SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND JOB SATISFACTION IN YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTERS: A QUANTITATIVE CORRELATIONAL STUDY

by

Kimberley Kerchelle Simmons

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The number of students with disabilities entering youth development centers is increasing exponentially. The youth development center schools that are responsible for providing academic services to these students are inadequately staffed with special education teachers to meet the behavioral and academic needs of juvenile offenders with disabilities. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore the relationship between special education teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in teachers within the twenty-five youth development center schools located throughout the Georgia DJJ System. The participants completed the Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Survey (TSES) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). TSES was used to identify three sub-categories of classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement. The JSS was used to measure job satisfaction as defined by nature of work, pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, operating conditions, coworkers, and contingent rewards communication. A series of Pearson product-moment correlations were used to measure the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The participants for the study included 66 special education teachers who teach juvenile offenders with disabilities in a secured youth development center. The conceptual framework for this study is based on Bandura's social cognitive theory. By understanding the relationship between special education teachers who teach in youth development centers, teacher self-efficacy, and job satisfaction, state departments of juvenile justice may be able to increase teacher retention, reduce the recidivism rate and improve educational outcomes of juvenile offenders with disabilities.

Keywords: special education, special education teacher, teacher self-efficacy, teacher retention, youth development center, job satisfaction, social cognitive theory

Dedication

Being confident of this very thing, that he which hath begun a good work in you will perform *it* until the day of Jesus Christ Philippians 1:6 (KJV). I give all praises and thanks to the most high my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, who has given me the strength to persevere.

I would not have continued to pursue this degree if it were not for my darling, darling, husband Eric Simmons. Darling, you are my help meet, confidante, support, and eternal love. You truly are my best friend and I thank the good Lord for you every day as you are my greatest blessing in this world. Thank you for bringing love, stability, and affection into my life, something that I never imagined would happen before I met you. Thank you for turning my life into a dream world and being the perfect husband. I thank you for providing daily support while God completed this work in me. You calmed my nerves when I hit roadblocks and encouraged me when I thought this project would never end. I love you for A Couple of Forevers.

To my mother, my first teacher, your love and consistency in my life until the day our Heavenly Father completely healed you, gave me the foundation from which I am able to achieve anything I set my mind upon. The words that you used to encourage me on this journey call life "God's will is perfect for my life and Faith and hard work go hand in hand" continue to keep me in perfect peace when the precious memories of you flood my soul. I love and miss you dearly baskets of hugs and kisses.

To my children Eric Jr., Erica, and Jerica, I thank you for your encouragement on this journey. I love each of you dearly. To my sweet baby girls Dallas, Carley, and Isabella, Yaya loves each of you beyond the moon and stars. I pray that each of you will take risk, seek, question, and push. Always remember it's ok to take the road less travelled, However, don't

always take the road less travel but occasionally walk where there is no path as you never walk alone, God is always with you.

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I sincerely appreciate my committee members for their patience, expertise, guidance, and support as I strived to complete this work. Dr. Nathan Street, my committee chair, whose expertise was invaluable in formulating my research questions and methodology. Your insightful feedback pushed me to sharpen my thinking and brought my work to a higher level. Dr. Constance Pearson, you have inspired me to strive for perfection in my writing. I thank both of you for remaining committed to seeing me through this journey.

To my students at the Macon YDC, thank you for making me a better person and teacher. You have taught me more about life, compassion, empathy, perseverance, and forgiveness than you will ever know. You all are a true example of Apostle Paul's message to the church at Corinth "I have learned the secret of being content in any and every situation "(Philippians 4:12).

I would also like to thank the Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice for allowing me the privilege of conducting this research study.

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List of Abbreviations

Department of Juvenile Justice (DJJ)

Free and Appropriate Public Education (FAPE)

Individual Education Plan (IEP)

Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Juvenile Offenders with Disabilities (JOWD)

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE)

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquent Prevention (OJJDP)

Students with Disabilities (SWD)

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative study is to determine a potential correlation between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers who provide services to juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in youth development centers. Chapter One provides a background for the topics of teacher self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and youth development schools. Included in the background is an overview of the theoretical framework for this study. The problem statement examines the scope of recent literature on these topics. The significance of the current study follows the study's purpose. Finally, the research questions are introduced, and definitions pertinent to this study are provided.

Background

Every year, millions of federal and state dollars fund programs to reduce the school-to-prison pipeline (Carter, 2018; Mallett, 2016). Many of these programs focus on improving educational programming in juvenile justice schools (Carter, 2018). Unfortunately, the special education teachers who work with students within juvenile justice schools voice dissatisfaction about their daily efforts to meet the academic and behavioral needs of the juvenile offenders with disabilities JOWD they serve (Murphy, 2018). There has been minimal research conducted on job satisfaction and self-efficacy among special education teachers who provide services to JOWD in youth development centers.

Educational leaders in state departments of juvenile justice struggle to support and improve the teaching experience of special education teachers within youth development centers, which ultimately affects special education teacher job satisfaction, recruitment, retention, and effectiveness (Benner et al., 2016; Houchins et al., 2017). To improve job satisfaction for

teachers who provide instruction to JOWD within correctional school settings, researchers must seek to understand how teachers view the instruction for JOWD and emotionally respond to their work environment.

The notion of self-efficacy characterizes one of the central premises of Albert Bandura's (1989) work in social cognitive theory. Bandura's focus included the ability of an individual to enact change in a given situation based on his or her perception of his or her abilities and cognitive skills. Bandura branded this behavior as self-efficacy, and characterized self-efficacy in his 1997 text, *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*, in which he referred to persons with high self-efficacy expectations as persons who possessed an internal belief structure that "individuals will accomplish what they set out to accomplish" (p. 391).

Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her personal ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including students with disabilities (SWD), as well as students who may be unmotivated (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teachers who demonstrate a high level of self-efficacy also possess excellent classroom management skills and can effectively engage all students using meaningful instructional strategies (Shoulders & Keri, 2015; Zee & Koomen, 2016). According to Wolff et. al. (2015), teachers who exhibit high self-efficacy are organized, employ excellent classroom management and instructional skills, and are able to engage and motivate all students.

Exemplifying a high level of self-efficacy is also beneficial to teachers. Teachers displaying a high level of self-efficacy embrace new, innovative instructional strategies to engage their students; they are well-organized and are goal oriented (Demirdag, 2015). Teacher self-efficacy also significantly impacts job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2006). These researchers found that teachers who demonstrate a high level of self-efficacy experience a high rate of job

satisfaction, which leads to better academic outcomes for their students. Although research shows that teacher self-efficacy produces many benefits in education, there is a gap in the research on the relationship of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers who teach JOWD in youth development centers.

Variables such as the teaching environment and student population can influence teacher self-efficacy and teacher job satisfaction (Aldridge & Frasier 2015; Nuri et. al. (2017). Special education teachers who teach JOWD in youth detention centers encounter a myriad of perils that may influence their self-efficacy. According to Chesnut and Burley (2015), teacher self-efficacy is one of many variables that may be considered a predictor of job satisfaction. Factors, such as managing caseloads, a lack of administrators support, emotional fatigue, and elevated stress levels special education educators experience serving in youth development centers, decrease their levels of job satisfaction (Houchins et al., 2017; Murphy, 2018). Therefore, attrition of special education educators in youth development centers continues to be problematic (Houchins et al.,2017).

According to the United States Department of Juvenile Justice (2015), for JOWD detained in youth development centers to experience successful transition outcomes upon release, they must receive quality educational services while incarcerated. Over 100,000 JOWDs enter youth development centers across the nation each year (Cavendish, 2014). The recidivism rate for JOWD offenders is 15% higher than that of non-disabled juvenile offenders (van der Put et al., 2014). Holmquist (2015) attributed this factor to the inability of youth detention centers to meet the behavioral and academic needs of JOWDs.

Education departments in youth development centers are responsible for providing academic services to JOWDs incarcerated in state departments of juvenile justice centers

(Houchins et al., 2017; Mikytuck et al., 2019. Across many states, juvenile justice centers are staffed inadequately; hence there is a lack of special education teachers available to provide JOWDs a free appropriate public education as mandated by the Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (Leon & Wruble, 2015). Research indicates that teacher self-efficacy serves as an essential component of educational reform, the delivery of effective instructional practices, and the academic achievement of students (Zuber & Altrichter, 2018). Several researchers have found that teachers exhibiting low self-efficacy also tend to manifest lower job satisfaction and, consequently, decreased positive student outcomes (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Shen et al., 2015). Therefore, educational leaders in the state departments of juvenile justice should explore the relationship between special education teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction in youth development centers in order to increase positive outcomes for JOWDs by increasing the retention of special education teachers.

Problem Statement

Research on teachers within juvenile justice has focused on several factors that lead teachers to enter the field of juvenile justice (Houchins et al., 2017). Nuri et. al. (2017) found that, when applying the theory of teacher self-efficacy to the retention of special education teachers in juvenile corrections, there are external variables that impact teacher self-efficacy. While Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and burnout, Kilday et. al. (2016) found a positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and student achievement in ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$).

Sarıçam and Sakız (2014) reported a decline in teachers' self-efficacy, particularly in special education teachers. According to Houchins et. al. (2017) special educators who provide services to JOWD within youth development centers desire to produce a positive impact on

JOWD who have experienced continued failures within the public school system. Houchins et al., (2017) found that managing caseloads, lack of administrator support, emotional fatigue, and elevated stress levels that special education educators experienced serving in youth development centers decreased their levels of job satisfaction, therefore, resulting in attrition of special education teachers in youth development centers.

Houchins et. al. (2017) stated, "To provide high-quality educational services to incarcerated students, it is important to recruit and retain a high-quality teaching staff" (p. 217). Therefore, it is imperative to investigate the conceptual framework underlying the relationships among teacher self- efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers within youth development centers.

According to Bandura (1997), individuals' ability to master tasks and control and regulate their behavior to ensure successful outcomes are correlated to their level of self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her personal ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including JOWD, and those who may be unmotivated to engage in learning activities and complete learning tasks (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Therefore, a teacher's level of self-efficacy can influence his or her view of work duties and responsibilities, school climate, job-related stress, and job satisfaction. Several research studies have indicated that teacher-self-efficacy is one of the essential factors influencing job satisfaction (Alessandri et al., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). Therefore, this correlation may exist, perhaps more significantly, in youth development center schools.

Although there is a vast body of research about the correlation of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers serving SWD in the traditional school setting, there is little research that examines this correlation, and the significance thereof, among special

education teachers of JOWD within youth development centers. The problem of limited research on the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers is the focus of this study.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, student engagement and job satisfaction in special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. The variables are teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, student engagement and job satisfaction. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including those who may be unmotivated (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) defined classroom management as the skills and techniques teachers utilize to reduce or redirect behaviors that disrupt the learning environment while maximizing the behaviors that enhance the learning environment. Woo and Ashari (2019) defined instructional strategies as techniques that teachers apply to effectively deliver the learning targets to ensure positive outcomes for students. Loveless (2015) stated student engagement "refers to the intensity with which students apply themselves to learning in school" (p. 1). Job satisfaction has been defined as an individual's affective response to his or her experience in a particular job position (Spector, 1997).

Teacher self-efficacy will be measured using Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy survey (TSES). Teacher self-efficacy will also be measured in three subscales of classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement. Job satisfaction has been defined as an individual's affective response to his or her experience in a

particular job position. Job satisfaction will be measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1997).

The target population for this study will be special education teachers of JOWD in a state youth development center school in the southern United States. The sample size will include 66 special education teachers from short-term and long-term youth development centers. A convenience sampling method will be used to select participants for the study. In order to collect data for the study variables, the study participants will be administered a questionnaire. Data will be examined using the Pearson product-moment correlation.

Significance of the Study

The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction is an area of interest in the field of education. This research study will add to the existing body of research directed toward fostering a better understanding of the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special educations teachers who teach JOWD in youth development centers. According to Shaukat et. al. (2019), teacher's self-efficacy is one of the significant indicators of the degree of teacher's determination, commitment, and job satisfaction. However, it may be difficult to measure a teacher’s level of self-efficacy in educational settings where the academic achievement of students with disabilities is connected to a teacher's ability to deliver instruction effectively, engage students, and his or her overall job satisfaction. (Mahasneh, 2016). Therefore, understanding how teachers’ self-efficacy affects their overall job satisfaction is significant (Murphy, 2018).

Special education teachers who desire to serve JOWD incarcerated in a youth development center are committed to providing students with all the necessary individualized assistance they need to be successful in the learning environment (Houchins et al., 2017;

Murphy, 2018). However, managing caseloads, lack of administrator support, emotional fatigue, elevated stress levels, and frequent physical and verbal encounters among students lead to special education teachers' desire to leave their jobs at youth development centers (Houchins et al., 2017; Murphy, 2018; Ochoa, 2016).

In order to eradicate the school-to-prison pipeline and meet the needs of JOWD, educational leaders in state departments of juvenile justice must provide JOWD with a high-quality education while they are detained in youth development centers. Educational leaders also have the responsibility of increasing the retention of highly qualified special education teachers within youth development centers (Houchins et. al., 2017).

Results from this study could provide state departments of juvenile justice with information to guide education reform in the areas of teacher recruitment and retention, curriculum, and educational programming for JOWD. This study could also provide insight for other researchers to investigate the correlation between teacher self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and teacher retention in special education teachers teaching in juvenile correctional schools. Further, this study could provide school administrators with insight into the relationship between teacher self -efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement in juvenile correctional schools.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a relationship between *overall teacher self-efficacy* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between class*room management as* measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between *instructional strategies* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between *student engagement* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

Definitions

1. *Job satisfaction* – Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees exhibit a positive orientation toward their jobs (Spencer, 1997).
2. *Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)* – SCT is a theory that states humans' actions are a result of their own cognition and use of agency (Bandura, 1977).
3. *Special education* - Special education is specially designed instruction to meet the individual academic, social, and emotional needs of SWD (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).
4. *Special education teachers* - Special education teachers are teachers who provides special education services to SWD or JOWD. (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).
5. *Teacher retention* - Teacher retention refers to whether teachers remain at their schools, move to different schools, or leave the vocation (Robinson et al., 2019).
6. *Teacher Self-Efficacy (TSE)* – TSE is the self-belief that a teacher possesses the ability to perform the actions necessary to promote student achievement (Chesnut & Burley, 2015).

7. *Youth Development Centers* - Youth Development Centers are secure facilities that provide education and treatment services to prepare committed youth to transition to a community setting successfully. (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquent Prevention, 1994).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

A systematic review of the literature was conducted on the self-efficacy and job satisfaction of special education teachers in youth development centers. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the current literature related to self-efficacy and job satisfaction of special education teachers in youth development centers. In the first section, the theory of self-efficacy will be discussed, followed by a synthesis of current literature on teacher self-efficacy, the influence of self -efficacy on classroom management, instructional strategies and student engagement, and job satisfaction of special education teachers within youth development centers, and educational needs of juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in youth development centers. Much educational research has explored the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in teachers who provide educational services to students in traditional school settings. However, examining this correlation among special education teachers who serve juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development centers will lead to better educational outcomes for this unique population of students.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study will utilize the theoretical lens of self-efficacy (Bandura,1986) to discuss the relationships among teacher self-efficacy, the influence of self-efficacy on classroom management, instructional strategies and student engagement, job satisfaction of special education teachers within youth development centers, and educational needs of juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in youth development centers. It will include an overview of Albert Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, the correlation between the development of self-efficacy beliefs and mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal

persuasion, and emotional state in order to provide an understanding for the use of the self-efficacy theory to frame this study.

Theory of Self-Efficacy

Some teachers flourish in the juvenile justice teaching arena, while others tend to collapse under the daily pressures and leave the correctional teaching field. The notion of self-efficacy characterizes one of the central fragments of Albert Bandura's (1986) work in social cognitive theory (Nuri et al., 2017). The social cognitive theory asserts that individuals' beliefs about their capabilities determine their actions; therefore, humans are "self-organizing, proactive, self-regulating, and self-reflecting" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as " people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391).

According to Bandura (1997), a solid sense of efficacy improves individual well-being and human achievement in many ways. Individuals with assurance in his or her abilities to approach challenging tasks as trials to be conquered rather than as intimidations to be avoided with an outcome that such an effectual viewpoint fosters inherent interest and profound engagement of activities (Bandura, 1997, 2012). An individuals' ability to master tasks and control and regulate his or her behavior to ensure successful outcomes are correlated to their level of self-efficacy (Bandura,1997). Bandura characterized teacher self-efficacy in relation to persons with high self-efficacy expectations who possessed an internal belief structure and stated, "individuals will accomplish what [he or she] set[s] out to accomplish" (Bandura, 1997, p. 391). Bandura further discovered that teachers who believed they would accomplish what they intended to accomplish were more effective, healthier, and generally more successful than teachers with low self-efficacy expectancies.

According to Zee and Koomen (2016), teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her personal ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including JOWD, and those who may be unmotivated to engage in learning activities and complete learning tasks. Therefore, a teacher's level of self-efficacy can influence his or her perspective on work duties and responsibilities, school climate, job-related stress, and job satisfaction. According to Creswell (2012), persons with a strong sense of self-efficacy establish challenging goals and maintain an active obligation to obtain them. Teachers who display a greater level of self-efficacy function on the certainty that effective teaching occurs when all adolescents are teachable by exerting extra energy, utilizing proper approaches, construction support, and disproving any community influences to the contrary (Creswell 2012,). The development of self-efficacy beliefs has been associated with four phases that include mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional state (Bandura,1986).

According to Bandura (1997), mastery experience is the most convincing and strongest source of information, so much so, that once individuals have successfully mastered a task in the past, they will tend to be self-assured that they will do the same in the future. Likewise, if individuals have continually failed to achieve a goal in the past, their self-efficacy for mastering the goal in the future tends to be low. Thus, when individuals accomplish a goal, their self-efficacy improves. Nevertheless, self-efficacy is weakened when one fails to meet a goal. Therefore, when special education teachers in youth detention centers can meet the academic needs of their students, evident by increased academic performance, they may experience an increase in self-efficacy.

According to Martins et al. (2015), there is a correlation between mastery experiences in preservice teachers and self-efficacy. The researchers completed a study involving 141

preservice teachers to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and their delivery of instruction. They found that participants experienced a higher level of self-efficacy because of their teaching practices, increasing their students' academic performance.

Bandura (1986) explained vicarious experience as an individual observing another person performing a task successfully. The influence of vicarious experience on self-efficacy for that task will be strongest when the other person is regarded as being similar in terms of relevant features (i.e., witnessing a veteran teacher effectively handling a disruptive student during classroom instruction is unlikely to lead to much increase in self-efficacy for a preservice teacher). However, witnessing a first-year teacher effectively handling disruptive behaviors during instructional time is more likely to increase self-efficacy in a preservice teacher because the first-year teacher is perceived as being comparable in terms of the level of experience as a classroom teacher. According to Steenekamp et al. (2018), such vicarious experiences can strengthen an individual's inclination to persevere through problematic situations, consequently influencing their self-efficacy.

According to Bandura (1997), verbal persuasion is the ability of an individual to increase another person's self-efficacy through verbal praise and affirmation. However, verbal persuasion alone may be limited in its power to create enduring increases in perceived efficacy. Still, it can bolster self-change if the positive appraisal is within realistic bounds (Bandura, 2012). Positive verbal persuasion can enhance an individual's self-efficacy as the individual will believe he or she can accomplish a task based on another's belief in his or her ability to do so. According to Martins et al. (2015), verbal persuasion of cooperating teachers in the form of constructive feedback increases self-efficacy in preservice teachers.

According to Bandura (1995), an individual's emotional state affects his or her self-efficacy. For an individual to transform his or her self-efficacy views, he or she is to change his or her mindset by eliminating stress and negative emotional inclinations and "correct misinterpretations of bodily states" (p. 5). Working with students with disabilities who present with a variety of academic and emotional needs, coupled with the constant pressure to ensure that they are making adequate progress, can add a great deal of job-related stress to the life of special education teachers. Likewise, additional administrative duties that special education teachers are expected to perform can add much stress to their lives. Findings from a study conducted by Kennedy and Smith (2013) revealed that job-related stress (i.e., classroom observations, parental conferences, and student test scores) lowered the self-efficacy of teachers by more than 35%.

Vadahi and Lesha, (2016) found that teachers who possess higher self-efficacy levels more significantly impact student achievement. Their confidence in their ability to effectively utilize researched-based instructional strategies to promote student learning by engaging students in active learning and provide students with a well-managed learning environment also leads to a higher level of job satisfaction as they perceive the daily demands of their teaching duties and responsibilities as less overwhelming than those who possess lower levels of teacher self-efficacy (Vadahi & Lesha, 2016).

Related Literature

This review of related literature will examine the influence of teacher self-efficacy on classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement, and factors such as job-related stress, caseload size, and administrator support that influence teacher job satisfaction. This exploration includes general education teachers and special education teachers in the

traditional school setting and special education teachers within youth development centers who provide educational services to juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD). This literature synthesis will also examine the characteristics and the academic and social-emotional needs and deficits of JOWD within youth development centers in addition to providing insight into the school cultural and physical environment of youth development center schools.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), an individual's ability to master tasks, control, and regulate his or her behavior to ensure successful outcomes is correlated to his or her level of self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including those students who may be unmotivated (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Aloe et al. (2014) concurred, defining teacher self-efficacy (TSE) as “the extent to which a teacher believes that (s)he is able to teach even the most difficult and unmotivated students, and involves many dimensions of teacher practices” (p. 105). Teacher motivation and knowledge are vital qualities for educational success (Mahler et al., 2018). Thus, to produce positive outcomes, teachers must be enthusiastic and demonstrate excellent content knowledge.

Bandura's (1996) research recognized that perceived negative instances and the lack of self-regulation could influence behavior by inspiring motivation or demotivation, and uplift and depression. Bandura (1996) stated that the internalization of one of the four influences is determined by an individual's "perceived self-efficacy to fulfill given standards, affective self reaction to substandard performance, and readjustment of personal standards" (p. 20). Bandura's (2012) research further asserted that the effects of positive self-efficacy are a reliable indicator of an individual's ability to self-regulate, the relationship of positive self-efficacy and self-regulation assists in an individual's ability to affect behavioral switches, use the strategies to

remain flexible, lessen relapses, and recommit resources following disappointments.

Mahler et al. (2018), conducted a study on predictors of student performance. The focus of the study was on teacher self-efficacy, subject-specific enthusiasm, and eagerness for teaching the subject. Specifically, Mahler et al. (2018) examined three relationships: (a) teacher self-efficacy and student performance, (b) teacher subject-specific enthusiasm and student performance, and (c) teacher eagerness for teaching the subject and student performance. Forty-eight biology teachers and 1,036 students participated in the study

To assess teacher self-efficacy, teacher subject-specific enthusiasm, and teacher enthusiasm for teaching, Mahler et al. (2018) administered a survey as the instrument which generated Likert-type responses and scoring. The efficacy belief items are related to the skills necessary for effective teaching. The teacher-subject specific enthusiasm and teacher enthusiasm for teaching the subject items required the teachers to self-report their level of enthusiasm about the discipline and their enthusiasm for teaching the subject. The teachers completed the survey before teaching the unit. Researchers assessed student performance via a validated paper and pencil test and concept maps. Student performance was assessed before (pre-test) and after the unit (post-test). The findings indicated that no relationship existed between teacher self-efficacy and student performance. No significant positive relationship existed between enthusiasm for teaching the subject and student performance; however, a positive trend existed. The findings also revealed that a significant positive relationship existed between teacher subject-specific enthusiasm and student performance. Thus, Mahler et al. (2018) concluded that subject-specific enthusiasm is a predictor of student performance; teachers who are enthusiastic about teaching a specific subject ignite enthusiasm for learning in their students, resulting in successful outcomes.

Zee et al. (2016) concluded that teachers demonstrating high self-efficacy feel more devoted to teaching. They may experience less stress, less feelings of burnout, and experience higher levels of success than teachers exhibiting low self-efficacy. Thus, teachers demonstrating high self-efficacy principles, especially principles that expand outside of the instructional realm, tend to remain enthused, satisfied, and engaged in the profession (Zee et al, 2016). While teacher self-efficacy was found to not be directly related to teacher attrition and retention, teachers displaying low self-efficacy tend to feel less devoted to teaching and experience a low level of satisfaction, which leads to them leaving the profession. A review of seven correlational studies on teacher attrition and retention revealed that only preservice teachers with high self-efficacy anticipate staying longer in the profession. (Zee et al, 2016).

Classroom Management and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Classroom management is defined as the skills and techniques that teachers utilize to reduce or redirect behaviors that disrupt the learning environment while maximizing the behaviors that enhance the learning environment (Lazarides et al., 2020). The purpose of classroom management, according to Aloe et al. (2014), is to maintain an environment conducive for teaching and learning. However, teacher burnout is real and could lead to poor classroom management (Aloe et al., 2014), making the classroom environment less conducive for learning.

According to Garrett (2015), when teachers cannot utilize classroom management strategies that prevent students from being removed from the learning environment, students' academic progress suffers. Therefore, teachers with strong classroom management self-efficacy produce more positive academic outcomes for their students, especially youth offenders with disabilities (Hochweber et al., 2014). However, teacher preparation programs provide pre-service teachers with little pedagogy on classroom management (Pankowski & Walker, 2016)

Aloe et al. (2014) indicated that teachers are inclined to experience burnout or feelings associated with burnout because of the demanding tasks that accompany the position. Numerous research findings have labeled teacher burnout as one of the key elements that reduce teacher effectiveness (Aloe et al., 2014). Teachers who feel they are not quite able to manage their classroom could be more prone to feelings of inadequacy, exhaustion, and failure. Zee et al. (2016) and Dicke et al. (2014) concurred, finding that teachers with below-average efficacy for classroom management and weak instructional strategies may be more susceptible to feeling emotionally enervated and less interested in their profession than teachers with high efficacy for classroom management.

Continuous, interrelated factors (i.e., the classroom setting or atmosphere) and individual moods and behaviors of the teacher combined with behaviors of the students, may provide optimistic and/or adverse effects (Aloe et al., 2014). The type of effect is contingent on the classroom management skills of the teacher. If teachers practice good classroom management techniques and student performance is good, they may feel successful. However, if the opposite is true and student performance is below average, teachers will probably feel unsuccessful because teaching and learning cannot occur in an undisciplined environment (Aloe et al., 2014). According to Aloe et. al, (2014), another implication is that self-efficacy is a defense mechanism against burnout.

Previous meta-analyses focused on global self-efficacy and burnout and not on classroom self-efficacy (Aloe et al., 2014). The findings for these meta-analyses have been varied as some have found a relationship exists between the two, while others have not (Aloe et al., 2014). In conducting the first multivariate meta-analysis on classroom management self-efficacy and burnout, Aloe et al. (2014) examined three dimensions of burnout: “emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, and (lowered) personal accomplishment" (p.126). The global study consisted of a review of 16 studies conducted in the United States, Spain, the Netherlands, Turkey, Israel, and Norway. Half of the studies were conducted in the United States. The findings indicated that a significant relationship exists between classroom management self-efficacy and the three aspects of burnout ($r = 0.88$, $p < 0.05$; $r = 0.88$, $p < 0.05$; $r = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$). The implication is that there is a significant probability that teachers who possess lower levels of classroom management self-efficacy will experience feelings associated with burnout along with class management issues (Aloe et al., 2014).

Instructional Strategies and Teacher Self-Efficacy

The talents and self-efficacy of teachers are essential components of a learning environment conducive to the development of cognitive competencies (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997), a teacher's instructional efficacy produces a significant impact on his or her ability to structure the daily instructional strategies within the learning environment and impacts students' perception of their intellectual abilities.

Woo and Ashari (2019) defined instructional strategies as techniques that teachers use to effectively deliver the learning targets to ensure positive outcomes for students. Rizwan & Khan (2015) concurred, defining instructional strategies as selected techniques on how to: (a) organize or assemble course content, (b) deliver course content, and (c) implement activities that advance learning. Instructional strategies should provide a daily plan for the teaching and learning process (Lourenco et al., 2015). Rizwan and Khan (2015) asserted that in order to meet the individual needs of their students, teachers must possess an array of effective instructional strategies.

In a study involving 217 secondary school teachers in 22 schools, Woo and Ashari (2019) examined connections between years of teaching experience, self-efficacy, and instructional

strategies applied among high school teachers in implementing STEM education. The findings revealed a low but significant positive association between years of teaching experience and personal TSE ($r = 0.25$, $p \leq 0.05$) (i.e., "an increase in teaching experience can be an indicator of a heightened level of teachers' personal teaching self-efficacy in teaching") (p. 1451). No significant correlation, however, was found between years of teaching experience and general teacher self-efficacy and between years of teaching experience and instructional strategies ($r = 0.092$, $p < 0.250$) (i.e., "teaching experience did not play a significant role in predicting the teachers' willingness to use effective instructional strategies") (Woo & Ashari, 2019). Regarding practicing teachers, Zee et al. (2016) found TSE for instructional strategies was an optimistic predictor of practicing teachers' commitment to the profession ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.05$).

Juuti et al. (2018) contended teachers in training, or preservice teachers, must be secure in their teaching and that obtaining optimistic experiences while in training is the best means for them to acquire a strong sense of teacher self-efficacy or trust in their individual abilities. Negative experiences, however, weaken or challenge teacher self-efficacy (Juuti et al., 2018). How teachers perceive their performance is major. Teachers with a strong sense of trust in their ability to realize that everything will not always run smoothly, have confidence in their ability to overcome these challenges that may arise (Juuti et al., 2018). It is, however, possible for teachers to have course content knowledge and possess numerous skills or instructional strategies but not believe they can deliver the learning targets. They view themselves as being less than proficient as teachers (Juuti et al., 2018).

Preservice teachers who do not have a strong sense of trust in their abilities may seek support from their supervisor, which can help in selecting appropriate teaching strategies for managing related circumstances (Juuti et al., 2018). These teachers in training can enhance their

self-efficacy by learning from other teachers or viewing other teachers as models. Preservice teachers can also enhance their self-efficacy by comparing their teaching strategies, behaviors, or actions with those of model teachers (Juuti et al., 2018). According to Shoulders and Krei (2015), a teacher's self-efficacy affects his or her selection of the instructional strategies they will employ in the classroom.

Teachers with higher self-efficacy are more inclined to employ innovative instructional strategies. However, teachers must receive opportunities to enhance their knowledge of instructional strategies through professional development (Neve et al., 2015). When teachers experience an enhanced sense of instructional self-efficacy, they are more willing to implement innovative instructional strategies in the classroom (Dixon, et al., 2014). Neve et al. (2015) asserted that as the level of professional development and training in differentiated instruction increased the more teacher instructional self-efficacy increased.

Student Engagement and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Although a consensus on the precise definition of student engagement is not evident in the research literature, student engagement can be viewed as student participation in educationally effective instruction leading to measurable outcomes (Shoulders & Krei, 2015). Loveless (2015) stated student engagement "refers to the intensity with which students apply themselves to learning in school" (p. 1). According to Van Uden et al. (2015), student engagement is an essential precursor for learning.

Laughter (2017) conducted a quantitative correlational study to examine the strength of the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and discipline referrals in a rural school district. Specifically, the researcher sought to determine the association between predictor variables including student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management, and the

criterion variable, discipline referrals. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) used to measure the predictor variables. Research findings of this study revealed a negative direct relationship between student engagement and discipline referrals, but the strength was weak (r = -0.208, p > .0125). The association or correlation between student engagement and discipline referrals was also found to be insignificant. Bobis et al. (2016) found that teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs use teaching strategies that support student engagement; conversely, teachers with weak efficacy beliefs do not take responsibility for the lack of student engagement; neither do they adjust their instructional strategies to improve student engagement. Laughter (2017) noted that findings of this study and those of other previous research on student engagement concur with Bobis et al. (2016), indicating that teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs would be less likely to have student disciplinary issues or refer students for disciplinary action.

Dweck (2016) examined the relationship between self-efficacy and mindset; how individuals view human attributes, including intelligence and ability levels. The participants were teachers employed in five high schools in a high-performing school district. The purpose was to determine the degree to which relationships exist between three subscales of teacher self-efficacy: (a) student engagement, (b) instructional strategies, and (c) classroom management with a growth mindset. The findings indicated teacher mindset had a moderate positive relationship with the three subscales of teacher self-efficacy when they were analyzed individually. Thus, as levels of these subscales increase, levels of teacher mindset increase. However, when they were analyzed collectively, student engagement was the only variable that was found to have a strong positive relationship to teacher mindset, which indicated when levels of student engagement increase, levels of teacher mindset also increase.

The relationship between student engagement and teacher self-efficacy is extremely important and should be a curricular topic of interest in teacher-education institutions. Juuti et al. (2018) noted that preservice teachers must be able to develop learning confidence in the students. They are expected to be able to teach, expound on the course content, and engage students in the learning process. Juuti et al. (2018) suggested the use of questioning and responding to questions to ensure understanding as a means of engaging students.

Job Satisfaction

Like with every job, the workplace is where individuals spend the majority of their day. Job satisfaction results from employees' perceptions. When employees display and feel positive emotions in the work environment, they will experience positive outcomes in their work roles (Staw et al., 1994). Teachers may feel content in their profession for several reasons, and therefore, various understandings of the concept of teacher job satisfaction. Teachers' job satisfaction may be influenced by individual and contextual factors such as school culture (Staw et al., 1994). Teacher demographics like gender, age, and years of teaching experience may enhance understanding of teacher job satisfaction (Williams, 2019). Teacher job satisfaction is related to "measuring teachers' satisfaction with different circumstances" (Emin Türkoğlu et al., 2017, p.86). According to William (2019), teachers achieve job satisfaction from their relations with students. While Emin Türkoğlu et al. (2017) asserted that students' successes might influence a teacher's job satisfaction. Emin Türkoğlu et al. (2017) also found that performance rewards influence job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Job satisfaction is an essential variable when exploring organizational structure and theory, and it is often considered a reflection of organizational functioning (Spencer, 1997).

According to Aldridge and Fraser (2016), job satisfaction is defined as the positive or negative evaluative judgment that people make about their job. The assessment of job satisfaction in many organizations has become a critical practice to determine employee well-being as job satisfaction can reflect and affect organizational functioning (Spector, 1997). Although difficult to define, teacher job satisfaction may be even more problematic to measure.

Aldridge and Fraser (2016) examined the perceptions of teachers' job level environment and teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. They employed two instruments. The School-Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) was administered to assess job level environment, and a researcher-created questionnaire, adapted from existing questionnaires/surveys was used to assess teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. For job satisfaction, questionnaire items were adapted from job index and job satisfaction and survey. Findings regarding teacher job satisfaction revealed that the degree to which school administrators approach and support teachers contributed directly and indirectly to teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction ($r = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$). Findings also revealed positive relationships between leadership style and teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction, which supported previous research findings ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$). Findings also revealed that the degree to which teachers can acquire support, provide suggestions, and have a sense of collegiality, directly and indirectly, influenced teacher self-efficacy and directly influenced job satisfaction ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.05$).

Job-Related Stress and Teacher-Efficacy

According to Ryan et al. (2017), factors that contribute to teacher stress are poor academic outcomes of students, administrative support, negative interactions with parents, and lack of instructional resources. Due to the stress from immense job duties and responsibilities, when compared to regular education teachers, special education teachers are more susceptible to

mental illness and psychiatric distress (Ewald et al., 2016). Gonzalez et al. (2017) examined the correlations between protective factors, support, and risk factors. Gonzalez et al. (2017) found that special education teachers may experience high levels of stress if they perceive an imbalance between the demands of their job and the resources, they need to meet the needs of their students ($r = 0.45$, $p < 0.05$).

According to Ewald et al. (2016), one of the primary factors that leads to high-stress levels in special education teachers was managing the behavior of their students. Students with disabilities are often non-compliant, hyperactive, impulsive, and have difficulty focusing due to their short attention span. This is also true for JOWD within youth development centers (Ewald et al., 2016; McKelvey et al., 2017). Klassen and Chiu (2010) researched the correlation between teachers' years of experience, teacher characteristics, self-efficacy, and job stress. The researchers found teachers with greater workload stress had greater classroom management self-efficacy ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.05$). Additionally, Murphy (2018) found that teaching at a youth development center was stressful due to students' behaviors. Murphy (2018) also discovered that although classroom management plans are efficient in managing student behavior, frequent physical and verbal encounters among students led to a teacher's desire to leave the profession (Murphy, 2018).

Caseload and Teacher-Efficacy

According to the Council of Exceptional Children (2017), special education teachers' workload may include providing direct instruction to help students with disabilities meet their Individual Education Program (IEP) goals and objectives. The National Education Association (2016) described the management of IEPs as the organization of documents needed for IEP meetings, developing IEPs, monitoring IEP goals, managing the process for evaluation or re-

evaluation for special education services, and completing yearly reviews of IEPs. These teachers may also be required to provide inclusionary and indirect services. According to the Council of Exceptional Children (2017), inclusionary services include push-in related services including speech and language pathologists and occupational therapists providing services in the general education classroom and co-teaching with general education educators. Indirect services involve consulting with parents, students, related services providers, and general education teachers to ensure students with disabilities, academic, emotional, and social needs are met (Council of Exception Children, 2017). The National Education Association (2016) conducted a study to determine the average time needed to manage a special education teacher's workload effectively.

The study results revealed that special education teachers spend an average of eight hours per week managing IEPs, fourteen hours per week providing specialized instruction, nine hours per week providing inclusionary services, and more than two hours per week providing indirect services. The average workload of a special education teacher is 33.5 hours per week. However, on average, special education teachers are allotted 27.5 hours per week to perform their job duties and responsibilities (National Education Association, 2016; Hagaman & Casey, 2018). Hagaman and Casey (2018) asserted that "if special education teachers' roles are structured in a way that does not allow them to use their expertise and if substantial teaching time is lost because of nonteaching tasks, [there is an increase] in frustration and work-related stress and [a decrease in] teacher efficacy" (p. 373).

Burnout and Teacher Efficacy

Maslach (1982) described burnout as an undesirable mental state categorized by fatigue, cynicism, and feelings of insufficient professional efficacy. Maslach (1986) asserted that emotional fatigue, depersonalization disorder, and personal achievement are fundamental

burnout elements. Although stressful situations alone do not necessarily lead to burnout, Prilleltensky et al. (2016) found that prolonged exposure to stress leads to burnout. For instance, according to Arvidsson et al. (2016), teachers are at greater risk of experiencing burnout due to their stressful work environments. In their study of 769 special education teachers, 15% of the teachers presented with experiencing greater burnout from extended exposure to stressful work environments to include workload and lack of support from school leadership.

Sariçam and Sakiz (2014) examined the correlation between burnout and teacher self-efficacy in special education educators regarding varying variables, including special education educators' education levels, gender, special educators' work hours, and special educators 'class numbers. The study included 70 special education teachers from seven special education schools in Turkey. Forty-six of these special education educators served at special education schools, and twenty-four at a mainstreaming room in a primary school. The teachers were administered the Maslach Burn-out Inventory and Teacher Self-Efficacy Inventory. The results of these inventories indicated a significant correlation between special educators' rates of burnout and self-efficacy. Likewise, substantial variances were found amongst genders and settings regarding special education teacher burnout and self-efficacy. Results stressed the significance of self-efficacy beliefs in special education teachers' level of emotional connection, sense of achievement, and engagement. Hopman et al. (2018) also found a correlation between low teacher efficacy, emotional fatigue, and classroom disruption. In comparison, Langher et al. (2017) found a correlation between reduced levels of burnout and a supportive work environment in special education teachers who serve at-risk students with disabilities who present with an emotional behavior disorder.

Administrative Support and Teacher Efficacy

Current research has found that teachers who feel that they receive adequate support from their administrators and colleagues are more likely to remain in teaching. However, teachers who experience a lack of support from administrators and their colleagues are more likely to leave the profession. When principals create an inclusive school community, support the collaboration of special education teachers and regular education teachers, and ensure that all educators have the resources that are needed to perform their job duties, the environment is conducive for learning, resulting in positive outcomes (Bettini et al., 2017).

According to Conley and You (2017), a lack of administrative reports has contributed significantly to the attrition of special education teachers. Conley and You (2017) conducted a study of 2,060 secondary special education teachers and found a positive correlation between administrative support and high levels of teacher efficacy. Billingsley and Bettini (2019) found that teachers attributed the lack of administrator support and work environment as key factors in their decision to remain or leave the profession. Murphy (2018) found that teachers who remain in youth development centers attributed their longevity to administrative support, stakeholder collaboration, and accountability**.**

Chiong et al. (2017) conducted a study that examined the reasons why teachers remain in the profession. The participants included over 900 teachers with zero to over 30 years of teaching experience. The group with longevity consisted of teachers who had acquired ten and above years of teaching experience. The findings revealed teachers with longevity tend to remain in the profession because they like the subject they teach ($r = 62$, $p < 0.05$). School climate and a sense of being highly qualified were also important to long-serving teachers. Surprisingly, the findings revealed income and holiday benefits did not appear to be important to teachers with longevity (*r*

= 0.5, $p < 0.05$; $r = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$). Leadership quality was somewhat significant to teachers who had acquired 20 to 2 9 years of experience ($r = 0.40$, $p < 0.05$). Additional findings revealed that teachers with longevity expressed that pleasure in working with children and the simple nature of teaching were reasons they continue in the profession.

Youth Development Center Teachers

Working with students involved with the juvenile justice system is difficult but working with a population of these students who have an array of academic and social emotional deficits, compounded by being incarcerated, creates an even more arduous task (Grigorenko et al., 2019). According to the United States Departments of Juvenile Justice (DJJ) (2015), recruiting educators trained to provide educational services to juvenile offenders incarcerated in youth development centers is often a daunting task. Teachers working in youth development centers teach a unique population that includes some of the most demanding and problematic students in education (Houchins et al., 2017). Juvenile offenders under the educational supervision of these teachers often enter these youth development centers with a multiplicity of problems, including histories of sexual and physical abuse, drug and alcohol addiction, mental illness, family issues, and exposure to violence (Leon & Wruble, 2015). Educators willing to work with this challenging population have been problematic to identify and retain (U.S. DJJ, 2015). Thus, a high level of job satisfaction among educators willing to work with this population of juvenile offenders is mandatory if these students' special needs are to be appropriately met (Houchins et al., 2017).

Special education teachers who teach JOWD in youth detention centers encounter a myriad of perils that may influence their self-efficacy. According to Chesnut and Burley (2015), teacher self-efficacy is one of many variables that may be considered a predictor of job

satisfaction. Factors, such as managing caseloads, a lack of administrators support, emotional fatigue, and elevated stress levels special education educators experience serving in youth development centers, decrease their levels of job satisfaction (Houchins et al., 2017; Murphy, 2018). Therefore, attrition of special education educators in youth development centers continues to be problematic (Houchins et al., 2017). Teaching in a youth development center environment presents unique challenges. A teacher working in a youth development center may have multiple preparations and multiple abilities within each preparation in a classroom, making teaching in a youth development center school among the most challenging educational settings (Capstone, 2019).

Teaching students with violent and aggressive behaviors exhibiting different learning ability levels in a variety of subjects is quite challenging and can increase teacher burnout, reduce the retention of good teachers, and lead to increased fear (Georgia DJJ, 2020). The Council of State Governments (2015) asserted that over 50% of youth offenders in youth development centers are, on average, three to four years below grade level in reading and math. Thirty-two percent of these youth offenders also self-report a history of substance and or alcohol abuse combined with either physical or sexual abuse (Leon & Wruble, 2015). Therefore, teachers providing educational services to youth offenders must address these issues daily, which can significantly impact their self-efficacy (Leon & Wruble, 2015).

Murphy (2018) examined how special education teachers in the youth development center schools understand and emotionally respond to their experiences at work. The researcher interviewed five educators from youth development center schools three to four times to acquire information about how they perceive their experiences at work. The study's purpose was to provide firsthand data detailing how educators in youth development center schools understand

and emotionally respond to their work environment experiences, professional development providers, and administrators desiring to improve teachers' experiences and retention in youth development center schools. The study revealed that three of the five educators resigned their positions due to their emotional responses to the youth's negative behaviors within the learning environment. Two acknowledged that defensive factors swayed their desire to remain employed as teachers. One reported that he often experienced periods where he desired to resign based on high incidents of student physical altercations in the classroom. However, once the work environment calmed, these desires subsided.

The United States Department of Education and Justice (2015) reported that teachers who contemplate working in youth development center schools have preconceived notions of teaching youth offenders in secure facilities. Their preconceived views can influence their decisions to enter the juvenile correctional education sector and impact the quality of educational services they provide to the juvenile offenders they serve (U.S. Departments of Education and Justice, 2015). Teachers who provide educational services in youth development center schools encounter unique challenges related to their work setting that can influence their perceptions of their role as teachers and the teaching profession (Murphy, 2018).

For teachers working in juvenile youth development centers, teacher efficacy is influenced by various factors. Some factors that influence teacher efficacy can lead to high teacher efficacy and high-quality instructional practices, while other factors can lead to low teacher efficacy and job stress (Johns et al., 2008). Since the student population can change daily in juvenile detention centers, teachers may experience frequent teacher efficacy shifts as they are confronted with an ever-changing work environment. Physical and learning environments in youth development centers are entirely different from those in traditional school settings

(Koomen, 2016). Therefore, teachers new to teaching in youth development centers must properly acclimate to their work environment. For example, teachers in youth development centers work behind fifteen feet barbed wire fences and steel doors equipped with digital locks that can only be accessed by security staff. Therefore, teachers "feel the heavy weight of prison walls and towers on their bodies and minds, as the silent language of the architecture communicates to them that they are in a different place" (Wright, 2015, p. 20). Teachers who move from traditional schools to youth development centers experience stages of culture shock as they try to adapt to the new environment (Wright, 2015).

According to Houchins et al. (2017), these stages describe teachers' social-psychological states during the acculturation process. The first stage presents the teacher as a tourist in the youth development center. The teacher is considered an outsider who is just visiting and does not intend to stay long. Some teachers in youth development centers remain in this stage and never progress. In the second stage, a teacher is considered an individual in exile, challenged by the stark contrasts between the youth development center school's culture and their previous school culture. During this stage, the teacher may experience anxiety, withdrawal, and anger, and may feel nostalgia for their former school environment. Some teachers also remain in this stage and continue to feel dissatisfied.

However, unlike the first two stages, a teacher who reaches the third stage starts to feel better adjusted to the youth development center school's environment (Wright, 2015). In the third stage, the teacher is described as a tourist who has made the decision to remain and slowly assimilate into his or her new school environment. However, these teachers, as strangers, may continue to feel unsure about their new school environment. In the fourth stage, the teacher is described as a settler who begins to identify the positive and negative aspects of the youth

development center school's environment and his or her previous school environment. The teacher begins to feel less isolated as he or she progressively adjusts to the youth development school environment. In the fifth and final stage, the teacher is described as a translator who can skillfully navigate his or her role in the youth development center school's setting.

As a translator, the teacher can bring the outside world into the classroom for his or her students and is also able to explain the internal culture to outsiders (Wright, 2015). Along with other variables, confronting a youth development center education program's harsh work environment can influence teacher efficacy. Teachers who work in youth development center schools may have the ability and opportunity to influence youth through education, self-confidence, and the ability to set personal goals (Leon & Wruble, 2015). Teachers' behaviors and expectations of their students' capabilities affect student academic performance and achievements (Murphy, 2018). Teachers can affect classroom instruction by creating an environment that fosters positive teacher-student relationships, positive peer relationships, a personal sense of self, and an ability to manage emotions (Leon & Wruble, 2015).

An environment such as this can influence youths' ability to process and conceptualize information and positively influence the learning process (Baglivio et al., 2014). The correctional teacher may affect the students' behavior and attitudes through teaching, mentoring, and establishing clear rules and expectations. Youth development centers are unique settings in which many of the students have had past academic issues; thus, to be effective, teachers must put extra effort into their teaching and may need to move beyond instruction to act as mentors. The teacher may feel it is necessary to transcend academic content and provide instruction for independent living and vocational skills to youth in secure facilities (Baglivio et al., 2014). While mentoring is not unique in an academic environment, it can be even more important in a

correctional setting because of significant school dropout levels and may not have previously had good role models.

Teachers may become role models for their students. Those teachers identified by students as role models in an educational environment positively impact the learning process. (Baglivio et al., 2014). Teachers with higher teaching efficacy are better able to serve the diverse student populations' individual needs in youth development center school's settings (Baglivio et al., 2014). This can be explained using the idea of social cognitive theory. As used in psychology and communication, the theory states that individuals can acquire knowledge by directly observing others during general social interactions (Bandura,1977).

Educational Needs of Students in Youth Development Centers

According to the U.S. Department of Justice (2015), for youth detained in youth development centers to experience successful outcomes upon release, they must receive quality educational services while incarcerated. According to the Office of Justice and Delinquency Programs (2017), approximately 809,700 adolescents were arrested in 2017, of whom 435,870 were placed in youth development centers across the United States. Over 100,000 JOWD enter youth development centers across the nation each year (Cavendish, 2014).

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) indicates that states are required to ensure that students with disabilities receive a free and appropriate public education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE), as prescribed by their Individual Education Plan (IEP). This law also applies to state departments of juvenile justice programs (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). During the 2015-2016 school year, it was estimated that incarcerated JOWD accounted for between 30% and 60% of all juvenile offenders. However, only 46% of JOWD were served through IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).

According to Van et al. (2014), the recidivism rate for JOWD is higher than that of their non-disabled peers (60% > 45%). Holmquist (2015) attributed this factor to the inability of youth development centers to meet the behavioral and academic needs of JOWD. Archwamety and Katsiyannis (2000) attributed these higher rates of recidivism in JOWD to the lack of behavioral and academic support that these youth receive to address their personality, cognitive, and behavioral deficits.

According to the National Center for Mental Health and Juvenile Justice (2014), 65% to 75% of JOWD have a diagnosable mental health condition, and JOWD have substantially higher rates of behavioral health needs than their non-disabled peers. While 60% of JOWD report experiences of traumatic victimization, and 93% report being a victim of either child abuse and domestic and community violence (Baglivio et al., 2014).

Teplin et al. (2015), showed 39% of JOWD detained in youth development centers present with a mood disorder including mania and major depression, while 30% showed signs of anxiety, panic, and post-traumatic stress disorders. Research indicates that 36% of JOWD have a learning disability, and 36% an emotional and behavioral disorder (Grigorenko et al., 2019). These JOWD, as a group, are described as having an inability to anticipate consequences to actions and low impulse control (Grigorenko et al., 2019).

According to the United States Department of Education (2015), recruiting educators trained to provide educational services to juvenile offenders incarcerated in youth development centers is often a daunting task. Teaching in a youth development center environment presents unique challenges. The Council of State Governments (2015) asserted that over 50% of youth offenders in youth development centers are on average three to four years below grade level in reading and math. While 32% of these youth offenders also self-report a history of substance and

or alcohol abuse combined with either physical or sexual abuse (Leon & Wruble, 2015). Therefore, teachers providing educational services to youth offenders must address these issues on a daily basis which can significantly impact their self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 2001).

The United States Department of Education and Justice (2015) reported teachers who contemplate working in youth development center schools have preconceived notions of teaching youth offenders in secure facilities. Their pre-determined views can influence their decision to enter the juvenile correctional education arena, as well as impact the quality of educational services that they provide to the juvenile offenders they serve (U.S. Departments of Education and Justice, 2015). Dealing with youthful offenders can be difficult and even sometimes dangerous (U.S. Departments of Education and Justice, 2015).

Challenges Faced by Special Education Teachers

Special education teachers face multifaceted challenges providing support to their students to meet their behavior and academic needs. Therefore, it is critical for special education teachers to receive support from their principals. However, principals are rarely equipped to provide adequate support. Bettini et al. (2019) found that improving the behavioral and academic outcomes for students is viewed by teachers as their role and responsibility. However, they feel that their views conflict with what they experience daily at work. The teachers reported that the increase of additional duties and responsibilities consume the energy that they could otherwise use to perform their essential roles. They also reported that although they receive the needed resources to improve the behavioral outcomes of their students, they lack the necessary support to improve the academic outcomes for their students.

Hagaman and Casey (2018) sought to explore the complex, multifaceted reasons that lead to new special education educators leaving the field, using research tools other than surveys. In this study, the researchers completed a sequence of focus groups to develop a deeper understanding of novice special education teachers' retention. They included three groups of educators in their nominal group technique study: preservice teachers, teachers in the first three years of their careers, and administrators. Preservice educators were selected as research shows that half will not complete the journey from a preservice to a highly qualified teacher; therefore, they can provide valuable insight into the factors that cause them to flee the field rather than fight to become a veteran educator. The next group of teachers was selected due to the critical transition period of their teaching career.

Moreover, administrators were selected because they could impact the retention of novice special education teachers. The results from this study indicated the top three factors on the retention of novice special education teachers are stress, lack of cooperation, recognition, and support from other teachers and administrators, and extensive and high-maintenance caseload.

Koomen (2016) revealed that special education teachers often feel overburdened with excessive job duties and responsibilities, and they often neglect to provide their students with adequate instructional opportunities. Johns et al. (2008) found that for students with emotional behavior disorders, engagement in structured academics is critical to prevent negative outcomes (i.e., dropping out of school as it increases positive outcomes; academic achievement in the areas of reading and math). Also, when academic engagement is increased, behavioral disruptions decrease (Johns et al., 2008). Therefore, it is essential for teachers to provide engaging instruction for their students (Bettini et al. 2015). The research study findings indicated a correlation between the amount of non-instructional responsibilities placed on special education

teachers serving students with emotional behavior disorders and the amount of time these teachers spend on providing instruction to their students. Teachers who are assigned more non-instructional duties spend less time providing instruction to students.

Challenges Faced by Special Education Teachers in Youth Development Centers

The juvenile detention centers that are responsible for providing academic services to adolescents incarcerated by state departments of juvenile justice across 49 states are inadequately staffed with educational personnel possessing the necessary credentials to provide JOWD a free appropriate public education as outlined by IDEA (Moody, 2003). In addition to personnel deficits, they lack the necessary educational resources such as textbooks, technology, and other tools, essential to meeting the academic, emotional, and behavioral needs of JOWD.

The Southern Education Foundation (SEF), in their report, *Just Learning: The Imperative to Transform Juvenile Justice Systems into Effective Educational Systems* (2014), found that youth development centers have failed to meet the educational needs of juvenile offenders. The report indicated that youth development centers fail to adequately assess the needs of juvenile offenders upon entry into the system, lack of timely, accurate assessments of the needs of juvenile offenders entering the centers, lack of coordination among teaching and learning during a youth's commitment, and inconsistency in the educational curriculum. The Southern Education Foundation also asserted that the teaching methods and educational resources were also inappropriate, outdated, or inadequate, and little or no technology was used.

According to Miller (2019), many youth development centers fail to follow a state department of education approved curriculum to build an educational curriculum to meet the diverse needs of the students they serve. Moreover, they found that youth development center schools have not always employed certified educators, provided juvenile offenders an adequately

rigorous curriculum, and failed to provide educators with professional development to help improve student achievement.

According to Jennings et al. (2018), educational staff responsible for providing services to juvenile offenders lack the adequate formal training to meet juvenile offenders' emotional and behavioral health needs within youth development centers. This lack of training often manifests itself in ineffective punitive strategies, such as confinement that can cause further harm to youth offenders' mental health and access to the educational program (Dembo et al., 2018). The decline in qualified special educators across the 49 states has forced many state departments of juvenile justice programs to hire educators who are not highly qualified in an effort to meet the increased need for special educators within youth development centers (Hale, 2015). According to Moody (2003), southern states' department of juvenile justice programs have waived the special education endorsement and highly qualified status as a requirement for the recruitment of special education teachers and it is a violation of IDEA 2004 (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

This practice of providing inadequate and inconsistent educational services for JOWD in youth development centers has been a common practice of juvenile justice programs for four decades in several states. Sariçam and Sakiz (2014) found that additional administrative duties, lack of professional development, feelings of isolation from general education teachers, and burnout are affiliated with overall job satisfaction in special educators employed within youth development centers.

Summary

This systematic review of the literature explored the theory of self-efficacy, in addition to the influence of teacher self -efficacy on classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement, and job satisfaction among special education teachers within youth

development centers, and educational needs of juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in youth development centers. According to Bandura (1997), individuals' ability to master tasks and control and regulate their behavior to ensure successful outcomes are correlated to their level of self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her personal ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including JOWD, and those who may be unmotivated to engage in learning activities and complete learning tasks (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Therefore, a teacher's level of self-efficacy can influence his or her view of work duties and responsibilities, school climate, job-related stress, and job satisfaction.

Several research studies have indicated that teacher-self-efficacy is one of the essential factors influencing job satisfaction (Alessandri et al., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). According to the U.S. Department of Juvenile Justice (2015), for JOWD detained in youth development centers to experience successful transition outcomes upon release, they must receive quality educational services while incarcerated. However, to provide high-quality educational services to incarcerated students, it is important to recruit and retain a quality teaching staff (Houchins et al., 2017). Therefore, it is imperative to investigate factors that influence teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers of JOWD within youth development centers.

Houchins et al. (2017) asserted that minimal research has been conducted investigating teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers within youth development center schools, specifically how self-efficacy influences their job satisfaction, classroom management, instructional practices, or their ability to engage their students. Therefore, conclusive research investigating teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among

special education teachers serving JOWD in youth development centers schools is warranted, resulting in the current study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter will introduce the research methodology used in this quantitative, correlational study to examine the connection between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers serving juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) within youth development centers. This chapter will include a discussion of the research design and the rationale for selecting the research design. The research questions that frame this study will be presented, followed by a description of the study participants and setting, instrumentation, and procedures used to conduct the study. In the end, a description of the data analysis implemented in this study will be provided.

Design

The goal of this quantitative, correlational study is to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, student engagement and job satisfaction among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. Teacher self-efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to produce positive outcomes for all students, including those who may be unmotivated (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) defined classroom management as the skills and techniques teachers utilize to reduce or redirect behaviors that disrupt the learning environment while maximizing the behaviors that enhance the learning environment. Woo and Ashari (2019) defined instructional strategies as techniques that teachers implement to effectively deliver the learning targets to ensure positive outcomes for students. Loveless (2015) stated student engagement "refers to the intensity with which students apply themselves to learning in school" (p. 1). Job satisfaction has been defined as an individual's affective response to his or her experience in a particular job position (Spector, 1997).

Teacher self-efficacy is self-belief that a teacher possesses the ability to perform the actions necessary to promote student achievement (Chesnut & Burley, 2015). Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees exhibit a positive orientation toward their jobs (Spector, 1997). When deciding on a research study design, the researcher must consider the problem being investigated, the audience for the study, and his or her personal goals and experiences (Creswell, 2018; Gall et al., 2007; Harris, 2019). Gall et al. (2007) suggested that when seeking to explore the relationship between two or more variables, researchers should use a correlational research design. Furthermore, Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that when testing objective theories by exploring the correlation among variables, a quantitative research approach should be used to test theories, avoid bias, and logically duplicate study findings.

In turn, the researcher should use survey instruments to quantify the relationship between the variables using statistical analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gall et al., 2007). Therefore, this study will employ a quantitative correlational research design using survey research for data collection to reduce bias, to present results objectively and to generalize the results of this study on the relationship between teacher self-efficacy scores and job satisfaction (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gall et al., 2007). A correlational design was selected to determine a possible relationship between the study's variables (Gall et al., 2007).

The variables in this research study include job satisfaction, teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement. Teacher self-efficacy scores will be quantified using the three sub-categories of teacher self-efficacy as defined by the Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale: classroom measurement, instructional strategies, and student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). According to Gall et al. (2007), correlation research is not designed to determine casual correlations among variables; however,

it will determine if the correlations are sufficient to use experimental research to test the connection. Research defining the strength of the connection between the variables is limited. Therefore, the use of a correlational design is appropriate for this study to add to the existing body of research connecting these variables (Creswell, 2018; Gall et al., 2007).

Research Question(s)

RQ1: Is there a relationship between *overall teacher self-efficacy* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and *job satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between class*room management as* measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between *instructional strategies* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between *student engagement* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

Hypothesis(es)

The null hypotheses for this study are:

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between overall teacher's self-efficacy, as measured by the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between classroom management, as measured by the classroom management subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant relationship between instructional strategies, as measured by the instructional strategies' subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$4: There is no statistically significant relationship between student engagement, as measured by the student engagement subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

Participants and Setting

The target population for this study will be special education teachers who teach JOWD within youth development centers located in Georgia. The participants for this quantitative, correlational study will be selected by a convenience sampling method to ensure ease of conducting the study and access to the target population (Gall et al., 2007). The youth detention center schools employ 90 special education teachers (Georgia Department of Education, 2020). During the 2019-2020 school year, the youth development centers that will be used in this study served 188 JOWD grades six through twelve (Georgia Department of Education, 2020). The 25 youth development center schools that will be used in this study are designated as Title 1 schools (Georgia Department of Education, 2020). Nineteen of the youth development centers are considered short-term placement facilities, and six are considered long-term placement facilities.

Combined, the youth development schools are the 181st School District in Georgia accredited by AdvancED (Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice, 2020). The short-term youth development centers (SYDC) are secure facilities for youth awaiting court citation to return to the community, for placement in the community, or for entrance into long-term facilities serving youth offenders (Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice, 2020). The long-term youth development centers (LYDC) incarcerate youth committed to the custody of the state's Department of Juvenile Justice in the state for long-term rehabilitation services and treatments (Georgia DJJ, 2020). All students, including JOWD, attend school Monday through Friday for six periods daily. Instruction occurs in a standards-based classroom, and teachers and students, including JOWD, adhere to the state curriculum.

The study participants will be composed of 66 special education teachers who teach JOWD within youth development centers located in Georgia. According to Gall et al. (2007), "at least 66 participants are necessary to achieve 95% power considering a medium effect size and a significance level of .05" (p.145).

The sites will include 29 secondary schools located on the campus of youth development centers operated by a southern state Department of Juvenile Justice. The schools will be identified as LYDC 1 through 7 and SYDC 8 through 29. These schools serve a total of 188 JOWD (Georgia Department of Education, 2020).

The teacher workforce is comprised of 90 special education teachers. All of the 90 special education teachers will be solicited to participate. In March 2021, during a state-wide training, the researcher will personally introduce the study to the potential participants and solicit their participation. The researcher will also offer potential participants incentives to participate. Each teacher who successfully participated in the study will be provided a small classroom

survival bag that will consist of office supplies. In early April 2021, the survey and consent will be disseminated electronically to all special education teachers at each of the youth development centers schools. Teachers will be asked to read the consent and proceed with completing the survey. For those who do not respond to the initial request, a second, and final, request of consent and surveys will be sent mid-April of 2021.

The sample will include 22 schools in short-term placement youth development centers and seven schools in long-term youth development centers. The gender demographics for special education teachers will be 77.3 % female and 22.7 % male (Georgia Department of Education, 2020). The ethnic demographics for special education teachers in this district will be 27.2 % White, 72.8 % Black, and 0% other (Georgia Department of Education, 2020). Forty-nine percent of the special education teachers hold advanced degrees (Georgia DJJ, 2020). Special education teacher experience levels involved in the sample population will range from 3 and 10 plus years (Georgia DJJ, 2020). The sample will consist of 15 males and 51 females 18 teaching math in a self-contained/inclusion setting, 15 teaching science in a self-contained/inclusion setting, 8 teaching social studies in a self-contained/inclusion setting, 23 teaching language arts in a self-contained/inclusion setting. 1 teaching all self-contained core academics, and 1 teaching math, science, language arts and social studies. Sufficient demographic information will be reported to ensure that other researchers can replicate this study with similar participants (Table 1).

Instrumentation

The two instruments central to the study are the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001 & Spector,1997). Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) created the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), which is a

standard measure of teacher self-efficacy. Paul E. Spencer developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to assess employee attitudes about their job and aspects of their job (Spencer, 1997).

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) developed the TSES in response to the work of Bandura (1997). The purpose of the TSES was to provide a measure of teacher self-efficacy in the areas of student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. This model allows teacher self-efficacy to be quantified on both the teacher's analysis of the teaching task and the teacher's assessment of personal teaching competence (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) fashioned the scale in 2001 at Ohio State University, and since that time, researchers have referred to the TSES as the Ohio State Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The scale was examined extensively for validity and reliability through teacher consultations, factor analysis, and comparisons of measures with various teacher- self-efficacy scales. Reliability was verified with a Cronbach's alpha of .94 for the overall scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The overall scale, subscales and Cronbach's alpha levels are listed in Table 1.

Potential responses are as follows: A *Great Deal = 9, Quite A Bit = 7, Some Degree = 6, Very Little = 3, and None At All = 1*. Furthermore, demographic questions of racial identity, sex, subject matter, grades, and levels taught, years of experience, school setting (rural, urban, or suburban), and percentage of students receiving free and or reduced lunch are also included. The scores from each subscale ranged from 4 to 36 points. A score of 4 points is the lowest possible score, meaning that the respondent possesses very low self-efficacy. A score of 36 points is the highest, meaning that the respondent possesses extremely high self-efficacy. Items 2, 4, 7, and 11 relate to efficacy in student engagement. Items 5, 9, 10, and 12 pertain to efficacy in instructional

strategies. Items 1, 3, 6, and 8 apply to efficacy in classroom management. According to Warner (2013) the overall and subscale validity and reliability alpha levels (Table 1) are acceptable.

Table 1

TSES Overall and Subscale Validity and Reliability Measures

TSES	Mean	SD	Cronbach's alpha
Overall Scale	7.1	.94	.94
Classroom Management	7.3	1.1.	.87
Instructional Strategies	7.3	1.1	.91
Student Engagement	6.7	1.1	.90

Note: Table derived from (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

The TSES was used in several studies (George et al., 2018; Kang & Cavanagh, 2018; Nuri et al., 2017; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). It is appropriate to use in this study because it provides a measure of teacher self-efficacy in the areas of student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Spector (1997) credited Paul E. Spencer for being at the forefront for the development of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) at the University of South Florida in 1985. Spencer developed this instrument to assess employee attitudes about their job and aspects of their job. The nine subscales are *Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards, Operating Procedures, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication* (Spector, 1997). The JSS comprises 36 questions each with six-point Likert-type scale responses that range from 1 = very much; 2 = moderately; 3 = slightly; 4 = agree slightly; 5 = agree moderately; 6 = agree very much. Items 1, 10r, 19r, 28 relate to Pay. Items 2r, 11, 20, 33 relate to Promotion. Items 3, 12r, 21r, 30 relate to Supervision. Items 4r, 13, 22, 29r relate to Fringe benefits. Items 5, 14r, 23r, 32r

relate to Contingent rewards. Items 6r, 15, 24r, 31r relate to Operating Conditions. Items 7, 16r, 25, 34r relate to Coworkers. Items 8r, 17, 27, 35 relate to Nature of Work. Items 9, 18r, 26r, 36r relate to Communication (Spector,1997).

Spector's (1997) research efforts included two types of reliability evaluations documenting the value of the instrument. Internal consistency reliability calculated by instrument tests with a sample population of 3,067 survey participants who completed the first survey produced coefficient alphas ranging from 0.60 for subscales to 0.91 for total scale scores (Spector,1997). An alpha score of 0.70 is considered to be the minimum standard for internal consistency (Spector, 1997). The validity of the JSS was established by measuring the discriminant and convergent validities amongst the JSS and the Job Descriptive Index; the correlations were moderate to strong resulting above 0.61 (Spector, 1985). The JSS Internal Consistency Reliability is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

JSS Internal Consistency Reliability

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha
Overall	0.91
Pay	0.75
Promotion	0.73
Supervision	0.82
Fringe Benefits	0.73
Contingent Rewards	0.76
Operating Conditions	0.62
Coworkers	0.60

Nature of Work	0.78
Communication	0.70

Note: Table derived from (Spector, 1997).

The JSS was used in several studies (Addimando & Veronese, 2017; Yong & Hui ,2017; Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015). It is appropriate to use in this study because it assesses employees' attitudes about their job and aspects of their job.

For this study, the TSES and the JSS instruments will be completed, and the required completion time will be 20 minutes or less. Participants will complete the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) self-report questionnaire of the combined instrument to measure the strength of the relationships between the variables (classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement) and job satisfaction. The variables consisted of scores from the Job Satisfaction Survey section of the combined instrument that participants will complete.

The researcher will obtain permission from the authors to use the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985).

Procedures

The researcher will begin the study by contacting the instruments' authors to communicate intent to use the instruments in a research study and attain the expressed consent of Tschannen-Moran Appendix B and Spencer Appendix C. Next, a formal request to conduct this study will be submitted to Liberty University IRB Appendix D and the state Department of Juvenile Justice Research and Evaluation department Appendix E. The education supervisor of each youth development center school will be contacted to schedule a meeting at his or her earliest convenience to discuss using his or her center as a research site for this study, and he or

she will be provided a copy of study prospectus to clarify the purpose of the study and to answer any questions or concerns. An email will be sent to the associate superintendent of schools for the state Department of Juvenile Justice to request permission to convene an information session via a Zoom meeting about the study with all of the special education teachers Appendix F.

In July of 2021 the researcher will host a Zoom meeting with the target population. During the Zoom meeting the researcher will personally introduce the study to the participants and solicit their participation. In early July 2021, an email will be sent to all the special education teachers at each of the youth development center schools. The body of the email will explain the purpose of the research and will include a hyperlink transporting participants to the survey. The first page of the online survey will include the informed consent form Appendix G. Teachers will be instructed to read the statement of consent and proceed with completing the survey electronically via Google docs. For those teachers who do not respond to the initial request, a second, and final, request of consent and surveys will be emailed mid-July of 2021.

The combined TSES and JSS scores retrieved from the Likert scaled items will be entered into a Microsoft Excel file. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) noted all quantifiable demographics data and "unweighted means of the items that load each factor" will be compiled as suggested by the instrument's authors (p. 808). The JSS will be scored as directed by the author's procedures Appendix H.

Data Analysis

A series of four Pearson product-moment correlational coefficients will be used to assess the relationship between overall teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement on job satisfaction. According to Gall et al. (2007), when exploring the relationship among continuous variables, researchers compute a correlational

coefficient. Gall et al. (2007) asserted that the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient has been extensively used in research as it has the lowest standard of error (p. 348). A Pearson product-moment analysis attempts to apply a line of best fit to the data resulting from the interaction of each pair of variables in order to establish the nature, strength, and direction of relationship which is the goal of this research. A bivariate correlation will be used to measure the statistical strength of the relationship between the study variables (Gall et al., 2007) and will be reported via a correlation matrix. Data will be analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Services (SSPS) software-program.

Data Screening and Assumption Tests

In order to ensure quality of input, the researcher will screen data for missing or inaccurate data. According to Warner (2013), in order to facilitate the Pearson product-moment correlation to analyze data, three assumptions must be met. The assumptions for the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient are the assumption of bivariate outliners, assumption of linearity, and assumption of bivariate normal distribution (Warner, 2013). The absence of outliners in the data refers to examining data for and suppressing extreme outliners for each variable. A scatter plot of the interaction between variables will be used to examine data for extreme bivariate outliers. The normality of distribution assumption assumes that the population distributions are normal. Normality will be assessed using a scatterplot between the two variables. One on the x-axis and one on the y-axis, normality will be indicated by a classic “cigar shape” (Warner, 2013). The linearity assumption assumes the correlation between the variables is linear. A scatter plot between the variables will be used to indicate linear or somewhat linear distribution (Warner, 2013).

Data Analysis: Pearson Product Moment Correlation

This quantitative correlational study will examine a potential statistically significant relationship between overall teacher's self-efficacy, as measured by the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviations) will be computed, analyzed, and reported for all variables. In order to limit Type I error, a Bonferroni correction will be used since there are 4 tests of significance being conducted (Warner, 2013). The calculation for a Bonferroni correction typically uses an alpha level of 0.05 and then divides by the number of hypothesis tests facilitated. For that reason, the alpha level for this study is calculated thus: .05/4 = .0125 rounded to .013. Therefore, alpha level will be established at $p < .013$.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. The variables were teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. This study aimed to add to the existing body of research that sought to understand the relationship between special education teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction amongst teachers who teach JOWD in the youth development center setting and to provide state departments of juvenile justice with information to guide education reform in the areas of teacher recruitment and retention, curriculum, and educational programming for JOWD. The study participants consisted of 66 special education teachers who currently teach JOWD within youth development centers located in Georgia. Data for this study was collected using survey research methods. A series of four Pearson product-moment correlational coefficients were conducted to assess the relationship between overall teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement on job satisfaction. This chapter examined the four research questions framing this study, the hypotheses, descriptive statistics, and results.

Research Question(s)

RQ1: Is there a relationship between *overall teacher self-efficacy* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and *job satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between class*room management as* measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between *instructional strategies* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between *student engagement* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

Null Hypothesis(es)

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between overall teacher's self-efficacy, as measured by the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between classroom management, as measured by the classroom management subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant relationship between instructional strategies, as measured by the instructional strategies' subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

$H_0$4: There is no statistically significant relationship between student engagement, as measured by the student engagement subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were reported in research to describe the data and presented a clear, concise depiction of the data (Zikmund et al., 2012). These statistics have provided an overview of the research data collected and have included means, number of participants, range of scores, and standard deviation. Each of these descriptors leaded to a more robust understanding of the population under review.

Basic demographic data were collected for each of the respondents. Of the 66 participants in this study, 23% (15) were male, and 77% (51) were female. Forty-eight (72.7%) of the 66 participants were African American, while 18 (27.3%) have indicated they were White. Twenty of the participants, or 30%, reported ten or more years of classroom experience, and all 66 were certified by the State of Georgia. All but two of the participants taught one specific discipline. Those two reported they taught all subject areas. Twenty-six percent (17) worked in short-term settings; and 74% worked in long-term settings. Table 3 presents the demographic information for this sample.

Table 3

Frequency Counts for Selected Demographics (N = 66)

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	15	22.7
	Female	51	7.3

Variable	Category	n	%
Ethnicity	African American	48	72.7
	White	18	27.2
Experience	3	1	1.5
	4	2	3
	5	4	6.1
	6	9	13.6
	7	9	13.6
	8	10	15.2
	9	11	16.7
	10	20	30.3
Subject Matter	All	2	3
	Language	12	34.8
	Math	18	27.3
	Science	15	22.7
	Social Studies	8	12.1
Context	RYDC	17	25.8
	YDC	45	74.2

Descriptive statistics were conducted pertaining to the following sections of the TSES: overall teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, student engagement, and job satisfaction. The TSES Teacher Belief survey was administered to the 66 participants. Respondents answered questions via a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to a score of 9 (a great deal) designed to assess a teacher's beliefs concerning current ability, resources, and current opportunities. Each of the subsections comprised mean scores between 7.0 and 7.7576, which is rated at "Quite a bit" on the Likert-type scale. Interestingly, questions 9, 10, and 12 consisted of the same mean (7.7576); while 10 and 12 reported the same standard deviation (1.3930). These two scores comprised the lesser standard deviations and were

compared. Question 10 refers to providing alternative explanations when students are confused and question 12 refers to the implementation of alternative teaching strategies. Item 11 consisted of the lowest mean (7.000) and refers to assisting families in helping their children to succeed in school.

Table 4

Teacher Beliefs for the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Reliability Scores

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #1	66	7.6667	1.3282
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #2	66	7.6364	1.3659
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #3	66	7.6060	1.3574
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #4	66	7.5758	1.3016
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #5	66	7.6970	1.3809
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #6	66	7.6970	1.4247
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #7	66	7.6970	1.3355
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #8	66	7.7273	1.2955
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #9	66	7.7576	1.4365
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #10	66	7.7576	1.3930
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #11	66	7.0000	1.2153
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Item #12	66	7.7576	1.3930

According to Warner (2013), the standard deviation scores in each subscale served as indications of how closely the predictor variable data were distributed to the mean. The standard deviation scores of the subscales ranged from 1.18 to 1.37. The lowest standard deviation score was exclusive to the subscale of student engagement. The highest standard deviation score included in the subscale of classroom management. The overall composite mean score for Teachers' Sense of Self Efficacy based on the subscale scores were 7.63 with a standard deviation of 1.25. This is based on the information presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Predictor Variables on the TSES

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Variance
Classroom Management	66	4	5	9	7.67	1.31	1.71
Instructional Strategies	66	4.5	4.5	9	7.74	1.37	1.88
Student Engagement	66	4	5	9	7.48	1.18	1.4
Overall TSES Composite Score	66	4	5	9	7.63	1.25	1.56

A Cronbach's alpha reliability test was performed on the collected data. The analysis resulted in an alpha reliability coefficient of $\alpha = 0.9841$. According to Gall et al. (2007), a Cronbach's reliability coefficient of greater than 0.7 is an acceptable level of internal reliability. Therefore, these collected data were greater than the level of acceptability for internal reliability, as seen in Table 6.

Table 6

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Composite Scores (N = 12)

Variable	N	Mean	SD	α
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Composite Score	66	7.6313	1.2488	0.9841

The second survey administered was the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). This survey included 36 questions. The scores were measured via responses on a Likert-type scale from 1 (disagree very much) to 6 (agree very much). Item number 21, the supervisor shows too little interest in subordinates' feeling produced the highest mean score (5.8636). Items 16, 32, and 34 all shared a 5.833 mean. However, item number 32, feeling their efforts were not being rewarded

appropriately, produced a lower standard deviation (0.3755). Item number 10, raises being few and far between produced the lowest mean (2.0455). These data are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Job Satisfaction Survey

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #1	66	4.7121	0.6267
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #2	66	3.5606	1.3488
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #3	66	5.2727	0.5960
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #4	66	5.2576	1.4916
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #5	66	4.9545	0.8846
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #6	66	5.5758	0.9125
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #7	66	5.1212	0.9367
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #8	66	5.7424	0.7506
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #9	66	5.0303	0.8033
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #10	66	2.0455	0.8491
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #11	66	4.8636	0.7623
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #12	66	5.7273	0.7554
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #13	66	5.0606	0.8015
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #14	66	5.7727	0.6024
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #15	66	5.0152	0.9844
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #16	66	5.8333	0.4145
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #17	66	5.1667	0.5706
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #18	66	5.7273	0.8329
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #19	66	5.5303	1.0110
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #20	66	4.8182	0.6542
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #21	66	5.8636	0.3458
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #22	66	5.0303	0.6556
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #23	66	5.7576	0.6807
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #24	66	5.7121	0.6508
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #25	66	5.3182	0.6600
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #26	66	5.7879	0.4809
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #27	66	5.5909	0.6319
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #28	66	4.1818	0.8929
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #29	66	5.7121	0.7182
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #30	66	5.3182	0.6363
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #31	66	5.6818	0.5860
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #32	66	5.8333	0.3755

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #33	66	4.6970	0.7436
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #34	66	5.8333	0.4145
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #35	66	5.3485	0.6678
Job Satisfaction Survey Item #36	66	5.5909	1.1229

The overall descriptive statistics for job satisfaction composite scores for this study were included. The mean score was 5.22, with a standard deviation of 0.3590. A mean score of 5.22 indicated most participants projected an above-average degree of job satisfaction. These statistics depicted an above-average job satisfaction among those educators who participated. A Cronbach's alpha reliability test was performed on the collected data. The analysis resulted in an alpha reliability coefficient of $\alpha = 0.8924$, and because the reliability coefficient was greater than 0.7, the level of internal reliability were acceptable, as demonstrated in Table 8.

Table 8

Job Satisfaction Survey Composite Scores (N = 36)

Variable	N	Mean	SD	α
Job Satisfaction Survey Composite Scores	66	5.2234	0.3590	0.8924

Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine a potential correlation between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers who provided services to juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in youth development centers. To measure the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction data was collected using a 48-item self-report questionnaire survey. A series of four Pearson product-moment correlational coefficients were conducted to assess the strength of the relationship between overall teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies, and student

engagement on job satisfaction. The results of these analyses were presented, conclusions were reached and then compared to the study's hypotheses.

Data Screening

The data were organized and scanned for discrepancies per each variable. No data errors or discrepancies were identified. The Statistical Analysis Software Package (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were used to analyze data and create scatterplots, histograms, and other charts for each and bivariate normal distribution (Warner, 2013).

Linearity

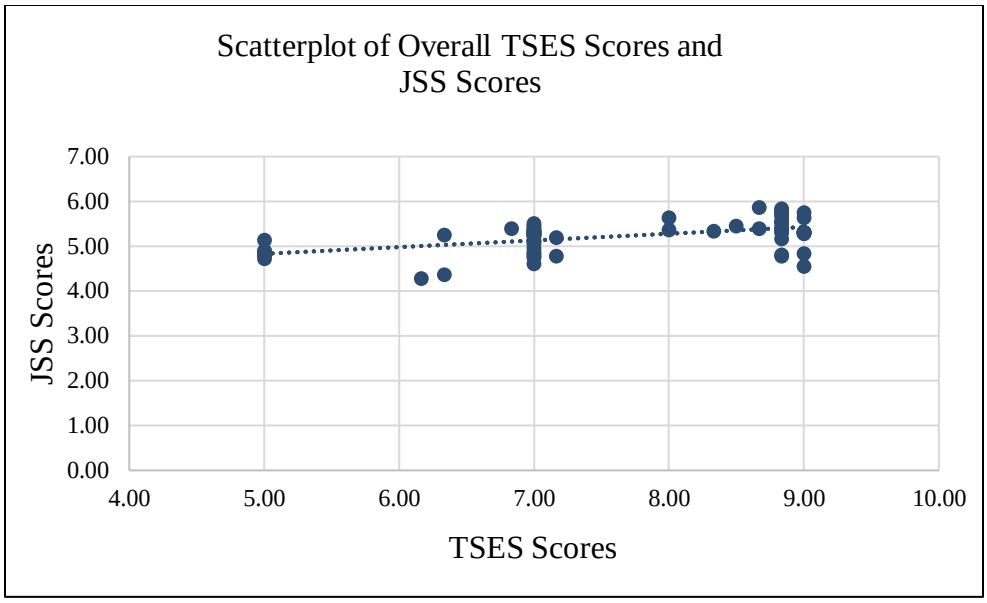
A Pearson correlation coefficient determined the significance, direction, and strength of relationship between variables. This correlation analysis was used due to not meeting the assumptions of normality with all variables used in comparisons (Warner, 2013). Conducting a Person product-moment analysis is not customary on non-normalized data. However, it was used for this study because it was believed the sample size caused the data to be non-normalized.

According to Gall et al. (2007), linearity is the linear relationship between the variables and is often evaluated by constructing scatterplots. If the assumption of linearity is met, it is usually represented with a straight line and is an indicator of the relationship between the variables compared. A strong linear relationship is present when the y values increase as a result of an increase in the x values (Warner, 2013).

The scatterplot chart of overall TSES Composite Score in relation to the Overall JSS Composite Score in Figure 1 were utilized to confirm the assumption of linearity. Bivariate normal distribution was met because no extreme outliners were identified.

Figure 1

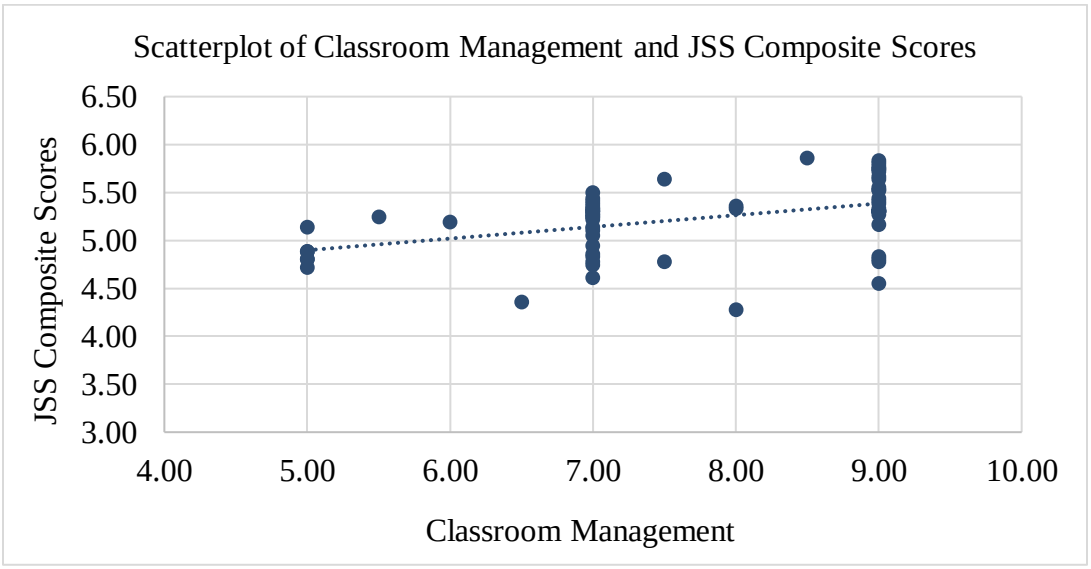
Scatterplot of Overall TSES and Overall JSS Scores



The scatterplot in Figure 2 showed TSES composite scores in relation to the Job Satisfaction Composite score. The assumption of linearity was confirmed as well. No significant outliers were present. Therefore, there was a bivariate normal distribution.

Figure 2

Scatterplot of TSES in Classroom Management and Overall JSS

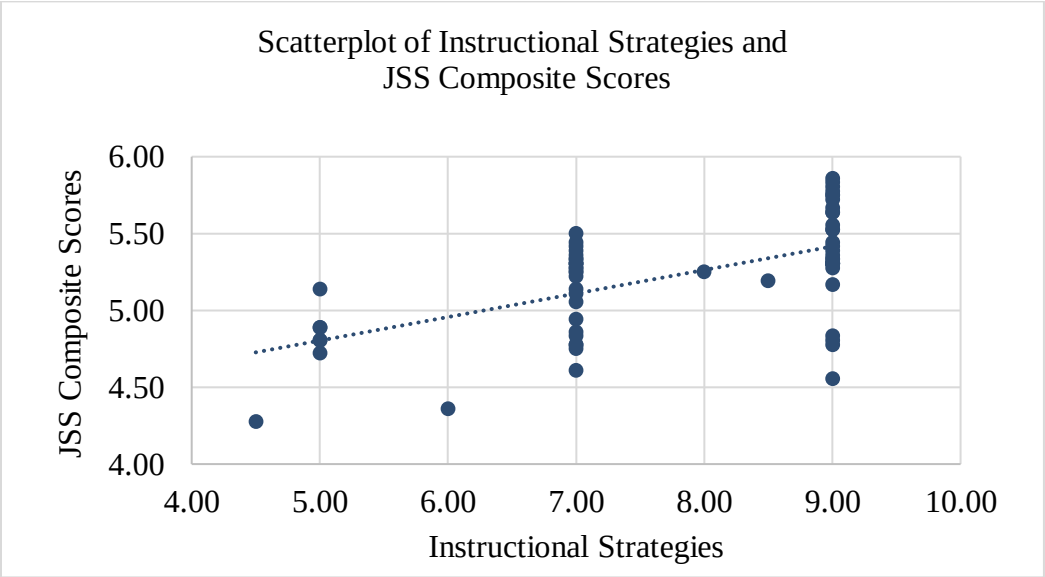


The scatterplot chart found in Figure 3 showed the Instructional Strategies scores in relation to the Job Satisfaction Composite Score. It was utilized to determine the assumption of

linearity. Also, bivariate normal distribution was present because no significant outliners were identified.

Figure 3

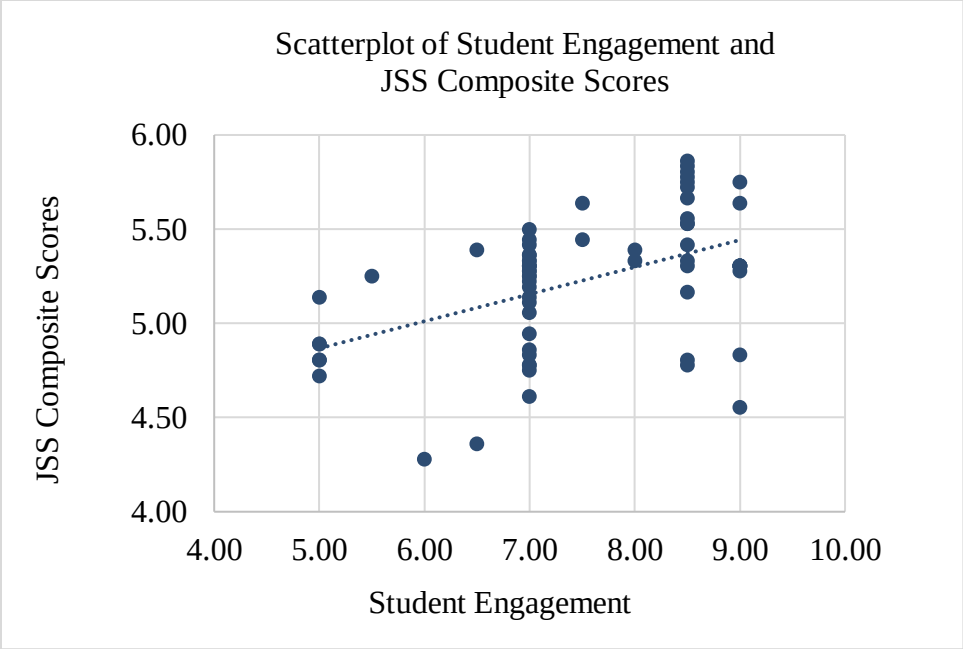
Scatterplot of TSES in Instructional Strategies and Overall JSS



The scatterplot in Figure 4 showed Student Engagement scores in relation to the Job Satisfaction Composite Score. The scatterplot was utilized to determine the assumption of linearity. Also, there were no significant outliers present which confirms bivariate normal distribution requirements were met.

Figure 4

Scatterplot of TSES in Student Engagement and Overall JSS

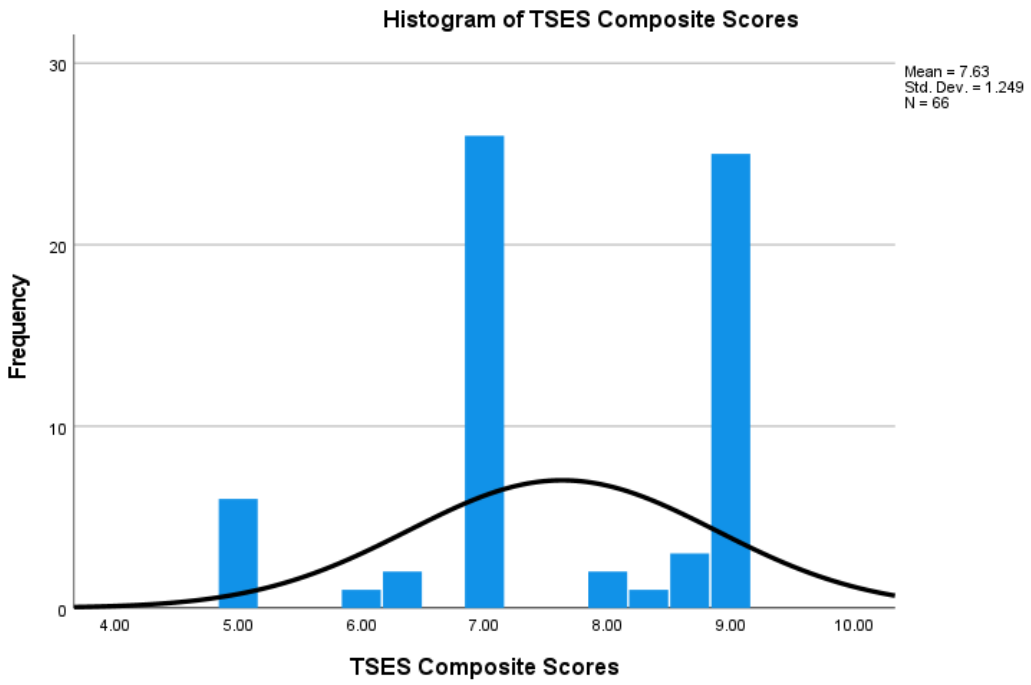


Normality

The assumption of normality of the TSES composite score was assessed using histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. According to Warner (2013), normality is indicated by the appearance of a classic bell curve and should be determined prior to data analysis. As indicated, the histogram showed (Figure 5) the assumption of normality was not met.

Figure 5

Histogram TSES Composite Score



A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 9) for the TSES composite score was conducted. The p-value was < .001, indicated that normality assumptions were not satisfied, and the histogram was not a true bell curve.

Table 9

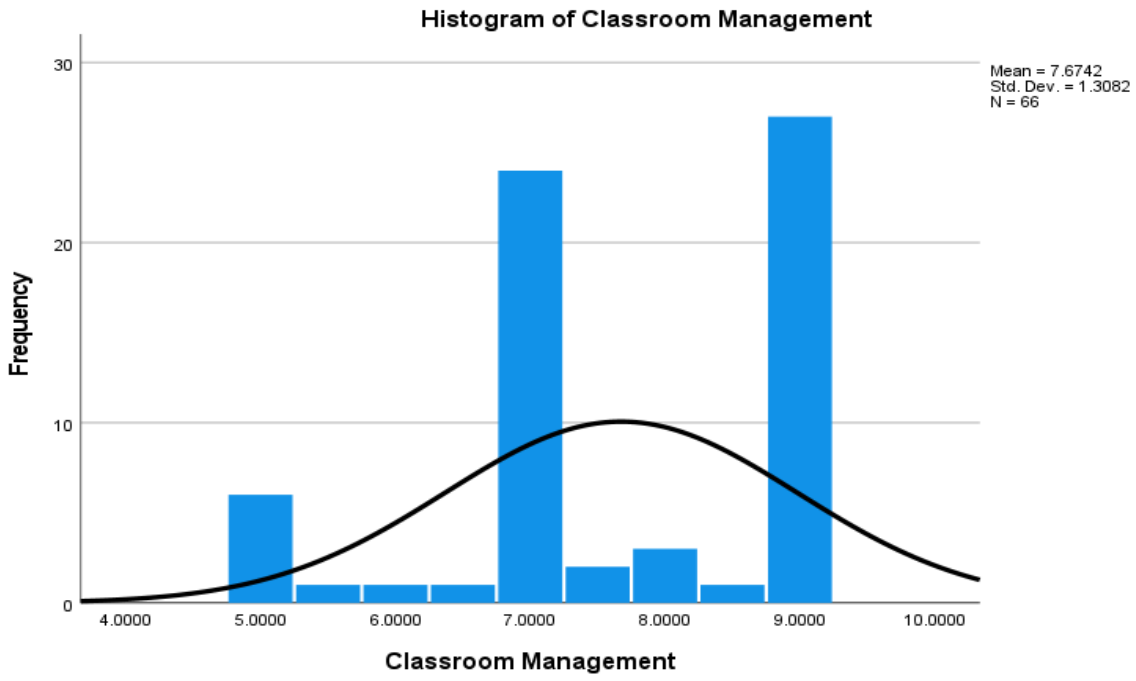
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale Composite Score Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TSES Composite	.211	66	.000	.835	66	.000

The histogram in Figure 6 indicated the normality assumptions were not satisfied for the classroom management subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale.

Figure 6

Histogram of Classroom Management



Next, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 10) was conducted for the classroom management subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale. Again, the p-value was < .001, indicated that normality assumptions are not satisfied.

Table 10

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Classroom Management Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Tests of Normality

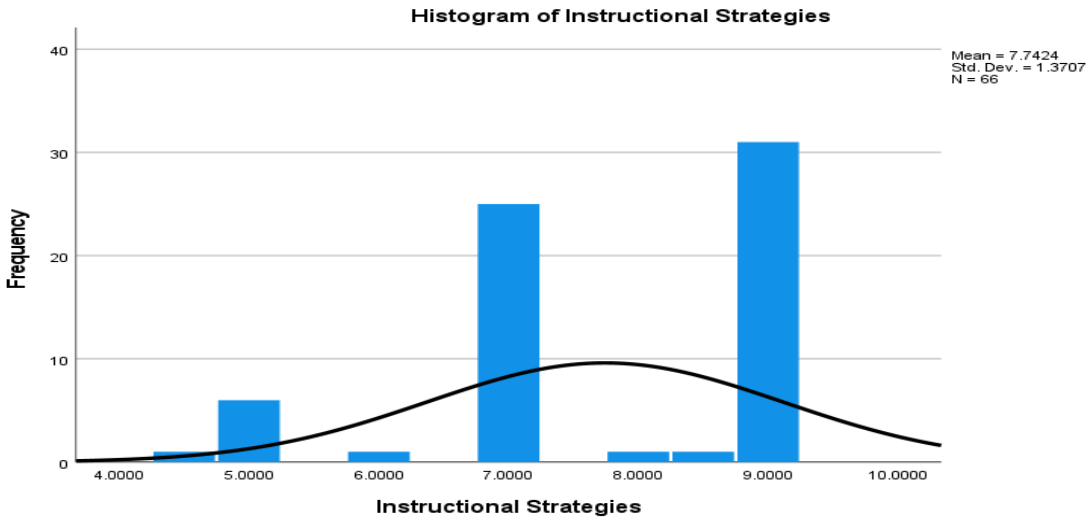
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Classroom Management	0.254	66	0	0.815	66	0

*Note.*Lilliefors Significance Correction

After the results of the histogram of the predictor variable were analyzed, instructional strategies, a subscale of TSES, the assumption of normality was not met. Warner (2013) described a normal distribution as one where a classic bell curve is evident (Figure 7).

Figure 7

Histogram of Instructional Strategies



A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 11) for the predictor variable, instructional strategies teacher self-efficacy, resulted in a p-value less than .001. This was an indication that the assumption of normal distribution was not met.

Table 11

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Instructional Strategies Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale Tests of Normality

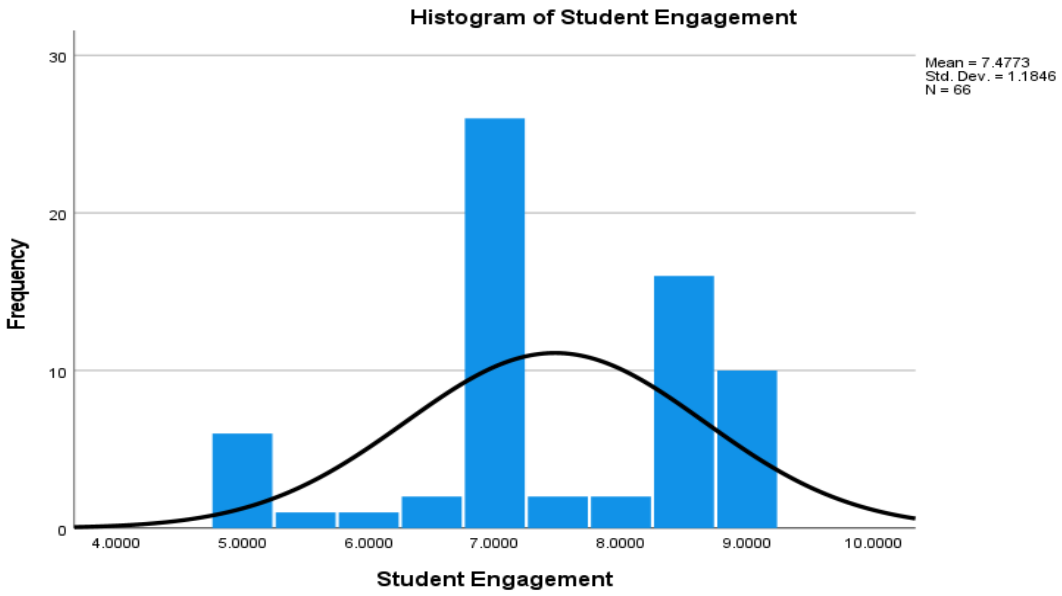
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Instructional Strategies	.290	66	.000	.780	66	.000

Note. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The results of a histogram of student engagement of teacher self-efficacy confirm the assumption of normality was met in Figure 8. Warner (2013) described a normal distribution as one where a normal bell curve was observed.

Figure 8

Histogram Student Engagement



A test of Normality was conducted using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov analysis of the student engagement subscale of the TSES. According to Warner (2103), a normality test that has a *p*-value less than .001, as seen in Figure 12, does not meet the requirements for the assumption of normality.

Table 12

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Student Engagement Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Classroom Management	0.254	66	0	0.815	66	0

Note. Lilliefors Significance Correction

After an analysis of the scatterplot and histogram for each pair of variables (overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction, classroom management and job satisfaction, instructional strategies and job satisfaction, and student engagement and job satisfaction), it was determined the data were not normal for any of the pairings. According to Warner (2013), even when a data set was deemed not normal, a Pearson product-moment correlational analysis was often chosen over a Spearman correlational analysis when the data were derived from an interval scale. The data collected in this study were primarily extrapolated from surveys using questions with Likert-scale type responses. Therefore, a Pearson product-moment correlational analysis was conducted on each set of variables to determine if a relationship existed between each pair and the strength of said relationship.

Null Hypothesis One

Overall teacher's self-efficacy and job satisfaction were critical components of a teacher's commitment to remain in education. However, for the select few who taught special education juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development campuses, the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction were the guiding principles by which these teachers survive. Determining there is not a statistically significant relationship between overall teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction of special education teachers of JOWD withing youth development centers was one of this research study's foci. Through a series of charting, calculating and analyzing data, statistical values and assumptions were made and inferred.

The Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to ascertain the potential existence of a relationship between variables, as well as the strength and direction of that relationship. According to Warner (2013), the values of correlation range from -1 to +1 and a score of -1 or +1 indicate perfect correlation, either positively or negatively. A correlation value

of 0 signifies no relationship was present between the tested variables. Sixty-six participants were surveyed via both the Job Satisfaction Survey and the Self Efficacy Survey. Table 13 displayed the outcomes of the Pearson analysis of Job Satisfaction in relation to Overall Teacher Self-Efficacy. The analysis resulted in a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.519$. The correlation coefficient of .519 indicated a medium relationship was present between job satisfaction and teacher self-efficacy (Warner, 2013). Also, the size effect was calculated using η^2 (.269) which confirmed a strong relationship between the variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 13

Pearson Product-Moment Analysis for Job Satisfaction and Overall Teacher Self-Efficacy

		TSES Composite	JSS Composite Score
TSES Composite	Pearson Correlation	1	.519**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		< .001
	N	66	66
JSS Composite Score	Pearson Correlation	.519**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001	
	N	66	66

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Null Hypothesis Two

Determining there was no statistically significant relationship between classroom management, as measured by the classroom management subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers was the second foci of this research study. An analysis of the data collected through a series of charts, tests and outcomes,

the research determined if a statistically significant relationship existed between classroom management and job satisfaction for this specific and specialized group of teachers.

The Pearson product-moment analysis was utilized to determine the potential existence of a relationship between classroom management and job satisfaction (Gall et al., 2007). Classroom management was a subscale of the TSES. Each participant answered all the Likert-scaled survey questions (N = 66). The alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was applied as well (Warner, 2013). Table 14 displayed the outcomes of the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis of Classroom Management in relation to Overall Job Satisfaction. The analysis resulted in a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.487$. This indicated a weak to medium relationship existed between the two variables (Warner, 2013). The effect size was also calculated for this pair using the η^2 formula (.237). It also confirmed the weak to medium relationship between classroom management and job satisfaction. Therefore, null hypothesis two was rejected.

Table 14

Pearson Product-Moment Analysis for Overall Job Satisfaction and Classroom Management Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

		Classroom Management	JSS Composite Score
Classroom Management	Pearson Correlation	1	.487**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		< .001
	N	66	66
JSS Composite Score	Pearson Correlation	.487**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001	
	N	66	66

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Null Hypothesis Three

Determining there was no statistically significant relationship between instructional strategies, as measured by the instructional strategies' subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers was also another area of focus in this research study. An analysis of the results of data processed through a series of charts, formulas, tests was used to verify if no statistically significant relationship existed between instructional strategies and job satisfaction among special education teachers of JOWD educated within youth development campuses. However, if a relationship between these two variables was revealed, the strength of said relationship would have also been reported.

The Pearson product-moment analysis was conducted to determine the potential existence of a relationship between instructional strategies and job satisfaction (Gall et al., 2007). Instructional Strategies was a subscale of the TSES. Each participant answered each of the Likert-scaled survey questions ($N = 66$). The alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was also applied (Warner, 2013). Table 15 displayed the outcomes of the Pearson product-moment analysis of Instructional Strategies in relation to Overall Job Satisfaction. The analysis resulted in a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.585$. Though the correlation coefficient indicated a medium relationship present between the instructional strategies and job satisfaction, it was slightly higher than either the Classroom Management or Student Engagement relationships (Warner, 2013). An η^2 calculation was performed to determine effect size (.342) this further confirmed the medium relationship between instructional strategies and job satisfaction. Therefore, null hypothesis three was rejected.

Table 15

Pearson Product-Moment Analysis for Overall Job Satisfaction and Instructional Strategies Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

		Instructional Strategies	JSS Composite Score
Instructional Strategies	Pearson Correlation	1	.585**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		< .001
	N	66	66
JSS Composite Score	Pearson Correlation	.585**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001	
	N	66	66

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Null Hypothesis Four

The last area of focus of this study was to determine if no statistically significant relationship between student engagement, as measured by the student engagement subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, among special education teachers who served JOWD within youth development centers existed. Collected data from Likert-type scaled surveys were used to plot, chart, table, and analyze the results in order to show if a relationship was even present and if one existed, what was the level of significance between the variables.

The Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to determine the potential existence of a relationship between the variables Student Engagement and Job Satisfaction (Gall et al., 2007). Like Classroom Management and Instructional Strategies, Student Engagement was a subscale of the TSES. Each participant answered all 12 of the Likert-scaled survey questions (N = 66). The alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was applied for this analysis (Warner, 2013). Table 16 displayed the outcomes of the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis of the Student

Engagement in relation to Job Satisfaction. The analysis resulted in a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.474$. Though the correlation of $r = 0.474$ indicated a weak-to-medium relationship between the two variables, the relationship is considered significant (Warner, 2013). The calculation of the effect size using the η^2 formula (.225) further confirmed the medium relationship present between student engagement and job satisfaction. Therefore, null hypothesis four was rejected.

Table 16

Pearson Product-Moment Analysis for Overall Job Satisfaction and Student Engagement Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

		Student Engagement	JSS Composite Score
Student Engagement	Pearson Correlation	1	.474**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		< .001
	N	66	66
JSS Composite Score	Pearson Correlation	.474**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001	
	N	66	66

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Summary of Results

This quantitative study explored the four research hypotheses. A scatterplot was constructed to determine linearity. The assumption of normality was assessed via a Kolmogorov-Smirnov analysis and histograms. Once normality was established, the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted to measure the strength and directionality of each relationship (Warner, 2013). The Pearson product-moment analysis was conducted on each pair of variables (overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction, classroom management and job

satisfaction, instructional strategies and job satisfaction, and student engagement and job satisfaction). Along with the strength of the relationship of each pair of variables, the effect size) (η^2) was calculated, and directionality of each pair determined.

The results for each of the pairs of variables indicated relationships exist. For the variable pair *overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction*, it was determined there was a bivariate normal distribution and positive linearity, however, even though the assumption of normality was not met, a medium relationship existed, and a strong effect size was present. The variable pair of *classroom management and job satisfaction* was found to produce a bivariate normal distribution with positive linearity, no assumption of normality, a weak to medium relationship and a medium effect size. With the variable pair of *instructional strategies and job satisfaction*, a bivariate normal distribution was found, along with a positive linearity, however, even though the assumption of normality was not met, the results indicated a medium relationship with a medium effect size was present. For the last pair, *student engagement and job satisfaction*, a bivariate normal distribution was revealed with a positive linearity, with a medium relationship and medium effect size, but the assumption of normality was not met. The null hypothesis was rejected for each pair of variables.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. This study aims to add to the existing body of research that seeks to understand the relationship between special education teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction amongst teachers who teach JOWD in the youth development center setting and to provide state departments of juvenile justice with information to guide education reform in the areas of teacher recruitment and retention, curriculum, and educational programming for JOWD. This chapter includes a discussion of the results, including the answers to the study's research questions, followed by the implications of the study's findings, the limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers serving JOWD within youth development centers. A series of Pearson product-moment correlation analyses were conducted to analyze the relationships among the independent variables of overall teacher self-efficacy, student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management and the dependent variable of job satisfaction. The dependent variable was measured via the study participants' Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) responses. Independent variable data were obtained from the study participants' responses on the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The TSES produced an overall composite score which determines overall teacher self-efficacy. The TSES also yielded data for the additional independent variables of student engagement,

instructional strategies, and classroom management. The target population for the study included (N = 66) special education teachers who provided services to juvenile offenders with disabilities (JOWD) in a youth development center in the state of Georgia. Study participants were selected using a convenience sampling method. A histogram test was completed to affirm normality for the dependent variable of job satisfaction. However, the assumptions were not satisfied. According to Warner (2013), when normality is not confirmed, a non-parametric analytical tool must be completed on the study's null hypothesis to determine if the error influenced the significance of the relationships among the variables. When a data set is deemed not normal, a Pearson product-moment analysis is often chosen over a Spearman rank correlation when the data were derived from an interval-type scale, such as the Likert-type surveys administered in this study (Warner, 2013). Therefore, a series of Pearson product-moment correlation analyses were conducted to analyze the relationships between the variables of study.

Based on the findings of the current study and previous literature, teachers who experience significant self-efficacy substantially influence student achievement (Zee et al., 2016). Their confidence in their own ability to effectively utilize researched-based instructional strategies to promote student learning by engaging students in active learning. They also provide students with a well-managed learning environment leading to greater job satisfaction as they perceive the daily demands of their teaching duties and responsibilities as less overwhelming than those who possess significantly less self-efficacy (Vadahi & Lesha, 2016).

Zee et al. (2016) concluded that teachers demonstrating greater self-efficacy feel more devoted to teaching. They may experience less stress, fewer feelings of burnout, and experience higher levels of success than teachers exhibiting low self-efficacy. Thus, teachers demonstrating

high self-efficacy principles, especially those that expand outside the instructional realm, tend to remain enthused, satisfied, and engaged in the profession (Zee et al., 2016).

According to Garrett (2015), when teachers cannot implement classroom management strategies preventing students from being removed from the learning environment, students' academic progress suffers due to students missing subject matter content. Therefore, teachers with strong classroom management self-efficacy produce greater positive academic outcomes for their students, especially young offenders with disabilities (Hochweber et al., 2014). When teachers experience an enhanced sense of self-efficacy, they are more willing to implement innovative instructional strategies in the classroom (Dixon et al., 2014). Neve et al. (2015) asserted as the level of professional development and training in differentiated instruction increased, the more a teacher's instructional self-efficacy increased. Classroom management skills and innovative instructional strategies are important for any teacher but for teaching juvenile offenders with disabilities, it is paramount for these students to be successful in a regular classroom setting. Only those teachers with strong classroom management skills and innovative teaching methods will thrive in this environment, which ultimately leads to increased student achievement (Murphy, 2018).

Several research studies have indicated teacher self-efficacy is an essential factor influencing job satisfaction (Alessandri et al., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). According to the U.S. Department of Juvenile Justice (2015), for JOWD detained in youth development centers to experience successful transition outcomes upon release, they must receive quality educational services while incarcerated. However, to provide high-quality educational services to incarcerated students, recruiting and retaining a quality teaching staff (Houchins et al., 2017). Therefore, it is imperative to investigate factors

influencing teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers of JOWD within youth development centers.

The results of this study support previous research as to the importance of the relationship of teacher self-efficacy to every other relationship in the classroom (i.e., job satisfaction, innovative instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement) (Dixon et al., 2014; Alessandri et al., 2015; Valdahi & Lesha, 2016). Each of these areas is critical to overall job satisfaction for all teachers, not just those teaching JOWD in youth development centers (Warner, 2013). Zee et al. (2016) described teachers with greater self-efficacy feeling more devoted to their jobs, which is also supported with the results of this study by the significant relationship found between teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction. This study shows that a significant relationship does exist between self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction and according to Hochweber et al. (2014) these components are necessary for increased student achievement. Increased student achievement is or should be the goal for every school, administrator and teacher (Hochweber et al, 2014).

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a relationship between *overall teacher self-efficacy* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and *job satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

The results of the Pearson product-moment analysis indicated a weak-to-medium positive relationship linear relationship existed, demonstrating that as overall teacher self-efficacy increases, the level of job satisfaction increases. Vadahi and Lesha (2016) found teachers who possess higher self-efficacy levels also present with a higher level of job satisfaction, as they

perceive the daily demands of their teaching duties and responsibilities as less overwhelming than those who possess lower levels of teacher self-efficacy (Vadahi & Lesha, 2016). Zee et al. (2016) concluded teachers demonstrating high self-efficacy feel more devoted to teaching. These teachers may experience less stress, fewer feelings of burnout, and experience higher levels of success than teachers exhibiting low self-efficacy. Thus, teachers demonstrating high self-efficacy principles, especially those expanding outside the instructional realm, tend to remain enthused, satisfied, and engaged in the profession (Zee et al., 2016). The results of this study are consistent with this research. As overall teacher self-efficacy increases, the level of job satisfaction also increases (Zee et al., 2016). For teachers teaching JOWD, this is even more significant because these students usually exhibit the most aggressive and violent behaviors, are typically uninterested in education, and usually have the highest failure rates of juvenile offenders (Murphy, 2018). It is paramount these teachers of JOWD be the most creative, use the best classroom management skills, and include innovative methods to engage these group of students, to give these students any chance of becoming successful students. For most JOWD educated in youth development campuses, these educational programs are their very last hope of becoming successful students (Murphy, 2018). Therefore, maintaining high self-efficacy and job satisfaction are the catalysts by which these students becoming is often ignited.

RQ2: Is there a relationship between class*room management as* measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and *job satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

The results of the Pearson product-moment analysis indicated a medium, statistically significant linear relationship was found between classroom management and job satisfaction. This further confirmed Vadahi and Lesha's (2006) study reporting as teacher self-efficacy of

classroom management increases, the level of job satisfaction increases. The correlation between teacher self-efficacy in classroom management and job satisfaction was previously researched highlighting low self-efficacy in classroom management being negatively correlated to teacher burnout (Ruble et al., 2016). According to Roaa and Bruce (2015), teachers who experience greater levels of classroom management self-efficacy tend to remain in their professions longer. Teacher self-efficacy in classroom management supports an individual's self-assurance in recognizing the deficits within their classroom and addressing these deficits to improve student educational outcomes. Aloe et al. (2015) found that teachers who possess significant levels of classroom management self-efficacy will experience fewer feelings associated with burnout and experience a greater level of job satisfaction. Dicke et al. (2014) concurred, reporting teachers with below-average efficacy for classroom management are more susceptible to feeling emotionally enervated and less interested in their profession than teachers with greater efficacy and classroom management. As overall teacher self-efficacy increases; teachers' level of job satisfaction also increases (Zee et al., 2016).

For teachers of JOWD within youth development campuses, managing classroom behaviors and imploring the innovative classroom management skills will be the difference between success and just presenting concepts to this specific group of students (Zee et al., 2016). For these students to find success in this environment, the teacher must use any and every resource and skill available to entice and motivate these students to participate and take ownership of their own learning (Dickie et al., 2014). Along with increasing students' motivation and desire to learn through the implementation of innovative classroom management, comes an increase of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Zee et al., 2016). This cyclic progression is contagious for not only students but for other staff as well (Vadahi & Lesha, 2016).

RQ3: Is there a relationship between *instructional strategies* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and job *satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

The results of the Pearson product-moment analysis indicate a medium statistically significant linear relationship existed between instructional strategies and job satisfaction. This study confirms as innovated instructional strategies increases, the level of job satisfaction increases as previously indicated by Woo and Ashari (2019). Although the correlation between instruction teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction was found to be of medium strength, it was slightly more significant than either the Classroom Management or Student Engagement relationships (Warner, 2013). Woo and Ashari (2019) found teachers who possess greater instructional teacher self-efficacy levels also present with a more substantive level of job satisfaction, and they employ innovative learning instructional strategies and utilize these learning strategies effectively in the classroom to meet the needs of all students and increase student academic achievement. Zee et al. (2016) concluded teachers demonstrating high instructional teacher self-efficacy feel more devoted to teaching. These teachers may experience less stress, fewer feelings of burnout, and experience higher levels of success than teachers exhibiting low instructional teacher self-efficacy. Consequently, teachers demonstrating high instructional teacher self-efficacy characteristics tend to remain enthused, satisfied, and engaged in the profession (Zee et al., 2016). The results of this student are consistent with this research. As overall teacher instructional teacher self-efficacy increases; their level of job satisfaction also increases.

For teachers of JOWD within youth development campuses, the use of innovative instructional strategies is critical to the successes of students within a classroom (Zee et al.,

2016). For the students with disabilities educated within youth development campuses to find success, the teacher must use any and every resource and skill available to entice and motivate these students to participate in educational activities and take ownership of their own learning (Dickie et al., 2014). Along with successfully using innovative instructional strategies, comes an increase of student participation in learning and ultimately and increase in student achievement which in turn increases teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Zee et al., 2016).

RQ4: Is there a relationship between *student engagement* as measured by The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and *job satisfaction* as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey in special education teachers serving juvenile offenders within youth development centers?

The results of the Pearson product-moment analysis indicate a medium statistically significant linear relationship existed between student engagement and job satisfaction. This study confirms as student engagement increases, the level of job satisfaction increases as previously reported by Woo and Ashari (2019). The relationship between student engagement and teacher self-efficacy is extremely important and should be a curricular topic of interest in teacher-education institutions. Van Uden et al. (2016) suggested student engagement a critical component of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction because when students are engaged, they are learning. Juuti et al. (2018) noted that teachers who demonstrate a greater level of self-efficacy in student engagement could develop learning confidence in their students. They are also able to teach, expound on the course content, and engage students in the learning process (Juuti et al., 2018). According to Yoo (2016), teacher self-efficacy in student engagement is a significant factor pertaining to whether students experience positive educational outcomes. Roaa and Bruce (2015) found that when teachers believe they can engage and empower students in the classroom, they experience more significant levels of job satisfaction as the essential job

requirement of teachers is to develop the students' skills. Therefore, it is vital that teachers engage their students during instructional time.

For teachers of JOWD within youth development campuses, student engagement is critical to the successes of students within a classroom (Bobis et al., 2016). For the students with disabilities educated within youth development campuses to experience success, the teacher must use any and every resource and skill available to entice and motivate these students to participate in educational activities and take ownership of their own learning (Dickie et al., 2014). Along with increasing students' engagement, comes an increase of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction and with an increase in teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction comes an increase in the likelihood of student engagement (Bobis et al., 2016).

Implications

Previous research demonstrated teachers who display a greater level of self-efficacy also possess excellent classroom management skills and can effectively engage all students using meaningful instructional strategies (Shoulders & Keri, 2015; Zee & Koomen, 2016). According to Wolff et al. (2015), teachers who exhibit substantial self-efficacy are organized, employ excellent classroom management and instructional skills, and engage and motivate all students. Demonstrating a significant level of self-efficacy is also beneficial to teachers because these teachers are often willing to embrace new, innovative instructional strategies to engage students and are often well-organized and goal-oriented (Demirdag, 2015). In addition, teacher self-efficacy significantly affects job satisfaction, according to Caprara et al. (2006). Researchers found that teachers who demonstrate a high level of self-efficacy also experience a greater rate of job satisfaction, which leads to better academic outcomes for their students.

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a statistical relationship between teacher efficacy and overall job satisfaction for teachers of JWOD students. The research questions framed an investigation design to ascertain the potential existence of relationships between teacher's efficacy and job satisfaction and the significance, direction, and strength of those relationships for teachers of JWOD students. The theoretical framework for this study was designed around Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1977). The cornerstones of his theory included attitudes, self-efficacy, and influence on others as related to human behavior. Each of these factors is critical to the effectiveness of teachers within the classroom setting. The results of this study indicated a statistically significant linear relationships between overall teacher self-efficacy, classroom management, instructional strategies and student engagement compared to job satisfaction. Based on the results of the Pearson product-moment analysis of showing a statistical significance for each pair of variables, the researcher rejected each of the four hypotheses presented in this study.

The 66 teachers who teach JOWD reported feeling moderately satisfied to very satisfied in their current jobs, as evident by the mean job satisfaction composite score of 5.22. This above-average job satisfaction rating produces far-reaching implications. According to Judge et al. (2015), satisfied teachers, like other employees, experience higher retention rates, enjoys increased productivity, and are less likely to leave their positions. Higher job satisfaction also leads to more loyalty, more energetic teachers, and greater teamwork (Judge et al., 2015). Lastly, higher job satisfaction leads to greater competency, less absenteeism, and better work production (Judge et al., 2015). Each of these areas is critical to a teacher's job performance, ultimately leading to better lessons, greater student engagement, and improved implementation of instructional strategies. Juvenile offenders with disabilities need all those critical characteristics

in a teacher and more to maintain engagement, motivation, and excitement about learning, especially in a secure setting in order to successfully participate in the educational processes because they are accustomed to being entertained (i.e., social media and video games) as reported by Bobis et al. (2016). The need for extrinsic motivation and entertainment within the classroom has become a requirement for most students (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) reported this trend will continue exponentially due to the increase in video games, use of multiple social platforms, and excessive visual stimulation through multiple media thus effecting how teachers present concepts to their respective students.

Juvenile offenders have often been labeled as troublemakers and disregarded as society's delinquents and deviants because of their life choices. The students being educated within the youth development centers have committed every imaginable crime in their communities from probation violation to murder. Many of these offenders will be transferred to the Department of Corrections at age 17 because they have committed one of the seven crimes for which a juvenile can be adjudicated as an adult (armed robbery with firearm, rape, voluntary manslaughter, aggravated sexual battery, aggravated sodomy, aggravated child molestation, and murder) (Murphy, 2018). According to Grimsley (2008), these juveniles feel hopeless and have no interest in education because many are facing up to 20 years in prison. The teachers working in the youth development campuses often reject working for other school districts in order to serve in this environment to make a difference in the life of a child (Murphy, 2018). This environment is one of the most difficult settings in which to teach. However, for most of those choosing to teach in this environment as a career, helping and educating society's most difficult youth must be a passion or a teacher will quickly experience burnout and depression (Murphy, 2018).

According to Grimsley (2008), JOWD often lack motivation and interest and see no relevance of education to their future endeavors. Therefore, JOWD who are educated in the youth development campuses need teachers who are motivated, excited about teaching and learning, creative with their lesson planning, and authentically engage, motivate, and teach juvenile offenders with previous failures in school exacerbated by presenting with specific educational disabilities (OJJDP, 2015). South Carolina Department of Juvenile Justice (2020) described this need as a top priority for their department every year when planning for professional development for their special education teachers. The Georgia Department of Education (2020) reiterated the need for continued professional development specifically for teachers of those students with special needs to improve teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

The most common disabilities seen within the youth development campuses include intellectual disabilities, other health impaired, emotional and behavior disorder, specific learning disabilities, and speech-language impairments (Florida DJJ, 2020; Georgia DJJ, 2020; Murphy, 2018; South Carolina DJJ, 2020). The disability seen most often in juvenile offenders is emotional behavioral disorder (Florida DJJ, 2020; Georgia DJJ, 2020; Kim, et al., 2021; South Carolina DJJ, 2020). These children often also suffer from emotional issues, mental health issues and trauma-related illnesses further interrupting the educational processes (Kim, et al., 2021). Thirty-three percent of students educated in youth development campuses receive some type of special education services (Murphy, 2018). This percentage is even higher among the facilities serving males (Florida DJJ, 2020; Georgia DJJ, 2020; Murphy, 2018; South Carolina DJJ, 2020).

Special education teachers working in youth development campus facilities need ongoing professional development in the areas of instructional strategies, classroom management, and

student engagement, leading to increased overall teacher self-efficacy and increased job satisfaction in order to understand the educational needs of juvenile offenders with disabilities (Cruise, et al., 2011; Georgia DJJ, 2020, Suitts et al., 2014). Cruise et al. (2011), along with Leone and Wruble (2015) and Florida DJJ (2020), all concurred teachers of JOWD should receive continuous job-embedded, data-driven professional development in order to meet the unique and special needs of an even greater specialized population of juvenile offenders. These scholars described the need for increased teacher self-efficacy among these educators, as well (Cruise et al., 2011; Georgia DJJ, 2020; Leone & Wruble, 2015). The results of this study further corroborated the studies conducted by Copp and Bales (2018) and Kiel et al. (2016), in the discovery of a relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction and providing professional development to enhance these and other relationships is key to long-term teacher retention and job satisfaction. Researching the relationships between overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction, classroom management and job satisfaction, instructional strategies and job satisfaction, and student engagement and job satisfaction has added to the existing body of research through establishing the relationship between special education teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction amongst teachers who teach JOWD in the youth development center setting exists, as well as providing state departments of juvenile justice with information to guide educational reform in the areas of teacher recruitment and retention, curriculum, and educational programming for JOWD which has an direct effect on improving student achievement.

Limitations

The focus of this study served as a limitation, as the results only apply to special education teachers who serve juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development centers. This study's sample size was also a limitation even though a sample size of at least 66

participants ensured a 95% chance of detecting a correlation between special education teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in youth development centers (Gall, et al., 2015). A larger sample size would have increased the statistical significance of the analysis because a larger sample size would indicate a stronger representation of the population. Therefore, the mean of a larger sample size would allow for easier detection of outliers or data that significantly differ from the mean values (Gall et al., 2015).

Another limitation of this study concerned the use of the Pearson product-moment analysis when a non-parametric analysis, Spearman analysis, is usually conducted. However, an analysis of the scatterplot and histogram for each pair of variables (overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction, classroom management and job satisfaction, instructional strategies and job satisfaction, and student engagement and job satisfaction), was completed and the data distribution was deemed not normal for any of the pairings (Kothari, 2021). Even when a data set is deemed not normal, a Pearson product-moment correlational analysis is often selected rather than a Spearman rank correlational analysis when the data were derived from an interval-type scale (i.e., a Likert-scaled survey) (Warner, 2013). Since the data came from a Likert-scaled type of survey questionnaire, a Pearson product-moment correlational analysis was conducted on each set of variables to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed and the strength of said relationship for each pair studied (overall teacher self-efficacy and overall job satisfaction, classroom management and job satisfaction, instructional strategies and job satisfaction, and student engagement and job satisfaction).

The geographic region represented in this study limits its scope. The nature of juvenile offenders in Georgia may not be the same as juvenile defenders of varying races and ethnicities in other locations in the nation or world. Though inferences can be made from the results of this

study to other states, this study is specific to a small, specialized group of special education teachers teaching JOWD in one particular part of a state juvnenile justice department. However, according to Cruise et al. (2011) and Leone and Wruble (2015) inferences are often made from state to state with juvenile offenders due to the lack of research, studies, and information available specific to juvenile offenders and more specific juvenile offenders with disabilities.

The validity of the instruments applied for any research project is a concern and should be addressed. For the purpose of this study, two Likert-scale survey instruments were administered to gather data: The Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy survey (TSES) created by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) along with the Job Satisfaction Survey created by Spector (1985). Each of these surveys' validities was reported in Tables 1 and 2, respectively, in reference to Cronbach's alpha internal reliability measure (Gall et al., 2007; Pepe et al., 2007). For the TSES, the internal reliability measures were reported as r = .94 for overall score, r = .87 for classroom management, . r = 91 for instructional strategies, and r = .90 for student engagement (Li & Huang, 2017; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). According to Spector (1997) an alpha score of $r = 0.70$ is considered to be the minimum standard for internal consistency. However, the validity of the JSS was established by measuring the discriminant and convergent validities amongst the JSS and the Job Descriptive Index; the correlations were moderate to strong resulting above r = 0.60 (Spector, 1985). Only the overall measure of r = .91 Cronbach's alpha internal reliability measure was relevant because only the JSS overall mean was applied for correlation comparison.

According to Gall (2015), Li and Huang (2017), and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), it is the researcher's responsibility to address the possible limitations and weaknesses of a

research study. For the purpose of this study, the sample size, types of analyses conducted, the region of the student and the validity and reliability of this study were recognized and justified. Acknowledging and discussing the limitations and weaknesses of a study help reduce the effects of these limitations on a study (Creswell, 2012; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gall, 2007).

Recommendations for Future Research

After reviewing the results of this study, there are several recommendations that could be employed to improve this research. The first recommendation would be to include all teachers of juvenile offenders, both general education and special education, educated within secure facilities. Secondly, conducting a correlational study across demographic factors to determine if there are statistical differences in job satisfaction and self-efficacy within the factors of gender, ethnicity, and years of teaching experience is critical to the body of knowledge, specifically for special education teachers teaching JOWD. Thirdly, due to the difficulty of quantifying behaviors and feelings, a mixed-methods study, which includes both qualitative and quantitative data, could lead to a better understanding of the teacher's self-efficacy and job satisfaction resulting from teacher interviews, case studies, and focus groups to obtain and justify the results in order to give justifications for some of the results found in presenting quantitative data alone (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Another area of future study needs to be overall teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy in relation to the retention and attrition among teachers working in secure environments to discover why special education teachers of juvenile offenders leave and or remain in their jobs. Replicating this study with a larger sample size could further provide insight into the job satisfaction and teacher efficacy for all teachers of juvenile offenders is necessary in order to make inferences and generalizations across the entire region. The final recommendation would be to investigate the effects of the school level and regional level

administrators on the local special education teacher's self-efficacy and job satisfaction as compared to teachers in other school settings throughout the region to determine if there are any correlations specific to regular education or special education teachers compared to those teachers of all juveniles statewide. Each of these recommended areas of future study would help administrators and educators develop programs and processes encourage teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction for not just regionally, but nationally as well.

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Appendix A

March 10, 2021

[redacted]

You have my permission to use the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (formerly called the Ohio State Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale), which I developed with [redacted]

Please use the following as the proper citation:

[redacted]

I will also attach directions you can follow to access my password protected web site, where you can find the supporting references for this measure as well as other articles I have written on this and related topics.

All the best,

[redacted]

P.O. Box 8795 • Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795 • (757) 221-2187 • mxtsch@wm.edu

Appendix B

Appendix C

[redacted]

May 19, 2021

[redacted]

Re: IRB Exemption - IRB-FY20-21-680 SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND JOB SATISFACTION IN YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTERS: A QUANTITATIVE CORRELATIONAL STUDY

[redacted]:

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

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

Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).
The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your stamped consent form(s) and final versions of your study documents can be found under the Attachments tab within the Submission Details section of your study on Cayuse IRB. Your stamped consent form(s) should be copied and used to gain the consent of your research participants. If you plan to provide your consent information electronically, the contents of the attached consent document(s) should be made available without alteration.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at [redacted]

[redacted]

Appendix D

July 28, 2021

[redacted]

[redacted]

Congratulations on the approval of your research request and thank you for collaborating with the [redacted] We understand the study entitled *Special Education Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction in Youth Development Centers* will survey teachers to identify classroom management and student engagement strategies and identify teacher job satisfaction factors like benefits and conditions.

[redacted] has reviewed your submission and recommends approval as proposed. Any modifications to the research plan or protocol will require another review by the Committee. A copy of this letter and your protocol will be provided to the [redacted] they are expecting to hear from you. Please provide a .pdf formatted brochure with your introduction, contact information, and any relevant websites or links that our Superintendent can send to potential participants.

This letter serves as an official authorization for you to proceed with your research with the following stipulations:

(1) You adhere to the procedures outlined in your research protocol.
(2) You provide the [redacted] with a copy of your completed study and associated research papers prior to publication.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [redacted].

Sincerely,

[redacted]

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER

Appendix E

March 12, 2021

[redacted]

[redacted]

As a graduate student in the [redacted], I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. I am conducting research to better understand teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in special education teachers who provide services to juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development centers. The title of my research project is Special Education Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction in Youth Development Centers, and the purpose of my research is to determine if a correlation exists between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among special education teachers who provide services to juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development centers.

I am writing to request your permission to contact all special education teachers who provide educational services to juvenile offenders with disabilities within the [redacted] 25 youth development center schools located throughout the state of [redacted] to invite them to participate in my research study.

Participants will receive an email and be asked to click on the link provided and complete an anonymous survey. Participants will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please provide a signed statement on official letterhead indicating your approval.

[redacted]

[redacted]

Appendix F

Consent

Title of the Project: Special Education Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction in Youth Development Centers: A Quantitative Correlational Study

Principal Investigator: [redacted]

Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. In order to participate, you must be at least 18 years of age and currently employed as a special education teacher at a youth development center with the [redacted]. Taking part in this research project is voluntary.

Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research project.

What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, how a teacher views herself or himself, and job satisfaction among special education teachers who provide services to juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development center schools within the [redacted].

What will happen if you take part in this study?

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

1. Complete the 12 question Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSES) short form. It is estimated that this will take roughly 5 minutes to complete.

2. Complete the 18 question Job Satisfaction Survey. It is estimated that this will take roughly 7-8 minutes to complete.

How could you or others benefit from this study?

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

Benefits to society include enhancing the body of research in teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

What risks might you experience from being in this study?

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

How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous.
- 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.

How will you be compensated for being part of the study?

Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Is study participation voluntary?

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or the [redacted]
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.

What should you do if you decide 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.

Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?

The researcher conducting this study is [redacted]. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at [redacted] You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, [redacted]

Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?

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 [redacted].

Your Consent

Before agreeing to be part of the research, please be sure that you understand what the study is about. You can print a copy of the document for your records. If you have any questions about the study later, you can contact the researcher using the information provided above.

Appendix G

Good Morning,

As a graduate student in the [redacted], I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, how a teacher views herself or himself, and job satisfaction among special education teachers who provide services to juvenile offenders with disabilities in youth development center schools located within the [redacted] and I am writing to invite eligible participants to join my study. Participants must be currently employed as a special education teacher at a youth development center school within the [redacted]. Participants, if willing, will be asked to do the following:

1. Complete the 12 question Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSES) short form. It is estimated that this will take roughly 5 minutes to complete.

2. Complete the 18 question Job Satisfaction Survey. It is estimated that this will take roughly 7-8 minutes to complete.

To participate, please click the following link: Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.
A consent document is provided as the first page of the survey. The consent document contains additional information about my research, but you will not need to sign it. After you have read the consent form, please click the link to proceed to the survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to participate in the survey.
Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

[redacted]