

KEEPING TEACHERS:

THE FACTORS INFLUENCING INTENT TO STAY

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ABSTRACT

DISSERTATION: Keeping Talent: The relationship between perceived supervisor support and teacher retention.

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The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between principal support toward teachers who are new to a school and whether these actions lead to teacher retention or attrition. The study specifically examines the relationship between teacher's perception of their principal's support and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions. The importance of salary and pay satisfaction will be examined and special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's influence on perceived supervisor support. This study used a correlational design to gather quantitative data to answer my research questions. Quantitative analyses worked to capture the relationships between the demographic factors, perceived supervisor support, pay satisfaction, and intent to stay.

While there were relationships in the model studied, once perceived supervisor support is added to the model all other relationships are no longer statistically significant. As a teacher feels supported, there is a relationship with their intent to stay. In other words, as a teachers' perception of supervisor support increases, one's intent to stay also increases.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family: my wife, Terra, and our children, Peter, Thomas, and Abigail. While I was working to set an example for you about the value of education, you set an example for me about patience, forgiveness, and love.

I also dedicate this work to the memory of my parents, Rita McKee Hicks and Gary Hicks. Mom taught me the value of education. Dad taught me the power of imagination.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Finding an excellent teacher, the kind a principal knows will come into the organization and have a positive influence on the climate and on student achievement, is one of the most important functions of a principal. So much attention is dedicated to the recruiting phase that there are programs such as hiring fairs for universities and recruitment events. These recruiting activities are further complicated in hard to fill areas due to a decrease in matriculation rates in education programs in those areas across the country (Cancio, Albrecht, & Johns, 2013; Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016; Sutchter, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016).

While it is important to bring new teachers on board to meet the mandate of society to educate students, it is equally important to support those teachers so they will stay within the organization and the field for 10 years, which increases their likelihood to work until retirement age (Macdonald, 1999). To do this, teachers must feel supported by both the principal and the other facets of the organization, specifically other teachers and mentors assigned to them (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

With an attrition rate of near 50% within the field of teaching for teachers within the first five years coupled with a near 50% turnover rate for specific fields where teachers are likely to leave one school to go to another school it is the job of a principal and to a lesser extent the other members of the school to work to retain teachers that are in their first 5 years (Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016; Ingersoll & May, 2012). The reason for this is multi-tiered. On the surface, it is difficult to find good teaching candidates in many academic areas, which include science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and special education. This is true in a variety of settings including low poverty schools and rural schools. For example, even in the highly sought-

after, suburban school district where I served, the pool of science teacher applicants has decreased over the past five years.

In addition to the difficulty of finding a quality replacement for the exiting teacher, there are ramifications for those left behind. As can be seen in the review of literature below, there is a negative effect on the culture of the organization from which the teacher is leaving (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). This goes deeper than hurt feelings. In the area of special education, the cultural connection of the leaving teacher to the other teachers within the organization behooves the students he or she serves (McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008). This is the most important detriment to the departure of a teacher: the impact on the students served. Not only does the lack of relationship of the new teacher have an impact on special education students, the test data of students bear out the impact of replacing an experienced teacher with one without experience disabilities (Henry, Fortner, & Bastian, 2012). This nefarious pattern appears to disproportionately impact those students who are already in underserved schools as a result of high poverty (Madkins, 2011; Ocasio, 2014).

There is a current and worsening teacher shortage (Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald & Brown; 2016; Madkins, 2011; Murnane & Steele, 2007; Ocasio, 2014). According to Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, Carver-Thomas (2016), the widely publicized teacher shortage is projected to continue to grow. Their evidence points to four main factors that drive the teacher shortage: lower enrollment rates, a desire of districts to improve student-teacher ratios, more students as a result of population growth, and higher attrition. Of these, the variable the principal has the greatest influence on is teacher attrition (Boyd et al., 2011). One of the mitigating factors to attrition is the idea that leaders and organizations support their people in such a way that they perceive that they are supported.

Statement of the Problem

According to work done by Ingersoll and May in 2012, 46% of teachers in their first 5 years of teaching leave the field. When teachers leave a school, their absence relates to declines in student achievement, and hurts the relationships they leave behind professionally, and in the building culture. This harm appears to do disproportionate damage to students who already begin school behind as a result of living in impoverished areas. Finding the balance between the principal's support and the organization's support as it relates to turnover will help leaders know how to balance priorities between the principal and others within the organization that support teachers in the hopes of retaining teachers over time. To this end, this study uncovers if there is a relationship between the way teachers feel supported early in their career and their intent to stay at their current school as a result of that support. This relationship should it exist would help guide principals into creating better support structures both between themselves and their least experienced teachers and into creating better support between veteran teachers and their less experienced colleagues. This is important in today's reality of the teacher shortage that has been touched on below and will be elaborated upon more fully in Chapter 2.

Purpose of the Study

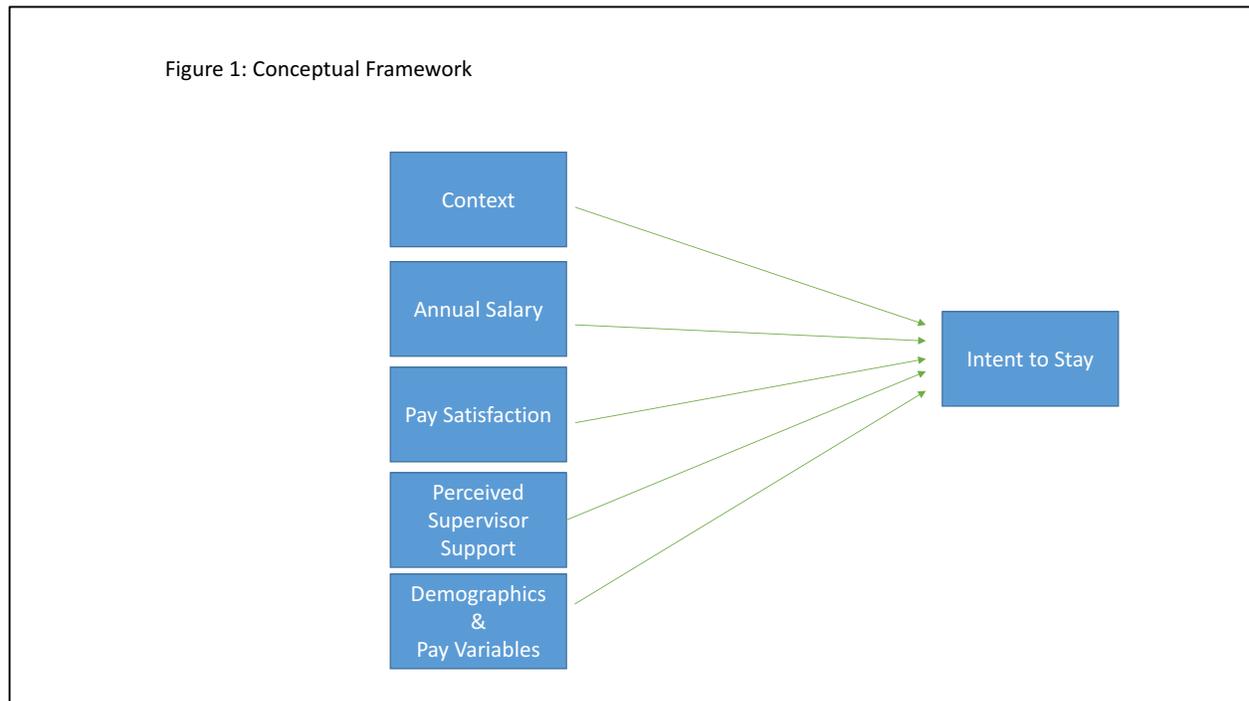
The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between principal actions toward teachers who are new to a school and whether these actions lead to teacher retention or attrition. The study specifically examines the relationship between principal's support and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions. The importance of salary and pay satisfaction are examined and special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's influence on perceived supervisor support.

Conceptual Framework

In order to avoid attrition or conversely to retain teachers, the principal needs to put in place appropriate support for teachers. In order to find out what types of support leads a teacher to want to leave, either to go to a different school or a different field, or stay within a school this study will consider support through the lenses of perceived supervisor support (PSS) (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988) and pay satisfaction (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) was developed by Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) holds that an individual within an organization develops a view of how his supervisor values the contribution he makes within the workplace and his well-being. Pay satisfaction was developed to look at four dimensions of pay: Level, Raise, Benefits, and Structure with the original study looking at white collar vs. blue collar employees (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). As applied to my study, the independent variable of how much perceived support a supervisor, in this case the principal, shows a teacher should influence the likelihood of a teacher considering leaving or remaining (the dependent variable) within a school because the more perceived support a leader gives should increase his or her ability to retain teachers.

In the same way, the independent variable of how much pay satisfaction should influence the likelihood of a teacher considering leaving or remaining because the more perceived support an organization gives a teacher should increase likelihood to retain teachers. As can be seen by Figure 1, the principal has direct influence on Perceived supervisor support. As these perceived

supports are higher, the teacher's intent to stay should also be higher and vice versa.



Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to new teachers' intent to stay and perceived supervisor support?
2. When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between new teachers' Perceived supervisor support and intent to stay?

Significance of the Study

A study of teachers' perceived supervisor support and their relationship to teacher retention is important for several reasons. First, there is a negative impact on students when effective experienced teachers leave a school (Henry, Fortner, & Bastian, 2012; McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008; Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). Second, the principal has the highest

degree of influence on whether a teacher decides to stay or leave (Boyd et al., 2011; Grissom, 2011; Shaw & Newton, 2014; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011). Third, in an indirect way, the principal has an impact on both the induction process and mentoring of new teachers through assigning the mentor and planning the induction process as well as executing it. (Hannan, Russell, Takahashi, & Park, 2015; Park, Takahashi, & White, 2014; Pogodzinski, 2015). Fourth, the principal has an indirect influence in terms of school climate as it pertains to new teachers (Heineke, Mazza, & Tichnor-Wagner, 2014; Jones, Youngs, & Frank, 2013; McKinney, Labat Jr., & Labat, 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). The outcome of the study will hopefully give principals a sense of the relationship between support and retaining teachers. The hope is that principals can see both the scope of the problem and ways of creating more support for their teachers.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions have been defined in the context of this study and are important concepts in understanding my research:

Attrition – An employee leaving his or her job. This term does not always indicate if there will be a replacement of the position lost, but instead refers to the loss in and of itself.

Beginning teacher – A teacher who is in his or her first five years of teaching overall (Ingersoll, 2001).

Intent to stay – An employee's likelihood of staying at an organization. Low intent to stay is an indicator of an employee planning to leave (Kim, Price, Mueller & Watson, 1986).

Pay Satisfaction – An individual's view of four different dimensions of their pay: level, raise, benefits, and structure (Heneman & Schwab, 1985).

Perceived Supervisor Support – An individual within an organization view of how his supervisor values the contribution he makes within the workplace and his well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988).

Retention – Holding on to the employees that are already within the organization (McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008).

Rural – Includes all population, housing and territory not included in an urban area (Geography, 2010).

Salary – The amount of pay an individual receives as compensation for their work (Borman & Dowling, 2008).

Shortage – The lack of enough teachers to fill the number of open positions in an academic discipline, geographic area, or within the field writ large (Murnane & Steele, 2007).

Special Education – Teachers of students with disabilities, specifically those covered by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016).

STEM – Academic disciplines of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math are the so-called STEM areas that tend to have a higher demand for teachers than there is supply of teachers available (Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016).

Suburban – Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with a population of 250,000 or more. (“Rural Education in America - Definitions,” 2006)

Turnover – The loss of an employee that must be replaced within the organization.

Urban – The Census Bureau counts any area of 50,000 people as an urban area.

The study that follows is organized into four chapters, references, and appendixes. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature dealing with teacher attrition, retention, and support in the field. Chapter 3 will lay out the research methods for this quantitative study. The instruments that will be used and the manner in which they will be used in terms of sample and procedure for gathering the data will be discussed. The method of analysis will also be discussed in this chapter. Chapter 4 will discuss the findings of the study and a disaggregation of the data. Chapter 5 will be comprised of summary of the findings, conclusions if any that can be drawn and a suggestion for future studies in the area of teacher retention and perceived support.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Two summarizes the literature on the topic of retaining teachers in the profession. This chapter begins with an examination of the teacher candidate shortage, the attrition of teachers in the field, and ultimately how these conditions impact students. The literature's discussion of the early years of a teacher's career including induction and mentoring were then explored with a focus on the roles that the principal and others play in this process as well as the impact of a specific teacher's setting can influence his or her desire to remain in the same school or the field of education. The retention of teachers throughout their careers and the specific role of the principal in retaining teachers was examined.

There exists a multifaceted teacher shortage that has been taking shape in different areas over a long period of time (Ingersoll, 2001). In many ways, this teacher shortage impacts students with the most need in a disproportionate manner. In the face of such a shortage, it is imperative that principals and other hiring officials engage in the best practices of teacher retention. This chapter will explore the history and extent of the teacher shortage, most often cited reasons for attrition, and best practices in teacher retention.

Teacher Shortage

There is an overall greater demand for teachers than is currently being supplied (Murnane & Steele, 2007) and is a workforce that is unstable (Ingersoll, Merrill, Stuckey, & Collins, 2018). This is a result of many factors including an increase in demand due to population increase, districts increasing the number of teacher positions, and high levels of teacher attrition (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016). The number of candidates overall is increasing over time so there are more candidates than ever in history according to Cowan, Goldhaber, Hays, and Theobald (2016). They point out instead of an overall teacher shortage as

is often talked about in the media, there are specific content areas that are experiencing the shortage. Ingersoll points out that not only are there fewer teacher candidates, the teachers in the field are leaving the profession: 46% of new teachers left the profession within 5 years (Ingersoll & May, 2012). This is especially true in the fields of mathematics and science. They write, “The data confirm that schools have more difficulty hiring mathematics and science teachers than any other field” (Ingersoll & May, 2012, p. 437). There would be enough candidates to fill retirements, but the number of teachers who leave the field prior to retiring is what is creating the shortage.

The demand exceeding the supply is greater depending on teachers’ race/ethnicity and content area. In her review of the literature regarding the shortage of Black teachers, Tia Madkins (2011) explained the impact of both desegregation and the pace of growth of Black students significantly outstripping the pace of Black teachers as root causes of the shortage of Black teachers. She pointed out that Black students who go on to the university level tend to matriculate in other fields that are more “financially lucrative” and forgo teaching. Ocasio (2014) made similar observations in her review of the literature surrounding the Latino teacher pipeline in regards to a significant shortage of Latino teachers. Ocasio connected the importance of having teachers of color, echoing ideas from Madkins, as follows: “In order to create spaces where Latino students are growing up to pursue their dreams of higher education, classrooms must be equipped with teachers who can relate to these students and serve as role models on their journeys to success” (Ocasio, 2014, p. 244). There is limited literature available for the third largest minority, Asian Americans, (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Wing (2007) would attribute this lack of attention to what she finds to be the “invisibility” of Asian Americans as a minority when it comes to educational attainment (Wing, 2007, p. 455). While the shortage of specific

teachers of the aforementioned ethnicities is detrimental to the minority students described (Madsen, 2011; Ocasio, 2014; Wing, 2007), it is not the only area of shortage that has an impact on students. Ingersoll, May and Ni (2019) have shown that the trend among minority teachers continues as the non-minority population declines while the percentage of non-minority teachers holds steady at 82.7% of the teaching force (p. 14).

In addition to minority teachers in all disciplines, there are two specific discipline areas, that have a “pipeline” issue: Science Technology Engineering (and) Mathematics (STEM) disciplines and teachers who serve special education students (Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016). Goldhaber et al. (2016) found in the state of Washington that special education teachers have the highest attrition rate among all grades and disciplines. This mirrors the national trend Goldhaber and his colleagues found in terms of finding STEM and Special Education Teachers to hire in districts that were 90% or more minority: half districts reported trouble recruiting and retaining Highly Qualified teachers in these two areas. This is compounded by their finding that the production of teachers in those areas are at record low: “The supply of (Science Technology Engineering and Math) STEM and (Special Education) SPED teachers is simply not keeping up with demand” (p. 62).

The trend of teacher turnover appears to manifest in different regions with varying degrees of severity. According to their meta-study of turnover data, Carver-Thomas and Darling Hammond (2019) have found that the southern part of the country has seen the highest turnover based on the data from the Schools and Staffing Survey and the Teacher Follow-up Survey. In all three categories measured, city, suburb, town, and rural, the South had the highest turnover. Conversely, the Northeast had the lowest in each category with the West and the Midwest showing in between in each category (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2019).

Teacher Retention

The issue that Ingersoll has argued for over a decade is that there is not really a supply-side problem to the number of teachers, but that there exists a tremendous retention problem (Ingersoll, 2001, 2003, 2007). The early seed of a teacher likely to exit the field can be found in the pre-service time period of preparation. DeAngelis, Wall, and Che (2013) found that teachers who were dissatisfied with their preparation programs were three times more likely to leave the profession than those who were satisfied or highly satisfied. The level of support and satisfaction established during the pre-service years are part of what leads to teachers leaving the field, but it appears what happens early in the service years also has a large impact on the variance.

Following a group of 15 teachers from the point they entered the profession until their first five years in the field, Cochran-Smith and her colleagues (2012) found five outcomes based on their study, pointing out the fact that it is not a straightforward decision in terms of staying or leaving. They characterized these five outcomes as “Going strong and staying on; Going strong but moving along; Middling, then moving; Falling short but hanging on; and Falling short but getting out” (p. 859). In the first two groupings, teachers had an understanding of the work, were well supported by administration and colleagues and either continued to do well where they started or found a new place to flourish. Unfortunately, this group was less than half of teachers in the study, reinforcing the findings above. One teacher did not start in the field and the remainder left the field because of either poor performance or poor support or both (Cochran-Smith et al., 2012). While this article dissertation did not focus specifically on teachers recruited into the field, it reflects findings of a study that did.

Kelly and Northrop (2015) researched groups who claim to recruit “the best and brightest” like Teach for America and the New Teacher Project. They pointed out some of the

limiting factors that prohibit all in the field, and specifically the “best and brightest”, which included the low pay and the lack of advancement opportunity. Their findings suggest that while the attrition rate for all teachers remains at the aforementioned 50% mark, for “highly selective graduates” the rate is closer to 85% across the three years of their study. A higher salary and participation in an induction program for these selective graduates are two ways to decrease the attrition rate (Kelly & Northrop, 2015).

A similar study of teachers’ beliefs about themselves and their students was conducted by Lavigne (2014). While Lavigne pointed to a substantial body of research on pre-service and early career teachers, she wanted to know how the beliefs of teachers change over time and how those changes impact attrition. The beliefs of the teachers are items from the “The thing about my school is...” scale that have been modified from the student scale that included items like “I am good at math” and “I am a good reader.” Lavigne modified this instrument to reflect teacher’s beliefs about students using similar items because the settings of the original sample and her sample were similar in terms of high poverty students. She gave the instrument to teachers to three different cohorts twice over the course of five school years and compared the results within and among cohorts. Her findings indicated that teachers’ beliefs early in their tenure can either sustain them or drive them out of the field regardless of setting. Further, she suggested that more time needs to be put into sustaining the shared beliefs laid out in the study in teachers over the entirety of their careers and not just to focus on the first few years (Lavigne, 2014).

A specific subset of teachers who need help establishing their beliefs and their craft through significant support from their principal are teachers who teach students with Emotional Disabilities (ED). ED teachers who have a positive view about the support they are receiving are

more likely to remain at the school than those who do not feel supported (Cancio, Albrecht, & Johns, 2013). The support specifically takes the form of time and emotional support for the teacher. While some teachers may leave the field due to lack of support or other factors, the exit may not be permanent.

In a longitudinal study, researchers in Sweden followed 19 teachers over the course of twenty years and found an interesting trend among those who leave the profession in the first few years of their career: they come back (Lindqvist, Nordänger, & Carlsson, 2014). Of the 87 they followed, 19 left early and 18 of those eventually returned to teaching. If this is the case, they suggest that teaching be viewed less as a long-term career trajectory and more of a short-term exploratory career. With that being said, there are negative impacts on students when teachers, specifically teachers who are effective, leave a school.

Attrition Across Fields

In Henke's examination of the 1993 Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study (B&B:93), specifically compared those who responded both in 1994 and 1997, he found that 82% of those who were employed in 1994 in K-12 fields were still employed in 1997. "In particular, K-12 teachers were as likely as those who worked in health occupations; engineers, scientists, and lab and research assistants; and several other white collar occupation categories to work in the same occupation category in both 1994 and 1997" (Henke, 2001, p. 1). Across all studied fields that required baccalaureate degrees, teaching was as stable or more stable.

Nursing, a comparable field to teaching within the health sector, has a similar turnover rate to teaching when considering a meta analysis of studies conducted between 1990 and 2015 conducted by Mary Halter and her research team (2017). In their review of articles, they found the turnover rate to be 27% in the U.S. but ranged from 4% to 54% internationally (Halter et al.,

2017, p. 2). The impetus of their research was as a result of the high cost of nursing turnover in terms of training and lost time. Another field that is both comparable to teaching and where lost time due to turnover can be detrimental is law enforcement.

In their review of law enforcement turnover, Wareham, Smith, and Lambert (2015) explored the turnover rate within the field both nationally and regionally. Their findings on a national level were that 7.4% of full time police officers separated from their respective forces. They then worked to break it down by the size of the force and to take geographical region into consideration. They found that smaller police forces were more likely to experience higher turnover as well as police forces in the southern region (Wareham, Smith, & Lambert, 2015). While their study focused on regional and force size issues, it was silent on the tenure of police officers and any relationship between amount of time on the force and the separation or quit rate.

As in education, the attrition rate of new employees is higher than those who are tenured in the field. In their study of quit data from 20 Fortune 500 companies, Hom, Roberson, and Ellis (2008) found a curvilinear relationship between tenure and attrition; for a period of time in their careers, the longer a person was in the field the more likely they are to stay up until a certain point in their career, as early as one year. Afterwards, the attrition rate begins to rise over time. They also found that this relationship was heightened for women and Black and Asian workers potentially pointing towards a relationship of shorter tenures, higher quit rates and less likelihood of attaining tenure that leads to management positions (Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008). While the negative effects of losing an employee who is effective can be felt in any profession, the long-term ramifications on student learning are measurable over time.

Negative Outcomes of Attrition

If the loss of teachers and the difficulty finding candidates were just an adult problem that did not impact the children served, it would be an academic issue or policy issue. This problem has a negative impact on students as seen in their performance and other indicators. This moves the problem into the realm of an ethical failing and requires solutions that lead to higher teacher retention. Despite the fact that a new teacher can be better than the teacher he or she replaces, research shows that there is a wider disruption on the organization as a whole, which can have a negative impact on student achievement in areas like staff cohesion and community as they pertain to student engagement and achievement (Ronfeldt et al., 2013).

In STEM related classes, Henry, Fortner, and Bastian (2012) studied the relationship between teacher turnover and student progress. Henry and his colleagues studied student outcomes in North Carolina on their standardized end of year test comparing the outcomes of students of more experienced teachers to those of less experienced teachers. They found a measureable difference for students across most STEM measured courses, but the impact is greatest on chemistry and physics. Not only is there a measurable difference in student performance in STEM areas, there is also a negative impact on students with disabilities (Henry et al., 2012). This is not only a quality issue in special education but a quantity issue.

In addressing the shortage of special education teachers, McLeskey and Billingsley (2008) discussed the two-fold impact on students when an effective and experienced special education teacher leaves a building. Not only are they likely to be replaced by somewhat of lesser experience and/or somewhat dubious licensure, it takes a considerable amount of time to establish the depth of relationships with staff, parents and students to help a student with a disability or disabilities succeed (McLeskey & Billingsley, 2008).

There are many pieces to a lasting solution to finding teachers that have a positive outcome on students and having them stay with a school for a career. Part of the solution for students is for school districts to recruit the best candidates in the first place. This is often most affordably done by finding students right out of university who are not as expensive on the pay scale, but lack experience, specifically experience within the school organization where they need to serve. The larger part of the solution appears to be to retain the staff that have been developed within the institution as long as they have been trained well and are properly supported.

Positives of Attrition

While it is important to retain effective teachers in the field, there are positives that come about as a result of teacher attrition and attrition in all fields. As Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, and Gupta (1998) discuss in their study of turnover in the trucking industry, it is important to delineate between those who leave voluntarily and those who are discharged. They point out in their study that studying the overall turnover rate does not give a complete picture of the dynamics that have a relationship to turnover in each case: “The specific (Human Resources Management) practices that predict quit rates are quite different from those that predict discharge rates” (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998, p. 520). In education, teachers will both leave of their own accord, quit, and will be discharged. Understanding the cause of those who quit is more in line with the proposed research of this study.

One reason that some individuals leave organizations is due to the fact that they do not fit in with the homogenous nature of the group at hand (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991). In their study, Jackson et al. examined the similarity to the group as a whole in terms of age, experience, and status as an indicator of turnover. Their findings indicate the

less an individual was similar to the group the more likely it was that he or she would leave the organization. This has concerning implications when it comes to racial factors as it may lead to discrimination based thereon. This is also a concern given that the teaching force is 76% female and 73% white (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014). If the group homogeneity is based on educational effectiveness, however, the outcome of turnover may lead to positive impact on both the group and the students. As stated in Macdonald's international literature review of teacher attrition, "Teacher attrition is frequently positioned as either a problem for work force planning and resources or an indicator of the relatively poor quality of school life and teacher morale. A counter perspective is that teacher attrition is not necessarily a problem in that low levels of teacher attrition may lead to stagnation of the profession and schooling" (Macdonald, 1999, p. 1). This may run true over the course of time, but it can be difficult to tell if a teacher is effective early in his or her career.

Finding the right candidates to bring into a school is the foundation of having a teacher remain in the field over a lifetime. It certainly helps to have candidates that show signs of becoming highly effective or at least effective teachers over the course of their career, but the activities that occur in the first years of a teacher's time in a new school can be the deciding factors of whether a teacher chooses to stay at the school or stay in the profession (Lavigne, 2014). There are practices that must be engaged in to mitigate the likelihood a teacher will leave; many of these are directly enacted by the principal while others are a part of the culture and the responsibilities of a new teacher's peers.

Principal Impact on Retention

Of the many factors studied in terms of retention, attrition, and induction, the highest accounting for the likelihood of a teacher staying or leaving is the school principal. In their study

of New York City first year teachers, Boyd et al. (2011) succinctly noted the impact school administrators have on first year teachers' decision to return to a second year of teaching or move schools: "...administration emerges as the strongest predictor of retention relative to both transferring and leaving" (Boyd et al., 2011, p. 324). While other factors have an impact on the variance as found in Tickle et al., like salary and student behavior, it is the principal that both directly impacts the teacher's desire to stay and indirectly impacts the teacher's job satisfaction, which in turn impacts the teacher's desire to stay or move schools (Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011). Not only do Tickle et al. discuss the power of principal in terms of flight and job satisfaction, they further point out that "Administrative support mediates the effect of teaching experience, student behavior, and teachers' satisfaction with their salary on teachers' job satisfaction and intent to stay in teaching" (p. 347).

To establish the quantitative measure of how important principal effectiveness is, Grissom (2011) analyzed the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey and also at the 2004-2005 follow-up survey to see how principal effectiveness (approximated for in the model using six questions on a Likert scale to create a proxy for principal effectiveness) impacted teacher turnover. What Grissom found across all settings and models was:

The coefficient on the principal effectiveness measure remains stable across these models, suggesting a direct association between principal performance and teacher turnover even conditional on the other school, teacher, principal, and working conditions variables. (Grissom, 2011, p. 2573).

Grissom goes on to explain that with all other factors being equal in his model, a teacher at the school with the higher effectiveness measure had decreased likelihood of turnover. Grissom was able to corroborate similar findings of qualitative studies done by other researchers like Johnson

and Birkeland in 2003 and Brown and Wynn in 2009 (as cited in Grissom, 2011). This relationship in disadvantaged schools compared to more resourced schools is even greater because retention is more heavily impacted by the quality of the principal in the former (Grissom, 2011).

One way to discuss the impact of an effective principal is through the use of the servant leadership model as developed by Greenleaf and Spears, (2002). Using Greenleaf's model as a guide, Shaw and Newton set out to measure the impact on retention that having a perceived "servant leader" would have on retention. They examined the teachers' job satisfaction in relation to the principal's level of servant leadership (Shaw & Newton, 2014). They found a relationship between the two. The more teachers perceived their principal to be a servant leader the less likely it was that they would leave their school. If that servant leader were to leave, however, the teacher's desire to stay could reduce.

Of the actions in which a principal can engage in order to positively impact teacher retention, it appears that remaining in the school is one of the most obvious according to research conducted by Bêteille, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2012). In their research regarding principal career paths, they found that there is an 18% higher chance that a teacher will leave with the arrival of a new principal (Bêteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012). This link between principals and their teachers, especially during the early years of a teacher's career seems to point to a relationship.

Influence of School Culture

While a principal has a tremendous influence on the novice teacher's outcomes, he or she is not alone in the relationship that will lead to the retention of a new teacher to the organization. Though administrators have both direct and indirect influence on the novice teacher in terms of the choice of mentor for the novice teacher has a tremendous influence on the outcome. The

culture that exists within the building and the other staff, to which teachers are exposed, also have a relationship with the retention rate.

In their study of the Building a Teaching Effectiveness Network (BTEN) schools, Hannan et al. (2015) established the importance of peer interaction and the use of peer feedback to not only give new teachers useful information about their practice, but also as a tool by which they could interact with established peers: “BTEN participants almost universally reported the use of the feedback process as strengthening relationships between administrators and teachers by opening up communication and making new teachers more visible and vocal in schools” (Hannan et al., 2015, p. 505). The impact on the schools who used BTEN with fidelity lead to better outcomes for both new teachers and established teachers by helping them engage in better feedback and by forcing them to focus on data and documentation (Hannan et al., 2015).

When considering interventions that can be taken to mitigate the loss of human capital through attrition, the induction process of new teachers is one of the strongest. How an organization and specifically the leader and the direct mentor of a new teacher work to acclimate a new teacher into the school are the strongest indicator of short-term retention and long-term success on student outcomes. In their meta-analysis of the research from the mid-1980’s through the early 2000’s, Ingersoll and Strong found:

Overall, the studies we have reviewed provide empirical support for the claim that induction for beginning teachers and teacher mentoring programs in particular have a positive impact. Almost all of the studies we reviewed showed that beginning teachers who participated in some kind of induction had higher satisfaction, commitment, or retention.

The most common type of induction program in the literature based on Ingersoll and Strong's research was assigning a peer-mentor. Their findings were that assigning a mentor who was in the same subject area reduced the risk of a first year teacher leaving by 30% and assigning a mentor who happened to be in a different subject area still reduced that risk by 18% (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). While they found that mentors alone were the highest statistically significant accounting for the variance, they did examine other induction activities like holding classes or reducing class sizes and both were statistically not significant. They found that if a combination of induction activities was utilized, the relationship to teacher retention was more significant than any one variable alone.

Not only having a mentor, but the types of activities in which the mentor-mentee engage can have an influence on the new teacher experience. Instead of just helping a teacher acclimate, Pucella (2014) suggested that the new teachers should be brought into a level of leadership from the start. Having mentors involve new teachers in a school leadership can establish both the leadership skill of the new teacher, but also give them a reason to consider staying (Pucella, 2014). Pucella does not give any data to support this potential relationship, but she just speculates that it would stand to reason that this level of involvement would reduce attrition. Mentors need to engage in a variety of activities with their mentee that include leadership and feedback.

The importance of quality feedback in and of itself without its secondary function of relationship-building is the focus of Park et al. (2014), wherein the authors discuss the importance of two layers of feedback: one from a peer coach and one from the principal. While the principal's feedback is meaningful, the researchers put it secondary to the peer coach who

focuses the skill sets on which the teacher will work and helps them develop (Park, Takahashi, & White, 2014).

There are areas where administration involvement in the induction process is specifically useful for new teachers within the importance of induction as it leads to retention. The primary area where administration can have a positive impact is within the use of direct teacher feedback. In their study of the Building a Teaching Effectiveness Network (BTEN) schools, Hannan et al. (2015) found that the feedback process used as a part of the BTEN protocol not only helped give teachers meaningful information to improve instruction, it led to administrators having a deeper relationship with the teachers and have a better understanding of their needs as a new teacher.

In their intensive induction plan for new teachers and accompanying research, Park et al. (2014) recommended most of the feedback be given by the peer coach. Then the principal should take on a secondary role in giving feedback focusing on a few indicators during brief visits with brief follow-up meetings. The principal then garners more in-depth information from the peer coach according to the 90 Day Cycle. This idea of the coach taking on a quasi-evaluative role runs somewhat contrary to the coach-teacher relationship in terms of confidentiality (Thach & Heinselman, 1999). That said, as long as the intent is support, the collaborative feedback is positive.

In terms of establishing a positive relationship, the principal can hold the critical element for new teachers in terms of fostering resilience that can lead to retention. In their qualitative study of beginning teachers and their relationship with their principals in Australia, a country where the attrition rate among first year teachers is 30% (Ramsey & Wales, 2000) compared to the U.S. attrition rate of 46% (Ingersoll & May, 2012), Peters and Pearce (2012) pointed to the need for administrators to support the teacher in professional skill building and their emotional

well-being. The greatest need the principal could meet was to show an interest in their career as a teacher.

Not only do the principal's actions toward the new teacher influence him or her, the way the principal interacts with the teacher's mentor can influence them according to Pogodzinski (2015): "...when novices perceived administrator-teacher relations in their school as being negative they were significantly less likely to interact with their mentors at least once a week with regard to curricular matters" (p. 54). In fact, the likelihood that either party, the mentor or mentee would take part in the program depended on whether the principal had interacted negatively with his or her staff (Pogodzinski, 2015). The need for the relationship with a mentor is clear and the principal sets the tone for first year teachers in all content areas.

As discussed above, science content teachers are part of the group that leaves the profession at a higher attrition rate. In an attempt to gain a sense of what a first year science teacher goes through, Saka, Southerland, Kittleson, and Hunter (2012) conducted a qualitative case study of one teacher's first year. This teacher was placed in a fringe placement, one that was not his preference, but one for which he was licensed. The two major findings were incorrect placement and having an early negative encounter with the principal were the reasons the participant cited for leaving the school at the end of the year (Saka, Southerland, Kittleson, & Hutner, 2012). Not only do a principal's positive interactions with a newer teacher matter, so do the negative interactions.

One of the areas often overlooked in induction processes that can lead to attrition early in a teacher's career is the area of resilience. When considering teacher attrition through the psychological lens using a qualitative study, Hong (2012) found that the difference between leavers and stayers were how they managed challenges. For those who had developed strong

resilience through the support of other teachers and administrators and were able to set appropriate boundaries, they were more likely to stay in a school. For those who did not view challenges with the same perception, they experienced negative outcomes like burning out (Hong, 2012). In addition to resiliency, there are other specific skills that need to be taught depending on the setting in which one serves.

Context Matters

While there are multiple layers as described above to the process of teacher induction and many individuals within the organization who must be involved, tailoring the induction process to the needs of both the school and the new teachers is critical. In their study of the University of Chicago Urban Teacher Education Program, Hammerness and Matsko (2012) demonstrated the integral nature of a tailor-made program for new teachers based on the organizational need:

This exploratory work suggests promise for induction programs that establish mechanisms that explicitly acknowledge the features of context in teaching and student learning. We argue that induction programs that treat context as content may be addressing particularly important aspects of new teachers' settings that are critical to their continued success with students and teaching. (Hammerness & Matsko, 2013, p. 575)

These findings were similar to a quantitative study of eleven elementary schools in urban settings in the Netherlands. The researchers there talked specifically about the structure of the support that needs to be given to new teachers, which is similar to the above, but also the overall culture that is required within the entire building for new teachers to feel supported beyond their mentor (Gaikhorst, Beishuizen, Korstjens, & Volman, 2014).

This culture of support speaks to the activities beyond the specifically paired buddy and can help teachers cope with the adjustment to the school and community.

Not only is it important to establish the needs of the school setting, it is important to new teachers to understand the community setting in which they live and work. In a study of 29 new teachers in rural Washington, Sharplin, O'Neill, and Chapman (2014) found a relationship between those new teachers who received high level of support both professionally and personally and those who remained in these rural settings. Across the cases, they found characteristics of those who will leave include being avoidant and engaging in withdraw. Those who stay are more adaptive and show actions to be a part of the community. As such, they proscribe both a well-organized and welcoming induction process for both work and personal life and intervention strategies that all staff within the organization can engage in at the first sign of mental stress on the new teacher (Sharplin, O'Neill, & Chapman, 2011)

The outcome of not helping early career teachers with their stress and the induction program can have an influence on teachers' desire to remain. Not having a strong induction program can in fact be one of the main reasons that early career teachers will leave the profession. In a study in Australia, which has similar attrition rates as cited above for the U.S. near 50%, a majority of beginning teachers 70% were left with informal support only which they cite as source of dissatisfaction (Ewing & Smith, 2005). Not only is induction a tool by which to retain the talent a school needs, it can alternately act a wedge to drive them away.

Salary and Pay Satisfaction

In their meta-analysis, Borman and Dowling examined studies dealing with the teacher labor market (2008). They considered factors such as teacher demographics including content area and “school resources” that included student-teacher ratio, instructional spending, per-pupil spending, and teacher salary. Of these, they found that teachers who were in what they considered the low-salary category “had odds of attrition 1.37 times greater” than higher paid teachers. (Borman & Dowling, 2008, p. 393).

In their study of new teacher mobility comparing traditional public school teachers to charter school teachers, Gulosino, Ni, and Rorrer found in both populations that higher salaries led to lower turnover (2019). This was true at both the elementary and secondary levels in influencing both transfers and quit behavior (Gulosino, Ni, & Rorrer, 2019). While they posit in their conclusion that raising salaries may help retain teachers, it is not guaranteed to mitigate turnover, especially at charter schools.

Understanding the factors, including salary, that would cause a teacher to stay or return to the field of teaching and influence the teaching workforce was the goal of Podolsky, Kini, Darling-Hammond, and Bishop’s 2019 study. Within their study examining multiple longitudinal studies of the teaching workforce including the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS), they found a clear indication that salary appeared to have a relationship with teachers remaining or returning to the field. They point out that part of what can influence a teacher to leave the field is the availability of “better and higher paying job opportunities” (Podolsky, Kini, Darling-Hammond, & Bishop, 2019, p. 13). Of further interest in terms of salary is the fact that according to their research, teachers ranked a higher salary as the third most important

factor in their consideration to return to the field of teaching with 67% of their sample noting it as a consideration.

Using similar original data sets including the SASS and TFS to explore the teacher shortage within the specific group of minority teachers, Ingersoll, May and Collins found a similar relationship to pay (2019). As pay increases the likelihood of teacher turnover decreases (Ingersoll, May, & Collins, 2019).

Considering the importance of pay satisfaction within the field of academia, Tang and Tang examined the relationship of salary to pay satisfaction with tenure as a mitigating factor (2012). In their study, they found that among the 126 tenured professors and 77 non-tenured faculty sampled, that increased income led to a higher pay satisfaction for both groups, but was higher for non-tenured faculty. They suggested in their conclusions that this may be due to the fact that non-tenured faculty may be more motivated by money than tenured professors who have other motivations including expanding the knowledge within their area of study (Tang & Tang, 2012).

Pay satisfaction as a measurable variable has been shown to have a relationship to retention in other fields. In their study of nursing turnover, Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, and Sirola sought to find out if pay satisfaction or job satisfaction had a stronger relationship to turnover. They sampled 361 nurses at two hospitals and found that while job satisfaction does have a relationship to turnover, pay satisfaction has a stronger relationship on a nurse's intent to stay (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998).

Principal's Relationship to Retention

As indicated above, there is a relationship to student performance when teachers leave and there is a shortage of candidates when taking into consideration the number of teachers who

leave prior to retirement age. With this in mind, it is important to implement strategies that will keep the teachers in place. Specifically, the principal needs to work to keep the teachers through specific behaviors that can help mitigate a teacher's desire to leave. There are also other factors that can play into the variance of why teachers who are effective leave the field prior to retirement.

McKinney et al. describe the importance of school culture thus, "Progressive culture is infectious; it will continue to propagate into a culture of excellence, becoming the norm and not the exception" (McKinney et al., 2015, p. 155). In terms of how one perceives the organization and their place within it, school culture can be a part of how one develops this perception. Deal and Best (1999) describe culture as:

[a school's] unwritten rules and traditions, norms and expectations that seem to permeate everything; the way people act, how they dress, what they talk about or avoid talking about, whether they seek out colleagues for help or don't, and how teachers feel about their work and their students. (pp. 2-3)

The scope of variables within the culture that is wide and is influenced by not only the principal, but is also able to be influenced by the new teacher's peers as well.

An area where peers and the culture fostered can influence a new teacher's commitment to the field is specifically in the area of special education. Special educators must foster relationships in order to be successful because the inherent nature of their work with children. Colleague support for special educators is of greater significance and was highly predictive of commitment to assignment, which can act as a proxy for retention (Jones et al., 2013). The findings suggest that collegial support is less predictive in general education teachers, but important nonetheless.

A group of Norwegian researchers examined the factors that cause a teacher to remain in a school; Norway also has an attrition issue despite their highly regarded educational system. What their research uncovers when looking across multiple variables and their impact on a teacher's sense of belonging and job satisfaction was that it took a combination of positive factors to influence both (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). A positive influence on well-being was most readily achieved by having support from administration, colleagues and parents and when these three factors were positive, the motivation to leave was less. The variable that led to the highest exhaustion level and in turn raised a teacher's motivation to leave was discipline problems. The relationship of discipline to desire to leave is one that can hamper schools that have more negative behaviors like those served by organizations who seek to help with the understaffing issues faced by schools.

In their 1998 study of principal behaviors that influence teachers' commitment to teaching, Singh and Billingsley examined data collected as part of the Schools and Staffing Survey of 1987-88. Within that study, they looked at specific behaviors by the principal reflected within the survey instrument. These were clear expectations, fairness in evaluation, clear communication, staff recognition, clarity of goals, support and encouragement, principal talks with teachers one on one, principal help, principal supports the rules, and principal support for resources. The researchers then combined the above variables into expectations, principal communication, and clear goals using an average score of each of the variables above. They then controlled individual teacher's demographics. What they found was that the principal through their direct support in terms of "clear expectations and communication of a vision and goals for the school...fairness in evaluations...recognition for accomplishments...assistance with

instructional practices as well as help with discipline and resources” (Singh & Billingsley, 1998, p. 237). The importance of these types of supportive behaviors is seen in other research as well.

In their study of what they referred to as “hard to staff” schools, Hughes, Matt, and O’Reilly (2015) gave 20 different school sites with approximately 80 teachers the Administrative Support Survey as created by C. Yvonne Balfour in 2001 and then correlated those variables to teacher retention. They found that four areas of principal behaviors were found to be supportive at a significant level: Emotional, Environmental, Instructional, and Technical. Of these, Emotional support was found to have the highest correlation followed by Environmental support. Based on their findings, they recommended that the principal has the “opportunity to create and maintain a positive school culture” which reduces turnover (Hughes et al., 2015, p. 133). The principal’s main tool according to their findings is communication both in terms of one on one communication and school-wide communication in terms of vision.

While the principal does influence teacher’s commitment to stay in a positive way as stated above, there is an upper limit of their influence when it comes to positive influence on teacher commitment. When comparing teacher efficacy ratings to principal efficacy variables, Ware and Kitsantas (2011) found that their measure of teacher autonomy showed increased commitment. Once they introduced the principal’s relationship to “spending and setting discipline policy” there was a “direct negative influence on...teacher commitment” (Ware & Kitsantas, 2011, p. 190). This study reminds leaders that there is an upper end to their ability to enact positive change. Once a leader crosses a certain threshold, their ability to retain employees can diminish.

When considering the types of leaders teachers want, Hauserman (2019) found that there is one leadership style preferred by teachers in his study of 135 public schools in Alberta,

Canada: transformational. In a mixed methods study, Hauserman gave teachers at each of the schools the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire which rated principals. Once these principals were placed into two groups, high transformational leaders and low transformational leaders, teachers were then selected from each group for qualitative interviews. The results of the study were designed to find preferred behaviors in a principal. The preferred behaviors included developing leadership capacity in others; high levels of collaboration, especially when developing new policy; professional growth for personnel; an emphasis on teamwork and collegiality; serving as a good role model; outside of the box thinking; and being a visionary (Hauserman, 2019).

The period of time it takes to move a teacher from the higher likelihood to leave the field after the critical period discussed above in years one through five into a high likelihood that they will stay is the 10 year mark (Hughes, 2012). Hughes surveyed a random sample of teachers in a southern state and considered multiple factors including instruction, student motivation, classroom management, technology, salary, workload, parent and student support, and principal support. He explained that the choice to remain is typically because of the joy of teaching or because the amount of investment already placed in the profession. Their findings also suggested that teachers with an advanced degree or graduate work are also likely to stay regardless of years. This is in contrast to using younger teachers without education training.

The most effective teachers in terms of student achievement are more likely to stay as long as the curriculum and the professional development are robust according to a study of Australian teachers (Rice, 2014). While the effective teachers wanted what would lead to more stimulation and better results for their students, Rice found that the least effective teachers wanted the school to recruit a better cohort of students. An interesting indicator in the study that

can point to who may stay or go within the school is how the teacher responded to student scholastic failure: the least effective teacher will blame the students and they are also the ones more likely to leave.

In Tennessee, the state has worked to fund a retention program in the way of a retention bonus program. Teachers who were highly effective under the teacher evaluation rubric and agreed to stay in their current school were awarded a \$5,000 retention bonus. This program is focused only on highly effective teachers or Level 5 rated teachers who are serving in the neediest schools, specifically the bottom 5% of schools in the state in terms of standardized test measures. Researchers from Vanderbilt examined this program in the first year initially discovered that it is a way to have a positive outcome for low performing schools by keeping some of the highly qualified teachers (Springer, Swain, & Rodriguez, 2016).

Summary

Of the many factors studied in terms of retention, attrition, and induction, the highest accounting for the likelihood of a teacher staying or leaving is the school principal. This is well established in the literature, but the relationship between support when compared with wage and other contextual and demographic variables remains less explored. Given the information above regarding the attrition rate among teachers in their first five years in the field and the difficulty of finding teachers to fill those slots in specific areas such as special education and the STEM areas, it is even more important that principals work to do everything within their responsibilities to influence their teachers to stay. In order to understand their influence both directly and indirectly, it is important for a principal to have an understanding of how their support is perceived. There is a relationship between this level of perception and the likelihood a teacher will remain or leave an organization.

As such, it is imperative that the principal be aware of the perceived levels of support his or her teachers are experiencing. This study seeks to understand the strength of the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay while controlling for other variables such as pay that could influence a teacher to stay or leave. In order to gain a sense of the importance of the principal's role in perceived support and its relationship to intent to stay, the next chapter will discuss the use of data gathering instrumentation. Special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's behaviors. The use of regression to understand the multiple variables that contribute to retention will also be discussed.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

In Chapter 3, I describe the methods that I used to respond to my research questions. The purpose of the study is revisited followed by the specific research questions that were explored by the study. The design of the study, followed by the proposed sample and rationale for the sample are described. The specific instrumentations used and their reliability are explained. Finally, the plan to analyze the data collected by the instrumentation from the sample are discussed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between principal actions toward teachers who are new to a school and whether these actions lead to teacher retention or attrition. The study specifically examines the relationship between principal's support and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions. The importance of salary and pay satisfaction will be considered and special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's influence on perceived supervisor support.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to new teachers' intent to stay and perceived supervisor support?
2. When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between new teachers' Perceived supervisor support and intent to stay?

Design

I utilized a correlational design to gather quantitative data to answer my research questions. Quantitative analyses worked to capture the relationships between the demographic factors, perceived supervisor support, pay satisfaction, and intent to stay.

Settings

The settings in which each of the teachers served were rural public, urban public, and suburban public. I surveyed teachers in their first five years within each school district as a result of Ingersoll's work that focuses on the high rate of attrition in the first five years. Each of the districts were chosen due their differences from one another in size, geographic location, academic achievement, and racial makeup.

Pseudonyms were used for each district. See Tables 3.1-3.2 to compare districts. The first district was a suburban school district outside of a large city in the Indiana, McKee School District. The district had over 21,000 students. According to data in 2016-17 from the Indiana Department of Education (IDOE), of the students enrolled, 10% receive free and 4% received reduced payment lunch. Of the study body, 74.6% are White, 7.3% are Black, 6.4% were Hispanic, 6.2% were Asian, and 5.3% were Multiracial. McKee School district had 1,205 teachers of which 19.9% were in their first 5 years of teaching. McKee's four-year cohort graduation rate was 96.2%; their Indiana Statewide Testing for Educational Progress (ISTEP) percentage of passing both math and language arts was 87.9%; and their percentage of students passing both the English 10 and Algebra I end of course assessment (ECA) was 86.5%.

The second district, Boatman School District, was an urban school district in a large city. It had over 11,000 students according to the 2016-17 data from the IDOE. Of these, 61%

received free lunch and 9% received reduced lunch. The student makeup was as follows: 59.2% were Black, 24.1% were Hispanic, 8.9% were White, 5.8% were Multiracial, and 1.9% were Asian. Boatman School district had 771 teachers of which 28% were in their first 5 years of teaching. Boatman's four-year cohort graduation rate was 93.2%; their ISTEP percentage of passing both math and language arts was 66.7%; and their percentage of students passing both the English 10 and Algebra I ECA was 54.6%.

The third district, Blackhawk School District, was a rural school district in the same county as the McKee district. According to the most recent IDOE data, it had a little over 1,000 students. Of these, 29% received free lunch and 8% received reduced lunch. Of the student body, 92.9% were White, 4.8% were Hispanic, and 2.2% were Multiracial. Blackhawk had 83 teachers of which 25% were in their first 5 years of teaching. Blackhawk's four-year cohort graduation rate was 90.5%; their ISTEP percentage of passing both math and language arts was 66.5%; and their percentage of students passing both the English 10 and Algebra I ECA was 74.4%.

Table 3.1: Population, Lunch Status, Enrollment by Ethnicity, and Academic Achievement

School District	Mckee School District	Boatman School District	Blackhawk School District
School Population	21,000	11,000	1,000
Free Lunch	10%	61%	29%
Reduced lunch	4%	9%	8%
White	75%	9%	93%
Black	6%	59%	**
Hispanic	6%	24%	5%
Multiracial	5%	6%	2%
Asian	6%	2%	**
4-Year Cohort	96.2%	93.2%	90.5%
Graduation Rate			
ISTEP Percentage of Passing both ELA and math	87.9%	66.7%	66.5%
Percentage passing both Algebra I and English 10 ECA	86.5%	54.6%	74.4%

** Not Reported

Sample

Teachers in their first five years in teaching in each of the sample districts were asked to participate. Districts of different sizes and different priorities tend to induct new to the profession teachers and new to the district teachers in different manners. See Table 3.2 for new teacher percentages. Teachers varied in age, race, gender, educational attainment, and years of experience as a teacher. McKee and Boatman both hire many teachers annually; Blackhawk has less of a volume in hiring. The number of teachers eligible for the study was 493 as seen in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: New Teacher Percentages

District/School Name	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Faculty in first 5 years	Number of teachers in first 5 years
Mckee School District	1,205	27%	324
Boatman School District	771	18%	142
Blackhawk School District	83	33%	27

Instrumentation

Survey data were collected using a combination of two previously developed survey instruments to obtain quantitative data: Perceived Supervisory Support Instrument (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988) and the Pay Satisfaction Instrument (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). The Perceived Supervisor Support Instrument was originally used to parse out the supervisor's role specifically (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). It is an instrument that uses a 7 point Likert scale with "strongly disagree" valued at 1 and "strongly agree" as 7. A sample of the types of questions asked is "My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department" (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). These instruments feature high reliabilities. The coefficient alpha was .98 for the SPSS. Pay Satisfaction was developed to look at four dimensions of pay: Level, Raise, Benefits, and Structure with the original study looking at white collar vs. blue collar employees (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). This is also an instrument that uses a 7 point Likert scale with "strongly disagree" valued at 1 and "strongly agree" as 7. A sample of the types of questions asked is "My take home pay; my most recent raise; size of my current salary" (Heneman & Schwab, 1985).

Four questions regarding “intent to stay” based on Kim, Price, Mueller and Watson’s 1986 instrument was used as a proxy for retention. Intent to stay is measured with four questions: I plan to leave my current school as soon as possible; Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave my current school; I would be reluctant to leave my current school; I plan to stay at my current school as long as possible. This instrument also features a high reliability with a coefficient alpha of .85. The survey delivery and data collection will be via Qualtrics.

Data Collection

Participants were recruited into the study after I contacted three superintendents to invite their teachers into the study. Two of the three superintendents requested a copy of the survey in order to inspect it prior to agreeing to join the study. One of the two superintendents touched base with their head of the teacher’s union to give the union an opportunity to give input as well. The head of school and the remaining superintendent agreed immediately upon request and provided a letter of cooperation. The other two superintendents supplied a letter of cooperation after inspecting the survey items and in the one case discussing it with the union.

Once the letters of cooperation were collected this study was submitted to the Institutional Review Board for Ball State University for approval. Once the approval was secured, I reached out to the superintendents and asked each for email addresses for those teachers in the first five years within their school district. The three superintendents provided the information as requested.

Teachers participating in the sample were contacted via email with a letter of introduction and the link to participate in the survey. Within the survey link, participants were able to give consent after reading the consent disclaimer. My contact information was provided so that participants could withdraw consent even after participating if needed. Potential participants

received the initial email and three subsequent emails requesting participation that were spaced at approximately ten day intervals. The survey was open for a total of six weeks to give participants an opportunity to participate with multiple reminders. “Thank you” emails were sent to those who participated.

Data Analysis

For this study, the independent variables are Perceived supervisor support (PSS), pay satisfaction, intent to stay, context, and demographic variables. The dependent variable is teachers’ intent to stay. PSS is comprised of 16 questions; pay satisfaction, 18 questions; and intent to stay, 4 questions. Likert means were calculated for each variable in turn to create a single continuous variable for comparison purposes.

In addition to the constructs above, demographic variables were examined in relation to the “intent to stay” variable. Gender was collected as a binary variable. Race and ethnicity were collected as nominal variables using the same categories utilized by the IDOE: American Indian, Black, Asian, Hispanic, White, Multiracial, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. Years of experience in the district and total years of experience were collected as continuous variables.

Once the individual variables were established using Likert means, individual statistical information including mean, median, mode, and standard deviation are discussed in Chapter 4. Bivariate relationships were then explored using appropriate tests including Chi-squared, and Pearson Correlation test for significance. Finally, each of these variables are compared via a multiple linear regression. Demographic, context, and pay variables were controlled for to explore the relationship between the perceived supervisor support and intent to stay variables. The goal is to understand the coefficient magnitude and whether they are statistically significant or not.

Specific Analysis per Research Question

Below, each question's analysis is broken down in detail below.

1. How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to new teachers' intent to stay and perceived supervisor support?
2. When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay?

For the first question, perceived supervisor support and intent to stay were factored using Likert means into a single variable and then they were compared to each individual variable: suburban, rural, urban using t-tests and chi-squared tests for significance. This process was then repeated for each demographic variable: gender, race, and context. Experience variables for both years in current district and years of teacher overall were also compared to intent to stay and PSS.

For the second question, each of the variables above were controlled for via a linear regression. These variables were tested using linear regression looking specifically at the overall R^2 values, then coefficients B values for unstandardized variables and Beta values for standardized variables. Five models were run with intent to stay representing the dependent variable to see which variables had significant relationships and if those relationships changed as the model was built. The first model was the demographics of a teacher including years of experience and race. The second model included the context in which a teacher was teaching and included both level and location along with the previous model's variables. The third model included all of the variables above and the annual salary variable. The fourth model looked at all of the above variables and the pay satisfaction variable. The fifth and final model controlled for all of the variables above and included perceived supervisor support.

Limitations

This study was limited in a variety of ways. The instruments used were developed in other fields outside of education and they were not specifically tailored for the educational field. As such, the language used was not necessarily corollary to the school setting.

A specific limitation to the perceived supervisor support instrument is the lack of delineation of who the leader is. In this study, I have assumed the supervisor to be the building principal which is not appropriate for all settings. In many cases, teachers will view their department chair, team leader, or another member of the administrative team as their supervisor.

This study was limited by the makeup of the sample used. Not only was it relatively small when juxtaposed with the entirety of the teaching field both within the state of Indiana and within the United States, it was also not representative of the demographics within the state average or the national average. The sample was largely white and suburban which gives a skewed view.

Due to the quantitative nature of the study, getting to the heart of which principal behaviors lead to teachers feeling supported is also problematic. While there is clear data to show it is important to feel supported by the principal, this study does not delve into which behaviors or actions make a teacher feel more or less supported.

Finally, this study was limited by the number of variables studied. It would have benefitted by examining perceived organization support as another key variable to help parse the importance of a teacher's collegial support when compared to supervisor or principal support. Other variables that could have been considered include teacher age, teacher educational attainment, union membership, size of department, and demographic variables for the principal or supervisor.

Summary

This chapter discussed the study design, data collection from the sample, data analysis, and limitations. Chapter 4 presents the findings from the method described here in Chapter 3. The data analysis is presented as well as answers by research question in terms of the relationships that were found to have or approach statistical significance.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

As described in Chapter One, in this study I sought to understand the relationship between select variables and a teacher's intent to stay at the school where they currently serve. This chapter provides the results of the study; it is organized first by providing sample descriptive variables and then it explores each of the research questions. The first research question focused on bivariate relationships between each of the variables in turn when compared with intent to stay. The second question focuses on how each variables' relationships with intent to stay compares within a specific modeling sequence using linear regression.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between principal actions toward teachers that are new to a school and whether these actions influence a teacher's intent to stay. The study specifically examines the relationship between principal involvement in the induction process, mentor teacher's actions during the mentor process, and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions. Special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's behaviors and their influence on perceived supervisor support.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to new teachers' intent to stay and perceived supervisor support?

2. When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay?

Sample

The survey instrument was sent to the list of teachers in their first five years of teaching within each school district as designated by the Superintendent in each. The instrument was sent to a total of 493 teachers of which 324 (66%) were suburban, 142 (29%) were urban, and 27 (5%) were rural. Of these, 101 teachers completed a portion of the survey: 72 teachers (72%) were from the suburban setting, 18 (18%) were from an urban setting, and 11 (11%) were from a rural setting who completed the survey according to Qualtrics' distribution information. While the return rate for each varied, 22% suburban, 12.6% urban, and 40.7% rural, the overall return rate for the instrument was 20.4%.

Of the 101 cases that Qualtrics reported as completed, only 98 were useable as a result of missing data, including incomplete survey items that represented the questions necessary to calculate the Likert mean used as an overall variable for regression. Pairwise deletion was used for cases with missing or partial data.

Within the sample, level of teaching is considered a discrete, nominal variable with three choices: elementary, middle, or high school. As can be seen from Table 4.1, there were more elementary school teachers than high school or middle school teachers. This is in line with the proportion of teachers in the common configuration in many districts within Indiana where elementary is grades Pre-K through 5th grade, middle school is 6th through 8th, and high school is 9th through 12th (IDOE Compass).

Table 4.1

<i>Descriptive Variables</i>		
Variable	N	Percent of Sample
Context		
Rural	10	10
Urban	15	15
Suburban	73	75
Level		
Elementary School	39	40
Middle School	25	26
High School	33	34
Racial Group		
Black	5	5
Asian	2	2
Hispanic	1	1
White	88	92
Gender		
Male	27	28
Female	69	72
Years in Current District		
Mean	2.61	
SD	1.359	
Total Years Teaching		
Mean	8.65	
SD	6.246	

The context of teaching is a discrete, nominal variable with three choices: suburban, urban, or rural. There were no specifics given within the question to qualify what the respondent should consider for each context, so the answers derived from the respondent's own perception of the size of their community. According to the Purdue Extension's Center for Rural Development (2013), 14% of Indiana's population is considered rural, with 24% as rural/mixed, and 62% considered urban. As can be seen from Table 4.1, only 10% of the sample is rural

while 15% of the sample is urban and 74% is considered suburban. When compared to the sample group, there is a clear overrepresentation of suburban respondents and underrepresentation of both urban and rural respondents compared to the state's overall population.

Race is measured as discrete, nominal variable, using the Indiana Department of Education's classifications for race which include: American Indian, Black, Asian or Pacific Islander, Asian, Hispanic, White, Multiracial, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. The sample group was made up more people who identified as White than any other group at 92% followed by Black at 5%, Asian at 2%, and Hispanic at 1%. The group disparity can be seen in Table 4.1. No other racial subgroup was identified and only 2 respondents in the 98 cases cited above declined to include the racial group with which they identify.

Gender is a discrete, nominal variable with two possible selections, male and female. Within the sample, there are 28% male and 72% female teachers with two respondents of the group not disclosing their gender. Table 4.1 shows the gender gap that exists within the sample. The percentage of male teachers compared with the percentage of female teachers within the sample reflects the national average according to the National Center for Education Statistics that showed of the 3.8 million teachers in the 2015-2016 school year, 77% were female and 23% were male (2018).

The experience level of a teacher was broken into two categories: the number of years the teacher has been in the current school district in which they serve and the overall number of years a teacher has been in the field. For current district, the sample was restricted to teachers who have been serving in their current district for five or fewer years. Since the survey was set up to only allow for answers for whole years, the discrete range is from 1 to 5 with no partial

year responses. The mean for the sample of this variable is 2.6 years of teaching in the current district.

The overall years of teaching like the years of teaching in the current district was restricted to whole year responses, but was not limited in the total number of years. This continuous variable has a minimum of zero (or first year of teaching) to a maximum of 20th year of teaching based on the respondents in the sample. Similar to the previous variable, total number of years teaching is skewed toward the first 6 years of teaching with a cluster of outliers in the 20th year of teaching. The mean for this group is 8.65 years while the mode is four years showing the relatively novice makeup of the group as a whole.

Each teacher's annual salary was reported as a continuous variable on a sliding scale at \$1,000 increments with no defined minimum. The salary range of the respondents within the survey was \$25,000 to \$80,000. The mean was \$48,920 and modes with 6 cases each were \$43,000, \$47,000, and \$50,000. Like the two years of experience variables, annual salary is not normally distributed and is skewed towards the lower end of the salary scale.

Likert Mean Variables

The Pay Satisfaction variable is formed by factoring the mean of the individual questions from the portion of the overall survey made from the "pay satisfaction" instrument. The instrument is comprised of 18 questions with a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Pay Satisfaction along with Perceived supervisor support and Intent to Stay all have high reliability as seen in Table 4.2. For each case within the data set, the mean was calculated for his score across the items, 18 of which are for a "Pay Satisfaction" number. These scores ranged from a minimum of 1.22 which indicated a low pay satisfaction score to 6.50 as a

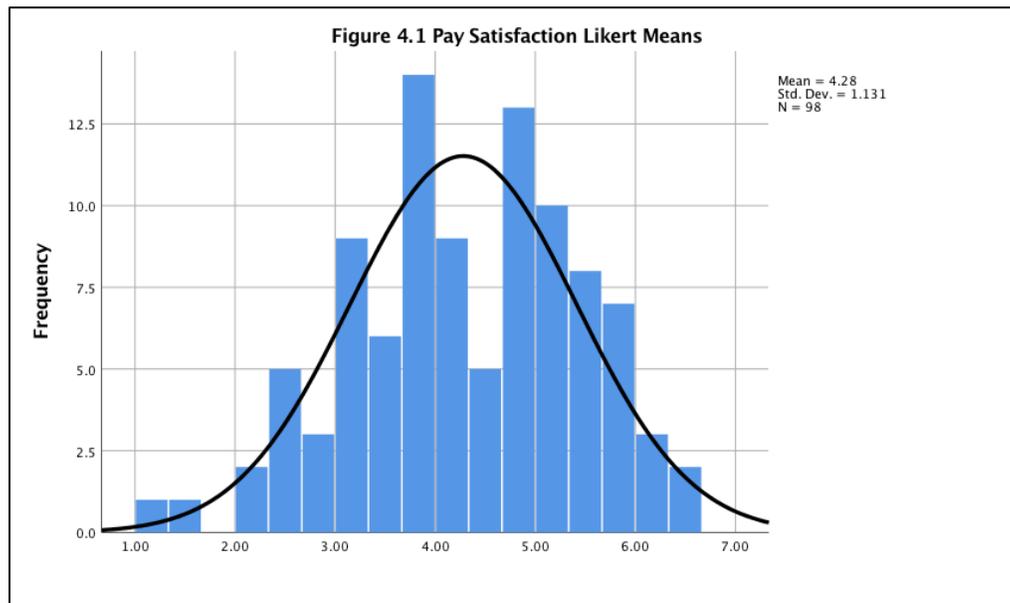
maximum which indicated a high pay satisfaction score. The median score was 4.27 with a mean of 4.28 as can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

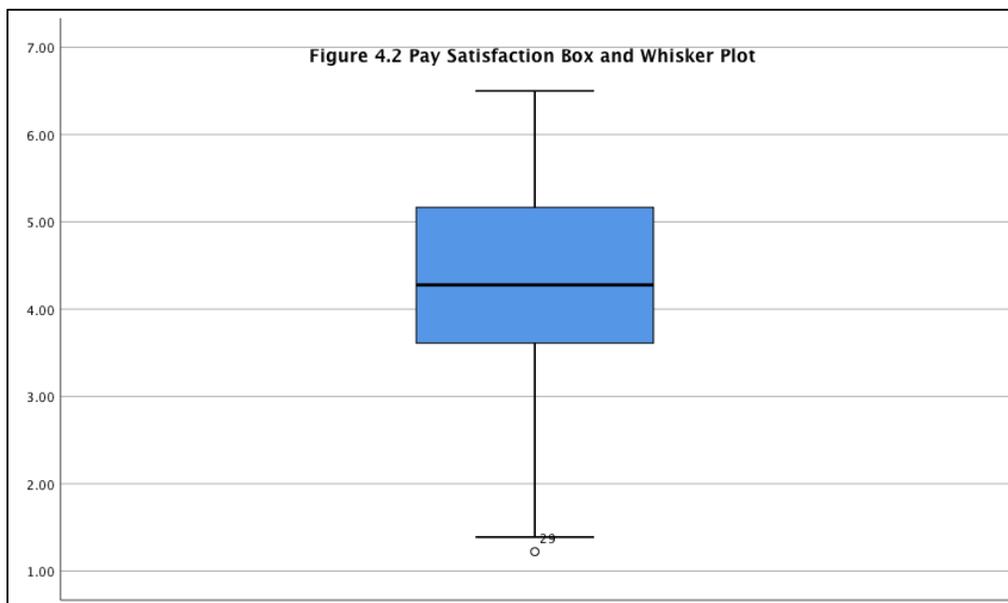
Reliability of Pay Satisfaction, Perceived Supervisor Support and Intent to Stay

Variable	N	Cronbach Alpha	Mean	SD
Pay Satisfaction	91	.97	4.28	1.13
Perceived Supervisor Support	88	.94	5.16	1.44
Intent to Stay	97	.89	4.84	1.66

Despite the three measures of central tendencies being so tightly packed, as can be seen from figure 4.1, the distribution of pay satisfaction scores are approaching a normal distribution.



The story of this variable gets a bit more interesting when one looks at the box and whisker plot, Figure 4.2, to see where the cases cluster.



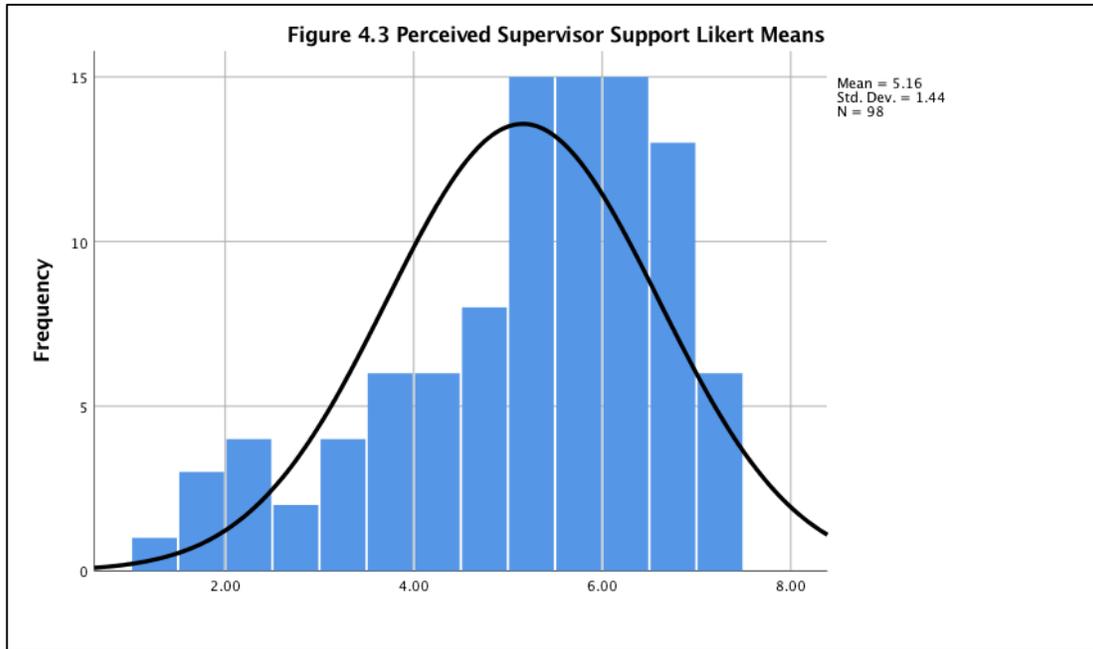
The cases are tightly clustered at or below the mean despite the wide range of salaries reported above. This is shown by the interquartile range of 1.6 in addition to the visual above.

Perceived Supervisor Support

Perceived supervisor support (PSS) is calculated similarly to the pay satisfaction variable above in that it too is a mean of the Likert scales for each individual question of the PSS instrument comprised of 16 questions with a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This instrument has two reversed score items that needed to be inverted in terms of the scoring in order to factor the mean. A higher score indicates a higher level of perceived support. The scores ranged from minimum of 1.25 to a maximum of 7.00 with a mean of 5.16. In Table 4.3, the per item factor loadings can be seen along with the question from the survey item and the mean score. As can be seen from Figure 4.3, there are more scores at or below the mean than above the mean.

Table 4.3 PSS Means

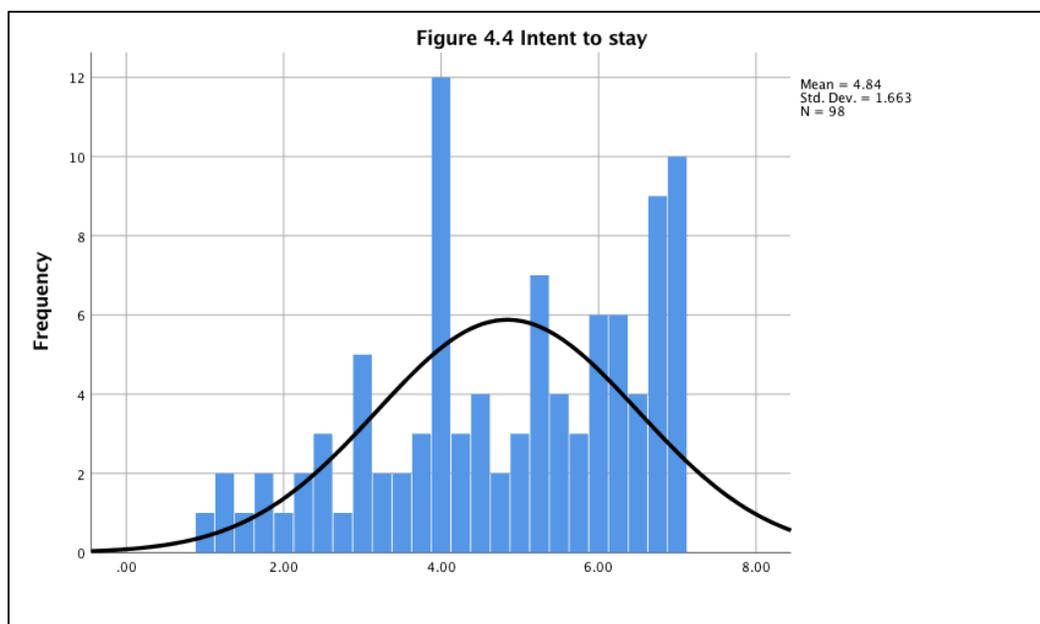
Question	Factor Loadings	Mean Score
My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department.	.93	5.58
If my supervisor could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary he/she would do so.	.96	5.09
My supervisor appreciates the extra effort from me.	.93	5.56
My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.	.93	5.20
My supervisor wants to know if I have any complaints.	.93	4.80
My supervisor takes my best interests into account when he/she makes decisions that affect me.	.93	4.86
Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.	.93	5.45
My supervisor really cares about my well-being.	.92	5.48
If I did the best job possible, my supervisor would be sure to notice.	.92	5.06
My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	.93	5.25
My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.92	5.21
If given the opportunity my supervisor would take advantage of me.	.92	5.29
My supervisor shows a lot of concern for me.	.96	5.04
My supervisor cares about my opinions.	.93	5.17
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments.	.93	5.18
My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	.93	4.69



This variable is not normally distributed has a positive skew which is a higher perceived support level.

Intent to stay

This variable is similar to the previous two in that it is also the mean of the Likert scores of the individual questions on the survey. This instrument is only 4 questions and uses the same 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) Likert scale as the previous instruments. This instrument had one question that was reverse-scored and therefore needed to be inverted in order to calculate the mean. The minimum for this data set is 1 and the maximum is 7 with a mean of 4.84. As can be seen from figure 4.4, the data is not normally distributed and has a negative skew, which indicates a higher intent to stay.



Another way to see both the skewedness and the cluster of higher scores is via Figure 4.12 which shows the interquartile range of 2.5 clustered nearer the high score.

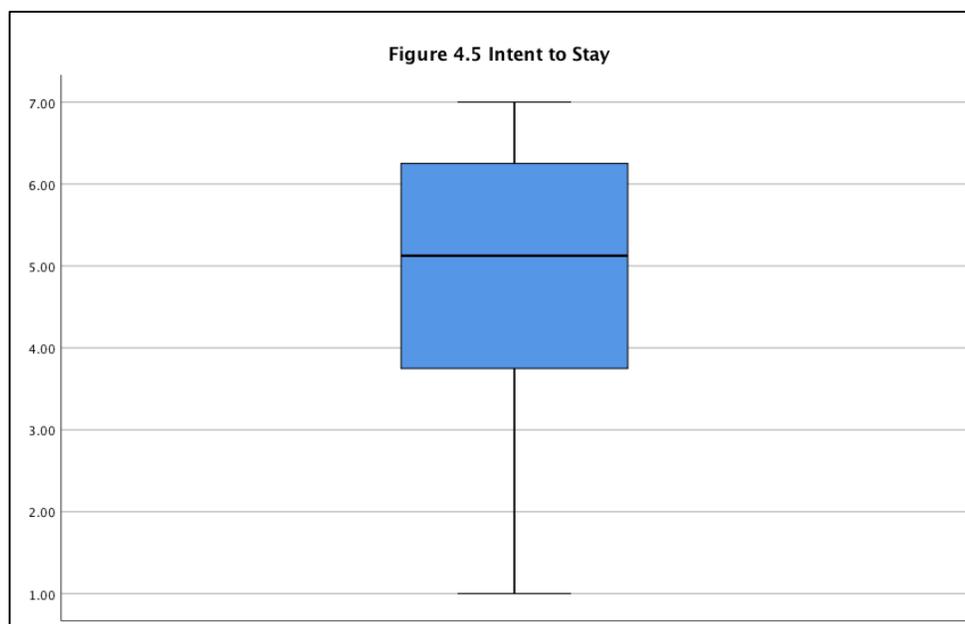


Figure 4.5 indicates the likelihood of intending to stay is high within the sample group which had 73 cases with a score of 4.0 or higher.

Research Question One

How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to one's intent to stay? In order to calculate the relationships, a means comparison using the Pearson r correlation test was run using SPSS generating Table 4.4. The correlation shows a strong relationship: $r = .622$, $p < .000$. As a teacher's level of support moves toward strongly agree on the Likert Scale, so does their likelihood of strongly agreeing with intending to stay.

What are the relationships between salary, overall years of teaching, teaching level (elementary, middle, or high school), and teacher retention? In order to compare the variables above, simultaneous Pearson tests were conducted as seen in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Variable Relationships

	Intent to stay	Total number of years of teaching	Annual salary
Context in which you teach	0.177	.249*	-0.049
Annual salary	.252*	.658**	
Total years of teaching	.271**		

* $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

** $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

The relationship between annual salary and intent to stay is significant, $p < 0.05$, with a .252 Pearson correlation coefficient score signifying a weak relationship. The relationship between years of teaching and intent to stay is significant, $p < 0.01$; $r = .271$. The relationship between context (rural, urban, or suburban) is neither significant nor highly correlated. Additional relationships of note in Figure 4.14 are between total number of years teaching and annual salary, $p < 0.01$, and Pearson correlation coefficient of .658, which is the highest among the bivariate relationships here. Total number of years teaching and context have a significant relationship, $p < 0.05$, and a Pearson correlation coefficient of .249.

In order to discern if there was a relationship between context and intent to stay, due to the multiple groups within the context question, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The test resulted in a finding wherein the suburban group had a PSS score that was different and more significant than the other two groups, $F(2, 95) = 3.649, p < .05$. A post hoc test was run to learn the differences between the subgroup means, urban, rural, or suburban. In this case, the Bonferroni adjustment was chosen due to its reliability in finding the subgroups that remain significant after subtracting the mean difference between the groups. The Bonferroni correction returned a significant relationship between perceived supervisor support and Suburban context, $p = .026$. This means that within the suburban context, intent to stay had a significance value higher than the other two contexts, rural and urban. This is problematic given the difference in the size of N for each group: Suburban 73, Urban 15, and Rural 10.

Similar to the previous variables, a means comparison using the Pearson r correlation test was run comparing the pay variables and intent to stay. In terms of the relationship between Pay Satisfaction and Annual Salary, the relationship is significant, $r = .252, p = .012$, which shows a correlation. As pay goes up, the satisfaction score goes up as well.

Research Question Two

When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay? When considering the data above, there are clearly some important relationships, most notably between one's supervisor and one's intent to stay. To learn more about the relationships, multiple linear regressions were performed to find out which relationships account for the largest parts of the variance when it comes to one's intent to stay. Demographic variables of gender and race were first considered; then the experience

variables of total years and years in district; then location variables of context and level; then pay variables of annual salary and pay satisfaction; and finally, perceived supervisor support.

When conducting linear regression, certain variables had to be recoded to make them “dummy variables” so they would work within the rules of regression. Gender, Race, Teaching Level, and Context were all recoded to reflect a 0 or 1 construct to work within the regression. Race was recoded White as 1 and all else as 0. Gender was recoded to 1 for Male and 0 for Female. Context was recoded thrice: Suburban was created with suburban coded as 1 and all else 0; Rural was created with rural coded as 1 and all else 0; and Urban was created with urban coded as 1 and all else 0. The same approach was used for level at which one teaches creating Elementary, Middle, and High school variables where the named variable was 1 and all else was 0. The other variables were all continuous variables and could be used in the regression model as they were.

Gender and race were compared to intent to stay via linear regression with no significant relationship found and they explained less than 2% of the variance in intent to stay. This means that neither one’s race nor their gender are related to whether one intends to stay at their current school.

In Model 1 of the Table 4.5, experience, unlike gender and race, does show a significant relationship to intent to stay. The models in Table 4.5 represent the standardized coefficient and the level of significance of any. For the constant in the table, the unstandardized coefficient is shown. Gender, race, total years of experience, and total years of experience in current district were compared via linear regression with intent to stay as the dependent variable. In this model, 13% of the variance is accounted for and the relationship between intent to stay and total years of experience is significant, $\beta = .324$, $p = .002$, which is a weak relationship.

Table 4.5 Intent to stay when controlling for model variables

	1. Demographics	2. Context	3. Pay	4. Pay and Pay Satisfaction	5. Supervisor Support
Race	-.129	-.152	-.150	-.135	-.046
Gender	-.004	.046	.036	-.013	.015
Overall Years of experience	.324**	.262*	.225	.285*	.157
Years of Experience in District	.077	.046	.059	.093	.065
Rural		-.165*	-.150	-.040	-.100
Urban		-.184	-.186	-.140	-.106
Elementary		.195	.200	.166	.164
Middle		-.067	-.061	-.082	-.052
Annual Salary			.055	.001	-.012
Pay Satisfaction				.318**	.128
Perceived Supervisor Support					.517***
Constant	4.675***	5.014***	4.632***	6.492***	7.016***
R ²	.129	.229	.230	.309	.515
Change in R ²	.129	.100	.001	.029	.206

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

In Model 2 as seen in Table 4.5, a consideration of context of teaching both in terms of where one teaches, suburban, rural or urban and at what level, elementary, middle or high, was added into the model next to understand the relationship with one's intent to stay. While more of the variance is accounted for (22%), neither location variable has a relationship to one's intent to stay.

Model 3 and 4 as seen in Table 4.5 were built as a way of discerning if there was a difference between the two pay variables, annual salary vs. pay satisfaction, they were loaded

into the regression model separately. First, annual salary was loaded controlling for the variables above as its own model in Model 3. It only accounted for an additional 1% of the variance and it removed total years of experience from significance, $p = .132$. As seen in Model 4 in Table 4.5, once pay satisfaction is added into the regression model, it explains an additional 8% of the variance. It also has a strong relationship with intent to stay ($\beta = 321, p < .001$); as one is more satisfied with their pay then they are less likely to leave. It is of note that one's overall pay is not significantly correlated to intending to stay, but one's feeling of satisfaction about that pay is at .318 SD.

While there were relationships in the model as stated above, Model 5 in Table 4.5 shows that once perceived supervisor support is added to the model, all other relationships are no longer statistically significant. The percentage of the variance accounted for in the model becomes 51.5% or just over half. Both relationships seen in the model above between intent to stay and pay satisfaction and intent to stay and years of experience are no longer significant moving to $p = .203$ and $p = .171$ respectively. The relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay is significant at $p = .000$ with an effect size of .517 which is a very strong relationship as can be seen in Table 4.5. As one feels supported, there is a relationship with one's intent to stay. In other words, as one's PSS score increases which correlates with strong support, one's intent to stay also increases which correlates with a strong intent to stay (see Table 4.6 for further details about Model 5).

Table 4.6:

Linear Regression Controlling for Demographics, Context, Pay, and PSS

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	7.016	1.178		5.954	.000
Race	-.279	.499	-.046	-.560	.577
Gender	.053	.320	.015	.165	.869
Total number of years of teaching	.042	.032	.157	1.282	.203
Years teaching with your current district	.077	.102	.065	.752	.454
Rural	-.515	.475	-.100	-1.084	.282
Urban	-.473	.411	-.106	-1.149	.254
Elementary	.532	.329	.164	1.615	.110
Middle	-.186	.331	-.052	-.561	.576
Annual salary	-.002	.019	-.012	-.097	.923
Pay satisfaction	-.186	.135	-.128	1.380	.171
Perceived Supervisor support	-.588	.100	-.517	5.897	.000

The analysis above confirms past findings in terms of the supervisor's relationship to an employee's intent to stay. In the case of a school, that supervisor is the principal and that employee is the teacher. The relationship is strong at .622 and significant at $p < .001$. While the principal does have the ability to influence intent to stay, it is clear that salary ($r = .252, p < .05$) as well as years of teaching ($r = .271, p < .01$) are also to be considered.

Another noteworthy finding above is the fact that teachers scored their perceived supervisor support so high with a mean of 5.15 which would fall in with the "agree" answer on the survey items. While the findings above show the high level of perceived support they also show that as a result of this high mean score, teachers within the sample are more likely to stay in their current setting. This is seen in the mean score of intent to stay being a 4.84 which aligns

with “agree” with the notion of intending to stay. There are many factors that can cause a teacher to stay in their current setting, but the data appears to point to a willingness to stay.

While the bivariate relationships have some significance, once the linear regression model is built controlling for all other variables, PSS has a significant relationship with intent to stay in a model that accounts for over half of the variance.

In the next chapter, I unpack the relationships above between perceived supervisor support, pay satisfaction, salary, and intent to stay. I work to explain some of the constraints within the teaching profession and K12 education writ large and within the context of the sample that could lead districts to better understand their salary structures and the relationship between their building leaders and their teachers.

CHAPTER FIVE:

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study by making connections between the literature review and the findings in the previous chapters. This summary will include recommendations for school leaders and new areas to be explored in future studies.

Statement of the Problem

According to work done by Ingersoll and May in 2012, 46% of teachers leave the field within their first five years of teaching. When teachers leave a school, their absence has a relationship with declines in student achievement. Their exit also hurts the relationships they leave behind professionally, and in the building culture (Ronfeld et al., 2013). This harm appears to do disproportionate damage to those who already begin school behind in impoverished areas. To this end, this study sought to establish if there is a relationship between the way teachers feel supported early in their career and their intent to stay at their current school as a result of that support. This relationship could help guide principals into creating better support structures between themselves and their least experienced teachers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationship between principal actions toward teachers who are new to a school and whether these actions of support lead to teacher intent to stay. The study specifically examined the relationship between principal's support and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions. The importance of salary

and pay satisfaction was examined and special consideration was given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's influence on perceived supervisor support.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do demographic, context, and pay variables relate to new teachers' intent to stay and perceived supervisor support?
2. When controlling for demographic, context, and pay variables, what is the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay?

Review of the Research Methods

I utilized a correlational design to gather quantitative data to respond to my research questions. Quantitative analyses worked to capture the relationships between the demographic factors, perceived supervisor support, pay satisfaction, and intent to stay. Survey data were collected using a combination of three previously developed survey instruments and asking specific demographic questions of the participants to obtain quantitative data. The previously developed instruments measure perceived supervisor support, pay satisfaction, and intent to stay (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Kim, Price, Mueller & Watson, 1986; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). The participants were recruited through their district leaders and asked to take the survey online during a six-week period over the end of the school year into the summer.

Major Findings

While there were relationships in the regression model as stated in Chapter Four, once perceived supervisor support (PSS) is added to the model all other relationships are no longer statistically significant. The percentage of the variance accounted for in intent to stay is 51.5%.

The relationship between PSS and intent to stay is significant at $p = .000$ with an effect size of .517. As one feels supported, there is a positive relationship with one's intent to stay.

The analysis above agrees with past findings in terms of the supervisor's relationship to an employee's intent to stay (Boyd et al., 2011). In the case of a school, that supervisor is the principal and that employee is the teacher. The relationship is strong; $r = .622$; $p < .001$. While the principal has the strongest ability to influence intent to stay, it is clear that salary ($r = .252$; $p < .05$) as well as years of teaching ($r = .271$; $p < .01$) are also to be considered.

Another noteworthy finding above is the fact that teachers scored their perceived supervisor support so high with a mean of 5.15 which would fall in with the "agree" answer on the survey items. The findings above show the high level of perceived support and the relationship to intent to stay. This is seen in the mean score of intent to stay being a 4.84 which aligns with "agree" with the notion of intending to stay. There are many factors that influence a teacher to stay in their current setting, but this study confirms with Boyd et al. (2011) that the administration has the strongest prediction of leaving. Perceived supervisor support has a positive relationship with one's intent to stay in their current setting. While the bivariate relationships have some significance, once the linear regression model is built controlling for all other variables, PSS has a significant relationship with intent to stay in a model that accounts for over half of the variance.

Findings Related to the Literature

A finding within this study that links to the literature review is the relationship between the principal and a teacher's intent to stay. Of the many factors studied in terms of retention, attrition, and induction, the highest accounting for the likelihood of a teacher staying or leaving is the school principal. In their study of New York City first year teachers, Boyd et al. (2011)

succinctly noted the impact school administrators have on first year teachers' decision to return to a second year of teaching or move schools: "...administration emerges as the strongest predictor of retention relative to both transferring and leaving" (Boyd et al., 2011, p. 324). Grissom also found that the principal effectiveness measures were stable across all of the models within the 2011 study. Additionally, Grissom controlled for multiple variables such as school, teacher, and working conditions. Within my data set, the relationship between perceived supervisor support and intent to stay is significant at $p = .000$ with an effect size of $-.517$ which is a strong relationship; as one's perceived supervisor support increases so does one's intent to stay. Previous research confirms the relationship between intent to stay and the principal. McKinney et al. (2015) would attribute this to the culture the building principal establishes specifically through rapport-building with their staff. Pucella (2014) would attribute the link between teacher and principal as a result of bringing teachers into leadership roles and instilling more responsibility in them. Park et al. (2014) would point to direct feedback from the principal to the teacher as the source of this relationship which more closely approximates the type of support found in the survey items for this study.

This dissertation's findings also further supported the idea that while other factors account for parts of the variance, they fall out of statistical significance when compared to the relationship of perceived supervisor support and intent to stay. While other factors have an impact on the variance as found in Tickle et al. (2011), like salary and student behavior, it is the principal that both directly impacts the teacher's desire to stay and indirectly influences the teacher's job satisfaction, which in turn has a relationship with the teacher's desire to stay or move schools. Not only do Tickle et al. discuss the power of the principal in terms of flight and job satisfaction, they further point out that "Administrative support mediates the effect of

teaching experience, student behavior, and teachers' satisfaction with their salary on teachers' job satisfaction and intent to stay in teaching" (p. 347). In this study, once pay satisfaction is added into the regression model, it explains an additional 8% of the variance. It is also has a correlation, $S\beta = .318$ and $p < .001$, and has a relationship with intent to stay, as one is more satisfied with his pay then they become more likely to stay. This relationship between pay and attrition is similar to that of Borman and Dowling's findings in their 2008 study where they found that teachers in the low-pay category had odds of attrition 37% more likely to leave than higher paid teachers. More recently, Gulosino et al. (2019) found that newly hired teachers (those with three years of experience or less) with higher salaries had lower turnover across both of the segments of the teaching labor market they studied: public schools charter schools.

It is of note that one's overall pay is not significantly correlated to intending to stay, but his feeling of satisfaction about that pay is at $p < .001$. This is similar to Tang and Tang's (2012) findings in the field of academia where non-tenured faculty appeared to be more motivated by pay satisfaction than their tenured peers. This relationship to turnover that pay satisfaction has in teaching is not as high as it is in other fields like nursing (Lum et al., 1998) where it is more important than overall job satisfaction.

Sharplin, O'Neill, and Chapman (2014) focused on the importance of understanding the community setting in which they live and work. In a study of 29 new teachers in rural Washington, they found a relationship between those new teachers who received high level of support both professionally and personally and those who remained in these rural settings. Across the cases, they found characteristics of those who will leave include being avoidant and engaging in withdrawal. Those who stay are more adaptive and show actions to be a part of the community. As such, they prescribe both a well-organized and welcoming induction process for

both work and personal life and intervention strategies that all staff within the organization can engage in at the first sign of mental stress on the new teacher (Sharplin, O'Neill, & Chapman, 2011). In this dissertation the relationship between context and intent to stay was not found to be significant. A consideration of context of teaching both in terms of where one teaches, suburban, rural or urban and at what level, elementary, middle or high, was added into the model next to find out their relationship with one's intent to stay. While more of the variance is accounted for, 22%, neither location variable has a relationship to one's intent to stay.

Another finding that runs contrary to the previous literature is the relationship between ethnicity and intent to stay. While there is clearly a trend of minority teachers leaving the field for a variety of reasons and their exit having detrimental impact on their students (Madsen, 2011; Ocasio, 2014; Wing, 2007), this study did not reflect that exodus. The sample used for analyses had a small representation of teachers of color (8%; Black (5%), Asian (2%), and Hispanic (1%)). Therefore, future researchers might be intentional about over-sampling teachers of color to get a better understanding of their perceived supervisor support and the relationship with intent to stay.

It is clear that while the sample within this study does not approximate Ingersoll and May's (2012) near 50% turnover rate, there are teachers within my sample that could contribute to the teacher shortage by potentially leaving the field. Even though the sample in this dissertation had approximately 74% of its teachers reporting a high intent to stay, there were still 26% of the teachers that had a lower intent to stay. The 26% of the sample that reflects lower intent to stay approximates the turnover rate in nursing (Halter et al., 2017) but is well above the turnover rate in law enforcement (Wareham et al., 2015).

Conclusions

In this current trend of teachers leaving schools at a rate faster than new teachers are trained, it appears to be a priority for principals to be prepared to support their teachers. While preparation programs for principals focus on making sure they understand the scope of the laws that govern their role and the importance of using data to drive instruction, the skills for supporting teachers in their first years are lacking. While the focus of this study is the support level shown by a principal and its relationship to one's intent to stay, it is important to consider if there are ways to prepare a leader to better support their teachers and staff. The comparison of principal preparation programs was the aim of Grissom, Mitani, and Woo (2019) as they examined programs in Tennessee where there were a variety of measures they could compare including licensure exam scores, initial practice rating scores during the first three years of service as a principal, teacher ratings of the principal, and multiple measures of student growth. What they found was there was a great deal of variation in the results and that the context of the leader's setting was at least as important as the program attended. They did note that certain programs showed important outcomes in the ratings from supervisors and teachers and as a result is where the authors suggest evaluation and improvement for the programs should be targeted.

Dodson (2015) also examined principal preparation programs expanding across multiple states as they appear in different strata of performance according to the annual *Education Week* rankings. These rankings are across six categories: K-12 Achievement; Standards, Assessments & Accountability; Teaching Profession; School Finance; Transitions & Alignment; and Chance for Success (an index that combines information from 13 indicators covering residents' lives from "cradle to career"). Dodson compared these rankings to principals' perceptions of their preparation to become a leader. His research showed that there is a clear need for high quality

field experience prior to finishing their programs. The study participants pointed to teacher observation and evaluation training, student discipline training, and dealing with parent issues as areas they would have wanted more experience in prior to becoming a leader. All three of these involve the type of interpersonal skill discussed in this dissertation. The hope would be that by better preparing leaders in the types of leadership that appear to be more successful and preferred by teachers, the teacher attrition rate could be mitigated.

Implications for Actions

When considering how to use the data above in a way that leads to positive outcomes for leaders and teachers, it is clear that focusing on how to support their teachers should be a leader's primary focus. The instrument itself and the response from the sample have some clear areas that are important. Within the items from the perceived supervisor support instrument, there are four items that scored higher than the others as seen below in table 5.1:

Table 5.1 Highest Scoring Items from Perceived Supervisor Support Instrument

Survey Item	Mean Score per Item
“My Supervisor appreciates extra effort from me.”	5.6
“My Supervisor values my contribution to the well-being of our department.”	5.58
“Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.”	5.45
“My Supervisor cares about my well-being.”	5.48

These instrument items do not talk about how smart a leader is or the strength of their vision, these speak to being appreciated as a person and having help when it is needed. Showing appreciation, caring about others, valuing the work someone does, and being willing to help when there is a problem are not radical ideas when it comes to being an instructional leader or a visionary. These are every day acts of kindness that are so often overlooked in such a people-centered field. In their 1998 study, Singh and Billingsley were able to show that direct support

variables like staff recognition, support and encouragement, and principal one on one conversations with teachers increase teachers' commitment to the field. In their 2015 study, Hughes, Matt, and O'Reilly confirmed the importance of certain principal behaviors in terms of turnover. They point to emotional support as most important in terms of teacher retention. As leaders of schools, these expectations are set as the professional minimum for our teachers: care for your students, value them as individuals, help them when they struggle, and appreciate when they try. When leaders cannot meet this same bar, teachers struggle and prepare to depart the organization.

As such, it would appear that school districts need to put these items into the evaluation rubrics for leaders. Adapting the perceived supervision instrument above and issuing it to schools as a part of a leader's feedback would give the leader and the district a clear picture of the perception of support shown by that leader. It would show a leader which area their staff needs them to improve upon in order to show them support. It would also show over time if someone is not cut out to be a leader in such a people-oriented field. Not being supportive of people matters a great deal in education because people are both the input and the output of our system. Not being equipped to support others limits teaching and learning (Ronfeldt et al., 2013).

Therefore, leadership preparation programs must spend at least as much time on the interpersonal skill required to support teachers as they do on understanding data, the most recent research on teaching and learning, and current law as it pertains to our field. This undertaking is evident in the medical field as part of both the preparation of a medical doctor and the evaluation of medical doctors (Epstein & Hundert, 2002). This is an area of leadership that is neglected in current preparation programs in favor of the above topics and a myriad of others (Grissom, Mitani, & Woo, 2019; Dodson, 2015). Unfortunately, the data in this study indicate that part of

the preparation time at least is misspent and should be reallocated to the behaviors that lead to support. Two types of leadership styles that are shown to have a significant relationship with teacher retention are servant leadership (Shaw & Newton, 2014) and transformational leadership (Hauserman, 2019). These types of leadership need to be overtly taught to those who are transitioning out of the classroom or coming from another field into educational leadership. For those coming from the classroom, learning how to care about adults in a way that is different than the care they showed for children is going to be a key set of skills to adapt or develop.

Recommendations for Further Research

In order to learn more about the types of support that leads to teacher retention, a mixed-method approach could be utilized to be able to identify survey participants with particularly high and low levels of support and gather qualitative data that would suggest what behavior is to be found by their perceived levels of high and low support.

A more representative picture of teachers' views could be found by trying to even out the survey sample in terms of the demographics of the participants. This study did not have an even distribution of participants across race or context. Additionally, the items in this study were used as they were originally conceived for other fields. Each of the survey items in this study could be more tailored for the field of education and the school setting in particular.

Similarly, this study focused on teachers serving within adjacent counties in one state. It is by no means representative of the national picture. A larger and more comprehensive survey of participants in all types of settings across the country could point to behaviors to be fostered by principals regardless of context.

As a tool for training future administrators going through future principal preparation program, a study could be conducted looking at current principals who create high perceived

supervisor support and then look at what programs they attended prior to becoming a principal. This could be presented as a mixed-method study with a quantitative phase to discern which behaviors helped teachers feel supported and if they were overtly taught in the preparation program or not. This would require partnership from the different principal preparation programs within the context of the study to be able to cross-reference the supportive behaviors with the preparation program.

Another area for future research is teachers in years six through ten of their teaching careers. The review of the literature indicated that year ten is the critical tipping point in getting a teacher to remain in the profession up to retirement (Macdonald, 1999). A study of the next five years of teacher data in terms of years of experience could help account for more of the variance in why teachers continue to leave the field prior to retirement.

Concluding Remarks

In an era of education where teachers have been underpaid and are leaving the field at an alarming rate (Ingersoll & May, 2012; Goldhaber, Krieg, Theobald, & Brown, 2016) and leaving a workforce that is both younger and older (Ingersoll, May & Collins, 2019) than ever before, it seems like a critical time to take stock of why teachers are leaving and what can be done to deter their exit. There have been multiple states that have seen teacher walk outs in terms of wages including Oklahoma and Kentucky. Wage, however, according to this study is not the biggest reason that teachers would walk away from the field of education. Their intent to stay appears to be more aligned with the level of perceived support they experience.

This level of support is found in small acts of interpersonal experience. The survey items from this study suggest that being appreciated for the work one does, that work being valued, and being cared about as a person are among the most important facets of support. As other research

has suggested, this level of emotional support (Huges et al., 2015) is critical to retaining teachers over time. In my own experience, this level of support often entails deep listening to teachers as they face a variety of stressors both inside of their school lives and in their lives outside of their teaching duties. As I stated above, this is a people business and as such leaders have to support the whole person in every reasonable fashion. This means doing difficult but supportive acts. An example of such an act that is personally difficult but very supportive is going to the visitation of a teacher's lost family members. The funeral home or church on that occasion is a place that is difficult to be, but as a leader, if you are not there and you do not have a reasonable explanation, your absence sends a clear message to your grieving teacher: you do not care about their loss which is easily translated into "you don't care about me."

Showing your teachers that you care is only part of the equation to be certain. They clearly want and many need technical assistance when situations arise. Singh and Billingsley (1998) found that support and encouragement lead to teacher retention. The survey instrument addresses this relationship as well with the high rating for "help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem." Teachers want and need help and the availability and quality of that aid is one of the factors that influences their decision to stay or leave. It is important that those who go into administration not only want to help, but have the tools it takes to help others. Many of these tools are acquired by teaching in the classroom for a period of time as well as being supported by district administration. Others will need to be acquired through well-designed educational leadership programs that place an emphasis on both technical skill in terms of teaching and learning as well as the interpersonal skill it takes to make teachers feel supported.

As district leaders and building leaders begin to consider who they will encourage to be the future leaders in our field, this study has some clear advice to lend: look for the most

supportive teachers. Find those teachers that know how to comfort and care for their students, their students' parents, and their colleagues. When so often teachers are promoted due only to innovation and drive, this study would suggest that there is another key ingredient that must be present to be in a position to retain the talent serving in one's school: compassion. If keeping the talent already in one's school is the desire, it is clear that finding the most effective ways to support that talent on an interpersonal level is the difference between keeping them or losing them.

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APPENDIX A

PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

1. My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department.
2. If my supervisor could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary he/she would do so. (R)
3. My supervisor appreciates extra effort from me.
4. My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.
5. My supervisor wants to know if I have any complaints.
6. My supervisor takes my best interests into account when he/she makes decisions that affect me.
7. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.
8. My supervisor really cares about my well-being.
9. If I did the best job possible, my supervisor would be sure to notice.
10. My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
11. My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.
12. If given the opportunity my supervisor would take advantage of me. (R)
13. My supervisor shows a lot of concern for me.
14. My supervisor cares about my opinions.
15. My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments.
16. My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.

APPENDIX B

PAY SATISFACTION

1. My take home pay.
2. My benefit package.
3. My most recent raise.
4. Influence my supervisor has on my pay.
5. My current salary.
6. Amount the district pays toward my benefits.
7. The raises I have typically received in the past.
8. The district's pay structure.
9. Information the district gives about pay issues of concern to me.
10. My overall level of pay.
11. The value of my benefits.
12. Pay of other jobs in the district.
13. Consistency of the district's pay policies.
14. Size of my current salary.
15. The number of benefits I receive.
16. How my raises are determined.
17. Differences in pay among jobs in the district.
18. How the district administers pay.

APPENDIX C

INTENT TO STAY

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. I would like to leave my present employer	1	2	3	4	5
2. I plan to leave my present employer as soon as possible	1	2	3	4	5
3. I plan to stay with my present employer as long possible	1	2	3	4	5
4. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave my present employer	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

FULL SURVEY

Q1 **Study Title** *KEEPING TALENT: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED SUPPORT AND TEACHER RETENTION*

Study Purpose and Rationale The purpose of this study will be to identify the relationship between principal actions toward teachers that are new to a school and whether these actions lead to teacher intent to stay or leave. The study specifically will examine the relationship between principal involvement in the induction process, mentoring, and whether the new teacher is likely to remain because of those actions via self-report. Special consideration will be given to the measures that pertain specifically to the principal's behaviors and their influence on Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) and indirect influence on Perceived Organizational Support (POS). According to work done by Ingersoll and May in 2012, 46% of teachers in their first 5 years of teaching leave the field. When teachers leave a school, their absence relates to declines in student achievement, and hurts the relationships they leave behind professionally, and in the building culture. This harm appears to do disproportionate damage to those who already begin school behind in impoverished areas. Finding the balance between the principal's support and the organization's support as it relates to turnover will help leaders know how to balance priorities between the principal and others within the organization that support teachers in the hopes of retaining teachers over time. To this end, this study will seek to establish if there is a relationship between the way teachers feel supported early in their career and their intent to stay at their current school because of that support. This relationship should it exist would help guide principals into creating better support structures both between them themselves and their least experienced teachers and into creating better support between veteran teachers and their less experienced colleagues.

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Subject must be 21 years of age or older and within the first five years of service in the school district where he or she is serving.

Participation Procedures and Duration Participants will answer survey items on a computer, phone, or other mobile device with connectivity. Answering the questions will take less than 10 minutes total.

Data Confidentiality or Anonymity All data will be maintained anonymous.

Storage of Data and Data Retention Period Data will be stored in Qualtrics Software, which is password protected, and on Principal Investigator's computer which is password protected as well. Data will be stored for 3 years.

Risks or Discomforts There are no perceived risks for participating in this study.

Benefits There are no perceived benefits for participating in this study.

Voluntary Participation Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your permission at anytime for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing this form and at any time during the study.

IRB Contact Information For one's rights as a research subject, you may contact the following: For questions about your rights as a research subject, please contact the Director, Office of Research Integrity, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306, (765) 285-5052 or at orihelp@bsu.edu.

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Q2 I have read the information above and consent to take this survey?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
-

Q3 With which racial group(s) do you identify?

- American Indian (1)
- Black (2)
- Asian or Pacific Islander (3)
- Asian (4)
- Hispanic (5)
- White (6)
- Multiracial (7)
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (8)

Q4 Are you in your first five years of serving in your current school or district?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q5 At what level do you teach?

Elementary School (1)

Middle School (2)

High School (3)

Q6 How would you characterize the district in which you serve?

Urban (1)

Suburban (2)

Rural (3)

Private (4)

Q7 What is your sex?

Male (1)

Female (2)

Q8 Total number of years of teaching

_____ Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Q9 Total numbers of teaching with your current school or district

_____ Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Q10 What is your annual salary?

_____ Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Q11

The statements below describe various aspects of your pay. For each statement, decide how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your pay, and put the number in the corresponding blank that best indicates your feeling.

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
My take-home pay. (1)							
My benefit package. (2)							
My most recent raise (3)							
Influence my supervisor has on my pay. (4)							
My current salary. (5)							
Amount the district pays toward my benefits. (6)							
The raises I have typically received in the past. (7)							
The district's pay structure. (8)							
Information the district gives about pay issues							

of concern
to me. (9)

My overall
level of
pay. (10)

The value
of my
benefits.
(11)

Pay of other
jobs in the
district.
(12)

Consistency
of the
district's
pay
policies.
(13)

Size of my
current
salary. (14)

The number
of benefits I
receive.
(15)

How my
raises are
determined.
(16)

Differences
in pay
among jobs
in the
district.
(17)

How the
district
administers
pay. (18)

Q12 The statements below describe the level of support you perceive from your organization or supervisor. For each statement, decide to what degree you agree or disagree using the scale below:

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department. (1)							
If my supervisor could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary he/she would do so. (2)							
My supervisor appreciates the extra effort from me. (3)							
My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values. (4)							
My supervisor wants to know if I have any complaints. (5)							
My supervisor takes my best interests into account when he/she makes decisions that affect me. (6)							
Help is available from my							

supervisor when I
have a problem.
(7)

My supervisor
really cares about
my well-being.
(8)

If I did the best
job possible, my
supervisor would
be sure to notice.
(9)

My supervisor is
willing to help
me when I need a
special favor.
(10)

My supervisor
cares about my
general
satisfaction at
work. (11)

If given the
opportunity my
supervisor would
take advantage of
me. (12)

My supervisor
shows a lot of
concern for me.
(13)

My supervisor
cares about my
opinions. (14)

My supervisor
takes pride in my
accomplishments.
(15)

My supervisor
tries to make my
job as interesting

as possible. (16)

Q13 Do you intend to stay in your current teaching assignment?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I plan to leave this school or district as soon as possible. (1)							
Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this school or district before I retire. (2)							
I would be reluctant to leave this school or district. (3)							
I plan to stay at this school or district for as long as possible. (4)							