals desire, that which might be realistically attained;
15. The goals or desires of the individual must be realistic;
16. Theories of motivation must deal with both healthy and unhealthy persons (Maslow, 1943, pp. 81-86).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs of individuals is applicable to persons expressing their needs on their job. Cervellon and Lirio (2017), however, noted that some employees have difficulty expressing what they want from an employer. Thus, employers may ignore what employees say they want and ultimately tell them what they want based on experiences in similar circumstances. The Carthage, Texas school district, for example, decided to launch a teacher incentive plan in 2007 on behalf of their educators (Education World, 2012). Every teacher who had perfect attendance shared in a $5,000 fund. The Dallas Independent School District also used a staff and teacher attendance reward program to reach certain attendance goals. These teacher incentives were developed with a theoretical understanding of Maslow's hierarchy, but were actually based on school district perceptions of what gratifies teachers.

Career advancement may provide employees opportunity to achieve higher levels in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy. As teachers learn and increase instructional capacity they may have more leadership opportunities. The educational responsibilities of teachers are multifaceted, and proficient and distinguished practice may propel them toward Maslow's self-actualization (Fisher & Royster, 2016). Maslow (1970) stated that personal needs such as recognition, security, self-concept, and affiliation require strong leadership and management skills to create circumstances that lead to job satisfaction. He suggested that both the effort-reward bargaining

approach and the intrinsic nature of work could lead to job satisfaction through use of importance incentives such as salary and working conditions (Maslow, 1970).

Maslow (1970) also asserted that ignoring the needs of a person seeking additional responsibilities for fulfillment was destructive and warned against neglecting employees' higher-level needs. It is a mistake, according to Maslow (1970) because the desire for gratification will still be there, and he believes it is healthier for a person to be content for a while until he or she is able to gain what he or she wants (Maslow, 1970). Self-actualization, like that of a musician, an artist, or a writer practicing their craft, is the state of becoming what a person feels he or she must be, or self-fulfillment, where one realizes and achieves his or her full potential. One should want to continue to become what one is supposed to be (Maslow, 1970). This proposition encompasses all workers, including teachers.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959) reflects a view that social relationships lead to costs and rewards. The pleasures and satisfactions an individual enjoys from participating in a relationship are similar to the incentives previously discussed by Maslow's motivational framework (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Costs relate to the aspects that negatively influence a performance task such as anxiety, punishment experiences, and difficulties of participation in various actions in one behavior (Blau, 1964). Costs and rewards should be weighed in all relationships including those in the educational sector.

Porter and Lawler Model

Porter's and Lawler's (1968) model corresponds to Maslow's (1954) idea of motivation. They conceptualize that motivation is determined by the ability to perceive a required task, the means by which individuals receive benefit from their job, and the way they arrange their tasks.

One of the most common complaints about this particular model, however is that job satisfaction is the result of the performance and not the prerequisite for the performance (Riketta, 2008).

Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth Theory

Alderfer (1972) developed a revised version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, with each letter of the model representing three levels of needs: existence, relatedness, and growth. Specifically, Alderfer's (1972) organization of individual needs includes existence –inclusive of salary and working conditions (physical well-being); relatedness –met through relationships with colleagues; and growth –reflecting a desire for personal psychological development. Alderfer's (1972) theory also presumed that humans must meet existence needs, which he considered the most important needs, before significant attention and energy can be dedicated to relatedness needs. He believed the needs of existence and relatedness must be met before much energy can be used to meet growth needs. Alderfer (1972) believed that as people begin to satisfy higher needs, the need for satisfaction becomes more intense, and they want more. Unlike Maslow's theory, Alderfer's conceptualization is empirically based (Bláfoss Ingvardson et al., 2018).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's (1966) motivation-hygiene theory, also known as the two-factor theory, declared that employees have two fairly independent categories of needs that affect how they feel about their jobs. Herzberg (1966) explained that satisfaction of needs motivates workers to be more productive. Conversely, not being satisfied with a job environment results in less productivity. Herzberg's (1966) theory of human motivation holds that biological and psychological needs of individuals are corresponding systems. When workers are dissatisfied with their jobs, they are concerned with what Herzberg calls its 'environment.' When they declare they are satisfied with their jobs, then they are satisfied with the work itself. The first set

of job dissatisfaction components are called “hygiene” factors, and the second are “motivators” (Herzberg, 1966). Some examples of motivator factors for teachers are promotion, good work conditions, and job security followed by recognition and salary (Amzat et al., 2017). Motivating factors bring about personal development as well as job satisfaction (Amzat et al., 2017). Thus, Amzat et al. (2017) noted it is important that the leadership of the school takes into consideration both intrinsic and extrinsic factors in order to foster job satisfaction, which, in turn, may possibly lead to higher levels of teacher success within the classroom.

Some researchers have found a relationship between job satisfaction and compensation (Thamrin, Suaedi, & Windijarto, 2019), while others have not. Fray and Gore (2018), for example, claimed that intrinsic factors play a role in determining who enters the teaching field. Most become teachers because they enjoy both teaching and working with young people. Few enter teaching for external rewards like salary and benefits (Fray & Gore, 2018). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) sampled workers in a variety of occupations and industries with varied training requirements and job requirements. Herzberg et al. (1959) included compensation in the category of hygiene variables that contributed to job dissatisfaction but not to job satisfaction. Other variables Herzberg et al. (1959) categorized as hygiene variables were supervision, interpersonal relations among employees, physical plant conditions, company policies, administrative practices, benefits, and job security. Variables linked to self-actualization were ‘motivators’ defined by Herzberg et al. (1959) that contributed to job satisfaction. The consensus of the Herzberg’s (Herzberg et al., 1959) theoretical framework was that individuals are motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically. Herzberg et al. (1959) described a group of respondents who discussed specific aspects of their jobs that gave them

satisfaction. The most rewarding areas related to the nature of the work itself, with or without recognition. Most often, the work was creative, challenging, or complex (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Similarly, Ismail, Yahya, Sofian, Hussin, and Raman (2017) described that job satisfaction was what motivates employees. He stated that satisfied employees were more productive and effective than dissatisfied ones (Ismail et al., 2017). Multiple factors, however, contribute to individual satisfaction. Ismail et al. (2017) conceptualized Herzberg's main point as articulating that some factors contribute to job satisfaction while others result in job dissatisfaction. Aziri (2011) developed a table that categorizes all the job satisfaction factors from Herzberg's theory into either hygiene factors such as work conditions and salary or motivators such as recognition and responsibility. According to Herzberg et al. (1959), elements that cause satisfaction slightly differ from those that cause dissatisfaction. They reported that respondents felt most happy with their jobs in relation to factors such as perception of their work performance and professional growth (Herzberg et al., 1959). They also noted that respondents were most unhappy in relation to conditions surrounding the job and proposed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same continuum (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg et al. (1959) also divided the wants of employees into two groups. These were personal growth and fair treatment in compensation, supervision, working conditions, and administrative practices. The researchers postulated that the fulfillment of these needs would not guarantee high levels of satisfaction and performance, but it could prevent dissatisfaction and poor job performance. Herzberg's theory differed from Maslow's hierarchy because the latter

contended that only the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy, self-actualization, could bring about motivation (Eguji & Chigozie, 2018).

According to Jafari Navimipour et al. (2015), human resources are the most important assets of an organization and the foundation of every workplace. The ability of an organization to maintain highly effective employees is related to its ability to allow employees to do their best with the resources they need (Jafari Navimipour et al., 2015). Motivation is the factor that drives employees to positivity (Amzat et al., 2017; Ismail et al., 2017). When employees are highly motivated, they help move the organization to higher levels. According to Herzberg et al. (1993), findings on the influence of a supervisor's leadership on a worker's productivity was a recent discovery in business. From this line of research arose the term *human relations,* and an impetus for additional research regarding the influence of supervision and motivation on worker productivity and changes in industrial practices.

Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction provides a framework for the proposed study because it is relevant to teacher job satisfaction in primary and secondary schools. There is a lack of research regarding the factors influencing job satisfaction for elementary, middle, and high school teachers. To address this deficiency, the researcher explored aspects of job satisfaction that may contribute to the scholarly literature in this field.

Job Characteristics Model

Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976) proposed the job characteristics model. Its purpose is to develop the specific characteristics of a job that contribute to high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Moreover, this model states that organizations must focus on five characteristics of a job. These include (a) skill variety (multiple skills for a job and the special skills and talents needed for a specific task), (b) task identity (the uniqueness of the task), (c) task

significance (the impact a job has on an employee's life and the lives of other people), (d) autonomy (the independence, discretion, and freedom to plan and specify the procedure to be used in carrying out a task), and (e) feedback (effectiveness of performance and moral rewards after the accomplishment of a goal) (Markaki, 2008). These aspects correlated to high levels of intrinsic motivators, high efficiency, high job satisfaction, and a low level of turnover and absenteeism (Markaki, 2008). The jobs characteristic model was rejected by some because it only considers the positive motivating aspects of work without the dimensions of the job that show repeated dysfunction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Similarly, Smith et al. (1969) suggested several different attributes of job satisfaction. These included the work itself, pay, opportunity for promotion, supervision, and coworkers. Later, Locke (1976) supplemented this list with four other attributes of job satisfaction, which include recognition, working conditions, company, and management. McClelland (1985) presented the theory of satisfaction based on needs to describe the extent of the individual's satisfaction regarding different needs and values.

Conceptual Framework

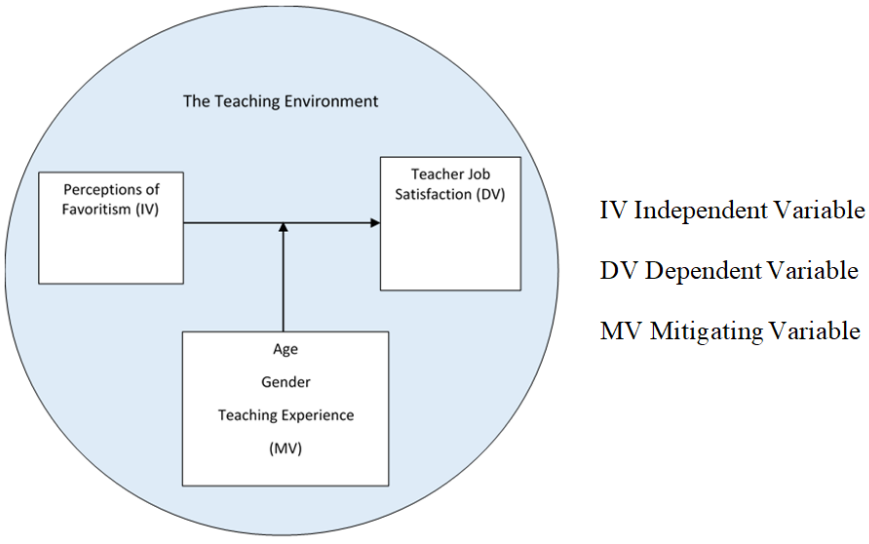

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework (Jackson, 2020)

Related Literature

Absenteeism

Workplace absenteeism is an employee's unplanned leave from work (Baxter et al., 2015). Yildiz et al. (2015) simply defined absenteeism as an employee's absence from work. Similarly, Jansen, Otten, and van der Zee (2017) viewed absenteeism as the number of days that people are absent from work for any reason other than an approved vacation. Webb (1995) stated wryly, "clearly, if absence makes the heart grow fonder, our students should be becoming quite attached to their teachers" (p. 18). According to Nguyen, Groth, and Johnson (2016), absenteeism can be legitimate, excused time off work, as well as disinterest for work, and low morale. Research on absenteeism began with examples from the business world. In fact, according to Nguyen, Groth, and Johnson (2016), absenteeism and employee turnover are the two most frequent effects studied in organizational research. According to Boamah and Laschinger (2016), there are negative effects of job dissatisfaction, like increased absenteeism. Nunes, Richmond, Pampel, and Wood (2018) defined absenteeism as simply unplanned absences. These unplanned absences can result from a variety of reasons and can incur substantial costs to organizations (Nunes et al., 2018).

Absenteeism has been and continues to be a problem for both public and private sector organizations (Mendoza Llanos, 2015; Nunes et al., 2018). Earlier studies on absenteeism, including Deery et al. (1995), correlated high rates of employee absenteeism to various factors that include poor job motivation. Mendoza Llanos (2015) determined that higher job satisfaction may reduce absenteeism. He emphasized that repeated work absenteeism often occurs when employees miss work for reasons separate from the individual's job functioning. Rather, they miss work to avoid facing problems that exist there (Mendoza Llanos, 2015). Researchers

observed that unexcused absences lower productivity and morale, and they add stress to other employees (Zia-ud Din et al., 2017). A 2014 survey of over 500 workers found that unplanned absences have a substantial negative impact on others such as causing added workload, increasing stress, disrupting work, and lowering morale (Society for Human Resource Management, 2014). Clearly, absenteeism in the workplace affects both the employee and the employer.

Parallel to the discussions of worker absenteeism in industry, there has been an interest in absenteeism in the education field. Balwant (2016) described excessive absences among school staff as one of the most neglected problems in public education, as the absences of teachers are almost double the number in other professions (Balwant, 2016). Harclerode (1979) suggested that teacher absenteeism causes an interruption in the instructional process and provides a poor example for pupils. Teachers are absent for approximately 9 out of 180 days per school year (5.0%), and reasons include among others, illness, personal leave, and professional development. Consider, however, that recent estimates by the Office of Labor Statistics Bureau (2013) place the national absence rate for all full time wage and salaried employees at 3.0%. These estimates raise concern for both administrators and teachers alike. Student absences are also a concern. In an effort to improve student attendance, teachers are often assigned additional tasks such as contacting parents when students are absent more than two days in a row. Where the automated system exists, a school's computer system telephones the parent to report the child's absence from school for that day and records the date and time of contact with the home phone in case the information is needed later. After five days of absences, a school resource officer makes a home visit; counselors or attendance personnel also check and verify excuses presented by the students upon their return to school following an absence (Office of Labor Statistics Bureau,

2013). Schools and districts establish systems to monitor and minimize student absenteeism. Yet, there appears to be little focus on improving teacher attendance.

Researchers have also believed absenteeism was a function of job design, work unit size, level of interdependence among employees, and practices and norms that arose in the workplace (Albrecht et al., 2015). Instances of decent attendance may be due to prevention of one worker's absence increasing the workload for co-workers (Lieke et al., 2016). Diestel, Wegge, and Schmidt (2014) found that when people are dissatisfied, they begin to display undesirable behaviors such as missing work. Jackson (2018) strongly conveyed that some schools and districts have operational practices that inadvertently cause absenteeism. This research suggests a need for further study on how job satisfaction may influence teacher absenteeism.

Cilliers, Kasirye, Leaver, Serneels, and Zeitlin (2018) found that financial incentives improved teacher attendance in Ugandan schools by eight percentage points. Likewise, a 2009 paper by the Wisconsin Association of School Boards (WASB) found that both monetary and nonmonetary incentives such as savings bonds, plaques, and a year-end trophy for outstanding teacher attendance in Georgia resulted in a 16% improvement in attendance. By contrast, however, Masino and Niño-Zarazúa (2016) found monetary incentives do not always reduce absenteeism, and that some teachers will not respond to any type of incentive. Nonetheless, most researchers agreed that incentive programs, if properly implemented, can improve attendance (Cilliers et al., 2018).

Teacher absences can influence absenteeism of other teachers. A recent study found that increases in absences of a teacher's colleagues also increased the teacher's absences (ten Brummelhuis et al., 2016). Moletsane, Juan, Prinsloo, and Reddy (2015) found that teachers with negative attitudes toward their work accept the absence of others and are more frequently

absent themselves. Similarly, Tran (2015) observed when teacher absence is high, the morale of teachers who are present is reduced, and higher teacher turnover results. High teacher absences may place undue stress on other teachers if they have to manage classes of an absent teacher. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) listed the main sources of teacher stress are unmotivated students, maintaining discipline, time pressures and workload, coping with change, being evaluated by others, dealing with colleagues, lowered self-esteem and status, administration and ambiguity, and poor work conditions. Naghieh et al. (2015) determined that this work-related stress can lead to illness and absence amongst teachers.

Balyer and Özcan (2014) addressed public perception regarding the teaching profession. They reported that most people are unaware of the job requirements, and many believe teachers have too many vacation days. In actuality, teachers spend a great deal of personal time to complete everything the job requires (King et al., 2016). Even with the time off, teachers have to prepare for every school day, take courses, and attend conferences (King et al., 2016). Kariuki, Ndirangu, Sang, and Okao, (2014) found that teacher commitment and morale were high when teachers felt administrative support and feedback. Lambersky (2016) found that teacher commitment and morale were higher in schools where rules were clear, communicated, enforced, and where principals respected teachers' professional judgment. Lambersky (2016) concluded that principals who were open to teacher input on school decisions had higher teacher morale in their schools than in schools where teachers were not involved in planning. Doğan and Çelik (2019) proposed that one way to improve teacher morale and consequently, teacher attendance,

was to clearly define policies and procedures and administer them consistently. They posited that higher teacher morale would result in fewer teacher absences (Doğan & Çelik, 2019).

In addition to morale problems, teachers in low-income urban settings may experience a negative impact due to the nature of their environment. Muralidharan et al. (2016) also noted that teaching in low-income schools increases the probability of teacher absences. More recently, The Race to the Top Program (2009) emphasized attracting and keeping the most effective teachers and leaders in classrooms by giving them effective support, reforming teacher preparation programs, and revising teacher evaluation systems, compensation, and retention policies to increase effectiveness. Race to the Top was established to make sure that the most qualified teachers were placed in the schools where they were needed the most (Hodges et al., 2013).

In the UK, the education field has among the highest level of stress-related sick absences of all occupations (Ravalier & Walsh, 2018). Owen (2010) also confirmed that teacher absences are a significant concern for school leaders since American teachers have more absences compared to workers in other fields. According to Kocakulah et al. (2016), employees typically take sick leave for family-related reasons, for personal need, or simply if they believe they deserve it. Furthermore, Ammendolia et al. (2016) found that absenteeism due to health issues was double for employees experiencing symptoms of depression. It was seven times higher for depressed workers. And, teachers will be absent in an effort to reduce their workload (Ammendolia et al., 2016). Kim and Ryu (2017) found that that better policies for sick leave, especially paid sick leave, resulted in more organizational commitment from public employees.

Similarly, Koenig, Rodger, and Specht (2018) discovered a fundamental factor contributing to teacher burnout. They reported that teachers display signs of emotional fatigue

when they perceive themselves as no longer able to *give of themselves* to students as they had done earlier in their careers. Negative attitudes may develop toward students, parents, and even colleagues, and may be accompanied by a feeling they lacked personal accomplishment (Koenig et al., 2018). Ravalier and Walsh (2018) identified that teaching is a stressful occupation. Due to interactions with students and coworkers and the demands that students score well on standardized tests, teachers feel pressure that may lead to stress. Since stress can be unforgiving, negative consequences may result (Ravalier & Walsh, 2018). Ryan et al. (2017) reported that studies on teacher stress indicate that teaching has become a high stress job. Prilleltensky, Neff, and Bessell (2016) identified the most common job stressors for teachers are work overload, lack of role description, job pressures, lack of resources, poor working conditions, lack of recognition, low pay, an inability to participate in decisions that affect them, lack of communication, conflicts with coworkers, and negative student behavior. Prilleltensky et al. (2016) believed that stress could be relieved through implementing the following working conditions: assigning smaller class sizes; increasing daily planning time; giving duty-free lunch; providing crisis-prevention-intervention training; improving administrative support, and improving staff collegiality. However, researchers also stated that some stress is inevitable and may even be beneficial (Prilleltensky et al., 2016). Another 2016 study found that teachers who increased their intrinsic motivation and effort had fewer sick days (Gershenson, 2016). Additionally, Sandilos et al (2018) reported that teachers who displayed a more positive attitude toward professional development felt less work-related strain and reported fewer sick days.

According to current research, it is no longer business as usual in the classroom environment because teachers must teach to individual students' needs and practice differentiated instructional strategies with students with special needs (Chao et al., 2017). Thus,

teacher feelings of frustration due to increasing expectations promote low job satisfaction in special education teachers (Cancio et al., 2018). Cancio et al., (2018) suggested the need to provide an appropriate work atmosphere to support teachers who work with students with special needs.

Since the early 1980s, with the publication of *A Nation at Risk: An Imperative for Educational Reform*, public education has been in crisis mode (Bell & U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Schools were condemned for reducing achievement requirements. Salloum and BouJaoude (2019) asserted that education has become a system based on teacher-resistant curriculums, teaching to the test, and competency testing for the sake of increasing student learning. They conveyed that educational policies even directed teachers to follow the same format to ensure student learning. Teachers were viewed as workers who deliver pre-set lessons chosen by people who were nowhere near the classroom rather than being trusted as professionals who are capable of deciding these things on their own (Salloum & BouJaoude, 2019).

The *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) Act required that all students become proficient in both reading and math. This demand required more planning and more hours before and after school to plan for remediation and enrichment (Merritt, 2016). Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, and Harrington (2014) stated that NCLB is essentially unfair to both students and teachers, as the emphasis on one skill devalues their other efforts. The pressure for a teacher to perform is so heavy that teachers feel frustrated, powerless, and judged by administrators and their community (Grissom et al., 2014). Similarly, in an effort to get idle teachers to work harder, Mitchell and Shoho (2017) found that NCLB negatively affected teachers' perceptions of cooperation. NCLB has impacted not only students, but schools and their greatest resource: teachers. Recently,

Aronson, Murphy, and Saultz (2016) of the Atlanta school cheating scandal reported some teachers stated stress from accountability measures as a rationale for their unethical actions. Although negative, the actions of teachers affect student achievement and the pressures of NCLB have had a negative impact on teachers, too.

Teacher absenteeism affects not only student achievement but also finances. For example, a 2017 study in rural India found that teacher absences cost $1.5 billion per year (Muralidharan et al., 2017). Similarly, teacher absences were estimated to cost districts $1800 per teacher per year (Ost & Schiman, 2017). Studies note that expenditures associated with employee absences account for approximately 1% of payroll costs and that paying substitute teachers significantly increases costs (Sandal et al., 2014; Gørtz & Andersson, 2014). Based on national data, one estimate calculated the cost of paying substitute teachers at approximately $4 billion per year (Kronholtz, 2013). The costs associated with teacher absenteeism make the problem even more significant.

Teacher absences also negatively affect student achievement (Gershenson, 2016). According to the United States Office of Labor Statistics Bureau (2015), seven percent of school staff nationwide are substitute teachers, and 13 days of each student's school year are taught by a substitute teacher. Additionally, a 2000 survey by the Substitute Teaching Institute at Utah State University discovered that 64.8% of school districts do not require substitutes to attend orientation or to have skills training, and 91.8% of school districts provide no continuous training for established substitute teachers (Hawkins, 2000). Teachers who contemplate thoughts of leaving, even while present on the job, are apt to devote less effort at work, either because of

lower motivation or because of time needed to search for an alternative job and this may lower students' achievements and harm school effectiveness (Gershenson, 2016).

When teachers are absent their students experience a deficiency of instructional stability and less effective instruction from untrained, substitute teachers (Gershenson, 2016). Gershenson (2016) noted a significant difference in students' math scores if their teachers were absent more than two days. A study analyzing rural, suburban, and urban districts concluded that each 10 days of teacher absence reduced student achievement by one or two percent of a standard deviation (Miller, 2008). Thus, teacher absenteeism inhibits consistent learning (Huk, Terjesen, & Cherkasova, 2019). The negative effect on students should be expected and anticipated since substitutes typically lack the qualifications of regular classroom teachers (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). Furthermore, when teachers are absent, curriculum pacing is slowed and the daily classroom routine is disrupted (Usman & Suryadarma, 2004).

The research results have not been clear about the causes or predictors of teacher absence. Sezgin et al. (2014) summarized symptomatic qualities of school systems experiencing high absenteeism. These include an overall lack of direction from the school board and the superintendent; failure of board policy to address teacher absenteeism issues; failure to analyze attendance of school employees; a lack of leadership combined with a drop in morale leading to widespread job-dissatisfaction; and failure to keep adequate teacher records.

Jackson (2018) suggested specific practices to improve teacher attendance. These included tracking attendance data to determine the frequency and reasons for absenteeism, and clearly communicating expectations to enhance teacher understanding. They also recommended requiring principals to take notice and report absence trends; to encourage good health for staff;

and to give teachers the option of carrying sick days over; and eliminating sick banks so teachers will feel the need to keep their sick days. Finally, they suggested restricting the use of personal days and including attendance data on teacher evaluations (Jackson, 2018).

Employees in Georgia

Georgia does not provide many employment protections for workers. The predominant legal practice in Georgia courts indicates a judicial opinion that an employer can discharge an employee for any reason or no reason, and workers cannot question the employer's decision regardless of the circumstances (Hur & Ha, 2019). Even so, some Georgia employees have limited protections available to them under federal statutes. Employment discrimination based on race, sex, age, religion, national origin, or disability is prohibited by federal laws (Cornell & Limber, 2015). For instance, if an employee believes he was terminated for one of these illegal causes and if that belief is upheld in court or judicial review, the terminated employee may be able to return to their employment and may recover compensatory damages. Under state law, a worker who has a written contract for a definite length of time may be able to file a lawsuit for breach of contract if the worker is terminated without cause (Perritt, 2019). Additionally, federal laws provide some employee protections which may include a safe working environment, and reasonable compensation, benefit plans, family and medical leave, and the right to unionization (Sweet-Cushman, 2015). The U.S. Constitution guarantees public employees the right to appeal any perceived unfair employment actions against them through an appropriate grievance process (Cornell & Limber, 2015). To what extent this constitutional provision applies to Georgia public service employees is still debatable. Since 1996, the Georgia state government has employed several radical reform practices such as at-will employment, performance-based contingent pay,

and decentralization of personnel power, in efforts to make government more competitive and business-like (Hur & Ha, 2019).

In his 2002 study, Condrey found that within two years after the elimination of the property rights to positions, 200 employees were discharged in Georgia public service without any legal challenges (Condrey, 2002). The majority of these employees happened to be at the entry or lower levels of their departments. Furthermore, a 2006 statewide survey of over 250 Georgia human resource professionals showed that employment relationships under at-will employment have created a less trusting environment between employees and their employers (Battaglio, 2010; Battaglio & Condrey, 2009). Consequently, this could contribute to lowered job satisfaction and attendance. Recent studies in the state of Georgia, which implemented at-will employment in the 1990s, indicate that decisions regarding at-will employees are being affected by financial investment considerations and that this results in decreased views of fairness, trust in management, and trust in the organization overall (Hur & Ha, 2019). These practices likely cause a negative impact on overall job satisfaction and attendance in Georgia and its school systems.

Despite Georgia's reluctance to expand employment protections, it remains one of the few states in the nation to furnish an important form worker protection (Hur & Ha, 2019). Specifically, procedural, not sizeable, due process defenses exit for Georgia workers. Nonetheless, these procedural protections have neither job safety measures nor employee privileges available in both traditional civil service systems and at-will policies (Hur & Ha, 2019). How to respond to the increase in at-will policies has sparked attention about the impending repercussions regarding the reform of merit systems and public sector employment practices (Garver, 2019).

In 1996, the state of Georgia embarked on a bold experiment in public management reform embracing employment at-will for public employees. Public human resource management research since the Georgia reforms has called for a greater appreciation for the link between personnel reforms and performance (Hur & Ha, 2019). Due to recent efforts at reform, analyzing the at-will system suggests a daunting task. The at-will employment system in Georgia has been observed to give preference to employers (Bodie, 2017). Public sector employees hired after July 1, 1996 are subject to the ideas of the system, and must adhere to the terms imposed on them by at-will conditions (Hur & Ha, 2019). The result is that workers in Georgia have little say or control in their employment status.

Teachers in Georgia

Stillman (2011) declared, "with the installation of No Child Left Behind, teachers, particularly those who serve marginalized students, have increasingly been told what and how to teach" (p. 141). The Georgia Department of Education Website (GADOE, 2013) specified that Georgia's students, teachers, administrators, and schools would be measured by performance on standardized tests. Though largely unpopular amongst students and staff, these tests, if acknowledged by teachers, are now the tools by which student and teacher success would be measured. The state of Georgia does provide access to all public schools' overall testing data through an online database. Yet, allowing such information to be so easily accessible to the public can raise concerns if a particular segment of a school's population performs poorly. Consequently, the school's testing data can be used as one instrument for evaluating a teacher's performance. As a result of this increased teacher accountability, many teachers feel pressure to produce students that succeed on the high stakes testing (Zoch, 2015). Knowing that their instructional success is somewhat based upon how well students perform on standardized tests

causes a large amount of stress for some teachers. This notion, in the absence of quality leadership, can create an unstable working environment. In conjunction with NCLB and the pressure of accountability that comes along with it, the current condition of the United States economy is having a large impact on our schools (Zoch, 2015). For example, in the state of Georgia, all school systems were required to furlough all certified employees three days prior to December 31, 2009. A year later, several school systems, due largely to a lack of local tax revenue, found themselves in the unaccustomed position of working with a budget deficit. Numerous school systems have been forced to impose additional furlough days on employees, while some school systems were forced to eliminate some teaching positions altogether (Fisher-Ari et al., 2017).

Beginning in 2010, Georgia began requiring that extended instructional time in mathematics be given to struggling students during the school day. Specifically, the state requires that students "at risk for failing mathematics" be placed into an additional "Math Support" class (Georgia Department of Education, 2010). In double treating them, students are targeted for extended instruction based on their achievement, and in these cases, their achievement on standardized tests, in particular. This demand may have contributed to additional stress for Georgia's teachers due to the extended instruction.

According to the Georgia Department of Education, as part of the Race to the Top Initiative (RT3), Georgia, in collaboration with RT3 Districts, educational partners, and the Evaluation Task Force Committee, developed a new effectiveness system for teacher evaluation and professional growth. In the spring of 2012, Race to the Top districts participated in a pilot of the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System. These 26 districts provided critical feedback and data that were used to revise and improve a new system designed for

building teacher effectiveness throughout Georgia (Georgia Department of Education, 2010). The new Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES) consists of multiple components, including the Teacher Assessment on Performance Standards (TAPS), Surveys of Instructional Practice, and measures of Student Growth and Academic Achievement. The overarching goal of TKES is to support continuous growth and development of each teacher (GADOE, 2016).

The state of Georgia declared its intention to abandon Common Core-controlled standardized testing; yet it has done so not because of the testing's inadequacies, but only due to budget concerns. In the same declaration, the Georgia Department of Education stated its intent to continue the testing barrage by creating its "own standardized assessments aligned to Georgia's current academic standards" (GADOE, 2013). The test, Georgia Milestones, began being administered to Georgia's 1,702,750 students in 2014-2015. Per the Georgia Department of Education, the Georgia Milestones Assessment System is designed to provide information about how well students are mastering the state-adopted content standards in the core content areas of language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Importantly, Georgia Milestones are designed to provide students with critical information about their own achievement and their readiness for their next level of learning—be it the next grade, the next course, or the next endeavor (college or career). Informing parents, educators, and the public about how well students are learning important content is an essential aspect of any educational assessment and accountability system. Parents, the public, and policy makers, including local school districts and boards of education, can use the results as a barometer of the quality of educational opportunity provided throughout the state of Georgia. As such, Georgia Milestones serves as a key component of the state's accountability system – the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI) (GADOE, 2016).

According to data from Georgia's Professional Standards Commission (2008), 15% of new teachers hired in Georgia leave after their first year, 26% leave after three years, and 35% after five years. Teachers with only provisional certification leave at more than twice the rate of teachers prepared in traditional, university-based programs. With projected public-school enrollment increases and no change in the teacher attrition rate, Georgia needed approximately 14,500 new teachers by 2010 (Owens, 2015). According to Owens (2015), reducing the 44 percent teacher attrition rate by one-third was projected to decrease this number to about 11,600 teachers by 2010 (Owens, 2015). The state's Professional Standards Commission has indicated that 69 percent of the new teachers hired by Georgia public schools in 2015 were needed because of attrition (Owens, 2015).

Georgia State University had spent more than two years studying teacher retention in the Atlanta area (Diamond, 2009). The results showed that teachers remain in the teaching profession if they have a positive relationship with colleagues and administrators. They remain if the school emphasizes student success and teachers are given the tools and freedom to improve learning. However, teachers leave when they feel they lack power and are unable to express their concerns and opinions. They leave because of school policies and teaching philosophies (Diamond, 2009). Ultimately, they leave because they are not satisfied.

Surprisingly, the Andrew Young School of Policy Studies (Georgia State University, 2010) concluded that Georgia teachers who left teaching did not leave for higher paying jobs outside of their teaching field, but left and returned to teaching. This finding was especially true for female teachers who make up the majority (83%) of teaching professionals in Georgia (Georgia State University, 2010). Only a small percentage (less than 5%) of new female teachers left teaching for non-teaching professions; while male teachers left at less than 10% for

non-teaching professions (Georgia State University, 2010). Overall, less than 5% of new teachers leave in their first year for higher paying non-teaching jobs in Georgia (Georgia State University, 2010). Data was also reported on teachers leaving the profession who stayed in Georgia. Although Georgia teachers leave, many stay in education. Over 22% of female teachers leave and take a non-teaching job in public education; whereas 27% of male teachers do the same (Georgia State University, 2010). Thus, Georgia teachers are not dissatisfied with education, just classroom teaching.

Overall Teacher Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been one of the most researched topics among educators, theorists, human resources specialists, and employers alike and is closely linked to motivation. Research on the topic began with Hoppock's (1935) study of job satisfaction, which was defined as "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'" (p. 47). Hoppock (1935) explained that some aspects of a job may be satisfying while others may not. These feelings can change from day to day, and the feeling is not the same as interest. How satisfaction works is physiological, but external aspects of the job have an effect on overall satisfaction. Complete satisfaction is difficult to achieve and might even be undesirable. Thus, job satisfaction can be explained as a person's genuine, overall satisfaction with his or her work or service. Hoppock (1935) supposed that a true sense of loyalty can propel an individual through adversities on the job that other workers might not be able to handle. Loyalty to a school, students, or community, therefore,

might cause a teacher to remain in his or her position despite other negative factors that might otherwise affect satisfaction.

The separation of internal and external factors of the job began after Hoppock's (1935) work, and Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) extended the idea with their study on factors that affect employee job satisfaction. From the humanistic approach, Herzberg et al. (1959) studied the worker attitudes and variances in job satisfaction based on employee characteristics. Later, Vroom (1964) published a literature review on job satisfaction and motivation and found evidence that contrasted with some of the earlier findings on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Tutor (1986) repeated the Herzberg et al. (1959) study with agricultural educators, but found conflicting results, with salary contributing to job satisfaction as a motivator as opposed to job dissatisfaction as a hygiene.

The study of job satisfaction also came from an interest in worker attitudes. Herzberg et al. (1959) investigated the factors of employment and how those factors affected employee satisfaction with their jobs. Vroom reviewed the literature on job satisfaction and motivation (1964) and described an expectancy theory based on emotions, expectations, and perceptions. By the 1970s, more than 300 articles had been published on the topic. Later, Tutor (1986) repeated Herzberg's study of teachers and found salary had become a motivator. According to Lăzăroiu (2015), three psychological states have been critical in ascertaining a person's work motivation and job satisfaction: meaningfulness or how important or significant a person's work seems to him or her, responsibility--a person's positive feeling of being held accountable, and knowledge of results--the ability to self-assess one's level of performance.

Other approaches to understanding teacher job satisfaction included Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016), who defined it as the extent to which employees feel supported in

various areas that affect the quality of employees' work lives, which ultimately created overall job satisfaction. Researchers agreed that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted concept (Cantarelli et al., 2016). More research on teacher job satisfaction includes, in spite of reports of high levels of teachers' job stress (Troesch & Bauer, 2017), many teachers find individual satisfaction in their work. According to Troesch and Bauer (2017), teaching is either a positive or negative emotional practice rather than one that elicits a neutral response.

According to Roncalli and Byrne (2016), job satisfaction correlates negatively with increased absenteeism, labor turnover, and poor morale. Researchers summarized the relationship by noting that when satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low; when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high (Magee et al., 2016). It is also significant to note that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is more likely to bring about a high rate of absenteeism (Magee et al., 2016).

Environment, Climate, Culture, Relationships, and Leadership

Environment. Job satisfaction is created by worker's behaviors and their feelings about their environment, which are shaped by internal and external sources (Hayes et al., 2015). Recently, a 2019 study found a positive correlation between the nurses' job satisfaction and their work environment (Lu et al., 2019). A study by Cantarelli, Belardinelli, and Belle (2016) on job satisfaction indicators and their correlates found that job satisfaction instruments are useful in monitoring the quality of employment on a society-related gauge. The instruments should, however, include societal, political, and a variety of related values. Other studies have noted that teachers have chosen their profession and see teaching as respectable (Akilli & Keskin, 2016) and that job satisfaction is impacted by both work behavior and the work environment (Demir, 2015; Han & Yin, 2016; Hayes et al., 2015). Fitchett and Heafner (2018) stated that the contour

of the teaching pool depends not only on the qualities and qualifications of those in the field, but also on how workplace factors affect teachers' decisions to enter, stay, or leave the profession.

According to researchers, a positive school environment exists when teachers are viewed and treated as professionals and where there is satisfaction with the school working environment (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016; Han & Yin, 2016; Demir, 2015). Unfortunately, workplace incivility, or the occurrence of uncivil behavior at work, can create a toxic work environment (Ammentorp & Madden, 2018). Organizational scholars have listed several negative outcomes of workplace incivility, including low job satisfaction (Zhou et al., 2015). It is the responsibility of an organization's leadership to ensure a civil workplace climate because such an environment is conducive to professional growth and development. The principal must foster an environment at school where teachers strive to be effective with all students (Price et al., 2015). If this atmosphere is missing, teachers may practice the strategy of absenteeism to avoid an unpleasant atmosphere (Rosenblatt & Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2017).

Khany and Tazik (2016) reported the school setting or environment as one of two characteristics related to teacher job satisfaction. In China, several studies support Herzberg's two-factor theory (1966) in that teachers are generally satisfied with intrinsic factors such as self-fulfillment but generally dissatisfied with factors such as working conditions (Cai & Fu, 2015). Khany and Tazik (2016) also concluded that there is enough evidence to show teachers' working environment matters due to the direct effect on teachers' emotions related to job efficacy and satisfaction, their level of commitment, stress, morale, engagement, and their content knowledge.

These important intrinsic factors have a direct effect on what happens in classrooms as well as how successful students are and their overall school experience.

Sydnor (2014) suggested that 44% of teachers choose to leave teaching within the first five years, mostly due to dissatisfaction with the workplace. In general, a positive workplace environment is associated with high levels of teacher job satisfaction, while salary and benefits are far less associated with it (Han & Yin, 2016; Demir, 2015). What lawmakers are consistently finding is that teachers need supportive school leadership, engaged community and parents, a safe environment, sufficient facilities, enough time to plan and collaborate, high-quality professional development, an atmosphere of trust and respect, effective school improvement teams, and appropriate assignments and workload (Han & Yin, 2016; Demir, 2015).

Organizational school climate. While there are varying definitions of the concept of school climate, certain environmental elements remain the same: (a) physical: conducive to teaching and learning that is safe and inviting; (b) social: encourages interaction and communication among students, faculty, staff, and stakeholders; (c) emotional: an affective atmosphere for students, faculty, staff, and stakeholders that creates self-assurance and a sense of belonging; and (d) academic: promoting learning and success for students, faculty, and staff (Bradshaw et al., 2014). Pendergast et al. (2018) stated school climate refers to the intangibles that can affect the feelings and attitudes of the students, teachers, staff, and parents and includes safety and physical aspects of a school that provide the environment necessary for teaching and learning to take place. In other words, climate is teacher's perceptions and attitudes about the school, including things they see and things they cannot see. Cocoradă, Cazan, and Orzea (2018)

noted that school climate is students' teachers' and parents' perceptions and articulates the quality of school life, molded by teaching, relationships, and physical environment.

Paul (2015) described a healthy school climate as one in which the system, administration, and teachers are on the same page as needs are met, disruptions are dealt with, and the mission continues to be carried out. Maxwell et al. (2017) noted that the impact of a school's climate is fairly long lasting and that the effect it has on student achievement lingers across time. The climate precedent set for student achievement the first year will affect student achievement two years later. This discovery implies that the effects of positive relationships for students last for several years and that the relationship between climate and achievement is strong (Berkowitz et al., 2017; Allen et al., 2015; O'Malley et al., 2015). Feeling safe is also a vital element of the school climate, as one must feel safe to be satisfied (Berkowitz et al., 2017; Allen et al., 2015; O'Malley et al., 2015; Franco, 2010). Dutta and Sahney (2016) also found that school climate had a remarkable connection to job satisfaction.

Culture. Unlike climate, culture is developed over time and is not easily changed when there is a change in leadership unless there is a complete reorganization of the entire system (Ward & Outram, 2016). Once developed, the school culture becomes deeply rooted in the system. Carpenter (2015) defined school culture as the commonly held beliefs among everyone in the school. While school climate and culture are two separate constructs, there are associations between the two: (a) socialization; (b) interpersonal relations; (c) environmental factors; and (d) influenced behaviors, attitudes, needs, traditions, and sanctions (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016). For example, Homyamyen, Kulachai, and Phuangthuean (2017) stated that teachers' involvement in curriculum development has led to a larger sense of professionalism and job satisfaction and that when teachers understand the curriculum, they feel more prepared and in

control of their own classrooms. Teachers noted that the more influence they have on curricular decisions and the more at ease they are with teaching, the more enhanced lessons they deliver and the more students learn. Maxwell et al. (2017) also determined that a positive school climate and culture correlate strongly with teacher job satisfaction.

In 2003, Governor Mike Easley of North Carolina presented the preliminary results of a school working conditions survey and constructed five points:

1. Teachers are not satisfied with their conditions of work and feel least satisfied with the amount of time they have to do their work.
2. Teachers are most satisfied with school leadership, but they have mixed sentiments on issues of facilities, teacher empowerment, and professional development.
3. Elementary teachers were more satisfied with their conditions of work than their middle and high school peers [were].
4. Teachers in smaller schools were more satisfied than colleagues in mid-range and larger schools.
5. There were striking differences in perceptions between principals and teachers (Easley, 2003).

Grant, Jeon, and Buettner (2019) noted that although a variety of working conditions were important to teachers, specific components of the work environment that mattered most were the social conditions of the school, including its culture, the principal's leadership, and relationships among colleagues. Grant et al. (2019) also found some of the most important

components of teacher job satisfaction to be collegial relationships, principal's leadership, and school culture.

Relationships. Leader-member relations refer to the relationship between the leader and the followers (Michel & Tews, 2016). According to Conley and You (2017), administrative support is the most substantial predictor of teachers' job satisfaction. Administrative support even had a positive influence on teachers' satisfaction with their salaries (Michel & Tews, 2016). Roncalli and Byrne (2016) observed that the relationships among teachers as well as their relationships with the principal are major influencers on school culture. A positive culture or morale occurs when teachers believe the principal is competent. According to Conley and You (2017), praise by the principal gives teachers increased efficacy, self-esteem, and greater motivation.

Roncalli and Byrne's 2016 study found that establishing positive relationships with coworkers and supervisors positively predicted job satisfaction (Roncalli & Byrne, 2016). Roncalli and Byrne (2016) determined several key points in their research on the preservation of job satisfaction and found a key component of school culture to be collegiality. Cultures where collegiality and collaboration are expressed are the ones that promote satisfaction and feelings of professional engagement of teachers.

According to Glöss, McGregor, and Brown (2016), people prefer jobs that give them the chance to use their skills and gifts and want to be paid and promoted equitably. These rewards foster growth, responsibility, and increased social standing. Supportive working conditions

provide employees comfort and facilitate their doing a good job, while supportive colleagues create an environment where people get more out of work than just salary or rewards.

Dutta and Sahney (2016) discovered teachers with higher job satisfaction perceived they had higher principal support. Yet, inconsistent principal behaviors contributed to teacher stress (Michel & Tews, 2016). Specifically, Roncalli and Byrne (2016) discovered that lack of perceived support caused major teacher burnout and dissatisfaction. Teachers need and want effective principals who make an effort to be involved with teachers on a personal level. Principals have to openly foster positive environments. Job satisfaction increases when regular, and supportive feedback are a high priority for principals (Roncalli & Byrne, 2016). Similarly, lack of parental support makes teaching difficult and stressful for teachers (Fengming, 2016). A 2009 study found that mothers were able to make a significant impact not only on teacher job satisfaction but on the climate of the school as a whole due to their wide networks, levels of advocacy, and crucial assessment of school procedures (as cited in Landeros, 2011).

Leadership. Leadership is a complex discipline in the social sciences. Green and Johnson (2015) determined that it is not just a field of study, but is a discipline that considers some of the most difficult issues affecting humans in society. Jacobsen and Bøgh Andersen (2015) asserted that the study of leadership has progressed considerably over the last decade and declared that the upcoming decade would be historic in the research on leadership theory. Jacobsen and Bøgh Andersen (2015) described school leadership as a commitment to administer to the needs of the school as an institution by serving its purposes, by serving those who struggle to embody those purposes, and by acting as a guardian to protect the institutional integrity of the school.

Therefore, the school principal has the most significant influence on how and how well a school will function (Cheng & Szeto, 2016). Fox et al. (2015), considering the relationship between principal and teachers, stated that when the staff has a high amount of trust in the principal, the staff also thinks that the principal is honest, dependable, skilled, kind, and accessible. Fox et al. (2015) spoke to the indirect effect of the school principal by commenting that there is evidence in recent research on principal leadership of indirect effects: school health and positive school culture.

Consequently, a principal's leadership style and how it is received determines the operation and often the reputation of a school (Lee & Li, 2015). Fox et al. (2015) noted that with the pressures of accountability to require quick changes, it is the principal's job to make them happen. Although changes should be a gradual process, that is not the way it occurs in most schools. Teachers also stated that they wanted leaders who were present, positive, and actively engaged in the instructional life of the school (Cheng & Szeto, 2016). Cheng and Szeto (2016) asserted that teachers wanted principals to set the tone, provide positive feedback, provide resources, and professional development.

Likewise, Dutta and Sahney (2016) noted that one factor in teacher attrition is a result of how administrators manage teachers as well as their leadership style on the school campus. Specifically, according to Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016), one leadership style that positively affects job satisfaction is servant leadership, which has the likelihood to improve the entire school environment in which teachers live and serve and offers an improved atmosphere for education. Russell (2016) noted servant leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the lead. Russell (2016) described a servant leader as someone who serves others first. The servant leadership model is

discussed frequently in religious leadership, but it is also applied in business and education. Homyamyen et al. (2017) brought this idea to light when he considered the concepts of job satisfaction and servant leadership in noting that the most satisfactory jobs do not necessarily have the most satisfactory pay. This is because high pay alone does not bring satisfaction, and feeling appreciated and respected are often more important to employees.

Fox et al. (2015) suggested that to increase job satisfaction of teachers, the educational leader should apply the following procedures in their daily interactions: greet teachers by their names and acknowledge their achievements by sending congratulatory notes, remembering a birthday or noting special events in the person's life. They should also be accessible and tell teachers about important school matters, fulfill teacher requests, ask for help, and engage in informal conversations with teachers (Cheng & Szeto, 2016). Leadership is a popular topic as evidenced by the thousands of books for sale on leadership in multiple languages. Thus, it is worth exploring its relation to teacher job satisfaction.

Teacher Backgrounds and Demographics

According to Jiang et al. (2018), absenteeism is influenced by multiple circumstantial and personal reasons such as age, gender, and race that influence worker's motives to be on the job (Figure I).

Age. Age is often linked to job satisfaction (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018). However, earlier studies (Aziri, 2011; Luthans, 2001; Moore & Fink, 2003; Rosser, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2009) have been inconclusive about any definite relationship between age and job satisfaction as well as the relationship between length of service and satisfaction. Previous findings implied that older or younger teachers were not necessarily more or less satisfied with their jobs. A further implication was that the time a teacher remained in teaching did not affect their overall job

satisfaction (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018). The teacher's age, years in current position, total years teaching, and degree status were not significantly related to overall job satisfaction in other settings (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018).

According to the results of a 2015 teacher satisfaction survey, 36-40 year old teachers have the highest average teacher job satisfaction (Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015). However, the group aged 41 and above had the lowest average satisfaction (Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015). This knowledge suggests that administrators give more attention to the former group by giving them more of a voice in school decisions. Another report noted that teachers in their forties had higher levels of stress compared to other teachers (Marshall, 2015). Thus, stress may create lower levels of satisfaction. Marshall (2015), when discussing teachers' self-efficacy (closely related to job satisfaction), concluded that older teachers' feelings of effectiveness may be influenced by biological and psychological changes related to their age and perceptions and stereotypes surrounding their age. The researcher's summation was that age-related changes in motivation are chronologically and psychosocially influenced by one's work environment (Marshall, 2015).

Gender. According to Rollero, Fedi, and De Piccoli (2016), women experience less job satisfaction than their male counterparts do. Yet, in another study, while gender was not a significant factor in job stress, women had higher job satisfaction levels than men (Zou, 2015). In a study by Nadler et al. (2016), the gender gap in teacher job satisfaction tended to grow with increased experience.

Race. Racial composition of a school is also a factor in teacher job satisfaction. When white teachers work in schools that are majority black, they experience higher levels of dissatisfaction as a result of what is termed 'racial mismatching' (Simon & Johnson, 2015). According to a 2017 study, more than 80% of teachers in American public schools are white,

while less than 60% of students are white (D'Amico et al., 2017). White, but not black, teachers who work in schools that match their ethnicity tend to be more satisfied than their counterparts who are considered mismatched (D'Amico et al., 2017). Similarly, according to Banerjee and Chaudhury (2010), teacher-student racial congruence, a condition in which the teacher is the same race as most of the students are, positively influences job satisfaction.

Demographic variables such as age, gender, and race hold significant weight. However, conflicting evidence exists about the effects of characteristics such as age, gender, experience, and culture. For example, some studies have concluded that female teachers are absent more frequently than male teachers are, while others have found that men are absent more frequently than women are (Vignoli et al., 2016). Further research might determine the relationship between demographics and overall teacher job satisfaction, as reliable or consistent findings on demographics are lacking.

Summary

Research is not clear on whether low teacher job satisfaction leads to a pattern of absences. However, the results of some recent studies have suggested that job satisfaction reduces absenteeism (Mendoza Llanos, 2015). Further research might provide information that would close the gap in this information about middle school teachers (Khany & Tazik, 2016). Typically, teacher absences are a result of illness of the teacher (or member of the teacher's family), personal leave, and professional development, and amount to 5% per year (Lee et al., 2015). However, more recent estimates by the Office of Labor Statistics Bureau (2013) places

the national absence rate for all full-time wage and salaried employees at 3.1%, and the reason for the high number of teacher absences is not known.

Several factors affect teacher job satisfaction, particularly being under stress (Marshall, 2015). It may well be that teachers who feel overwhelmed by their workloads may attempt to reduce the intensity of the stress by being absent (Mendoza Llanos, 2015). Other factors that affect teachers' level of job satisfaction include the school, the classroom environment, and the school culture. Because it encompasses many things, the culture of a school can directly affect a teacher's satisfaction with the job. Job dissatisfaction can manifest as absenteeism; this is important because a significant consequence of teacher absences is the negative effect on student achievement, as teacher absences interrupt the continuity of instruction (Magee et al., 2016). Absenteeism can also lead to increased costs, as the need to pay both the teacher and the substitute incurs significant costs, estimated at approximately $4 billion annually (Muralidharan et al., 2017).

Three psychological states are critical in ascertaining a person's work motivation and job satisfaction: meaningfulness (how important a person's work seems), responsibility (the feeling of independence and being trusted to do the job), and knowledge of results (the ability to see outcomes and self-assess his or her level of performance) (Lăzăroiu, 2015).

Various approaches may lead to greater understanding of teacher job dissatisfaction. Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which instructional staff members feel supported in various areas affecting the quality of members' work life, ultimately creating overall job satisfaction. This study considered whether there is a relationship between mean job satisfaction scores and job attendance or absenteeism. The

theoretical background for this study was Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), Alderfer's ERG theory (1972), and Herzberg's two-factor theory (1966).

Some other important aspects noted include relationships with others. If positive relationships exist, a higher level of satisfaction typically occurs. The type and intensity of the building leadership is also important, with a principal's manifesting a servant leadership style usually leading to higher levels of teacher job satisfaction. A teacher's background and personal demographics also affect job satisfaction, with older, more experienced teachers shown to be less satisfied. The racial composition of a school and the teacher's race also affect job satisfaction, with teachers who teach students of their own race reporting higher levels of satisfaction.

As the literature revealed, teachers miss more days of work than others in the workforce. Because the literature also noted that unqualified substitute teachers can have a deleterious effect on student achievement and cost additional billions, learning the reason for excessive absences might lead to a resolution to the problem. Within the context of continuous reflections and arguments on the state of the teaching staff, schools, and education as a whole, it becomes necessary to investigate their environments, relationships, and their experiences. All these aspects will provide a clearer picture of teachers' level of job satisfaction and absenteeism. In Chapter 3, the methodology of the study will be outlined.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter presents the research methodology. The chapter is divided into seven major sections: design, research questions, hypotheses, participants and setting, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis. The researcher examines these areas to inform the reader of the methodology of this study.

Design

This quantitative study utilized a correlational design to determine the strength and nature of the relationships between teachers' level of job satisfaction (TJS), their job attendance, and favoritism. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) the purpose of quantitative research is the discovery of instrumental relationships between variables and the data are analyzed in numerical form. In quantitative research, data of experiential behaviors of samples is obtained through statistical data collecting of the experiential behaviors of the samples. This type of research design was appropriate to determine the extent to which levels of teacher job satisfaction are related to their absences and perceptions of favoritism. It was also appropriate to determine the relationship between the three variables because it is more concerned with the objectivity and validity of what is being observed more so than other designs.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between teachers' level of job satisfaction and their job attendance?

RQ2: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in a teacher's workplace and that teacher's level of job satisfaction?

The research questions were as stated above. ` `

Null Hypotheses

Alternatively, the null hypotheses were:

H_o1: There will be no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance.

H_o2: There will be no statistically significant association between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in their day-to-day workplace and teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction.

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were drawn from a purposive or nonrandom sample. The targeted sample included 24 primary and secondary schools. There was a targeted number of 175 K-12 teachers located in northwestern Georgia during the fall semester of the 2018-2019 school year. However, the actual participants in the study were 38 primary and secondary school teachers among 24 schools in a medium sized, rural school district in the southeastern United States. The school district was a lower-to-middle income rural district outside of Atlanta.

A demographic survey included in the online surveys led to purposive rather than convenience sampling. A purposive sample is a subset of a larger population used to obtain a representative sample that serves a specific need or purpose when a researcher has specific criteria in mind (Gall et al., 2010). This usually occurs when the sample being investigated is quite small. As this study required teachers with specific characteristics, the sample was purposive. This provided the researcher with the justification to make generalizations from the sample being studied.

Participants were elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were employed during the 2017-2018 school year and who were employed for the 2018-2019 school year. Only

teachers in that population were included in the study. An e-mail was sent to those meeting the criteria asking them to participate. Of the approximately 800 teachers, 80% were female, and 20%, were male. The minimally requested sample size was 175 participants. According to Cohen (1988), this sample size of 175 teachers is required to warrant sufficient power: 0.95 for a bivariate correlational analysis with a two-tailed significance test, a medium effect size of *r* s = .30, and an alpha set at 0.05 (Cohen, 1988). The sample size values would be appropriate for a small, rural school district. Statistical power simply means there is the possibility of achieving statistical significance (Halsey et al., 2015). Additionally, statistical power is the probability of obtaining a *p* value less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) with a given sample and effect size. These data points are needed to ensure reliability and validity of the study because it provides an adequate number for trustworthy results.

The demographic survey asked for age, gender, years of teaching overall, and years of teaching at that location. Data from the demographics helped to ensure that only teachers who met the requirements were participants. No other individuals were included.

The settings of the study were schools in a medium-sized, rural school district in Georgia with approximately 100,000 residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). In 2017, the district served approximately 13,000 students in about 24 schools--10 elementary, five middle, and seven high schools. The district had approximately 800 certified teachers. Each school level was included. These settings provided a sample of teachers with typical experience levels.

Schools at the elementary level have an average of 500 students enrolled at each school with about 35 certified teachers on staff. Over 70% of the students receive free and reduced-price lunch. At the middle school level, schools have an average of about 600 students enrolled at each school with about 45 certified teachers on staff. About 70% of the students receive free

or reduced-price lunch. The high schools have and average enrollment of 900 students with 75 certified teachers on staff. Approximately 70% receive free or reduced-price lunch. Nearly a third of the district elementary schools performed below the state average on the most recent State College and Career Readiness Performance Index (GADOE CCRPI reporting system, 2013.). At the middle school level, only one of the five schools, fell below the state average CCRPI (GADOE CCRPI reporting system, 2013). At the high school level, two out of the four schools performed below the state average CCRPI score (GADOE CCRPI reporting system, 2013).

Instrumentation

The Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS) was derived from two original surveys, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1994) and the Nepotism, Favoritism, and Cronyism questionnaire (NFCQ) (Arasli & Tumer, 2008). Exactly nine of 13 subscale questions measured favoritism and 36 of the 78 final item scale questions for the present study measured overall teacher job satisfaction (Spector, 1994). In the Spector 1985 original study, 3,148 respondents from 19 separate samples were surveyed. Responding employees were from the human service, public, or nonprofit sector organizations, including community mental health centers, hospitals, state social service departments, and nursing homes. They represented all levels of authority from the top down. Their average response rate was 67% with a range of 32-485 employees from each organization responding. JSS reliability data suggested that the total scale and subscales had sufficient internal consistency, and the limited test-retest data denoted suitable reliability over time (Spector, 1985) (See Table 1).

Table 1

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) Reliability

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

Note: Alpha reflects internal consistency reliability coefficient. N=2870.

The multi-trait and multi-method analysis, inter-correlations among the sub-scales, and results of the factor analyses presented data for discriminant and convergent validity (Spector, 1994). Permission to use this Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was secured (see Appendix D).

In addition to overall teacher job satisfaction, the TJPS was used to measure nepotism, favoritism, and cronyism. These three components were measured based on the original instrument, Nepotism, Favoritism, and Cronyism questionnaire (Arasli & Tumer, 2008). In their original study, a survey was administered with 576 respondents working in the banking industry in Northern Cyprus. In their analysis of results, reliability and validity of the scales were confirmed by calculating Cronbach's alpha values and factor analysis for each dimension and

scale. Cronbach's alpha values for each dimension had a cut-off value of .70 and each scale coefficient value was over .50.

Each statement on the survey instrument for this study described a behavior associated with overall teacher job satisfaction: nepotism-favoritism, cronyism, stress, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and word of mouth. The instrument asked the individual to describe how the statement described him or her. A 5-point Likert scale was used in which "1" meant "strongly disagree" and a response of "5" denoted "strongly agree." Participants could choose 1 for "strongly disagree," 2 for "disagree," 3 for "neither agree nor disagree," 4 for "agree," or 5 for "strongly agree." For the first domain, nepotism-favoritism, there were 20 items. For the second domain, cronyism, there were seven items. The third domain, job satisfaction, had 36 items. Finally, the fourth domain, other factors, specifically, stress, intent to quit, and word of mouth, had 15 items. The minimum score for each statement was "1" and the maximum score was "5." The minimum overall teacher job satisfaction score was "0" and the maximum score was "390" which means the respondent, overall is either highly dissatisfied or satisfied with his or her job with minimal feelings of favoritism in any form. In addition, four demographic questions were asked: age, gender, years of teaching experience overall, and years of teaching experience at their present school. Attendance was self-reported.

The original JSS has been well-utilized by peers in the field. Over 1,700 peer-reviewed studies have cited the study around the development of the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985, 1994). For example, Barak, Nissly, and Levin's 2001 study involved a meta-analysis of Spector's work and found that a major predictor of employees leaving is organizational or job-related. Also, Nyhan and Marlowe's 1997 study referenced Spector and his instrument in their development of the Organizational Trust Inventory. Additionally, Ragu-Nathan, Tarafdar, Ragu-

Nathan, and Tu utilized the Job Satisfaction Survey to measure job satisfaction in their study (2008).

Procedures

Data Collection

Before submitting an Institutional Review Board (IRB) application, the researcher obtained permission to conduct the study. First, the researcher contacted and gained approval from a district-level administrator from the Office of Assessment and Accountability (see Appendix B). After the researcher secured the necessary permission, she sought school-level approval to conduct the study, access, and analyze data from a sampling of the K-12 schools (see Appendix C). District approval was essential because it determined whether the researcher would have access to the necessary data. Next, the researcher submitted an application to Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). After gaining IRB and survey authors' approval, the researcher began the study (see Appendix C, Appendix D, and Appendix E).

After the researcher had secured permission to conduct the study in the spring of 2019 and after district-level approval, an email was sent to the principal of each of the schools in the district. The email requested individual administrator permission to conduct the current study with the teachers in their particular school. After principal approval, an initial email was sent by the researcher to the teachers of 24 K-12 schools explaining the purpose of the study, requesting their voluntary participation, and requesting their permission to include their personal data in the study. Participants were to accept or decline the request to participate. However, only respondents who met the inclusion criteria were included in the sample. The email letter included how the person was identified to be sent the email, who was conducting the study and why, who would be involved if the person participated, an overview of any potential risks or

potential benefits, and information on how to participate if interested. The email included where to get answers to additional questions and a notification about confidentiality. Potential participants were asked to go to a Survey Monkey webpage by clicking on a link in an email. Due to the limited to no potential harm to participants, once there, teachers had to read and give their consent to participate in the study before they proceeded, instead of signing an informed consent document. A follow-up email was sent two weeks after the study opened. Another email was sent one week prior to the study closing to remind those still interested in participating, but who had not done so (see Appendix A, Appendix F, and Appendix H). The researcher adapted the instrument for SurveyMonkey.com with a hyperlink to the electronic survey: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/teacherjobperceptions.

Using Survey Monkey enabled teachers to answer questions relevant to the study: 20 regarding nepotism and favoritism, seven on cronyism, 36 on job satisfaction, 15 on other factors, and 5 on demographic information and attendance. Participants were asked to complete the survey within 7 days. Requesting completion of the instrument in the middle of the second semester of the school year ensured they have had enough experience in the school and time to settle in to the new school year. This time frame also assured that participants would have enough time to access the instrument. A follow-up e-mail was sent as a reminder two weeks later and then one week prior to the window closing (see Appendix G). The online survey safeguarded schools from liability and infringing on participants' privacy rights. All data was safeguarded on a password-protected laptop and stored under lock and key at the researcher's location.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Analysis

The goal of this study was to determine any relationship between levels of overall teacher job satisfaction, attendance, and favoritism. Responses to the TJPS from the Survey Monkey website were exported directly into SPSS, which was used to test the data. Results were analyzed for the overall job satisfaction score and for each subdomain. Quantitative data analysis in the form of descriptive statistical analysis were included as a measure of central tendencies such as frequency, mean, mode, median, variance, range, and standard deviation (Gall et al., 2010). Descriptive analysis was followed by correlation analysis to examine any confounding variables using SPSS (i.e. time of school year).

Correlational Analysis

Correlation tests determined the relationship between the variables in the research question, with the results from the correlation coefficient demonstrating the degree and direction of the relationship between the variables (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). Correlation coefficients (*r* s) were utilized to exhibit the effect size or strength of the relationships to determine the degree to which the movements of two variables were associated.

With quantitative data, a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's *r*) is usually an appropriate initial parametric analysis tool to test the strength of the relationship between variables. Thus, the data was to be analyzed using a Pearson product-moment correlation, but due to a violation of the assumption of linearity, the researcher chose to use Spearman rank-ordered correlation. Spearman rank-ordered correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho) was an appropriate nonparametric analysis tool to measure the monotonic relationship between two variables. The level of job satisfaction was measured using a Likert-type scale,

with the results as ordinal, consisting of numerical scores on a scale where items were classified as having more or less of some element. The number of teacher absences in one year is discrete data, meaning it should be measured at the ratio level. The results were correlated to find the relationship between the two. One of the most widely used statistics in psychological research to measure relationships is Spearman's rho (deWinter et al., 2016). Due to Spearman's coefficient being rank-based, nonparametric, and independent, it was a more effective method to utilize when there is a small sample size (Zhang et al., 2016). The assumption addressing ordinal data was met through the type of data gathered on the TJPS Likert scale survey (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SPSS was utilized for assumption tests and correlational analyses, which are procedures used to find correlation coefficients to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables of teacher absenteeism and teacher job satisfaction (Field, 2009). Box plots were generated to examine the patterns of outliers for the primary study variables. The assumption of normality was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Zeng et al., 2015). The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated the agreement between two value sets and independence of the two data samples. The results should have revealed that the assumption of normality was met.

Summary

A quantitative, correlational study design was utilized to determine the relationship between teacher attendance, job satisfaction, and perceptions of favoritism of K-12 teachers in southeastern schools. Through the Job Satisfaction Survey (1994) and a modified version of Nepotism, Favoritism, and Cronyism (2008), the researcher identified whether there was a relationship between attendance and job satisfaction. Data analysis, as outlined by Gall et al.

(2010) was utilized to report survey results. Next, Chapter Four communicates the researcher's findings as they relate to the shared experiences of the participants.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this correlational study was to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers. The participants in the study were 38 primary and secondary school teachers among 24 schools in a medium sized, rural school district in the southeastern United States. Participants were state-certified teachers in grades K-12 employed during the 2017-2018 school year and who were under contract for the 2018-2019 school year. Based on G*Power, for a sample of N = 38, with a p-value of .05, with a medium effect size, a one tailed test has an actual power level of .57.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between teachers' level of job satisfaction and their job attendance?

RQ2: What is the nature and strength of the relationship between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in a teacher's workplace and that teacher's level of job satisfaction?

Null Hypotheses

H_o1: There will be no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance.

H_o2: There will be no statistically significant association between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in their day-to-day workplace and teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 displays the frequency counts for selected variables. The teachers ranged in age from 20-30 years (7.9%) to 51-65 years (28.9%) with a median age of 45.5 years. Participant gender included 32 females (84.2%) and six males (15.8%). Years of teaching experience ranged from 0-3 years (10.5%) to over 31 years (5.3%). Most (84.2%) taught at their current school at least three years. There were 16 middle school teachers, 14 elementary school teachers, and eight high school teachers. Days absent last school year ranged from zero for four teachers (10.5%) to more than 10 for 12 teachers (31.6%) with a median of 7.5 days (see Table 2).

Table 2

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 38)

Variable	Category	*n*	%
Age [a]			
	20-30	3	7.9
	31-40	12	31.6
	41-50	12	31.6
	51-65	11	28.9
Gender			
	Female	32	84.2
	Male	6	15.8
Years Teaching Experience [b]			
	0-3	4	10.5
	4 to 15	13	34.2
	16-30	19	50.0
	31+	2	5.3
Years Taught at School			
	1 to 2	6	15.8
	3 or more	32	84.2
Teaching Level			
	Elementary	14	36.8
	Middle	16	42.1
	High	8	21.1
Days Absent Last School Year [c]			
	None	4	10.5
	1 or 2 days	3	7.9
	3 to 5 days	11	29.0
	6 to 9 days	8	21.0
	10 or more	12	31.6

Table 3 displays the frequency counts for teacher category sorted by highest frequency. Respondents were able to give multiple responses if they taught in more than one subject area. The most frequently reported teacher categories were math (39.5%), language arts/English (34.2%), science (34.2%), and social studies/history (26.3%). There was one lead teacher or

department chair from each of the social studies/history, special education, science, and math departments (2.6%), but no lead teacher or department chair for the language arts/English department (see Table 3).

Table 3

Frequency Counts for Teacher Category Sorted by Highest Frequency (N = 38)

Category	*n*	*%*
Math teacher	15	39.5
Language Arts/English teacher	13	34.2
Science teacher	13	34.2
Social Studies/History teacher	10	26.3
Special area/support department head	9	23.7
Special Education teacher	6	15.8
Special area/support staff	3	7.9
Social Studies/History lead teacher or department chair	1	2.6
Special Education lead teacher or department chair	1	2.6
Science lead teacher or department chair	1	2.6
Math lead teacher or department chair	1	2.6
Language Arts/English lead teacher or department chair	0	0.0

Note. Respondents could give multiple responses.

Table 4 displays the psychometric characteristics for the fourteen summated scale scores. This information included the number of items, the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient as well as basic descriptive information (mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranged from $\alpha = .66$ to $\alpha = .96$, with a median alpha of $\alpha =$

.86. Thus, the analysis indicated that all but one of the scales (operating conditions) had adequate levels of internal reliability (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2010) (see Table 4).

Table 4

Psychometric Characteristics for Aggregated Scale Scores (N = 38)

Score	Number of items	*M*	*SD*	Low	High	α
Pay	4	11.74	4.34	4.00	19.00	.87
Promotion	4	12.82	4.18	5.00	20.00	.88
Supervision	4	17.18	3.39	9.00	20.00	.89
Fringe Benefits	4	13.84	3.88	4.00	20.00	.83
Contingent Rewards	4	14.24	4.46	4.00	20.00	.87
Operating Conditions	4	11.87	3.79	4.00	19.00	.66
Coworkers	4	16.08	3.27	8.00	20.00	.77
Nature of work	4	17.55	2.40	12.00	20.00	.81
Communication	4	15.42	3.82	4.00	20.00	.84
Total Satisfaction	36	130.74	26.68	74.00	177.00	.96
Nepotism - Favoritism	20	2.27	0.89	1.00	4.20	.95
Cronyism	7	1.77	0.81	1.00	3.71	.89
Word of Mouth	3	3.70	0.93	1.67	5.00	.85
Stress	9	2.58	0.84	1.00	4.33	.87
Intention to Quit	3	1.63	0.77	1.00	4.00	.76

Results

H_o1: There will be no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance.

Data Screening

Sixty-six people began the study. Those who had no missing data (n = 38) were retained for the study. The Spearman rank ordered correlation was used instead of the more common Pearson correlation due to the sample size (N = 38), and the Pearson correlation was not used because the assumption of linearity was not met. Spearman rank-ordered correlations are calculated by first assigning a rank for each person from 1 to 38 (sample size) for each variable and then performing a Pearson correlation on the ranked data. Because there are only 38 people, each person accounts for 2.6% of the variance (1 /38) which is equivalent to a correlation of r = .16 or r-squared of .026. Therefore, if two respondents had highly influential responses (that supported the linearity of the relationship), those respondents could potentially account for 5.2% of the variance or a correlation of r = .16. This is why Spearman is used instead of Pearson in small samples such as N = 38. Spearman is more reliable for small samples because Spearman's coefficients measure monotonic, non-linear, associations (Puth et al., 2015).

Testing the Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1 was, **H_o1**: There will be no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance. As stated above, a Spearman correlation was used to test the association. No significant association was found, r_s (36) = -.15, p = .37 which failed to reject null hypothesis one (Table 1).

Null Hypothesis 2 was, **H_o2**: There will be no statistically significant association between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in their day-to-day workplace and teachers' self-reported

level of job satisfaction. As stated above, a Spearman correlation was used to test the association (Table 2). A significant association was found, r_s (36) = -.63, p = .001 which provided support to reject Null Hypothesis 2.

The Null Hypothesis 2 was tested using the Spearman rank ordered correlation due to sample size (N = 38). The Spearman rank-ordered correlation assigned a rank for each respondent from 1 to 38 (sample size) for each variable. A Pearson correlation was then calculated on the ranked data. With a sample size of 38 people, each person accounts for 2.6% of the variance (1 /38) which is equivalent to a correlation of r = .16 or r-squared of .026. Thus, if two respondents had highly influential responses (that supported the linearity of the relationship), those respondents could potentially account for 5.2% of the variance or a correlation of r = .16. Ranking data using the Spearman approach before calculating the Pearson correlation mitigates these potential influences and increases reliability for studies with small sample sizes. Based on results of the Spearman correlation, there was a significant negative correlation between favoritism and total satisfaction, r_s = -.63, p < .001. Results did support rejection of the null hypothesis (Table 1).

Summary

In summary, this study used data from 38 primary and secondary school teachers to explore the relationship between teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers. Null Hypothesis One (job satisfaction and job attendance) was not rejected. Null Hypothesis 2 (perceptions of favoritism and job satisfaction) was rejected. In the final chapter, these findings are compared to the literature, conclusions and implications are drawn, and a series of recommendations are suggested.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter discusses study results for each of the two hypotheses in the context of the theoretical framework and related literature that guided the study. The chapter is divided into four major sections: discussion, implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers. Absenteeism is the lack of physical presence when and where one is expected (Gosselin, Lemyre, & Corneil (2013). The independent variables, *teacher job satisfaction* and *favoritism*, were analyzed as well as four other factors categorized as demographic information. The factors as represented by null hypotheses one and two included four variables: age, gender, years teaching experience, and years taught at school.

The study utilized two instruments, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1994) and the Nepotism, Favoritism, and Cronyism questionnaire (NFCQ) (Arasli & Tumer, 2008). The JSS was developed to measure job satisfaction in employees from public and nonprofit organizations. Employees taking the JSS included top- and mid- level leaders and managers, lower level supervisors, and typical employees. The JSS was utilized to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. The NFCQ was developed to measure nepotism, favoritism, and cronyism in banking employees. Each statement on the instrument described a behavior associated with overall teacher job satisfaction: nepotism-favoritism, cronyism, stress,

job satisfaction, intention to quit, and word of mouth. The NFC was utilized to answer questions related to the positive or negative effects of job stress and job satisfaction.

Spearman correlations were used in this study to evaluate possible relationships between job satisfaction and perceptions of favoritism with age, gender, years teaching experience, and years taught at school (de Winter et al., 2016). It was appropriate to process multiple correlations due to the number of variables. The researcher sought to measure the degree and relationship between two or more variables (Gall et al., 2007).

Null Hypothesis One

The first null hypothesis stated there would be no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance. The first hypothesis failed to be rejected. Of the 10 correlations, none was significant and ultimately could not predict job satisfaction.

A review of the literature showed historically, that higher job satisfaction has been associated with lower absenteeism (Mendoza Llanos, 2015). In contrast, the results of this study yielded results that were not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Results indicated that teacher job satisfaction did not predict teacher attendance.

While prior research does exist on factors related to teacher attendance, it has not consistently determined factors related to teacher attendance (Bailey et al., 2016; Balwant, 2016; Gershenson, 2016; Miller, 2012; Muralidharan, Das, Holla, & Mohpal, 2017; Rumschlag, 2017; Spoon, Thompson, & Tapper, 2018). Even so, Wang and Gupta (2014) believed that absenteeism was a function of job design, work unit size, level of interdependence among employees, and practices and norms that arise in the workplace. These variables were not the focus of this study and results do not address those relationships.

Several researchers support a theory of job satisfaction based on internal and external factors including motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959; Hoppock, 1935; Vroom 1964). Correlations to external factors such as operating conditions appeared elevated compared to other factors, but calculations did not demonstrate a relationship at the significance level (r=0.05). Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory on worker attitudes also considered internal factors and concluded that variances in job satisfaction are based on individual employee characteristics. In this study, internal factors like motivation related to job satisfaction, were not addressed by the data collected. Despite the probable influence of internal and external factors, a relationship could not be established between job satisfaction and attendance based on variances in days absent among teachers.

Null Hypothesis Two

The second null hypothesis stated there will be no statistically significant association between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in their day-to-day workplace and teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction. A Spearman correlation was calculated to test this hypothesis. A significant negative correlation was found between favoritism and total satisfaction. Null hypothesis two was rejected based on the numbers above.

Additionally, high numbers of employees report the presence of favoritism in the recruitment process with some documenting these incidences among teachers and administrators (Bramoullé & Goyal, 2014; Chen & Tang, 2015; Pearce, 2015). A review of the literature regarding perceptions of favoritism among teachers indicated that studies have not been able to determine the specific factors of job satisfaction that lead to perceptions of favoritism (Bramoullé & Goyal, 2014; Chen & Tang, 2015; Pearce, 2015). Specifically, Caroline (2015) found that employee absenteeism and perceptions of favoritism can negatively affect an

organization. Also, Turan (2015) indicated that favoritism attitudes and behaviors of school administrators had a negative effect on staff.

Implications

The findings of this study have multiple implications for school administrators and teachers. The study contributed to the current body of literature on teacher absenteeism, job satisfaction, and favoritism in several contexts. The purpose of this correlational study was to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward certain teachers. In this study absenteeism represented the criterion variable, and job satisfaction and favoritism represented the predictor variables. Because of the high rates of absenteeism among primary and secondary teachers, understanding the relationship between teacher absenteeism and job satisfaction is important in sustaining appropriate staff levels of K-12 teachers and recruiting new ones to enter teacher preparation programs.

Troesch and Bauer (2017) reported overall job satisfaction amongst second career teachers despite their amounts of stress. Two factors influenced this: teachers had higher self-efficacy beliefs, and they perceived it as more relevant to their job well-being (Troesch & Bauer, 2017). Belief in their abilities mitigates or prevents dissatisfaction with their jobs, and likely diminishes issues with absenteeism.

Study results were consistent with recent research that absenteeism is unrelated to job satisfaction (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2017). Despite stress and other factors, teachers are neither more, nor less likely to be absent from work (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2017). The researcher found no relationship between teacher absences and teacher job satisfaction. This suggests that the number of absences does not differ across levels of job satisfaction.

The study also addressed favoritism. Pearce (2015) emphasized that favoritism affects employees and changes the way managers operate when inappropriate personal relationships are persistent. Inappropriate relationships may affect employees' level of job satisfaction. Although study results did show a relationship with favoritism at the significance level (r=0.05), inappropriate relationships could also exist between some leaders and employees, and could affect perceptions of favoritism (Pearce, 2015).

This study provided additional information regarding teacher absenteeism and levels of job satisfaction. However, results indicate that further research is needed to increase the body of knowledge regarding the effects of absenteeism and favoritism on teacher job satisfaction.

Limitations

There were limitations to this study. This study cannot be generalized beyond this population. Also, there were limitations of this correlational design. For example, it is non experimental and lacks random assignment. Additionally, the researcher experienced some difficulty recruiting administrators and teachers to participate in the study. The study began at the end of an academic school year, which was not an optimal time for the participation of school personnel. With the demands of state and district testing and end-of-the year activities, it was a challenge to communicate with principals and secure participants. As the summer began, it became more difficult to obtain participants. This resulted in having a smaller sample size (N = 38), which prevented the use of moderated multiple regression models, and may limit the ability to generalize results to larger populations.

The limited sample size may have influenced results hindering the ability to identify correlations. For example, scores for operating condition satisfaction did not reach significance. Additionally, relationships could not be evaluated for how demographic factors may influence

job satisfaction and perceptions of favoritism. While the results suggested evidence of a link between favoritism and job satisfaction, the small sample size in this study does not make the connection firmly conclusive nor does it provide strong generalization to other contexts. Further study is needed to more deeply examine how these two factors correlate.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study confirmed there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and perceptions of favoritism. However, the limitations of this study revealed that further exploration with larger sample sizes is warranted and would lead to a deeper and broader understanding of how these variables influence teacher job satisfaction. The characteristics and results of this investigation suggest a need to engage in further research that includes larger sample sizes that enable use of moderated multiple regression models. This will increase understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and perceptions of favoritism, and could provide additional knowledge regarding demographic factors and influences.

Another recommendation is to include additional research methodologies to gain a deeper understanding of the diverse and salient variables that influence the job satisfaction of teachers. The body of knowledge would benefit from the inclusion of qualitative data that offers researchers a greater flexibility to explore and better understand perceptual factors and impressions of how teachers develop and understand their working environment. Qualitative and mixed-methods research would enhance and deepen the body of knowledge on the correlation between job satisfaction and favoritism and other variables.

The research instrument would benefit from further evaluation and validation. The instrument utilized in this study should be evaluated to ensure its effectiveness. The instrument and individual items along with results should be analyzed to determine they measure what they

are intended to measure and that results of administration are reliable. Likewise, further research could enhance this instrument or develop an improved instrument that more precisely evaluates teacher perceptions of job satisfaction correlated to key factors and variables.

Stress caused by cronyism may be a key factor associated with studying teacher job satisfaction. Further research should explore how stress, cronyism, and favoritism correlates to job satisfaction from more diverse perspectives. The present study showed basic correlations between these variables, but additional research should more deeply identify and define those connections.

The present study showed no significant data linking days absent to teacher job satisfaction among k-12 teachers in a medium-sized, rural southeastern school district in the United States. However, further research should continue to investigate potential relationships in other populations.

Summary

Evaluation and discussion of research results answered the null hypotheses in this study. Spearman correlations were used to evaluate potential relationships between variables. The first test determined there was no statistically significant association between teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction and their job attendance. The second test determined there was a statistically significant negative association between perceptions of favoritism by teachers in their workplace and teachers' self-reported level of job satisfaction. Recommendations for further research were articulated which include studies containing larger sample sizes and the inclusion of additional research methodologies.

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APPENDIX A: Teacher Job Perceptions Survey

Instrument

TEACHER JOB PERCEPTIONS SURVEY (TJPS)

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

Demographics

1. What is your age?

○ 20-30

☐ 31-40

☐ 41-50

☐ 51-65

☐ 65+

2. What is your gender?

☐ Female

☐ Male

3. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

○ 0-3

☐ 4-15

☐ 16-30

☐ 31+

4. What level do you teach?

◯ Elementary

◯ Middle

◯ High

◯

5. What area do you teach or lead?

_____

6. How many years have you taught at this school?

◯ 0

◯ 1 or more

7. How many days last school year were you absent and for what reason (0-10 or more)?

NEPOTISM-FAVORITISM

PLEASE 'CLICK' THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.

1. Teachers of this school always feel that they need a relative in a high-level position.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯

* 2. Teachers of this school always feel that they need someone they know or a friend in a high-level position.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 3. Supervisors are afraid of subordinates who are related to county-level administrators.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 4. School-level administrators at this school are uncomfortable with the presence of those teachers with close personal ties to county-level administrators.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 5. Teachers who are promoted or rewarded only because of family ties are a negative influence at this school.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree 5

* 6. Teachers who are promoted or rewarded only because of friends or connections are a negative influence on others working at this school.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

7. I am always careful when speaking to family or relatives of school administrators.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 8. I am always careful when speaking to friends or acquaintances of school administrators.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 9. Administrators' relatives are frustrated by never really knowing whether they were appointed because of their talent or family ties.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 10. Friends and acquaintances of school administrators are frustrated by the fact that they never really know if they are promoted or rewarded based on merit or personal reasons.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 11. If a relative of an administrator gets a job here, he/she can never live up to the expectations of the other staff members.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 12. A friend or acquaintance of a school administrator can never meet the expectation of other staff members if given a position at the school.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 13. Family-dominated schools are more concerned with taking care of their family than the business of teaching and learning.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 14. Administrators are more interested in keeping friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those teachers' performance or the school's success.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

15. Family disagreements become school problems in schools allowing nepotism.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

16. Acquaintances' disagreements become school problems in schools allowing favoritism and cronyism.
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 17. Schools permitting employment of administrators' relatives have a hard time attracting and retaining quality people who are not relatives.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 18. School administrators and county administrators who permit employment of acquaintances have a hard time employing and retaining high quality employees who are not acquaintances.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 19. Schools permitting employment of administrators' relatives have a difficult time firing or demoting them if they prove inadequate.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5

* 20. High level administrators of this school have a hard time demoting or firing friends and acquaintances.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

CRONYISM

* 1. Politicians and political affinities are connected to being appointed, promoted, and the various decision-making activities of this school.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

2. Political interference in the working of the school and the attitudes of staff members has a negative effect on the school.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 3. The changes in political leaders, presidents, and political parties have positive or negative results on the working of this school.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 4. This school uses sex discrimination in the recruitment and advancement process.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 5. Sex discrimination at the school damages the profitability and motivation.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 6. This school uses race discrimination in the recruitment and advancement process.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 7. The race discrimination at the school damages the profitability and motivation of other employees.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

JOB SATISFACTION

* 1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 7. I like the people I work with.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 9. Communications seem good within this organization.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 4 5 Strongly Agree

10. Raises are too few and far between.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 4 5 Strongly Agree

11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

12. My supervisor is unfair to me.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

16. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 17. I like doing the things I do at work.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 4 5 Strongly Agree

20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 22. The benefit package we have is equitable.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 23. There are few rewards for those who work here.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 24. I have too much to do at work.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 25. I enjoy my coworkers.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.
29. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

30. I like my supervisor.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 31. I have too much paperwork.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

* 35. My job is enjoyable.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

* 36. Work assignments are not fully explained.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

ADVERSE WORD OF MOUTH

* 1. My conversation with others about my school is always positive.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

* 2. When speaking to others I always recommend my school.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

* 3. I encourage my friends and relatives to work at my school.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

STRESS

* 1. It is difficult to tell others at the school what it is necessary to do to increase their pay.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

* 2. It is not easy for staff members of the school to understand what it takes to get a promotion.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 3. Because there is no clear job description, I have to do whatever my supervisor tells me to do.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 4. I can see uncertainty in the work environment.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 5. Teachers know their jobs and expectations of them.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 6. The goals and aims of the school are explained well to the teachers.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 7. I often feel under stress.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 8. I feel very tired at the end of the work day.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 9. The stress and tension at work are very high.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS)

INTENTION TO QUIT

* 1. I often think of resigning from my job.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 2. If I leave my job, I won't lose much.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

* 3. Most likely, I will be looking for a new job soon.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

APPENDIX B: District Approval Letters

District Approval Letters

March 4, 2019

XXXX County Schools has granted permission for Edwanda L. Jackson, the researcher, to begin a quantitative correlational study to investigate the relationship between the level of teacher absenteeism and teacher level of job satisfaction.

The researcher will e-mail participants an invitation to respond to the Teacher Job Satisfaction questionnaire and a short demographic survey which will include information about years of teaching experience, grade taught, type of certification, and gender.

Please remember the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and the Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA) agreements previously signed as you continue to work with Liberty University. The utilization of an online survey will safeguard participating schools from liability and infringing on participants' privacy rights. If I can be of any further assistance, let me know. I can be reached at 706.XXX.XXXX or via e-mail axxxxxxxx@XXXX.kl2.ga.us.

Assistant Superintendent of Assessment & Accountability

XXXX County Schools

XXXX, Georgia XXXXX

TO: Edwanda L. Jackson, Liberty University Graduate Student

FROM: XXXXX, Ed.D, Assistant Superintendent of Assessment & Accountability

RE: A Quasi-Experimental Study of Perceptions of Favoritism, Job Satisfaction, and Job Attendance

DATE: March 11, 2019

XXXXX County Schools previously granted permission for Edwanda L. Jackson, the researcher, to begin a quantitative correlational study to investigate the relationship between the level of teacher absenteeism and their level of job satisfaction. Over time, the researcher's title has evolved to A Quasi-Experimental Study of Perceptions of Favoritism, Job Satisfaction, and Job Attendance. This correlational study seeks to determine any relationship between teachers' absenteeism and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism. The researcher will email our principals with an invitation for their teachers to participate in the Teacher Job Perceptions Survey (TJPS). The survey link will be provided to principals via a letter from the researcher. Participation is voluntary. Please remember the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and the Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA) agreements previously signed as you continue fulfilling your educational endeavors at Liberty State University. The utilization of an online survey will safeguard participating schools from liability and infringing on participants' privacy rights. If I can be of any further assistance let me know. You can reach me at 706.XXX.XXXX or via email at XXXXX@xxxga.net .

XXXXX, Ed.D.

Assistant Superintendent of Assessment & Accountability

XXXXX County Schools

XXXXX Georgia 30XXX

APPENDIX C: Principal Recruitment Letter

Principal Recruitment Letter

3/28/2019

Principal
Anonymous County Schools

Dear Principal X:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism, and I am writing to request permission to invite your teachers to participate in my study.

All of the teachers, of course, are over the age of 18. If the individual is a certified K-12 teacher who was employed in the 2017-2018 school year and currently employed for 2018-2019, and willing to participate, he or she will be asked to complete an online survey. It should take approximately 20 minutes for your teachers to complete the procedures listed. Your teachers' participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, teachers will go to https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/teacherjobperceptions by clicking on the link provided here in the email and complete and submit the consent statement. Once consent is given, the teachers will complete the demographic questions and the survey that follows.

A consent document is provided as the first page teachers will see after they click on the survey link. The consent document contains additional information about my research, but teachers will not need to sign and return it. If you choose to grant permission, please reply to this email. Participation is completely voluntary.

Sincerely,

Edwanda L. Jackson, Ed.S.
Liberty University
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX D: Author's Permission Letters

Authors' Permission Letters

2/22/2019

Dear Dr. Huseyin Arasli:

I am a doctoral student from Liberty University in Lynchburg, Virginia, USA writing my dissertation tentatively titled "A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF PERCEPTIONS OF FAVORITISM, JOB SATISFAC AND JOB ATTENDANCE" under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Jeff Recto would like your permission to reproduce to use "Nepotism, Favoritism, and Cronyism, 2008" in my research study. I would like to use and print your survey under the following conditions:

- I will use this survey only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated activities.
- I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- I will send my research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of the survey data promptly to your attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter a returning it to me either through postal mail, fax, or e-mail with your signature:

3836 Jackson Shoals Ct, Lawrenceville, GA 30044

678-407-7157 fax

elandrum@liberty.edu

Sincerely,

a Landrum Jackson (Researcher's name)

(Researcher's signature)

Liberty University

Department of Education

Doctoral Candidate

*If permission is granted to reproduce and utilize your instrument in my research, please sign below

Author Sign/signature h

X

Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ARASLI

Dear Edwanda Landrum Jackson:

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

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

Best,

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

APPENDIX E: Application for the use of human research participants

APPLICATION FOR THE USE OF HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

IRB APPLICATION #: 3807 (*To be assigned by the IRB)*

I. APPLICATION INSTRUCTIONS

1. Complete each section of this form, using the gray form fields (use the tab key).
2. If you have questions, hover over the blue **(?)**, or refer to the IRB Application Instructions for additional clarification.
3. Review the IRB Application Checklist.
4. Email the completed application, with the following supporting documents (as separate word documents) to irb@liberty.edu:
    a. Consent Forms, Permission Letters, Recruitment Materials
    b. Surveys, Questionnaires, Interview Questions, Focus Group Questions
5. If you plan to use a specific Liberty University department or population for your study, you will need to obtain permission from the appropriate department chair/dean. Submit documentation of permission (email or letter) to the IRB along with this application and check the indicated box below verifying that you have done so.
6. **Submit one signed copy of the signature page (available on the IRB website or electronically by request) to any of the following:**
    a. Email: As a scanned document to irb@liberty.edu
    b. Fax: 434-522-0506
    c. Mail: IRB 1971 University Blvd. Lynchburg, VA 24515
    d. In Person: Green Hall, Suite 2845
7. Once received, applications are processed on a first-come, first-served basis.
8. Preliminary review may take up to 3 weeks.
9. Most applications will require 3 sets of revisions.
10. The entire process may take between 1 and 2 months.
11. *We cannot accept applications in formats other than Microsoft Word. Please do not send us One Drive files, Pdfs, Google Docs, or Html applications.* ***Exception:*** *The IRB's signature page, proprietary instruments (i.e., survey creator has copyright), and documentation of permission may be submitted as pdfs.*

Note: Applications and supporting documents with the following problems will be returned immediately for revisions:

1. Grammar, spelling, or punctuation errors
2. Lack of professionalism
3. Lack of consistency or clarity
4. Incomplete applications

Failure to minimize these errors* ***will *cause delays in your processing time***

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II. BASIC PROTOCOL INFORMATION

1. STUDY/THESIS/DISSERTATION TITLE (?)
Title: A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF PERCEPTIONS OF FAVORITISM, JOB SATISFACTION, AND JOB ATTENDANCE

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR & PROTOCOL INFORMATION (?)	
Principal Investigator *(person conducting the research)*: Edwanda L. Jackson	
Professional Title *(Student, Professor, etc.)*: student	
School/Department *(School of Education, LUCOM, etc.)*: School of Education	
Phone: 404-375-3986	LU Email: elandrum@liberty.edu
Check all that apply:	
☐ Faculty	☒ Online Graduate Student
☐ Staff	☐ Residential Undergraduate Student
☐ Residential Graduate Student	☐ Online Undergraduate Student
This research is for:	
☐ Class Project	☐ Master's Thesis
☐ Scholarly Project (DNP Program)	☒ Doctoral Dissertation
☐ Faculty Research	☐ Other:
If applicable, indicate whether you have defended and passed your dissertation proposal:	
☐ N/A ☐ No *(Provide your defense date)*: ☒ Yes *(Proceed to Associated Personnel Information)*	

3. ASSOCIATED PERSONNEL INFORMATION (?)	
Co-Researcher(s): NA	
School/Department:	
Phone:	LU/Other Email:
Faculty Chair/Mentor(s): Dr. Jeff Rector	
School/Department: School of Education	
Phone: 434-582-2445	LU/Other Email: jlrector4@liberty.edu
Non-Key Personnel *(Reader, Assistant, etc.)*: NA	
School/Department:	
Phone:	LU/Other Email:
Consultant/Methodologist *(required for School of Education EdD/PhD candidates)*: Dr. Meredith Park	
School/Department: SOE	
Phone: 804-761-9641	LU/Other Email: mjpark@liberty.edu

4. USE OF LIBERTY UNIVERSITY PARTICIPANTS (?)	
Do you intend to use LU students, staff, or faculty as participants *OR* LU students, staff, or faculty data in your study? ☒ No *(Proceed to Funding Source)* ☐ Yes (*Complete the section below*)	
# of Participants/Data Sets:	**Department:**

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Class(es)/Year(s):	**Department Chair:**
Obtaining permission to utilize LU participants *(check the appropriate box below):*	
SINGLE DEPARTMENT/GROUP: If you are including faculty, students, or staff from a single department or group, you must obtain permission from the appropriate Dean, Department Chair, or Coach and submit a signed letter or date/time stamped email to the IRB indicating approval to use students from that department or group. **You may submit your application without having obtained this permission**; however, the IRB will not approve your study until proof of permission has been received.	
☐ I have obtained permission from the appropriate Dean/Department Chair/Coach, and attached the necessary documentation to this application.	
☐ I have sought permission and will submit documentation to the IRB once it has been provided to me by the appropriate Dean/Department Chair/Coach.	
MULTIPLE DEPARTMENTS/GROUPS: If you are including faculty, students, or staff from multiple departments or groups (i.e., all sophomores or LU Online), **the IRB will need to seek administrative approval on your behalf.**	
☐ I am requesting that the IRB seek administrative approval on my behalf.	

5. FUNDING SOURCE (?)
Is your research funded? ☒ No *(Proceed to Study Dates)* ☐ Yes *(Complete the section below)*
Grant Name/Funding Source/Number:
Funding Period (Month & Year):

6. STUDY DATES (?)
When do you plan to perform your study? *(Approximate dates for collection/analysis):* **Start** *(Month/Year)*: May 2019 **Finish** *(Month/Year)*: August 2019

7. COMPLETION OF REQUIRED CITI RESEARCH ETHICS TRAINING (?)
List Course Name(s) *(Social and Behavioral Researchers, etc.)*: Citi
Date(s) of Completion: 08/29/2013

III. OTHER STUDY MATERIALS AND CONSIDERATIONS

8. STUDY MATERIALS LIST (?)	
Please indicate whether your proposed study will include any of the following:	
Recording/photography of participants *(voice, video, or images)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Participant compensation *(gift cards, meals, extra credit, etc.)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Advertising for participants *(flyers, TV/Radio advertisements)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
More than minimal psychological stress?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Confidential data collection *(participant identities known but not revealed)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Anonymous data collection *(participant identities not known)*?	☒ Yes ☐ No
Archival data collection *(data previously collected for another purpose)?*	☐ Yes ☒ No
Extra costs to the participants *(tests, hospitalization, etc.)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
The inclusion of pregnant women *(for medical studies)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No

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More than minimal risk?*	☐ Yes ☒ No
Alcohol consumption?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Protected Health Information *(from health practitioners/institutions)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
VO_2 Max Exercise?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Pilot study procedures *(which will be published/included in data analysis)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Use of blood?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Total amount of blood:	
Blood draws over time period *(days)*:	
The use of rDNA or biohazardous material?	☐ Yes ☒ No
The use of human tissue or cell lines?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Fluids that could mask the presence of blood *(including urine/feces)*?	☐ Yes ☒ No
Use of radiation or radioisotopes?	☐ Yes ☒ No

Note: **Minimal risk is defined as "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in everyday life or during the performance of routine physical or physiological examinations or tests. [45 CFR 46.102(i)]. If you are unsure if your study qualifies as minimal risk, contact the IRB.*

9. INVESTIGATIONAL METHODS (?)

Please indicate whether your proposed study will include any of the following:

The use of an Investigational New Drug (IND) or an Approved Drug for an Unapproved Use?
☒ No
☐ Yes *(Provide the drug name, IND number, and company):*

The use of an Investigational Medical Device or an Approved Medical Device for an Unapproved Use?
☒ No
☐ Yes *(Provide the device name, IDE number, and company):*

IV. PURPOSE

10. PURPOSE OF RESEARCH (?)

Write an original, brief, non-technical description of the purpose of your research. Include in your description your research hypothesis/question, a narrative that explains the major constructs of your study, and how the data will advance your research hypothesis or question. This section should be easy to read for someone not familiar with your academic discipline: The purpose of this correlational study is to answer questions regarding teacher absences and job satisfaction and how they relate to perceptions of favoritism from school leaders toward particular teachers. Research showed the negative effects of teachers leaving the profession and the negative effects of teacher absences. However, the research did not show teacher absences and attendance as they relate to perceptions of favoritism. There was a need, therefore, for a study to determine the plausible relationships between teacher job satisfaction and teacher attendance as related to perceptions of favoritism from school administrators to some of their teaching staff. Results will be analyzed using demographic analyses using the Pearson product-moment correlation and partial correlational methods to determine the statistical relationship between the variables.
This data will advance my research question by providing useful information to principals desiring to influence academic achievement through a better understanding of teachers' job absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism within their schools.

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V. PARTICIPANT INCLUSION/EXCLUSION CRITERIA

11. STUDY POPULATION (?)

Provide the inclusion criteria for the participant population *(e.g., gender, age range, ethnic background, health status, occupation, employer, etc.)*: Participants targeted for this study will be certified K-12 school teachers of any gender, age, and ethnic background who were employed for the 2017-2018 school year and currently employed for 2018-2019.

Provide a rationale for selecting the above population *(i.e., why will this specific population enable you to answer your research question)*: The rationale for targeting this population is to provide a wide range of grade levels, areas, ages, and educational experiences.

Will your participant population be divided into different groups *(i.e., experimental and control groups)*?

☒ No
☐ Yes *(Describe the groups and explain **how** groups will be selected/assigned)*:

Are you related to any of your participants?

☒ No
☐ Yes *(Explain)*:

Indicate who will be excluded from your study population *(e.g., persons under 18 years of age)*: Persons under 18 and non-certified teachers who were not employed at their school for the 2017-2018 school year and who are not contracted for 2018- 2019 will not be included.

If applicable, provide rationale for involving any special populations *(e.g., children, ethnic groups, mentally disabled, low socio-economic status, prisoners)*: NA

Provide the maximum number of participants you plan to enroll for each participant population and justify the sample size *(You will not be approved to enroll a number greater than the number listed. If at a later time it becomes apparent that you need to increase your sample size, submit a Change in Protocol Form and wait for approval to proceed)*: The maximum number of participants will be 390. According to Cohen (1998), at least 175 is required to warrant sufficient power.

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION ONLY IF YOU ARE CONDUCTING A PROTOCOL WITH NIH, FEDERAL, OR STATE FUNDING:

Researchers sometimes believe their particular project is not appropriate for certain types of participants. These may include, for example, women, minorities, and children. If you believe your project should not include one or more of these groups, please provide your justification for their exclusion. Your justification will be reviewed according to the applicable NIH, federal, or state guidelines:

12. TYPES OF PARTICIPANTS (?)

Who will be the focus of your study? *(Check all that apply)*

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☒ Normal Participants (Age 18-65)	☐ Pregnant Women
☐ Minors (Under Age 18)	☐ Fetuses
☐ Over Age 65	☐ Cognitively Disabled
☐ College/University Students	☐ Physically Disabled
☐ Active-Duty Military Personnel	☐ Participants Incapable of Giving Consent
☐ Discharged/Retired Military Personnel	☐ Prisoners or Institutional Individuals
☐ Inpatients	☐ Specific Ethnic/Racial Group(s)
☐ Outpatients	☐ Other potentially elevated risk populations
☐ Patient Controls	☐ Participant(s) related to the researcher

Note: Only check the boxes if the participants will be the focus (for example, ONLY military or ONLY students). If they just happen to be a part of the broad group you are studying, you only need to check "Normal Participants." Some studies may require that you check multiple boxes (e.g., Korean males, aged 65+).

VI. RECRUITMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

13. CONTACTING PARTICIPANTS (?)

Describe in detail how you will contact participants regarding this study *(include the method(s) used—email, phone call, social media, snowball sampling, etc.)*: After district-level approval, an email will be sent to the principal of each of the schools in the district. The email will be requesting individual administrator permission to conduct the current study with the teachers in their particular school. After principal approval, an intial email will be sent by the researcher to the teachers requestig their voluntary participation in the study. The email letter will include how the person was identified to be sent the email, who is doing the study and why, who is involved if the person participates, an overview of any potential risks or potential benefits, and information on how to particpate if interested. The email will also include where to get answers to additional questions and a notification about confidentiality. A follow-up email will be sent two weeks after the study opens. Another email be sent one week prior to the study closing to remind those still interested in participating, but who have not done so already.

14. SUBMISSION OF RECRUITMENT MATERIALS (?)

Submit a copy of all recruitment letters, scripts, emails, flyers, advertisements, or social media posts you plan to use to recruit participants for your study as separate Word documents with your application. Recruitment templates are available on the IRB website.

Check the appropriate box:

☒ All of the necessary recruitment materials will be submitted with my application.

☐ My study strictly uses **archival** data, so recruitment materials are not required.

If you plan to provide documents in a language other than English:

☐ I will submit a translated copy of my recruitment materials along with the English version.

15. LOCATION OF RECRUITMENT (?)

Describe the location, setting, and timing of recruitment: The actual study will be conducted completely online, via the internet. Email addresses of teachers from multiple K-12 medium-sized, rural, Georgia schools will be utilized to recruit participants during the 2018-2019 school year.

16. SCREENING PROCEDURES (?)

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Describe any procedures you will use to ensure that your participants meet your study criteria *(e.g., a screening survey or verbal confirmation to verify that participants are 18 or older)*: Due to the nature of the population, all potential participants will be over 18. A confirmation statement will be included in the online survey.

17. CONFLICTS OF INTEREST (?)

Do you have a position of academic or professional authority over the participants *(e.g., the participants' teacher, principal, supervisor, or district/school administrator?)*?

☒ No
☐ Yes *(Explain what safeguards are in place to reduce the likelihood of compromising the integrity of the research, e.g., addressing the conflicts in the consent process and/or emphasizing the pre-existing relationship will not be impacted by participation in the research.):*

Do you have any financial conflicts of interest to disclose *(e.g., Do you or an immediate family member receive income or other payments, own investments in, or have a relationship with a non-profit organization that could benefit from this research?)***?**

☒ No *(Proceed to Procedures)*
☐ Yes *(State the funding source/financial conflict and then explain what safeguards are in place to reduce the likelihood of compromising the integrity of the research.):*

VII. RESEARCH PROCEDURES

18. PROCEDURES (?)

Write an original, non-technical, step-by-step, description of what your participants will be asked to do during your study and data collection process. If you have multiple participant groups, *(ex: parents, teachers, and students)* or control groups and experimental groups, please specify which group you are asking to complete which task(s). **You do not need to list signing/reading consent as a step:**

Step/Task/Procedure	Time to Complete Procedure *(Approx.)*	Participant Group(s) *(All, Group A, Group B, Control Group, Experimental Group, etc.)*
1. Read initial email regarding study	5 minutes	All
2. Read reminder email regarding study	5 minutes	All
3. Read third email regardig study	5 minutes	All
4. Complete all parts of the survey and submit	20 minutes	all
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		

19. SUBMISSION OF DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS/MATERIALS (?)

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Submit a copy of all instruments, surveys, interviews questions, outlines, observation checklists, prompts, etc. that you plan to use to collect data for your study as separate Word documents with your application. Pdfs are **ONLY** acceptable for proprietary instruments.
Check the appropriate box:
☒ All of the necessary data collection instruments will be submitted with my application.
☐ My study strictly uses **archival** data, so data collection instruments are not required.
If you plan to provide documents in a language other than English:
☐ I will submit a translated copy of my study instrument(s) along with the English version(s).

20. STUDY LOCATION (?)
Please state the actual location(s)/site(s) in which the study will be conducted. Be specific *(include city, state, school/district, clinic, etc.)*: The study will be conducted online via the internet with the Whitfield County School district in Dalton, Georgia.
***Note: For School of Education research**, investigators must submit documentation of permission from each research site to the IRB prior to receiving approval. If your study involves K-12 schools, district-level approval is acceptable. If your study involves colleges or universities, you may also need to seek IRB approval from those institutions. You may seek permission prior to submitting your IRB application, however, **do not** begin recruiting participants. If you find that you need a conditional approval letter from the IRB in order to obtain permission, one can be provided to you once all revisions have been received and are accepted.*

VIII. DATA ANALYSIS

21. NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS/DATA SETS (?)
Estimate the number of participants to be enrolled or data sets to be collected: 390

22. ANALYSIS METHODS (?)
Describe *how* the data will be analyzed: Responses to the TJPS from the SurveyMonkey website will be exported directly into SPSS, which will be used to test the data. Results will be analyzed for the overall job satisfaction score and for each subdomain. Quantitative data analysis in the form of descriptive statistical analysis will be included as a measure of central tendencies such as frequency, mean, mode, median, variance, range, and standard deviation (Gall et al., 2010). Descriptive analysis will be followed by correlation analysis to examine any confounding variables using SPSS (i.e. time of school year). Descriptive analysis will be followed by correlation analysis to address confounding variables using SPSS.
Please describe what will be done with the data and the resulting analysis *(include any plans for publication or presentation)*: The analysis will be made available to the school district and principals via the published dissertation. A copy will be provided to the district's research and evaluation department and each of the principals.

IX. PARENTAL/GUARDIAN CONSENT

23. PARENTAL/GUARDIAN CONSENT REQUIREMENTS (?)
Does your study require parental/guardian consent? *(If your participants are under 18, parental/guardian consent is required in most cases.)* ☒ No *(Proceed to Child Assent)* ☐ Yes *(Answer the following question)*
Does your study entail greater than minimal risk without the potential for benefits to the participant?

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☐ No ☐ Yes *(Consent of both parents is required)*

X. ASSENT FROM CHILDREN

24. CHILD ASSENT (?)
Is assent required for your study? *(Assent is required unless the child is not capable due to age, psychological state, or sedation OR the research holds out the prospect of a direct benefit that is only available within the context of the research.)* ☒ No *(Proceed to Consent Procedures)* ☐ Yes
***Note:** If the parental consent process (full or part) is waived (See XIII below) assent may be also. See the IRB's informed consent page for more information.*

XI. PROCESS OF OBTAINING INFORMED CONSENT

25. CONSENT PROCEDURES (?)
Describe in detail *how and when* you will provide consent/assent/parental consent information *(e.g., as an attachment to your recruitment email, as the first page participants see after clicking on the survey link, etc.)*: Potential participants will be asked to go to a Survey Monkey webpage by clicking on a link in an email. Due to the limited to no potential harm to participants, once there, teachers will have to read and give their consent to participate in the study before they proceed, instead of signing the informed consent document. Thus, a waiver of the signature requirement on the informed consent document is requested.
Unless your study qualifies for a waiver of signatures, describe in detail *how and when* consent forms will be signed and returned to you *(e.g., participants will type their names and the date on the consent form before completing the online survey, participants will sign and return the consent forms when you meet for their interview, etc.)*: NA
***Note:** A waiver of signatures is only applicable if you will not be able to link participant responses to participants (i.e., anonymous surveys). See section XIV below.*

XII. USE OF DECEPTION

26. DECEPTION (?)
Are there any aspects of the study kept secret from the participants *(e.g., the full purpose of the study, assignment or use of experimental/control groups)*? ☒ No ☐ Yes *(describe the deception involved and the debriefing procedures)*:
Is deception used in the study procedures? ☒ No ☐ Yes *(describe the deception involved and the debriefing procedures)*:
***Note:** Submit a post-experiment debriefing statement and consent form offering participants the option of having their data destroyed. A debriefing template is available on our website.*

XIII. WAIVER OF INFORMED CONSENT OR MODIFICATION OF REQUIRED ELEMENTS IN THE INFORMED CONSENT PROCESS

27. WAIVER OF INFORMED CONSENT ELEMENTS (?) ☒ **N/A**

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Please indicate why you are requesting a waiver of consent *(If your reason does not appear as an option, please check N/A. If your reason appears in the drop-down list, complete the below questions in this section)*: Click to select an option.
Does the research pose no more than minimal risk to participants *(i.e., no more risk than that of everyday activities)*? ☐ No, *the study is greater than minimal risk.* ☐ Yes, *the study is minimal risk.*
Will the waiver have no adverse effects on participant rights and welfare? ☐ No, *the waiver will have adverse effects on participant rights and welfare.* ☐ Yes, *the waiver will not adversely affect participant rights and welfare.*
Would the research be impracticable without the waiver? ☐ No, *there are other ways of performing the research without the waiver.* ☐ Yes, *not having a waiver would make the study unrealistic. (Explain)*:
Will participant debriefing occur *(i.e., will the true purpose and/or deceptive procedures used in the study be reported to participants at a later date)*? ☐ No, *participants will not be debriefed.* ☐ Yes, *participants will be debriefed.*
***Note:** A waiver or modification of some or all of the required elements of informed consent is sometimes used in research involving deception, archival data, or specific minimal risk procedures.*

XIV. WAIVER OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR PARTICIPANTS TO SIGN THE INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

28. WAIVER OF SIGNED CONSENT (?) ☐ N/A
Please indicate why you are requesting a waiver of signatures *(If your reason does not appear as an option, please check N/A. If your reason appears in the drop-down list, complete the below questions in this section)*: My study uses an anonymous data collection method.
Would a signed consent form be the only record linking the participant to the research? ☐ No, *there are other records/study questions linking the participants to the study.* ☒ Yes, *only the signed form would link the participant to the study.*
Does a breach of confidentiality constitute the principal risk to participants? ☐ No, *there are other risks involved greater than a breach of confidentiality.* ☒ Yes, *the main risk is a breach of confidentiality.*
Does the research pose no more than minimal risk to participants *(i.e., no more risk than that of everyday activities)*? ☐ No, *the study is greater than minimal risk.* ☒ Yes, *the study is minimal risk.*
Does the research include any activities that would require signed consent in a non-research context *(e.g., liability waivers)*? ☒ No, *there are not any study related activities that would normally require signed consent* ☐ Yes, *there are study related activities that would normally require signed consent*
Will you provide the participants with a written statement about the research *(i.e., an information sheet that contains all of the elements of an informed consent form but without the signature lines)*? ☐ No, *participants will not receive written information about the research.* ☒ Yes, *participants will receive written information about the research.*

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Note: A waiver of signed consent is sometimes used in anonymous surveys or research involving secondary data. This does not eliminate the need for a consent document, but it eliminates the need to obtain participant signatures.

XV. CHECKLIST OF INFORMED CONSENT/ASSENT

29. STATEMENT (?)

Submit a copy of all informed consent/assent documents as separate Word documents with your application. Informed consent/assent templates are available on our website. Additional information regarding consent is also available on our website.

Check the appropriate box:

☒ All of the necessary consent/assent documents will be submitted with my application.

☐ My study strictly uses **archival** data, so consent documents are not required.

If you plan to provide documents in a language other than English:

☐ I will submit a translated copy of my consent material(s) along with the English version(s).

XVI. PARTICIPANT PRIVACY, DATA SECURITY, & MEDIA USE

30. PRIVACY (?)

Describe what steps you will take to protect the privacy of your participants *(e.g., If you plan to interview participants, will you conduct your interviews in a setting where others cannot easily overhear?)*: The researcher will administer the survey anonymously online.

Note: Privacy refers to persons and their interest in controlling access to their information.

31. DATA SECURITY (?)

How will you keep your data secure *(i.e., password-locked computer, locked desk, locked filing cabinet, etc.)*?: All data will be safeguarded on a password protected laptop and stored under lock and key at the location of the researcher.

Who will have access to the data *(i.e., the researcher and faculty mentor/chair, only the researcher, etc.)*?: Only the researcher and the researcher's faculty mentor/chair will have access to the data.

Will you destroy the data once the three-year retention period required by federal regulations expires?

☒ No

☐ Yes *(Explain how the data will be destroyed)*:

Note: All research-related data must be stored for a minimum of three years after the end date of the study, as required by federal regulations.

32. ARCHIVAL DATA (SECONDARY DATA) (?)

Is all or part of the data archival *(i.e., previously collected for another purpose)*?

☒ No *(Proceed to Non-Archival Data)*

☐ Yes *(Answer the questions below)*

Is the archival data publicly accessible?

☐ No *(Explain how you will obtain access to this data)*:

☐ Yes *(Indicate where the data is accessible from, i.e., a website, etc.)*:

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Will you receive the raw data stripped of identifying information *(e.g., names, addresses, phone numbers, email addresses, social security numbers, medical records, birth dates, etc.)*?:
☐ No *(Describe what data will remain identifiable and why this information will not be removed)*:
☐ Yes *(Describe who will link and/or strip the data—this person should have regular access to the data and should be a neutral party not involved in the study)*:

Can the names or identities of the participants be deduced from the raw data?
☐ No *(Place your initials in the box: I will not attempt to deduce the identity of the participants in this study)*:
☐ Yes *(Describe)*:

Please provide the list of data fields you intend to use for your analysis and/or provide the original instruments used in the study:

Note: *If the archival data is not publicly available, submit proof of permission to access the data (i.e., school district letter or email). If you will receive data stripped of identifiers, this should be stated in the proof of permission.*

33. NON-ARCHIVAL DATA (PRIMARY DATA) (?)

If you are using non-archival data, will the data be anonymous to you *(i.e., raw data does not contain identifying information and cannot be linked to an individual/organization by use of pseudonyms, codes, or other means)*? **Note:** For studies involving audio/video recording or photography, select "No"
☐ N/A: I will not use non-archival data *(data was previously collected, skip to Media)*
☐ No *(Complete the "No" section below)*
☒ Yes *(Complete the "Yes" section below)*

****COMPLETE THIS SECTION IF YOU ANSWERED "NO" TO QUESTION 33****

Can participant names or identities be deduced from the raw data?
☐ No
☐ Yes *(Describe)*:

Will a person be able to identify a subject based on other information in the raw data *(i.e., title, position, sex, etc.)*?
☒ No
☐ Yes *(Describe)*:

Describe the process you will use to ensure the confidentiality of the participants during data collection and in any publication(s) *(i.e., you may be able to link individuals/organizations to identifiable data; however, you will use pseudonyms or a coding system to conceal their identities)*: Pseudonyms will be utilized for all identifiable information regarding the research sites throughout the study.

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Do you plan to maintain a list or codebook linking pseudonyms or codes to participant identities?
☒ No
☐ Yes *(Please describe where this list/codebook will be stored and who will have access to the list/codebook. It should not be stored with the data.)*:

****COMPLETE THIS SECTION IF YOU ANSWERED "YES" TO QUESTION 33****
Describe the process you will use to collect the data to ensure that it is anonymous: The survey instrument will not collect identifiable information from the research participants nor will the researcher link individual responses with participants' identities.
Place your initials in the box: I will not attempt to deduce the identity of the participants in this study: EJ
***Note:** If you plan to use participant data (i.e., photos, recordings, videos, drawings) for presentations beyond data analysis for the research study (e.g., classroom presentations, library archive, or conference presentations) you will need to provide a materials release form to the participant.*

34. MEDIA USE (?)		
Will your participants be audio recorded?	☒ No	☐ Yes
Will your participants be video recorded?	☒ No	☐ Yes
Will your participants be photographed?	☒ No	☐ Yes
****COMPLETE THIS SECTION IF YOU ANSWERED "YES" TO ANY MEDIA USE****		
Include information regarding how participant data will be withdrawn if he or she chooses to leave the study*:		
Will your participants be audio recorded, video recorded, or photographed without their knowledge?** ☐ No ☐ Yes *(Describe the deception and debriefing procedures)*:		
**Note on Withdrawal: Add the heading "How to Withdraw from the Study" on the consent document and include a description of the procedures a participant must perform to be withdrawn.* ***Note on Deception: Attach a post-experiment debriefing statement and a post-deception consent form, offering the participants the option of having their recording/photograph destroyed and removed from the study.*		

XVII. PARTICIPANT COMPENSATION

35. COMPENSATION (?)
Will participants be compensated *(e.g., gift cards, raffle entry, reimbursement, food)***?** ☒ No *(Proceed to Risks)* ☐ Yes *(Describe)*:
Will compensation be pro-rated if the participant does not complete all aspects of the study? ☐ No ☐ Yes *(Describe)*:

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Note: Certain states outlaw the use of lotteries, raffles, or drawings as a means to compensate or recruit research participants. Research compensation exceeding $600 per participant within a one-year period is considered income and will need to be filed on the participant's income tax returns. If your study is grant funded, Liberty University's Business Office policies might affect how you compensate participants. Contact the IRB for additional information.

XVIII. PARTICIPANT RISKS AND BENEFITS

36. RISKS (?)

Describe the risks to participants and any steps that will be taken to minimize those risks. *(Risks can be physical, psychological, economic, social, or legal. If the only potential risk is a breach in confidentiality if the data is lost or stolen, state that here)*: The only potential risk is a breach in confidentitality if the data is lost or stolen.

Will alternative procedures or treatments that might be advantageous to the participants be made available?

☒ No
☐ Yes *(Describe)*:

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION ONLY IF YOUR STUDY IS CONSIDERED GREATER THAN MINIMAL RISK:

Describe provisions for ensuring necessary medical or professional intervention in the event of adverse effects to the participants *(e.g., proximity of the research location to medical facilities, or your ability to provide counseling referrals in the event of emotional distress)*:

37. BENEFITS (?)

Describe the possible direct benefits to the participants. *(If participants are not expected to receive direct benefits, please state "No direct benefits." Completing a survey or participating in an interview will not typically result in direct benefits to the participant.)*: No direct benefits

Describe any possible benefits to society: In considering the positives of this research study, there are possible benefits to educators, administrators, and society as a whole. Identifying a correlation between teacher attendance and teacher job satisfaction with a possible relationship to favoritism can help teachers understand how the three variables affect them. Teachers may gain a better understanding of administrators. Also, through the research, teachers may increase their awareness of their attendance and improve it. Administrators can improve their awareness of their teachers' attendance as it relates to their job satisfaction. Administrators may become more aware of favoritism and their leadership styles and how they play a part in the school culture. They may even improve their relationships with teachers and stakeholders by discussing the research. School stakeholders or society may benefit as well. This research, while anonymous, will bring a positive light to the district and schools themselves as research institutions. The information from the research may even encourage parental and community involvement ultimately benefitting the students, our most valuable resource.

Evaluate the risk-benefit ratio. *(Explain why you believe this study is worth doing, even with any identified risks.)*: The researcher believes this study is worth doing, even with the identified potential risk, because there are multiple benefits that ultimately outweigh the risks.

APPENDIX F: Teacher Recruitment Letter

Teacher Recruitment Letter

[DATE]

Teacher
Anonymous County Schools

Dear Teacher:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

As a teacher, you are of course over the age of 18. If you are a certified K-12 teacher who was employed in the 2017-2018 school year and currently employed for 2018-2019, and willing to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey. It should take approximately 20 minutes for you to complete the procedures listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifiable information will be collected.

To participate, go to https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/teacherjobperceptions, then complete and submit the consent statement. Once consent is given, then you will complete the demographic questions and the survey that follows.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you click on the survey link. The consent document contains additional information about my research, but you do not need to sign and return it. Please check the box at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey. You may also reply to this email if you have any additional questions.

The deadline to participate is **[DATE].** Participation is completely voluntary.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter,

Edwanda L. Jackson, Ed.S.
Liberty University
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX G: Teacher Follow-up Letter

Teacher Follow-up Letter

[DATE]

Teacher
Anonymous County Schools

Dear Teacher:

This is a reminder that the teacher research study will be ending in one week. The deadline to participate is **[DATE].** Participation is completely voluntary. The information from the original email is listed below for your convenience.

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

As a teacher, you are of course over the age of 18. If you are a certified K-12 teacher who was employed in the 2017-2018 school year and currently employed for 2018-2019, and willing to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey. It should take approximately 20 minutes for you to complete the procedures listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifiable information will be collected.

To participate, go to https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/teacherjobperceptions, then complete and submit the consent statement. Once consent is given, then you will complete the demographic questions and the survey that follows.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you click on the survey link. The consent document contains additional information about my research, but you do not need to sign and return it. Please check the box at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey. You may also reply to this email if you have any additional questions.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter,

Edwanda L. Jackson, Ed.S.
Liberty University
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX H: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF PERCEPTIONS OF FAVORITISM, JOB SATISFACTION, AND JOB ATTENDANCE

Edwanda L. Jackson
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on teachers. The study includes questions regarding teacher absences and perceptions of job satisfaction and favoritism. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a certified K-12 teacher who was employed in the 2017-2018 school year and currently employed for 2018-2019. Please read this form and submit any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Edwanda L. Jackson, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is answer questions regarding what is known about teacher absences and job satisfaction as mitigated by perceptions of favoritism.

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

1. Complete the teacher perceptions survey. The survey takes about 20 minutes to complete.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include adding to the body of research on teacher attendance, job satisfaction, and perceptions of favoritism.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private.

- Survey responses will be anonymous.
- Participating schools will be assigned a pseudonym.
- Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or Whitfield County Schools. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Edwanda L. Jackson. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at elandrum@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Dr. Jeff Rector, at jrector4@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

☐ Yes

☐ No