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**A Quantitative Analysis of the Factors Associated with Teacher Attitudes and
Perceptions towards Job Satisfaction**

By

Shelby L. Cunningham

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education
Seton Hall University

2015

SETON HALL UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND HUMAN SERVICES
OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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APPROVAL FOR SUCCESSFUL DEFENSE

Doctoral Candidate, **Shelby Lynn Cunningham**, has successfully defended and made the required modifications to the text of the doctoral dissertation for the **Ed.D.** during this **Spring Semester 2015**.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify and examine the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While taking into consideration other reasons for teacher shortages, this study sought to determine if teacher attitudes and perceptions of organizational and workplace conditions influence job satisfaction.

Data in this study were gathered using the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), administered through the United States Department of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES). The power in using this instrument is that it samples a large number of teachers across the United States, from both public and private schools. This instrument provided a series of Likert-type questions, which gathered information on teacher demand and shortages, teacher and administrative characteristics, school programs, and general conditions in schools. It also collected data on principal and teacher perceptions of school climate, teacher compensation, hiring practices, and basic characteristics of student populations.

In this study, the independent variables of salary, administrative support, student discipline, faculty influence/input, and teacher attitude were examined to see their influence on the dependent variable, teacher job satisfaction. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, were calculated for the key independent and dependent variables. Finally, hierarchical regression analysis was used. Of the independent variables examined, teacher attitudes and perceptions were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction.

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Chapter I

Introduction

The teacher shortage has been on the radar of education advocates, school leaders, researchers, analysts, and policymakers since the early 1980s. Warnings of the possibility of severe shortages of qualified teachers have threatened for a number of years (Ingersoll, 2001). According to the U.S. Department of Education's Teacher Shortage Areas Nationwide Listing report (2013), there has been a teacher shortage of some sort in all states across the country from 1990-1991 through 2015. The National Education Association (2001) maintains attrition, retirement, increased student enrollment, and an emphasis on smaller class size as the main reasons there will be a need for two trillion teachers in the next 11 years. What is even more pressing, and sometimes startling, are the rates at which teachers leave or move within the teaching profession. Hiring and retaining qualified teachers has become a difficult task for schools all across America. According to the findings from Goldring, Taie and Riddles (2014), the results from the U.S. Department of Education 2012-13 Teacher Follow-up Survey indicates that 20% of teachers either moved to another school or left teaching altogether. Chang (2009), states that 25% of beginning teachers leave teaching before their third year. More than one third of new or beginning teachers depart from their teaching jobs within the first 3 years, and more than one third to nearly half depart after 5 years (Billingsley, 2004; Carnegie Forum, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll, 2002; Shann, 1998). The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) reported that half of all teachers leave the profession within 7 years. This rate of teacher turnover appears to be higher in comparison to other professions and occupations (Ingersoll, 2001). It is this rate of turnover, which causes concern for schools and districts as they are challenged with the problem of staffing schools.

During the recent past decades, a variety of explanations have been reported in the literature. There are those who believe that the teacher shortage is due to an increase in student enrollment and an increase in the number of teacher retirements (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Although increases in both student enrollment and teacher retirement contribute to the need for more teachers, the data indicate that the need to hire new teachers is affected by teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). Boe (1996) states that teacher attrition is the largest single factor that determines the need for additional teachers. Teacher turnover, which for the purposes of this study, includes attrition, migration, retirement, termination, and school staffing cutbacks due to layoffs, school closings, and reorganization (Ingersoll, 2001), plays a significant role in what appears to be a seemingly shrinking supply of qualified teachers.

Excessive teacher turnover, no matter the reason, can be quite problematic for schools and districts. Ingersoll (2001) concedes that there are five basic grounds for teacher turnover: family or personal issues, school staffing actions, job dissatisfaction, pursuit of another jobs and retirement. Ingersoll and Rossi (1995) explained: “Although some teacher turnover may be unavoidable, normal, and even beneficial, high rates may indicate underlying problems and can disrupt the effectiveness of the school program” (p. 40). High rates of teacher attrition disrupt program continuity and planning, hinder student learning, and increase school districts’ expenditures on recruiting and hiring (Shen, 1997). As stated by Barnes, Crowe, and Schaefer (2007) and consistent with the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (NCTAF, 2007), such high rates of departure from public schools each year costs the United States in excess of \$7 billion in recruitment, administrative processing and hiring, and professional development and replacement training. Additionally, Barnes et al. assert that

teacher turnover is associated with lower student achievement, and lower teacher and program quality.

This is particularly evident in low-performing, high-poverty schools. Shockley et al. (2005) contend that large numbers of teachers who leave are sapping the ability of educational institutions to provide quality educational opportunities for students. From the perspective of those who manage schools, disproportionate numbers in turnover create undue stress on the school system and contribute to school staffing issues. Ingersoll (2001) purports that staffing problems are due to excess demand, resulting from a “revolving door” where a large number of teachers depart their jobs for reasons other than retirement.

Addressing teacher turnover may be one way to help alleviate problems with school staffing. More specifically, focusing on job satisfaction and (dis)satisfaction may prove to be a vital approach to attracting and retaining quality teachers as factors such as family or personal issues, school staffing actions, and retirement are factors that cannot be controlled or foreseen.

Over time, a variety of reasons reportedly responsible for teacher dissatisfaction have also been reported in the literature. Linda Darling-Hammond (2001) states that teachers cite poor working conditions, lack of support, bureaucracy, weak financial incentives, and growing job demands as reasons for leaving the field. Billingsley, Carlson, and Klein (2004) offer personal reasons such as child rearing, other opportunities, and dissatisfaction with teaching as causes for teachers exiting the profession. Workplace conditions such as administrative support, classroom control, and behavioral climate have been associated with turnover due to job dissatisfaction (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Ingersoll (2001) suggests there are four factors associated with teacher turnover: inadequate support, student discipline, limited faculty input into school decision-making, and low salaries. Weiqi (2007) further supports the claim of a

teacher shortage affected by job satisfaction remarking, “Secondary school teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs as a whole and with dimensions such as the educational system, student quality, leadership and administration, work achievements, working conditions, salaries and welfare, and work stress” (p. 17). The teacher shortage is not an issue exclusive to the United States as Weiqi’s study was completed in China.

Additionally, Kirby and Grissmer (1993) cite the potential shortage as being due to the following reasons: an aging teacher force near retirement, low enrollments in teacher training programs, more attractive professional opportunities for women outside teaching, and teaching conditions that deter the best students from entering and staying in teaching. These conditions include low pay, poor working conditions, and little autonomy over teaching practices.

According to Darling-Hammond (2003), “To reduce high teacher turnover rates that impose heavy costs on schools, we must improve working conditions, insist on effective teacher preparation, and provide support” (p. 6).

In order to combat the high teacher turnover rate and increase retention, an examination of reasons for departure must be further examined. Ingersoll and Smith (2003) recommend that by improving the working conditions for teachers, new teacher turnover rates will be lowered. Speaking for special education teachers, Billingsley (2004) posits that a holistic view of teachers’ work conditions is needed to sustain their commitment to their work. Sargent (2003) stresses that teachers who feel connected and who feel that their work is important and recognized, are more likely to remain as contributing members of the school community. According to Ingersoll (2002), “The data suggest that improvements in several specific aspects of teaching positions would contribute to lower rates of turnover, diminish school staffing problems and ultimately aid

the performance of schools” (p. 28). Therefore, identifying and examining those factors, which hinder teacher retention and those that promote job satisfaction and reduce dissatisfaction are vital in lowering the turnover rate of teachers. In fact, it is recommended that states and districts develop carefully designed policies that will increase both the supply and quality of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003).

A study conducted by Petty, Fitchett, and O’Connor (2012) investigated how to attract and retain teachers in high-needs high schools. Their findings are similar to Joseph and Jackman (2014). Both studies’ results indicated that teachers regard money to be the most significant contributor to teacher retention over respect, recognition for student achievement, and additional resources. In an online survey of one southeastern state’s high school teachers, 59.3 % of respondents considered monetary compensation as the most effective measure to retaining teachers. As stated by Cha and Cohen-Vogel (2011), districts and schools can take actions to improve teacher job satisfaction by “enhancing salaries and the conditions in which teachers work” (p. 371).

In the territories of Trinidad and Tobago where there is a grand total of 13,366 teachers, only 26% are male. Of the 3,475 male teachers, 453 were randomly selected to participate in a study of men who teach and leave, utilizing a survey instrument of 17 items. Of the 453 participants, 81 were excluded because they had reached compulsory retirement, and others were excluded due to missing data. Based on the data of 353 participants, economic and status factors were most important in the male’s decision to exit the profession. In this study of why males choose to leave the teaching profession in search of employment opportunities outside the field of education, Joseph and Jackman (2014) find that, “the desire to explore opportunities for

upward mobility and jobs offering better remuneration” (p. 76) were the two prime reasons that accounted for almost 60% of all the personal reasons given for leaving the profession.

Literature on job satisfaction suggests that having a working relationship with supervisors and colleagues is essential (Adams, 2010). In a qualitative study focused on examining factors that impact teacher retention in North Carolina, McCoy, Wilson-Jones, and Jones (2013) discovered that salary, working conditions, and lack of support are the most commonly cited reasons for exiting the profession. Based on interviews from both beginning and veteran teachers, lack of support from mentors, colleagues, but primarily from school administrators, was a major factor in their decision to leave teaching. In addition to determining why teachers leave, McCoy et al. shared reasons for why teachers stay. They reported that veteran teachers stated that “excellent support from their peers and administrator” (p. 50) during their early years was their reason for remaining in teaching.

When predicting teachers’ job satisfaction and career plans, it is the working conditions, school culture, principal leadership, and relationship among colleagues that predominate (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2011). Johnson, et al. used data from a 2008 MassTeLLS survey that was administered to all Massachusetts teachers to determine what elements of a work environment matter most. What they found in high-minority, high-poverty schools was teachers were more satisfied and planned to stay longer when there was a positive work context. There were nine work context elements measured: colleagues, community, support facilities, governance, principal, professional expertise, resources, school culture, and time. All nine elements had a strong, positive relationship with teacher satisfaction and intent to stay, with principal support coming in after school culture, professional expertise, and colleagues.

In a study of 2569 Norwegian elementary and middle school teachers from 127 schools, relationships between school context variables and teacher job satisfaction as well as the motivation to exit the profession were investigated. Skaalvik and Skaalvic (2011) used a questionnaire to study value consonance (teaching with one's own educational beliefs and values), supervisory support, discipline and student behaviors, relationships with colleagues, relationships with parents, and time pressure. When considering supervisory support, job satisfaction was determined to be positively related. Student discipline and behavior was negatively related to job satisfaction. Additionally, motivation to exit the field of teaching was negatively related to job satisfaction.

In a study investigating teacher attrition and retention in Virginia, Certo and Fox (2002) examine the reasons teachers give for moving from their school division or leaving the profession. With the use of focus groups, 42 teachers were randomly selected to participate. Reasons to remain were generally due to one of three reasons: a commitment to the profession, quality administration, or relationships with colleagues. In regards to reasons why teachers have left their division or the profession altogether, salary and benefits rated number one with external opportunities and building level administration support following. It should also be noted that teachers "wanted more decision-making power in their school" (p. 65).

Ingersoll and May (2011) investigated and compared recruitment and retention rates and trends of minority and white elementary and secondary teachers. Data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-Up Survey (TFS) are analyzed. Six cycles of SASS 1987-88, 1990-91, 1993-94, 1999-00, 2003-04, 2007-08 as well as follow-up surveys are examined. The findings suggest that turnover is lower for both white and minority teachers when there is better principal leadership and administrative support. Findings also suggest that

there are lower levels of turnover when teachers are included in and have influence over school-wide decisions. The same is concluded about teacher autonomy; there is lower turnover with more classroom autonomy.

In a study of 230 secondary school teachers, Weiqi (2007) investigated and analyzed the factors that represent job satisfaction and the effects on Chinese teacher attrition and work enthusiasm. The instrument for this study was developed in two phases. The first phase consisted of 50 secondary teachers responding to an open-ended questionnaire soliciting aspects of work that were satisfactory and unsatisfactory. After being compiled into items, survey questions were formulated from the responses given. Results from this survey indicate that secondary teachers tend to be dissatisfied with all aspects of their job. Areas of general dissatisfaction include administration, work achievements, working conditions, welfare, work stress, social environment, and student quality (Weiqi, 2007). Because job satisfaction is a general attitude arising from the positive or negative feelings an individual has towards work, organizational and workplace characteristics are of importance and do matter.

Statement of the Problem

Several studies in the early 1980s predicted a dramatic teacher shortage due to the increase in the demand for new teachers mostly resulting from two converging demographic trends: an increase in student enrollments and an increase in teacher attrition due to a “graying” teacher workforce (Ingersoll, 2001). The response to this demand was to attempt to increase the supply of available teachers through recruitment initiatives (Ingersoll, 2001). Even with the use of recruitment efforts such as loan forgiveness, alternative certification programs, post-baccalaureate programs, career change programs, signing bonuses, housing assistance, and tuition reimbursement, movement in and out of the teaching profession continues. In the past,

incentives and other recruitment tactics have not solved the teacher staffing problems (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Since these efforts have not worked, it is time to look at more sustainable solutions. While growing student enrollment and retirement numbers have been blamed for the teacher shortage, the teacher questionnaire from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), conducted by the U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics (2003-2004) has provided data on the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions and job satisfaction.

How does teacher attitude and perception impact job satisfaction? If new teachers are dissatisfied with the level of administrative support they receive within the first years of teaching, does this lead to attrition or migration? If teachers are discontent with student discipline and poor school climate are they more inclined to leave? When teachers are allowed limited input or have little decision-making power, does this lead to departure? When teachers earn a poor salary, is this grounds to desert the teaching profession? How do organizational and workplace characteristics contribute to a teacher's decision to stay or leave? Though many studies focus on job satisfaction or the teacher shortage as a result of climbing student enrollments and staff retirements, a smaller number center on the factors associated with teacher attitude and perceptions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2011) study of teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave teaching as well as Weiqi's (2007) study of secondary teacher job satisfaction and the relationship with attrition and work enthusiasm provide insight into what factors influence satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Understanding the reasons for dissatisfaction in the workplace can likely impact decisions made by educational leaders and policymakers. District and school administrators can address this crucial issue by putting measures in place to ensure a competitive

salary, adequate administrative support, support with student discipline, and faculty influence/input with workplace policies and practices.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify, examine, and consider the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job (dis)satisfaction, as turnover can be an end result of dissatisfaction. According to Ingersoll and Smith (2003), “Employee turnover has especially serious consequences in workplaces that require extensive interaction among participants and that depend on commitment, continuity and cohesion among employees” (p. 31). Although raising teacher salaries is one way to contend with satisfaction, concentrating and shedding light on other working conditions identified by new teachers as factors in their decision to leave teaching such as lack of administrative support, poor student discipline, and motivation and lack of participation in decision making may prove to be a more effective approach (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Whereas some research on the teacher shortage has focused on rising numbers in student enrollment and faculty retirements as the cause for the shortage, this study centers on teacher job attitudes and perceptions as they relate to satisfaction and dissatisfaction and takes into account the reasons for dissatisfaction as it is possible that they have had far greater implications than previously thought.

As indicated by the Schools and Staffing Survey and the Teacher Follow-up Survey, job dissatisfaction due to organizational and workplace conditions is said to account for approximately one fourth of all teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2002). Schools are not victims of inevitable demographic trends. Ingersoll (2002) indicates that there is a significant role for the management of schools in the solution to school staffing problems and that enhancing specific characteristics of teaching would contribute to lowering the rates of turnover. Ultimately, school

staffing problems, therefore, are reduced and school performance is better supported (Ingersoll, 2002).

Research Questions

The following questions have been posed as a means to determine teacher attitudes and perceptions of organizational and workplace characteristics as contributors to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

1. To what extent does salary contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
2. To what extent does administrative support contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
3. To what extent does student discipline contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
4. To what extent does faculty influence/input over workplace policies and practices contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
5. What is the influence of teacher attitude of efficacy on job satisfaction?

Significance of Study

With a number of studies pinpointing rising student enrollments and staff retirements as the reason for teacher shortages, examining this possible misdiagnosis and focusing on teacher attitudes and perceptions of job (dis)satisfaction as a bona fide cause may prove to be beneficial to educators and school leaders. Revealing specific facets of school and district organizational and workplace characteristics that teachers find unfavorable and ultimately influence their decision to stay or leave may have implications for policy and practice. The purpose of this study is to illuminate reasons for dissatisfaction and to make recommendations to reduce the level of dissatisfaction among teachers. Reducing dissatisfaction and finding ways to increase

satisfaction may help in the retention of teachers and potentially help school staffing problems while improving continuity of services provided to students.

Limitations and Delimitations

The data for this study originates from the Schools and Staffing Survey developed by the U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics (2003-2004), which is a large national comprehensive database. The data for this study were collected before the study was conceived and therefore relies on specific questions from the NCES Schools and Staffing Survey that best match the research questions posed. Another limitation of this study is that it is strictly quantitative. Additional data may have further enriched this study if personal interviews with teachers were conducted and included. Explicit and unadulterated teacher thoughts and feelings would have provided greater insight into the reasons for job dissatisfaction and possible intent to leave. It is also indistinguishable as to whether the leavers are temporary (those who leave for personal or educational reasons and then return in later years) or are permanent (those who never return) leavers of the education field.

The study includes only data from those teachers who completed the Schools and Staffing Survey in the 2003-2004 school year. However, the data used are from a national database and allows generalizations about teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job (dis)satisfaction. This study does not examine every area of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but focuses on the organizational and workplace characteristics of salary, administrative support, student discipline, and faculty influence/input.

Definition of Terms

1. *Attrition*: a reduction (as in personnel) chiefly as a result of resignation, retirement or death (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1977).
2. *Job satisfaction*: a person's general attitude arising from the positive or negative feelings an individual has toward his or her work.
3. *Leaver*: teacher who leaves the teaching profession between school years (Bobbitt, Faupel, & Burns, 1991, p. 27).
4. *Migration*: to move from one country, place, or locality to another (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1977) In this case, the act of teachers moving to different teaching jobs in other schools (Ingersoll, 2002, p. 18).
5. *Mover*: teacher who moves to a different school between school years (Bobbitt et al., 1991, p. 28).
6. *Private school*: an institution that is not sponsored by government authorities, which serves the individual and the family (James & Levin, 1988, p. 9).
7. *Public school*: an institution, which provides educational services, has one or more teachers to give instruction, is located in one or more buildings, receives public funds as primary support, and is operated by an education agency (Bobbitt et al., 1991, p. 28).
8. *School level*: elementary or secondary level.
9. *School sector*: consists of public or private schools.
10. *School size*: refers to the number of enrolled students.

11. *School staffing*: the ability or inability of schools to adequately staff classrooms with qualified teachers (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 500).
12. *Stayer*: teacher who stayed in the same school between school years (Bobbitt et al., 1991, p. 28).
13. *Teacher*: any full-time or part-time teacher whose school reported that their primary assignment was teaching in any of grades K–12 (Bobbitt et al., 1991, p. 27).
14. *Teacher turnover*: the departure of a teacher from his or her teaching job (Ingersoll, 2002, p. 17).

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

A considerable amount of research on job satisfaction has been performed over the years. In all areas of business, industry, and otherwise, including the field of education, job satisfaction is an important feature and can gauge the social-emotional health of an organization. Although there are other reasons for an employee's decision to leave his or her place of work, dissatisfaction and unhappiness with the workplace is a valid and measureable cause for departure. While specific reasons for job dissatisfaction may vary with each individual, any reason or combination of reasons can lead to teacher turnover. With the advent of the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Followup Survey (TFS) from the National Center of Education Statistics (NCES, 2003-2004) researchers have access to a tool that allows selected insight into teacher thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and perceptions on topics that affect their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in relation to their job.

Chapter II is divided into three sections: Theories Related to Teacher Attitudes, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover; Characteristics Related to Job (Dis)satisfaction and Teacher Turnover; and the Conceptual Framework. Both Theories Related to Teacher Attitudes, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover and Characteristics Related to Job (Dis)satisfaction and Teacher Turnover are further delineated. Theories Related to Teacher Attitudes, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover encompasses the human capital theory, social exchange theory, expectancy-value theory and the two factor theory. Characteristics Related to Job (Dis)satisfaction and Teacher Turnover includes teacher characteristic, school characteristics, organizational and workplace characteristic, job satisfaction and turnover intent. Each section provides an overview of existing literature on each topic.

Theories Related to Teacher Attitude, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover

There are multiple theories and frameworks that have been developed and which espouse and rationalize individuals' perceptions of job satisfaction and their intent to remain or leave their place of work. While these theories may differ in language, they all endeavor to provide a greater utilization of variables that affect teacher job satisfaction and turnover intent. Again, while these theories may be different, they each speak to individuals' beliefs and assessment of their workplace and how satisfied they are in their work environment. Each theory is discussed in further detail.

Human capital theory of occupational choice. The human capital theory of occupational choice provides a framework for understanding an individual's decision to enter, stay in, or leave an occupation. As employed by Grissmer and Kirby (1987), individuals make assessments, both monetary and nonmonetary, of the costs and benefits of entering and staying in a profession. The theory of human capital suggests that the greater amount of knowledge and skills accumulated from years of experience on a job, the lower the probability of attrition (Grissmer & Kirby, 1987). Kirby and Grissmer (1993) contend that there are two types of human capital: generic and specific. Generic capital can be transferred to other occupations relatively easily, while specific capital is relevant to that profession alone. When there is a great amount of specific human capital, the lower the probability of attrition (Shen, 1997).

As it relates to the human capital theory, monetary benefits include the income in the profession, promotion opportunities, and value of benefits, which include pensions and health and life insurance. Nonmonetary benefits include working conditions such as support from peers and administrators, working hours, availability of materials and resources, learning attitudes of

students, parental support, quality of school facilities, classroom autonomy, and participation in school decision making (Kirby & Grissmer, 1993).

Human capital theory allows an individual to evaluate and consider the options of remaining in or departing from a position based on the value of the job. In addition to both monetary and nonmonetary benefits, one must weigh affective experiences. They, too, influence job satisfaction. For those teachers who choose to depart from their jobs because of dissatisfaction, the costs of teaching have outweighed the benefits. Table 1 shows examples of human capital in education.

Table 1

Human Capital Theory of Occupational Choice

Examples of human capital in education

Generic	Specific
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operating a computer • Following safety procedures and measures • Keeping a daily schedule/weekly calendar • Working as part of a team 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesson planning • Teaching/facilitating a lesson on how to factor polynomials • Tabulating student grades • Utilizing school/district software programs

Social exchange theory. Developed to explain the initiation, strengthening, and continued maintenance of interpersonal relationships, social exchange theory provides a potential conceptual foundation for understanding the relationship between an individual and his or her work organization. At the heart of the social exchange theory is the principle of reciprocity, which obligates people to respond positively to favorable treatment from others (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). To further explain the idea of reciprocity, Rousseau's (1990) study of 224 graduating MBA students investigated recently accepted job offers and

beliefs regarding employment obligations. Rousseau found that many employees believed that they and their work organization had reciprocal obligations to one another. She described this as an implicit understanding (psychological contract) between the employee and employer that each will consider the needs and desires of the other when taking actions that affect the other. This psychological contract is a belief regarding reciprocal obligations when the individual believes that they owe the employer specific contributions in return for certain incentives (Rousseau, 1990). The employee therefore internalizes and makes judgments as to whether and to what degree the organization values his or her contribution.

Obligations that employers have to employees and that employees have to employers are viewed as promises or contracts. Table 2 depicts examples of contributions made on behalf of an employer and an employee thereby demonstrating a reciprocal nature.

Table 2

Social Exchange Theory

Promise or contract

Employer	Employee
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High pay • Promotion • Pay based on performance • Training • Long-term job security • Career development • Support with personal problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working extra hours • Loyalty • Volunteering to do non-required tasks • Advance notice if taking a job elsewhere • Willingness to accept a transfer • Refusal to support employer's competitors • Protection of proprietary information • Spending a minimum of 2 years with the organization

Two factor theory. Teacher job satisfaction is motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Frederick Herzberg and colleagues' two-factor theory is based on the grounds that job characteristics that contribute to work satisfaction are different from those associated with dissatisfaction. Herzberg et al., associate the satisfying factors, "motivators," with higher order needs. They associate dissatisfying factors, "hygiene factors," with lower order needs. Satisfying factors that relate to intrinsic aspects of work are achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, and opportunity for advancement. Dissatisfying factors that relate to extrinsic aspects of work are supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, benefits, and job security (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Intrinsic satisfaction may play a role in motivating individuals to enter the teaching field as individuals who enter the profession do so because of the enjoyment and the partiality for working with young people (Perie & Baker, 1997). In a study of Dade County teachers, Lortie (1975) reported that a teacher's major source of work satisfaction came from what he calls psychic rewards. More specifically, teachers reported that knowing that they had reached students and that students had learned was of great importance (Lortie, 1975). It is extrinsic factors (aspects of work), however, that can influence satisfaction and the desire to remain in the teaching field (Perie & Baker, 1997). Table 3 depicts characteristics that contribute to work satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Table 3

*Two Factor Theory***Characteristics that contribute to work satisfaction and dissatisfaction**

Motivators	Hygiene
(Factors leading to satisfaction)	(Factors leading to dissatisfaction)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal achievement • Recognition • Responsibility • Work itself • Opportunity for advancement • Status 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervision • Interpersonal relationships • Working conditions • Salary • Company policies • Administrative practices • Benefits • Job security

Expectancy-Value theory. Expectancy-value as proposed by John Atkinson (1960) identifies achievement motive that is aroused in any achievement-oriented success, as being determined by two tendencies with opposing positions: the tendency to approach success and the tendency to avoid failure. The strength of these tendencies is made up of three components: the motive to approach success, the tendency to approach success or avoid failure (expectancy), and the incentive value of success or failure (anticipated satisfaction/shame).

Eccles, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece, and Midgley (1983) draw on Atkinson's theory as the foundations for the basis of their work with expectancy-value theory. In looking specifically at the value component of the theory, which has been linked to intentions, Eccles et al. describe three subcomponents of task value: attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value. Attainment value relates to how the task bolsters prominent characteristics of one's understanding of themselves. Intrinsic value is associated to the extent with which an individual gets enjoyment from the activities involved with the task. Utility value relates to the degree to which tasks ensure the realization of future goals. Ultimately, cost must be assessed and is

associated to the amount of effort required to complete the task(s). A few years later, Eccles incorporated these four components into a model of educational and occupational choice. Battle and Looney (2014) utilize the expectancy-value theory to study teachers' value of teaching and their intent to remain in teaching. More specifically, expectancy-value theory is applied to teachers to "better understand the positive psychological orientations of teachers who intend to stay in the field of teaching" (p. 370). Battle and Looney explain differences in two areas: the perceived likelihood for success and the personal valuing of specific tasks. Based on their research, Battle and Looney (2014) concluded that "intrinsic attainment (liking and importance) and utility (usefulness) task valuing of teaching were significantly, positively correlated with intentions to remain in teaching, while cost valuing (perceived psychological and financial costs) was negatively associated with those intentions" (p.373).

Characteristics Related to Job (Dis)satisfaction and Teacher Turnover

There are many characteristics that can be associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions, job dissatisfaction, and with a teacher's intent to leave his or her position. While some of these characteristics may attribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, others may not influence a teacher's level of dissatisfaction or decision to leave. Teacher, school, and organizational and workplace characteristics vary from teacher to teacher. Additionally, results from a variety of studies on job dissatisfaction and turnover intent also differ.

Teacher characteristics. While there has been a large amount of research on job turnover related to teacher characteristics, few of those characteristics predict turnover. Demographic variables such as gender and race appear to have little influence on a teacher's level of satisfaction. Age, however, depending on the study, has been determined to be highly influential. Studies by Grissmer and Kirby (1987) and Ingersoll (2001) suggest that a teacher's

age is significant. Both studies indicate that the level of attrition of younger teachers and older teachers is greater than the rates of middle-aged teachers. In regards to gender being associated with turnover, it was found that female teachers are more likely to leave than their male counterparts (Heyns, 1988; Ingersoll, 2001; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Additionally, some studies have suggested that race is associated with attrition, with White teachers being more likely to leave than African American ones (Ingersoll, 2001; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple, & Olsen, 1991).

With respect to content area/subject matter, results from studies conducted vary in findings. Billingsley (2004) reports that beginning special education teachers (those assigned to work with students with disabilities) are sometimes uncertified and unqualified. For various reasons these teachers eventually vacate their positions. She contends that a wide range of factors have been associated with special educators' decisions to leave teaching, including personal reasons. She also asserts that teacher attrition is a major contributor to the shortage problem as these teachers must be replaced. Billingsley (2004) posits that there are four work-related retention-enhancing factors that are important to special education teacher retention: responsive induction programs, deliberate role design, positive work conditions and supports, and professional development opportunities.

Moreover, Ingersoll (2001) found that special education teachers are more likely to depart than other teachers. He also noted that mathematics and science teachers are not more likely to depart than other teachers. Consistent with this finding are the data from Shen's (1997) study. He, too, noted that teacher retention and attrition are not associated with subject matter. Contrary to the findings of Ingersoll (2001) and Shen (1997), Kelly (2004) found that being a science teacher leads to higher level of attrition. As conveyed by Imazeki (2005), teachers in the

areas of mathematics and science have more opportunities and alternatives available to them and therefore do not remain in the field of teaching as long as those in other content areas.

School characteristics. *School size and job satisfaction.* In examining the characteristic of school size as a factor of job satisfaction and possible teacher turnover, studies vary as to whether a relationship exists between school size, job (dis)satisfaction, and turnover intent. Goodlad (1984) reports that less satisfying schools for teachers tend to be larger. In a study of 229 Florida and Georgia secondary physical education teachers, Reese and Johnson (1988) found that teachers who are employed in large schools (the number for large being undetermined), experience more job-related stress than teachers in small schools. More specifically, Reese and Johnson found a difference between schools with 1001– 1500 students and schools with 1501– 2000 students and that an increase in school size of 1500 or more resulted in increased levels of job stress (Reese & Johnson, 1988). Furthermore, it was determined that teacher job satisfaction is adversely affected by high levels of job-related stress (Cruse, 1980).

Ingersoll (2001) found that while more satisfied than their public school counterparts, within the private sector, smaller schools, (those with fewer than 300 students) have substantially higher rates of turnover than do larger schools, (those with more than 600 students). Based on results from the 2004-2005 TFS, Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, and Morton (2007) found that schools with larger numbers of students (500 or more) retained a higher percentage of their teaching staff.

School level and job satisfaction. On average, secondary school teachers leave their positions earlier than elementary teachers. In a study of 16,579 teachers in both Michigan and North Carolina public schools it was found that a relationship exists between a school's level (elementary, middle, or high school) and teacher attrition (Murnane et al., 1991). Shin (1994)

found that elementary school teachers tended to stay in teaching longer than secondary school teachers as secondary teachers are at more risk of leaving teaching across all years of teaching. It can be argued that elementary school teachers do not possess the same level of acquired specific human capital as secondary school teachers and, therefore, may not have the same job opportunities to exit the profession.

Another explanation for this may be that elementary teachers are typically more satisfied with teaching than secondary school teachers (Heyns, 1988). As highlighted in a U. S. Department of Education report, elementary school teachers tend to be more satisfied than secondary school teachers, and high school teachers report lower levels of satisfaction than do their elementary counterparts (Perie & Baker, 1997). Contrary to these studies, Bobbitt, et al. (1991) found that secondary school teachers were more likely to remain in their positions than elementary school teachers.

School sector and job satisfaction. General impressions indicate that public school teachers earn more than private school teachers. According to numerous studies, teachers tend to be more dissatisfied when their salary is low. It is a likely assumption, then, that public school teachers are generally more satisfied with teaching and are less likely to leave the profession. However, private school teachers have been found to be more satisfied yet exhibit higher rates of attrition than public school teachers (Ingersoll, 2001). This may be due to private schools generally being smaller than public schools. In a study conducted in the Oakland, San Jose, and San Francisco, California areas, public school teachers tended to remain in their jobs longer than non-public school teachers (James & Levin, 1988). In general, private schools have a higher concentration of teachers with high levels of satisfaction, while public school teachers are distributed relatively evenly among low, moderate, and high levels of satisfaction (Perie &

Baker, 1997). While the results from the TFS of 1988-1989 confirm that there are higher levels of satisfaction amongst public school teachers as opposed to private school teachers, it also shows that attrition rates for private school teachers are double the rate for public school teachers (Bobbitt et al., 1991).

Organizational and Workplace Characteristics

According to Ingersoll (2001) organizational/workplace characteristics have had greater influence on teacher job satisfaction than previously thought. Ingersoll proposes that four conditions, (i.e., salary, administrative support, student discipline, and faculty influence/input) more than others were associated with a teacher's attitude and perception of job satisfaction.

Salary. In light of recent economic times and past forecasts of teacher shortages, districts have employed recruitment efforts such as loan forgiveness, alternative certification programs, post-baccalaureate programs, career change programs, signing bonuses, housing assistance, and tuition reimbursement to entice individuals into the field of education.

Undeniably, monetary compensation and incentives are considerably the most attractive forms of inducement. There are numerous studies, which focus on the impact of salary on teacher retention. Some of these studies use data collected from school districts, while others use resources such as the Schools and Staffing Survey and its Follow-up Survey for gathering data about the effects of salary. Utilizing the Schools and Staffing Survey database for 1987-1988 and 1993-1994, Weiss's (1999) finding supports and confirms the findings from Lortie's (1975) study. Positive feedback from students may be more important to teachers than being paid more money. Petty, et al. (2012) conclude from their study and state, "Even though money is primary in attracting teachers to high-need high schools, retaining them is a reoccurring problem" (p. 76). Contradictory to this discovery was Imazeki (2005) who found that salary increases for more

experienced teachers may reduce exit attrition among new female teachers. Joseph and Jackman's (2014) findings reveal that the majority of men in their study left teaching because of low salary, the desire to explore more lucrative options, and a lack of support. Weiss's findings also substantiate that of Murnane et al. (1991) in that each found that teachers who receive low salaries tend to leave first and were less likely to plan to continue to teach. Wheeler and Glennie's 2007 research summary on salary suggested that pay incentives can have a positive influence on recruitment and retention. However, overall, there are inconclusive findings when associating higher salaries with lower attrition rates.

Administrative support. Poor administrative support was yet another factor that stood out in Ingersoll's (2001) analysis of SASS data. While principals must shoulder the responsibility of making sure that all teaching vacancies within their building are filled, they must also keep in mind the rates of attrition and migration of new teachers. As has been reaffirmed by multiple sources, turnover rates are especially high amongst new teachers (Colbert & Wolff, 1992; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001, 2003; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010; Murnane et al, 1991). Therefore, it is imperative to provide those new to the teaching profession adequate supports. As an administrator, the responsibility of teaching load, class size, the assignment of mentors, professional development, ample materials and supplies, building climate, disciplinary sanctions, accountability, and overseeing high-stakes testing falls within the realm of duty. These issues as well as a host of others are critical to teacher satisfaction. Researchers have linked principal leadership and support directly and indirectly to job satisfaction (Shann, 1998). Teachers report greater satisfaction with work when they perceive the principal as one who shares information, delegates authority, and keeps the lines of communication open (Bolger, 2001).

Principals may be able to influence workplace commitment through supportive practices and measures. Administrative support appears to affect teacher mobility in a first-year teacher's decision to remain or depart from the workplace (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). In an interview study of 57 teachers Dinham (1994) found that multiple teachers describe a lack of administrative/hierarchical support. One teacher comments, "I have never been supported by my superiors..."(Dinham, 1994, p. 10). Ingersoll (2003) describes the relationship of dependency between teacher and administrator that can be "a great source of anxiety and frustration" (p. 67). Supportive principals are described as those who involve teachers in decision making, seek the advice of teachers in curricular matters, and praise teachers for work well done and are associated with significantly lower levels of teacher burnout than those who are not supportive (LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991).

Studies have identified the attitudes and behaviors of the principal as critical (Dinham & Scott, 2000). Ma and MacMillan (1999) point to administrative leadership as the most important workplace condition that positively affects teacher job satisfaction. Perie and Baker (1997) found that teachers with higher job satisfaction scores also experienced higher levels of administrative support and leadership. The principal's decisions can affect teacher work conditions (Lortie, 1975). Whereas there are specific behaviors and practices exhibited by principals that teachers find favorable, there are others that contribute to feelings of dissatisfaction. Inability to problem solve, threatening behavior (Rosenholtz, 1989), and failure to create and foster positive work conditions influence job satisfaction and retention (Billingsley, 2004). McCoy, et al. (2013) concluded that teacher support, working conditions, and student behavior were among the top factors for teachers when determining whether to leave teaching

prior to attaining tenure. Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2011) study results suggest that supervisory support was positively related to job satisfaction.

Student discipline. As evidenced by Ingersoll's (2001) study, student discipline problems are linked to teacher turnover. He contends that regardless of the background and economic status of the students, schools with more behavior problems have more teacher turnover. He also finds that teachers in schools who have more control have fewer student behavioral problems, and that being backed up by a principal is a crucial aspect of a teacher's job (Ingersoll, 2003). Teacher satisfaction is higher in schools where student discipline problems and poor student motivation are not a problem (Perie and Baker, 1997). Ferguson, Frost, and Hall (2012) investigated predictors of depression, anxiety, and job satisfaction of teachers. What they found was that student behavior was a significant predictor of depression and anxiety and that stress and depression significantly and negatively impacted job satisfaction. With these things in mind, school administrators must make every effort to ensure that student discipline does not become a factor in a teacher's decision to quit or transfer.

Faculty influence/input. Political scientist and philosopher Arthur Bentley (1908) wrote, "Leadership is not an affair of the individual leader. It is fundamentally an affair of the group" (p. 59). Leadership has also been described as relational, collective, and purposeful (Burns, 1978). As an administrative leader of a school or district it is in the leader's best interest and in the best interest of children to include others in the decision making process. Lortie (1975), reports that a teacher's sense that he or she has contributed to the culture of the school is important to job satisfaction. Teachers who have a say in moving towards organizational goals increase their commitment to the district and enhance their job satisfaction (Woods & Weasmer, 2004). In responding to issues concerning parent-teacher relationships and student achievement,

principals were advised to include teachers in decision making (Shann, 1998). Additionally, it was found that teacher retention was positively correlated to having more involvement in decision making (Darling-Hammond & Wise, 1983). After controlling for the characteristics of both teachers and schools, it was determined that limited faculty influence into school decision making contributes to higher rates of turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). In a more recent investigation of the SASS and TFS by Ingersoll and May (2011), both autonomy and faculty decision making strongly influence minority teacher turnover. Overall, teachers' feelings about their input into decision making are strongly related to their plans to stay in teaching and to their reasons for leaving (Darling-Hammond, 2003).

Job Satisfaction

In order to gain a better understanding of teacher dissatisfaction, it is important to examine those factors, which affect it. One's feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work influences job commitment and eventually the decision to remain or depart from the workplace. While job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher retention, defining job satisfaction is a difficult construct as studies of teacher satisfaction reveal wide-ranging differences in what contributes to job satisfaction (Shann, 1998). Both Dinham (1994) and Shann (1998) purport that the measurement of teacher satisfaction may be problematic as sources of teacher satisfaction vary by gender, experience, and position held. Additionally, measuring job satisfaction is a complex process as teachers are not unified in their perspectives about what makes them satisfied with their careers (Woods & Weasmer, 2004).

Teacher job satisfaction is imperative to the profession of education. Commitment to the profession cannot exist without job satisfaction (Reyes & Shin, 1995). Researchers suggest that "schools must give more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction" (Heller, Clay, &

Perkins, 1993, p. 75). Job satisfaction is important in the field of teaching as it impacts the education of students. If teachers find that their place of work fails them, they are more likely to transfer to other schools or leave the profession (Johnson, 2006). This provides further complications as teacher turnover; staffing problems and lack of educational continuity are likely to continue to plague our schools.

In his 2001 study, Ingersoll conducted extensive analyses of SASS and TFS data and concluded that several factors stood out and were linked as contributing factors of teacher dissatisfaction. Factors such as low salary, lack of support from school administration, lack of student motivation, student discipline problems, and lack of influence over decision making were cited as reasons for departure due to dissatisfaction (Ingersoll, 2002). Dinham (1994) adds to the sources of teacher dissatisfaction by including school and system centered reasons as well as structural and administrative matters. Examples of this include, but are not limited to, larger class sizes, behavioral problems, extra duties, stress, low salary, lack of parental support, inadequate resources and supplies, lack of recognition, lack of support, and low morale. Additionally, he adds that the standing of teachers in society is a source of dissatisfaction (Dinham, 1994). Echoing the same sentiment is the finding that “teachers’ occupation perceptions strongly affected their satisfaction” (Bolger, 2001, p. 662).

In a study conducted by Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2012) of 664 elementary and secondary school teachers in British Columbia and Ontario, Canada, they found that workload stress and teaching efficacy was directly related to the teacher’s sense of job satisfaction. In addition to workload stress and efficacy, factors such as student behavior also impact job satisfaction.

Research on job satisfaction is quite extensive. Factors associated with teacher (dis)satisfaction influence job commitment and turnover intent. (Dis) satisfaction may also influence the quality and stability of instruction given to students (Perie & Baker, 1997). Specific sources of satisfaction are said to be closely related to the human or affective domain (Dinham, 1994). Examples of satisfaction-related factors include, but are not limited to, student achievement, teacher recognition, self-growth and mastery, positive relationships, involvement in the decision making process, higher levels of autonomy, supportive work environment, organizational and working conditions, salary, and opportunities for advancement (Bolger, 2001; Dinham, 1994; Shann, 1998). Teacher satisfaction also reduces attrition, enhances collegiality, improves job performances, and has an impact on student outcomes (Woods & Weasmer, 2004).

Overall, teachers are perceived to be more satisfied with teaching as a career when their salary is competitive, there is adequate administrative and collegial support, student discipline is not a problem, and when teachers are included in the decision making process. “Teaching, working with the young in their pursuit of learning, is a delightful, richly rewarding occupation when the conditions of work are favorable” (Mitchell, 1968, p. 96).

Turnover Intent

Taking into consideration the threat of a national teacher shortage, schools and districts across America have been forced to pay particular attention to focusing on protecting and replenishing the ever dwindling population of educators. Even more pressing is the issue of securing highly qualified teachers to fill vacant positions. It is estimated that 50% of new teachers drop out of the profession in the first 5 years (Colbert & Wolff, 1992). Additionally, research shows that the career of teaching is characterized by very high mobility (Murnane et al., 1991). Educators and policymakers must improve efforts to reduce teacher turnover as it

disrupts the stability, continuity, and cohesion of instruction, and thus student performance (Theobald & Michael, 2002). Movement within and in and out of the field of teaching “affects not only the composition of teachers at individual schools and the institutional stability of these schools but also the demographics and qualifications of the teacher workforce as a whole” (Provasnik & Dorfman, 2005, p. 1).

While turnover is not directly measured as a loss in the workforce or change in size of the workforce from one year to the next, it measures the number of teacher’s schools and districts need to hire to keep the same number of teachers from one year to the next (Provasnik & Dorfman, 2005). For the purposes of this study, teacher turnover will be equated to teacher mobility. Teacher mobility encompasses teacher attrition and migration (movement within the profession). Both attrition and migration impact schools and districts as each creates a vacancy that must be filled. “Forecasts of teacher attrition rates are a critical component in attempts by school districts, states, and the nation to determine how many new teachers will be needed in coming years” (Grissmer & Kirby, 1987, p. ix).

Dissatisfaction-led turnover is a result of existing organizational conditions. According to Ingersoll (2001), five prevalent reasons are cited by teachers: poor salary, poor administrative support, student discipline problems, poor student motivation, and lack of faculty influence. States and districts across the country have offered various incentives to encourage entrance into teaching. Financial incentives such as loan forgiveness, signing bonuses, housing assistance, and tuition reimbursement are used to recruit new teachers (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Additionally, offering competitive wages is attractive to new teachers. Using data from the 1991-1992 TFS linked with data from 1990-1991 SASS teacher and administrator questionnaires, Ingersoll

(2001), found that after controlling for school and teacher characteristics, a common factor for 42% of dissatisfaction-related turnover in cases of migration and attrition was low salary.

Moreover, Ingersoll (2001) reports that one fourth of teachers in high-poverty public schools who depart due to dissatisfaction cite low salaries as a reason, while three fourths of teachers of private schools cite dissatisfaction-related turnover due to poor salaries.

As reported on the 2001 TFS, wanting a better salary and benefits was one of five most commonly cited reasons when leavers were asked why they left their school. In addition to this, teachers were asked to report how satisfied they were with various features of the school they left. Movers cited too low a salary as a source of their dissatisfaction and reason to transfer to another school (Provasnik & Dorfman, 2005).

Another group of studies focus on the factors that influence retention or resignation and utilize data collected from school districts. Kersaint, Lewis, Potter and Meisels (2005) reveal that financial benefits are of medium importance to leavers and of low importance to stayers. This suggests that financial benefits, or lack thereof, may play a part in a teacher's decision to leave the profession. Financial incentives are not of sudden interest or importance to teachers; their importance has been around for quite some time. In the late 1980s a survey of newly hired teachers in Indiana found that "increases in starting salaries reduce the rate of attrition significantly" (Kirby & Grissmer, 1993, p. 27). Similarly, but less as a factor, in a study conducted by Kelly (2004), he determined that higher salaries keep younger teachers longer, but only slightly so.

Summary

Due to existing gaps and mixed results in the research of job satisfaction, continued investigation and exploration is necessary. Job dissatisfaction-related turnover is more prevalent

than previously thought as increasing enrollment numbers and increasing teacher retirements do not account for the bulk of teacher departures. Additionally, as pursuit of another job, school staffing actions and family or personal reasons contribute to a teacher's decision to remain in the profession, so does dissatisfaction with teaching as a career. Job satisfaction is essentially connected to intrinsic factors, while job dissatisfaction is derived from extrinsic factors. As a way to increase the level of teacher job satisfaction and ultimately reduce teacher turnover, attention must center on adequate administrative supports, student discipline issues, higher wages, and active participation in the decision making process. Increased teacher participation and involvement can lead to increased feelings of belonging and sense of community and making a difference. This may, in turn, lead to increased job satisfaction. Ultimately, this increase in job satisfaction may increase retention rates and the effectiveness and performance of schools.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework, represented in Figure 1, illustrates various job-related aspects of teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Teacher characteristics, school characteristics and organizational conditions are job-related effects that can be predictors of turnover. More specifically, organizational and workplace characteristics are said to lead to dissatisfaction and ultimately, turnover.

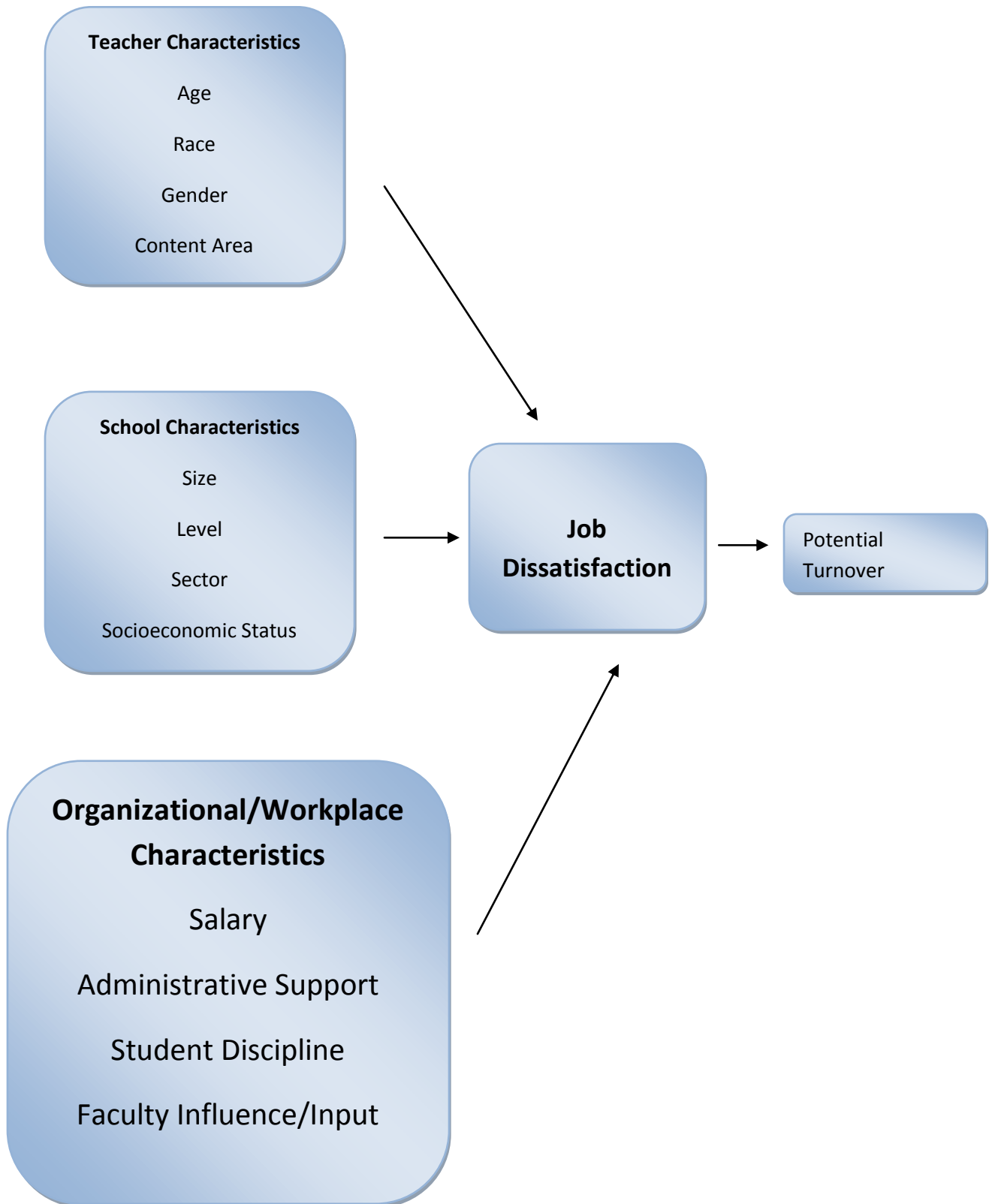


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of characteristics and conditions associated with teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and turnover intent.

Chapter III

Methodology

Research Problem

Several studies in the early 1980s predicted a dramatic teacher shortage due to the increase in the demand for new teachers mostly resulting from two converging demographic trends: an increase in student enrollments and an increase in teacher attrition due to a “graying” teacher workforce (Ingersoll, 2001). The response to this demand was to attempt to increase the supply of available teachers through recruitment initiatives (Ingersoll, 2001). Even with the use of recruitment efforts such as loan forgiveness, alternative certification programs, post-baccalaureate programs, career-change programs, signing bonuses, housing assistance, and tuition reimbursement, movement in and out of the teaching profession continues. Incentives and other recruitment tactics have not solved the teacher staffing problems (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). While growing student enrollment and retirement numbers have been blamed for the teacher shortage, the teacher questionnaire from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2003-2004) has provided data on the factors associated with (dis)satisfaction, which in turn, may contribute to the need to hire more teachers.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to identify, examine, and consider the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job (dis)satisfaction as turnover can be an end result of dissatisfaction. While taking into consideration other reasons for teacher shortages, this study seeks to illuminate teacher attitudes and perceptions of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. This

chapter describes in more detail the research design, study sample, the survey instrument, and methods used for data collection and data analysis.

Research Design

The research design utilized is descriptive and quantitative. Responses to the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (NCES, 2003-2004 conducted by the United States Department of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) were analyzed. NCES is the "primary federal entity for collecting, analyzing, and reporting data related to education in the United States and other nations" (U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics, 2007). To date, NCES has administered and conducted seven Schools and Staffing Surveys (SASS), seven Teacher Follow-up Surveys (TFS) and two Principal Follow-up Survey (PFS). The SASS has four main components: the School Questionnaire, the Teacher Questionnaire, the Principal Questionnaire, and the School District Questionnaire. The SASS collects data on teacher demand and shortages, teacher and administrator characteristics, school programs, and general conditions in schools. It also collects data on principal and teacher perceptions of school climate, teacher compensation, hiring practices, and basic characteristics of student population(s). This study was based on survey research in which data from the National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey were gathered and analyzed statistically. Demographic information as well as responses to predetermined survey questions were collected and reviewed. A comparison of results were made with prediction.

Sample

The survey sample for the 2003-2004 administration of the SASS comes from those teachers who completed and returned the survey. It included public, private, and Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools. Additionally, a sample of public charter schools is included in the sample as part of the public school questionnaire. Only full-time, public, K-12 teachers that responded to the 2003-2004 SASS survey are included in this study. The sample size for the study was 43,244.

Instrumentation

In regards to instrumentation, data obtained from the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) was used to address the research questions put forth in this study. Specific questions from the SASS were used to measure the following independent variables: salary, student discipline, faculty influence/input, administrative support, and teacher attitude.

Data Collection

I examined responses to 19 survey items in relation to organizational and workplace characteristics and the perception of teacher job satisfaction. Groups of questions from NCES's Schools and Staffing Survey were used to measure the five independent variables. The following questions were used to measure each variable.

Questions that measure salary. The salary variable measured the responses from two questions, which used one of two four point Likert-type scales respectively, indicating the extent to which the teacher agreed (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *somewhat agree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*), and 1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *agree*, 3 = *disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*):

- I am satisfied with my teaching salary. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63c)
- If I could get a higher paying job I'd leave teaching as soon as possible. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #66d)

Questions that measure administrative support. The administrative support variable measured the responses from five questions, which used a four point Likert-type scale, indicating the extent to which the teacher agreed (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *somewhat agree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*):

- The principal lets staff members know what is expected of them (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63a)
- The school administration's behavior toward the staff is supportive and encouraging (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63b)
- My principal enforces school rules for student conduct and backs me up when I need it (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63h)
- The principal knows what kind of school he/she wants and has communicated it to the staff (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63k)
- In this school, staff members are recognized for a job well done (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63m)

Questions that measure student discipline. The student discipline variable measured the responses from two questions, which used a four point Likert-type scale, indicating the extent to which the teacher agreed (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *somewhat agree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*):

- The level of student misbehavior in this school (such as noise, horseplay, or fighting in the halls, cafeteria or student lounge) interferes with my teaching (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63d)
- Rules for student behavior are consistently enforced by teachers in this school, even for students who are not in their classrooms (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63i)

Questions that measure faculty influence/input. The faculty influence/input variable measures the responses from five questions, which used a four point Likert-type scale, indicating the level of teacher influence (1 = *no influence*, 2 = *minor influence*, 3 = *moderate influence*, 4 = *a great deal of influence*):

- Setting performance standards for students at this school (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #61a)
- Establishing curriculum (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #61b)
- Determining the content of in-service professional development programs (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #61c)
- Setting discipline policy (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #61f)
- Deciding how the school budget will be spent (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #61g)

Questions that measure teacher attitude. The teacher attitude variable measured the responses from five questions, which used one of two four point Likert-type scales respectively, indicating the extent to which the teacher agreed (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *somewhat agree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*, and 1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *agree*, 3 = *disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*):

- I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #63u)
- The stress and disappointments involved in teaching at this school aren't really worth it. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #66a)
- The teachers at this school like being here; I would describe us as a satisfied group. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #66b)
- I like the way things are run at this school. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #66c)
- I think about transferring to another school. (SASS Teacher Questionnaire Question #66e)

Data Collection Technique

In reference to the research questions for this study, I retrieved information from NCES's restricted use database. Permission for use of the database was granted by U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics.

Data Analysis

To address the five research questions, data were extracted from NCES's 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), which best investigated those factors related to teacher job satisfaction and the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. SASS uses a stratified probability sample design. All weighted samples are rounded to the nearest 10. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, (Version 21), was used to complete the analysis. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, were calculated for the teacher background variables. Pearson correlations were calculated for the key independent and

dependent variable. Finally, hierarchical regression analysis was used to address the research questions listed below:

1. To what extent does salary contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
2. To what extent does administrative support contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
3. To what extent does student discipline contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
4. To what extent does faculty influence/input over workplace policies and practices contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?
5. What is the influence of teacher attitude of efficacy on job satisfaction?

Chapter IV

Analysis of Data

Understanding the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is an important matter for any principal, superintendent, district leader, or educational advocate. The purpose of this study was to identify, examine, and consider the contributory factors that lead to teacher job (dis)satisfaction and their relationship to teacher attitudes in the workplace. To address the five research questions, data were extracted from NCES's 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS, 2003-2004), which best investigated those factors related to teacher job satisfaction and the relationship between job satisfaction and teacher attitudes. SASS uses a stratified probability sample design. All weighted samples are rounded to the nearest 10. SPSS (Version 21) was used to complete the analysis. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, were calculated for the teacher background variables. Pearson correlations were calculated for the key independent and dependent variable. Finally, hierarchical regression analysis was used to address the research questions.

The descriptive statistics for the variables can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Key Variables (N = 43,244)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Agree-generally satisfied	1.54	0.73
Agree-I am satisfied with my teaching salary	2.75	0.99
Agree-if I could get a higher paying job I'd leave teaching as soon as possible	2.98	0.86
Agree-the level of student misbehavior in this school (such as noise, horseplay, or fighting in the halls, cafeteria or student lounge) interferes with my teaching	2.86	1.00
Agree-teachers enforce rules (Rules for student behavior are consistently enforced by teachers in this school, even for students who are not in their classrooms)	2.18	0.90
Influence-setting performance standards	2.61	0.95
Influence-establishing curriculum	2.80	0.94
Influence-content of professional development content	2.46	0.90
Influence-setting discipline policy	2.38	0.92
Influence-setting performance standards for students	2.61	0.95
Influence-establishing curriculum	2.80	0.94
Influence-in-service professional development content	2.46	0.90
Influence-setting discipline policy	2.38	0.92

Results for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was: To what extent does salary contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The correlations for the variables for this research question can be found in Table 5. Satisfaction with salary ($r = .185, p < .01$) was positively and significantly correlated with general satisfaction as agreement with this statement increased, satisfaction also increased. Agreement with the statement, “If I could get a higher paying job I’d leave teaching as soon as possible” ($r = -.327, p < .01$) was negatively and significantly correlated with general satisfaction; as agreement with this statement increased, satisfaction decreased.

Table 5

One-Tailed Pearson Correlations for Salary and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

	Agree-generally satisfied
Agree-leave for better pay	.185*
Agree-generally satisfied	-.327*

Note. $p < .01$.

Next, a hierarchical linear regression model was used to examine the research question. First salary satisfaction was entered into the model. This model accounted for only 3% ($R^2 = .03$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Next, the agree-leave for better pay variable was added to the model. The addition of the agree-leave for better pay variable to the model increased the amount of variance accounted for to 11% ($R^2 = .11$); the change in variance accounted by the addition of the agree-leave for better pay variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .08, $p = .001$). However, a significant amount of the variance in job satisfaction remained unaccounted for.

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the models (that is, of the regression equation), for both steps. Model 1, which included only satisfaction with salary was statistically significant ($F(1, 43242) = 1533.98, p < .01$). Model 2, which included satisfaction with salary and agree-leave for better pay variable was also statistically significant ($F(2, 43241) = 2862.13, p < .01$). As such, the best fitting model for predicting job satisfaction was a linear combination of satisfaction with salary and agree-leave for better pay (see Table 6).

Table 6

ANOVA for Salary and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

Model		Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
1	Regression	789.83	1	789.83	1533.98	.001
	Residual	22264.92	43242	.51		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
2	Regression	2695.21	2	1347.60	2862.13	.001
	Residual	20359.55	43241	.47		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

The unstandardized regression coefficients for Model 2 indicated that satisfaction with salary ($B = 0.077, p < .01$) was significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to increase with an increase in satisfaction with salary. However, agree-leave for better pay ($B = -0.253, p < .01$) was significantly and negatively associated with job

satisfaction. Agreeing to leave for better pay was associated with a decrease in job satisfaction (see Table 7).

The slopes (B) of the regression equation for Model 2 are all in units of the teacher job satisfaction scale. When satisfaction with salary goes up by 1 point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes up by 0.077 points. Further, when agree-leave for better pay goes up by one point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes down by 0.253 points. If both predictors are equal to 1 each, then prediction goes down by $(-0.253 + 0.077)$, a total of 0.176 points. The standardized beta value is the measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion variable. In Model 2, agree-leave for better pay has the largest impact on the regression equation as its standardized slope is the largest (-0.299), thus giving it more impact on prediction of teacher job satisfaction. Further, it accounts (8%) for most of the 11% of the variance by the two predictor variables in this equation.

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Coefficients for Salary and Teacher Job Satisfaction (The Dependent Variable)

Variable	B	SEB	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.03	
Agree-satisfied w/salary	.135	.003	.185*		
Step 2				.11*	.08*
Agree-satisfied w/salary	.077	.003	.105*		
Agree-leave for better pay	-.253	.004	-.299*		

Note. * $p < .01$.

Results for Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was: To what extent does administrative support contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? A hierarchical linear regression model was used. First, the agree-principal communicates what is expected variable was entered into the model. This model accounted for only 10.8% ($R^2 = .108$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Next, the agree-administration is supportive variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 17.5% ($R^2 = .175$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-establishing curriculum variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .067, $p = .001$). At the third step, the agree-principal enforces discipline variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 19.7% ($R^2 = .197$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-professional development content variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .022, $p = .001$). At the fourth step, the agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 20.3% ($R^2 = .203$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-setting discipline policy variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .006, $p = .001$). At the fifth and final step, the agree-staff are recognized variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 22.4% ($R^2 = .224$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-setting discipline policy variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .021, $p = .001$).

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the models for five steps. Model 1, which included only agree-principal communicates what is expected ($F(1, 43242) = 5261.89$, $p < .01$) was statistically significant. Model 2, which included agree-principal communicates what is

expected and agree-administration is supportive was also statistically significant ($F(2, 43241) = 4573.05, p < .01$). Model 3, which included agree-principal communicates what is expected, agree-administration is supportive, and agree-principal enforces discipline was also statistically significant ($F(3, 43240) = 3541.07, p < .01$). Model 4, which included agree-principal communicates what is expected, agree-administration is supportive, agree-principal enforces discipline, and agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants was also statistically significant ($F(4, 43239) = 2760.22, p < .01$). Model 5, which included agree-principal communicates what is expected, agree-administration is supportive, agree-principal enforces discipline, agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants, and agree-staff are recognized was also statistically significant ($F(5, 43238) = 2490.28, p < .01$). As such, the best fitting model for predicting teacher job satisfaction was a linear combination of agree-principal communicates what is expected, agree-administration is supportive, agree-principal enforces discipline, agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants, and agree-staff are recognized (see Table 8).

Table 8

ANOVA for Administrative Support and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

Model		Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
1	Regression	2501.07	1	2501.07	5261.89	.001
	Residual	20553.69	43242	0.47		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
2	Regression	4025.06	2	2012.53	4573.05	.001
	Residual	19029.69	43241	0.44		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
3	Regression	4546.99	3	1515.66	3541.07	.001
	Residual	18507.76	43240	0.42		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
4	Regression	4689.49	4	1172.37	2760.22	.001
	Residual	18365.26	43239	0.42		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
5	Regression	5154.73	5	1030.94	2490.28	.001
	Residual	17900.02	43238	0.41		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

An examination of the unstandardized regression coefficients for Model 5, which was the best fitting model, indicated that agree-principal communicates what is expected ($B = .023, p < .01$), agree-administration is supportive ($B = .146, p < .01$), agree-principal enforces discipline ($B = .124, p < .01$), agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants ($B = .061, p < .01$), and

agree-staff are recognized ($B = .154, p < .01$) were significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. As such, job satisfaction was likely to increase with an increase in agreement that the principal communicates what is expected, administration is supportive, the principal enforces discipline, the principal knows what kind of school he/she wants, and staff are recognized (see Table 9).

The slopes (B) of the regression equation for Model 5 are all in units of the teacher job satisfaction. All predictors were positive. When a predictor goes up by one point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes up or down by the respective predictor slope values based on whether they are positive or negative. Given that each predictor was equal to one, the following would occur in Model 5: Teacher job satisfaction prediction would go up by 0.023 points for agree-principal communicates, 0.146 points for agree-administration is supportive, 0.124 points for agree-principal enforces discipline, 0.061 points for agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants, and 0.154 points for agree-staff are recognized. The standardized beta value is the measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion variable. Agree-staff are recognized has the largest impact on the regression equation as its standardized slope is the largest (0.184) in Model 5, thus giving it more impact on prediction of teacher job satisfaction.

Table 9

*Hierarchical Regression Coefficients for Administrative Support and Teacher Job Satisfaction**(The Dependent Variable)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.108	
Agree-principal communicates what is expected	.330	.005	.329*		
Step 2				.175*	.067*
Agree-principal communicates what is expected	.137	.005	.136*		
Agree-administration is supportive	.278	.005	.321*		
Step 3				.197*	.022*
Agree-principal communicates what is expected	.079	.006	.078*		
Agree-administration is supportive	.209	.005	.242*		
Agree-principal enforces discipline	.177	.005	.194*		
Step 4				.203*	.006
Agree-principal communicates what is expected	.035	.006	.035*		
Agree-administration is supportive	.194	.005	.224*		
Agree-principal enforces discipline	.146	.005	.161*		
Agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants	.103	.006	.113*		

Table 9 (continued)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Step 5				.224*	.021*
Agree-principal communicates what is expected	.023	.006	.023*		
Agree-administration is supportive	.146	.005	.169*		
Agree-principal enforces discipline	.124	.005	.137*		
Agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants	.061	.006	.067*		
Agree-staff are recognized	.154	.005	.184*		

Note. * $p < .01$.

Results for Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was: To what extent does student discipline contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The correlations for the variables for this research question can be found in Table 10. Agreement with the statement, “Rules for student behavior are consistently enforced by teachers in this school, even for students who are not in their classrooms” ($r = .289$, $p < .01$) was positively and significantly correlated with general satisfaction; as agreement with this statement increased, satisfaction also increased. Agreement with the statement, “The level of student misbehavior in this school (such as noise, horseplay, or fighting in the halls, cafeteria, or student lounge) interferes with my teaching” ($r = -.293$, $p < .01$) was negatively and significantly correlated with general satisfaction; as agreement with this statement increased, satisfaction decreased.

Table 10

One-Tailed Pearson Correlations for Student Discipline and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

	Agree-generally satisfied
Agree-misbehavior interferes	-.293*
Agree-teachers enforce rules	.289*

Note. $p < .01$.

Next, a hierarchical linear regression model was used. First misbehavior interferes was entered into the model. This model accounted for only 9% ($R^2 = .09$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Next, the agree-teachers enforce rules variable was added to the model. The addition of the agree-teachers enforce rules variable to the model increased the amount of variance accounted for to 13% ($R^2 = .13$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the agree-teachers enforce rules variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .04, $p = .001$). A large amount of the variance in job satisfaction remained unaccounted for.

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the models for both steps. Model 1, which included only agree-misbehavior interferes was statistically significant ($F(1, 43242) = 4055.10, p < .01$) was statistically significant. Model 2, which included agree-misbehavior interferes and agree-teachers enforce rules was also statistically significant ($F(2, 43241) = 3231.59, p < .01$). As such, the best fitting model for predicting job satisfaction was a linear combination of agree-misbehavior interferes and agree-teachers enforce rules (see Table 11).

Table 11

ANOVA for Student Discipline and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
1	Regression	1976.60	1	1976.60	4055.01	.001
	Residual	21078.16	43242	.48		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
2	Regression	2997.87	2	1498.94	3231.59	.001
	Residual	20056.88	43241	.46		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

An examination of the regression coefficients for Model 2 indicated that agree-misbehavior interferes ($B = -.226, p < .01$) was significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to decrease with an increase in agreement that student misbehavior interferes. However, agree-teacher enforces rules ($B = 0.221, p < .01$) was significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to increase with an increase in agreement-teacher enforces rules (see Table 12).

The slopes (B) of the regression equation for Model 2 are all in units of the teacher job satisfaction scale agree-misbehavior interferes goes up by 1 point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes down by - 0.164 points. Further, when agree-teacher enforces rules pay goes up by one point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes up by 0.179 points. If both predictors are equal to 1 each, then prediction goes up $-0.164 + 0.179$) at total of 0.015 points. The standardized beta value is the measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the

criterion variable. In Model 2, agree-misbehavior interferes has the largest impact on the regression equation as its standardized slope is the largest (-0.266), thus giving it more impact on prediction of teacher job satisfaction. Further, it accounts (9%) for most of the 13% of the variance by the two predictor variables in this equation.

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression Coefficients for Student Discipline and Teacher Job Satisfaction (The Dependent Variable)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.09	
Agree-misbehavior interferes	-.213	.003	-.293*		
Step 2				.13*	.04*
Agree-misbehavior interferes	-.164	.003	-.226*		
Agree-teachers enforce rules	.179	.004	.221*		

Note. * $p < .01$.

Results for Research Question 4

Research Question 4 was: To what extent does faculty influence/input over workplace policies and practices contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The correlations for the variables for this research question can be found in Table 13. The extent of influence with regard to setting performance standards ($r = -.215, p < .01$); establishing curriculum ($r = -.193, p < .01$); professional development content ($r = -.231, p < .01$); and setting discipline policy ($r = -.224, p < .01$) were negatively and significantly correlated with general satisfaction; as perceived influence in these areas increased, teacher satisfaction decreased.

Table 13

One-Tailed Pearson Correlations for Faculty Influence/Input and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

	Agree-generally satisfied
Influence-setting performance standards	-.215*
Influence-establishing curriculum	-.193*
Influence-professional development content	-.231*
Influence-setting discipline policy	-.224*

Note. $p < .01$.

Next, a hierarchical linear regression model was used. First, the influence-setting performance standards variable was entered into the model. This model accounted for only 4.6% ($R^2 = .046$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Next, the influence-establishing curriculum variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 5.4% ($R^2 = .054$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-establishing curriculum variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .008, $p = .001$). At the third step, the influence-professional development content variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 7.5% ($R^2 = .075$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-professional development content variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .021, $p = .001$). At the fourth step the influence-setting discipline policy variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 8.5% ($R^2 = .085$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-setting discipline policy variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .010, $p = .001$). At the fifth and final step, the influence-school budget

variable was added to the model, and the amount of variance accounted for remained the same at 8.5% ($R^2 = .085$). A large amount of the variance in job satisfaction remained unaccounted for.

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the models for five steps. Model 1, which included only influence-setting performance standards ($F(1, 43242) = 2103.94, p < .01$) was statistically significant. Model 2, which included influence-setting performance standards and influence-establishing curriculum was also statistically significant ($F(2, 43241) = 1244.98, p < .01$). Model 3, which included influence-setting performance standards, influence-establishing curriculum, and influence-professional development content was also statistically significant ($F(3, 43240) = 1171.38.98, p < .01$). Model 4, which included influence-setting performance standards, influence-establishing curriculum, influence-professional development content, and influence-setting discipline policy was also statistically significant ($F(4, 43239) = 1003.60, p < .01$). Model 5, which included influence-setting performance standards, influence-establishing curriculum, influence-professional development content, influence-setting discipline policy, and influence-school budget was also statistically significant ($F(5, 43238) = 808.15, p < .01$). As such, the best fitting model for predicting job satisfaction was a linear combination of influence-setting performance standards, influence-establishing curriculum, influence-professional development content, influence-setting discipline policy, and influence-school budget (see Table 14).

Table 14

ANOVA for Faculty Influence/Input and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

Model		Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
1	Regression	1069.68	1	1069.68	2103.94	.001
	Residual	21985.07	43242	.50		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
2	Regression	1255.29	2	627.64	1244.98	.001
	Residual	21799.47	43241	.50		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
3	Regression	1732.84	3	577.61	1171.38	.001
	Residual	21321.91	43240	.49		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
4	Regression	1958.61	4	489.65	1003.60	.001
	Residual	21096.14	43239	.48		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
5	Regression	1970.41	5	394.08	808.15	.001
	Residual	21084.34	43238	.488		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

An examination of the regression coefficients for Model 5, which was the best fitting model, indicated that influence-setting performance standards ($B = -.066, p < .01$), influence-establishing curriculum ($B = -.044, p < .01$), influence-professional development content ($B = -.098, p < .01$), influence-setting discipline policy ($B = -.084, p < .01$), and influence-school

budget ($B = -.022, p < .01$) were significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to decrease with an increase in being influenced by setting performance standards, establishing curriculum, professional development content, setting discipline policy, and the school budget (see Table 15).

The slopes (B) of the regression equation for Model 5 are all in units of teacher job satisfaction. When a predictor goes up by one point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes up or down by the respective predictor slope values based on whether they are positive or negative. All predictors were negative. Given that each predictor was equal to one, the following would occur in Model 5: Teacher job satisfaction prediction would down by -0.066 points for influence-setting performance standards, -0.044 points for influence-establishing curriculum, -0.098 points for influence-professional development content, -0.084, points for influence-setting discipline policy, and -0.022, points for influence-school budget. If all five predictors are equal to 1 each, then prediction goes down a total of 0.314 points. The standardized beta value is the measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion variable. Influence-professional development content is recognized as this has the largest impact on the regression equation as its standardized slope is the largest (-0.121) in Model 5, thus giving it more impact on prediction of teacher job satisfaction.

Table 15

*Hierarchical Regression Coefficients for Faculty Influence/Input and Teacher Job Satisfaction
(The Dependent Variable)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.046	
Influence-setting performance standards	-.165	.004	-.215*		
Step 2				.054*	.008*
Influence-setting performance standards	-.121	.004	-.157*		
Influence-establishing curriculum	-.083	.004	-.107*		
Step 3				.075*	.021
Influence-setting performance standards	-.088	.004	-.115*		
Influence-establishing curriculum	-.054	.004	-.070*		
Influence-professional development content	-.129	.004	-.160*		
Step 4				.085*	.010
Influence-setting performance standards	-.068	.004	-.088*		
Influence-establishing curriculum	-.045	.004	-.058*		
Influence-professional development content	-.102	.004	-.126*		
Influence-setting discipline policy	-.091	.004	-.115*		
Step 5				.085*	.00
Influence-setting performance standards	-.066	.004	-.086*		
Influence-establishing curriculum	-.044	.004	-.058*		

Table 15 (continued)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Influence-professional development content	-.098	.004	-.121*		
Influence-setting discipline policy	-.084	.004	-.106*		
Influence-school budget	-.022	.005	-.026*		

Note. * $p < .01$.

Results for Research Question 5

Research Question 5 was: What is the influence of teacher attitude of efficacy on job satisfaction? A hierarchical linear regression model was used. First, agree-teaching not worth it was entered into the model. This model accounted for only 23.5% ($R^2 = .235$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Next, the agree-teachers satisfied was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 30.8% ($R^2 = .308$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-establishing curriculum variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .073, $p = .001$). At the third step, the agree-like way school run variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 34.3% ($R^2 = .343$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-professional development content variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .035, $p = .001$). At the fourth and final step, the agree-thinking about transfer variable was added to the model, which increased the amount of variance accounted for to 36.9% ($R^2 = .369$). The change in variance accounted for by the addition of the influence-setting discipline policy variable to the model was statistically significant (R^2 change = .026, $p = .001$).

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the models for four steps. Model 1, which included only agree-teaching not worth it ($F(1, 43242) = 13318.90, p < .01$) was statistically significant. Model 2, which included agree-teaching not worth it and agree-teachers satisfied was also statistically significant ($F(2, 43241) = 9600.92, p < .01$). Model 3, which included agree-teaching not worth it, agree-teachers satisfied, and agree-like way school run was also statistically significant ($F(3, 43240) = 7532.12, p < .01$). Model 4, which included agree-teaching not worth it, agree-teachers satisfied, agree-like way school run, and agree-thinking about transfer was also statistically significant ($F(4, 43239) = 6309.64, p < .01$). As such, the best fitting model for predicting teacher job satisfaction was a linear combination of agree-teaching not worth it, agree-teachers satisfied, agree-like way school run, and agree-thinking about transfer (see Table 16).

Table 16

ANOVA for Teacher Attitude of Efficacy and Teacher Job Satisfaction (N = 43,244)

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
1	Regression	5428.91	1	5428.911	13318.90	.001
	Residual	17625.85	43242	.408		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
2	Regression	7089.58	2	3544.793	9600.92	.001
	Residual	15965.17	43241	.369		
	Total	23054.76	43243			
3	Regression	7912.85	3	2637.619	7532.12	.001
	Residual	15141.90	43240	.350		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

Table 16 (continued)

Model		Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
4	Regression	8497.22	4	2124.307	6309.64	.001
	Residual	14557.53	43239	.337		
	Total	23054.76	43243			

An examination of the regression coefficients for Model 4, which was the best fitting model, indicated that agree-teaching not worth it ($B = -.256, p < .01$) and thinking about transfer ($B = -.152, p < .01$) were significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to decrease with an increase in feeling that teaching is not worth it and thinking about transfer. Agree-teachers satisfied ($B = .146, p < .01$) and agree-principal enforces discipline ($B = .131, p < .01$) were significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likely to increase with an increase in teacher satisfaction and principal discipline enforcement (see Table 17).

The slopes (B) of the regression equation for Model 4 are all in units of teacher job satisfaction. When a predictor goes up by one point, teacher job satisfaction prediction goes up or down by the respective predictor slope values based on whether they are positive or negative. Predictors were both positive and negative. Given that each predictor was equal to one, the following would occur in Model 4: Teacher job satisfaction prediction would go down by -0.256 points for agree-teaching not worth it, and -0.152 points for thinking about transfer, and go up 0.131 points for agree-teachers satisfied, and up 0.201 points for agree-principal enforces discipline. If all four predictors are equal to 1 each, then prediction goes down a total of 0.077 points. The standardized beta value is the measure of how strongly each predictor variable

influences the criterion variable. Agree-teaching not worth it has the largest impact on the regression equation as its standardized slope is the largest (-0.253) in Model 4, thus giving it more impact on prediction of teacher job satisfaction.

Table 17

Hierarchical Regression Coefficients for Teacher Attitude of Efficacy and Teacher Job Satisfaction (The Dependent Variable)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.235	
Agree-teaching not worth it	-.490	.004	-.485*		
Step 2				.308*	.073*
Agree-teaching not worth it	-.353	.005	-.349*		
Agree-teachers satisfied	.302	.005	.301*		
Step 3				.343*	.035*
Agree-teaching not worth it	-.309	.005	-.306*		
Agree-teachers satisfied	.153	.005	.153*		
Agree-like way school run	.243	.005	.256*		
Step 4				.369*	.026
Agree-teaching not worth it	-.256	.005	-.253*		
Agree-teachers satisfied	.131	.005	.130*		
Agree-like way school run	.201	.005	.212*		
Agree-thinking about transfer	-.152	.004	-.187*		

Note. * $p < .01$.

Chapter V

Summary, Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

Chapter V provides an examination and summary of the analysis presented in Chapter IV. A summary based on teacher attitudes and perceptions of organizational and workplace characteristics will be discussed as these items have a significant influence on job satisfaction. Chapter V presents findings and their significance and draws conclusions based on the research. Additionally, Chapter V will discuss recommendation for areas of future study as a means to gain even more understanding of the importance of teacher attitudes and perceptions in relation to job satisfaction. The significance of this study is that it will help education advocates, school leaders, researchers, and policy makers recognize the importance of job satisfaction within the field of teaching. It will also bring an awareness of specific organizational and workplace characteristics that contribute to teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While the concept of the importance of working to ensure job satisfaction is not debatable, the method of how to best achieve this is, at the very least, an opportunity to promote further discussion.

The purpose of this study was to identify, examine, and consider the factors associated with teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job (dis)satisfaction, as turnover can be an end result of dissatisfaction. Excessive turnover in the field of teaching presents a challenge with keeping schools and classrooms fully staffed. As opposed to settling for the assumption that attrition, retirement, increased student enrollment, and an emphasis on smaller class size are the main reasons for the teacher shortage, this study focused on revealing, illuminating, and considering other potential reasons for the shortage.

Summary of Findings

A hierarchical regression analysis was used to address each of the five research questions. Predictive strength of each of the independent variables was investigated. I pursued the exploration of how teacher attitudes and perceptions influence job satisfaction.

Research Question 1. Research Question 1 was: To what extent does salary contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The hierarchical regression shows that satisfaction with salary was significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. Agree-leave for better pay was significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. This model accounted for only 11% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction.

Related literature on salary suggests that salary is linked to teacher perception of job satisfaction. According to Harris, Kagay, and Leichenko (1985), former teachers who had left the profession most often cite their reasons for leaving as poor salaries and poor working conditions. As reported by Kim and Loadman (1994), their study of 2,054 practicing classroom teachers on job satisfaction indicated that job satisfaction and pay were significantly related. In addition, and consistent with the findings of the current investigation, a study conducted by Petty, et al. (2012) found that money was the most significant contributor to teacher attraction and retention.

Research Question 2. Research Question 2 was: To what extent does administrative support contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The hierarchical regression showed that agree-principal communicates what is expected, agree-administration is supportive, agree-principal enforces discipline, agree-principal knows what kind of school he/she wants, and agree-staff are recognized were significantly and positively associated with teacher job satisfaction. This model accounted for 22.4% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction.

Literature on administrative support reveals that principal leadership is a key component of teacher job satisfaction. In a study conducted by Shaw and Newton (2014), with Florence, Alabama teachers, there was a significant positive correlation between teachers' perception of their principal's level of servant leadership and the teachers' job satisfaction. Additionally, there was a positive correlation between the teachers' perception of their principal and the teachers' intended retention. The same results were echoed by a study of 1,903 music teachers. This study conducted by Gardner (2010) indicated that the teachers' perceptions of the level of administrative support exhibited the strongest influence on teacher satisfaction and job commitment.

Research Question 3. Research Question 3 was: To what extent does student discipline contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The hierarchical regression showed that agree-misbehavior interferes was significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Agree-teacher enforces rules was significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. This model accounted for only 13% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction.

Research of teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job satisfaction by Certo and Fox (2002) reveals the perceptions of teachers regarding the reasons their colleagues have left the profession. Reasons such as external employment opportunities, salary and benefits, as well as discipline and student attitudes were included as reasons for dissatisfaction.

Research Question 4. Research Question 4 was: To what extent does faculty influence/input over workplace policies and practices contribute to teacher job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? The hierarchical regression showed that influence-setting performance standards, influence-establishing curriculum, influence-professional development content, influence-setting discipline policy, and influence-school budget were significantly and

negatively associated with job satisfaction. This model accounted for only 8.5% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction.

While faculty influence/input accounted for 8.5% of the variance, other researchers feel strongly about how influence affects job satisfaction. Certo and Fox (2002) claim, “A lack of authority in making decisions about curriculum, assessment, scheduling and policy leads both experienced and novice teachers to doubt their professional status” (p. 2). Snider (1999) adds that the lack of autonomy and professional status is demoralizing and concludes that “as many as one-half of all new teachers respond by leaving the profession” (p. 64).

Research Question 5. Research Question 5 was: What is the influence of teacher attitude of efficacy on job satisfaction? The hierarchical regression showed that agree-teaching not worth it and thinking about transfer were significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Agree-teachers satisfied and agree-principal enforces discipline were significantly and positively associated with teacher job satisfaction. This model accounted for 36.9% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction.

Conclusion

Of all factors explored, teacher attitude counted for the greatest variance in job satisfaction. It is therefore imperative that this effect be given serious consideration when developing practice and policies to increase teacher job satisfaction and retention. Kim and Loadman (1994) investigated predictors of teacher job satisfaction and found that there were seven statistically significant variables: salary, working conditions, professional autonomy, interactions with students, interactions with colleagues, opportunities for advancement, and professional challenge. With this in mind, more consideration of these variables needs to be given when devising a plan for recruiting and maintaining classroom teachers.

As espoused by the two factor theory, teacher job satisfaction is motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, and opportunity for advancement are those factors that lead to satisfaction. Extrinsic factors such as supervision, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions (salary and administrative support) are those factors that lead to dissatisfaction.

With this in mind and based on study findings, the crux of the two factor theory is evidenced in this study. The extrinsic factors of the two factor theory suggest that characteristics such as interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, and administrative practices are factors that lead to dissatisfaction. Results confirm that the characteristics of working conditions are significantly associated with job satisfaction. More specifically, both salary and administrative support were significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction, while student misbehavior was significantly and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Each of these characteristics represents an extrinsic factor, which Herzberg et al. (1959) suggests as a factor leading to dissatisfaction. The findings of this study support his theory.

Implications

Three major concerns regarding teacher job satisfaction warrant attention. First, in view of the fact that teacher attitude accounted for the greatest variance in job satisfaction, and for the sake of the students, teacher attitudes and perceptions should matter to those close to education. When teachers are stressed out, burned out, depressed, fail to have a positive attitude, lose focus, commitment and a sense of belonging, this can lead to unhappiness and dissatisfaction. When teachers become dissatisfied with their position or within the profession, this can lead to seeking a position in another school, district, or leaving the profession completely. No matter the reason for leaving, a vacancy is created that will need to be filled. The rate at which this happens can

disrupt the learning environment, the educational programming of the school, and the continuity of instruction for students. Additionally, with up to half of teachers who enter the teaching profession leaving within the first 5 years (Billingsley, 2004), newer teachers do not have the experience comparable to that of veteran teachers. While veteran teachers have had time and opportunity to hone their craft, new teachers generally do not yet possess the skills and strategies needed to help students grow and achieve at maximum potential.

Second, in light of teacher attitudes and perceptions accounting for the greatest variance in job satisfaction, principals should consider their own behaviors, as administrative support accounted for the second greatest variance at 22.4%. Responses from the SASS survey items indicate that teachers felt favorably toward the principal letting their staff know what is expected of them and about the principal's supportive and encouraging behaviors. Survey results also indicate that the principal enforcing rules, communicating expectations, and recognizing staff for a job well done were important. Based on this, principals and school administrators must ensure that they lend their support and encouragement, enforce discipline, and communicate expectations. Most importantly, principals must provide recognition of their staff.

The final concern is the overall cost of turnover within the field of education. With so many teachers leaving their positions, costs in time, energy, and financial resources drains school systems across America. Instead of investing in and focusing on rich professional development that will deepen content knowledge and enhance strategies for delivering instruction, districts and schools are forced to split their time between innovative professional development with bringing new teachers up-to-speed on the inner workings of the education system. Additionally, Barnes, et al. (2007) estimate that attrition costs the United States in excess of \$7 billion in

recruitment, administrative processing and hiring, professional development and replacement training.

Recommendations for Future Research

The conclusions drawn from this study indicate a need for further exploration of teacher attitudes and perceptions towards job satisfaction. Areas of future study are as follows:

1. This study was limited in the fact that I utilized specific questions from the Schools and Staffing survey (2003-2004). While the SASS survey is a national survey, perhaps using another form of survey would yield different results. Other survey instruments to consider using would be the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) from the University of Minnesota, which measures teacher and principal job satisfaction (Weiss et al. (1967) or the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979), which measures teacher and principal commitment to an organization.
2. This study used a quantitative approach to collecting data. Utilizing a qualitative method as a means to collect data on teachers regarding their attitudes and perceptions of job satisfaction may prove to be additionally beneficial, elicit more in-depth responses as their thoughts and feelings may be captured in a way that provides a more in-depth view of what makes them satisfied and dissatisfied, and what specifically causes them to leave the profession.
3. Another area for future research should be dissatisfaction-led turnover. This research should focus explicitly on those who have left the teaching profession and the specific reasons for leaving.

4. The examination of teacher readiness and preparedness programs, especially for special education teachers, should be examined as means to rule out teachers leaving the profession due to dissatisfaction due to lack of preparation.
5. Future research should be conducted on teacher attitudes and perceptions of job satisfaction in the era of increased accountability, high-stakes testing, and pay tied to student test scores.
6. The results from this study indicate that influence over workplace policies and practices such as setting performance standards, establishing curriculum, determining professional development, setting discipline policy and deciding how the school budget will be spent had a significant and negative association with job satisfaction. Based on this, it is recommended that future areas of study include examination of faculty influence/input over workplace policies and practices.

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(Job Title)

Seton Hall University
(Organization, State or Local Agency Name)

400 S. Orange Ave
South Orange, NJ 07079
(Organization or Agency Address)

(Date Assigned to Work with NCES Data)

(NCES Database or File Containing Individually Identifiable Information*)

I, Shelby Cunningham, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that when given access to the subject NCES database or file, I will not -

(i) use or reveal any individually identifiable information furnished, acquired, retrieved or assembled by me or others, under the provisions of Section 183 of the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002 (P.L. 107-279) and Title V, subtitle A of the E-Government Act of 2002 (P.L. 107-347) for any purpose other than statistical purposes specified in the NCES survey, project or contract;

(ii) make any disclosure or publication whereby a sample unit or survey respondent (including students and schools) could be identified by the data furnished by or related to any particular person or school under these sections could be identified; or

(iii) permit anyone other than the individuals authorized by the Commissioner of the National Center for Education Statistics to examine the individual reports.

Shelby Cunningham
(Signature)

[The penalty for unlawful disclosure is a fine of not more than \$250,000 (under 18 U.S.C. 3571) or imprisonment for not more than five years (under 18 U.S.C. 3559), or both. The word "swear" should be mistaken out when a person elects to affirm the affidavit rather than to swear to it.]

City/County of Essex Commonwealth/State of New Jersey
Sworn to and subscribed before me this 29th day of July, 20 10. Witness my hand and official Seal.

J. Anne Prepon
(Notary Public/Seal)

My commission expires 2/19/14.

* Request all subsequent follow-up data that may be needed. This form cannot be amended by NCES, so access to databases not listed will require submitting additional notarized Affidavits.

Appendix B.**Schools and Staffing Survey Teacher Questionnaire 2003-2004**

Questions that measure salary				
I am satisfied with my teaching salary (#63c)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
If I could get a higher paying job I'd leave teaching as soon as possible (#66d)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>

Questions that measure administrative support				
The principal lets staff members know what is expected of them (#63a)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
The school administration's behavior toward the staff is supportive and encouraging (#63b)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>

My principal enforces school rules for student conduct and backs me up when I need it (#63h)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
The principal knows what kind of school he/she wants and has communicated it to the staff (#63k)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
In this school, staff members are recognized for a job well done (#63m)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>

Questions that measure student discipline				
The level of student misbehavior in this school (such as noise, horseplay, or fighting in the halls, cafeteria or student lounge) interferes with my teaching (63d)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>

Rules for student behavior are consistently enforced by teachers in this school, even for students who are not in their classrooms (#63i)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
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Questions that measure faculty influence/input				
Setting performance standards for students at this school (#61a)	No influence <input type="radio"/>	Minor influence <input type="radio"/>	Moderate influence <input type="radio"/>	A great deal of influence <input type="radio"/>
Establishing curriculum (#61b)	No influence <input type="radio"/>	Minor influence <input type="radio"/>	Moderate influence <input type="radio"/>	A great deal of influence <input type="radio"/>
Determining the content of in-service professional development programs (#61c)	No influence <input type="radio"/>	Minor influence <input type="radio"/>	Moderate influence <input type="radio"/>	A great deal of influence <input type="radio"/>
Setting discipline policy (#61f)	No influence <input type="radio"/>	Minor influence <input type="radio"/>	Moderate influence <input type="radio"/>	A great deal of influence <input type="radio"/>

Deciding how the school budget will be spent (#61g)	No influence <input type="radio"/>	Minor influence <input type="radio"/>	Moderate influence <input type="radio"/>	A great deal of influence <input type="radio"/>
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Questions that measure teacher attitude				
I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school (#63u)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat agree <input type="radio"/>	Somewhat disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
The stress and disappointments involved in teaching at this school aren't really worth it (#66a)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
The teachers at this school like being here; I would describe us as a satisfied group (#66b)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
I like the way things are run at this school (#66c)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>
I think about transferring schools (#66e)	Strongly agree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree <input type="radio"/>