URBAN TEACHER JOB RETENTION: WHAT MAKES THEM STAY?

by

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I dedicate this dissertation to my son, Brady. May you always know you can achieve *anything* if you persevere and work hard enough.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

This study examined job satisfaction factors and teacher demographics in relation to a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year. The researcher specifically examined factors relating to teachers' job satisfaction, utilizing Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1999). Four hundred fifty-nine Indiana urban schoolteachers whose districts are members of Indiana Urban School Association (IUSA) participated in this study. Participants' demographic and job satisfaction data was analyzed by point biserial correlations and binary logistic regressions. A significant correlation was found between the total JSS score and teachers' decision to return teaching in urban school setting. Additionally, an increased number of years of teaching, promotion, and nature of work were associated with an increased likelihood of returning to teach. In contrast, an increase in age was associated with a reduced probability of teaching or returning by 0.746. An increase in the number of teaching years was related to an increased probability of returning to teaching by 3.204. There is an increased chance of returning to teaching by 4.066 as promotion increases. A reduced probability of returning to teaching by .313 was correlated with relationships with colleagues. Finally, increasing levels of nature of work was associated with an increased likelihood or returning to work by 3.103. Based on the findings from this study, the researcher concluded administrators in urban school settings should focus on factors that will enhance teacher experience and overall job satisfaction to discourage attrition.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Retaining highly qualified teachers is a challenge across school districts throughout the United States of America (Bennett, 2013; Curtis, 2012; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Edinger & Edinger, 2018; Farinde etal., 2016). Figure 1 portrays Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, and Carver-Thomas' (2016) categorical summary of why teachers leave the profession in the United States. While some teachers certainly leave the profession for personal or financial reasons, overwhelmingly teachers are exiting the profession because they are dissatisfied. Likewise, teachers worldwide are exceedingly dissatisfied with their jobs and have significantly higher levels of turnover than their counterparts in other professions (Edinger & Edinger, 2018; Sutcher et al., 2016).

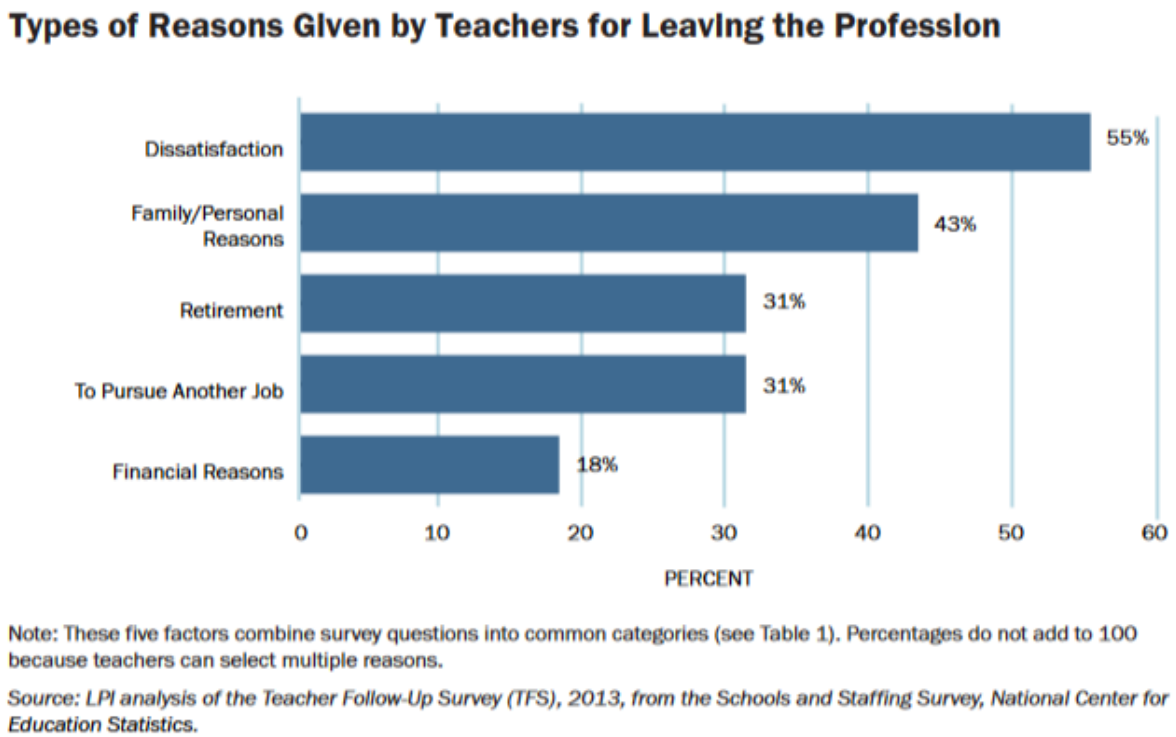

Figure 1. Types of reasons given by teachers for leaving the profession. *Note*. Reprinted from "A coming crisis in teaching? Teacher supply, demand, and shortages in the U.S.", by Sutcher et al., 2016, Learning Policy Institute.

Teacher turnover is costly to districts and impacts student achievement. In the policy brief *The High Cost of Teacher Turnover* (2007), the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future indicated significant monetary implications, student achievement impacts, and human capital costs can result from the ever-increasing rate of teacher turnover in the United States. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (2009) estimates that the national cost of public school teacher turnover could be over $7.3 billion a year. The Learning Policy Institute (2017) found urban districts spend more than $20,000 on each new hire, including school and district expenses related to separation, recruitment, hiring, and training. The National Education Association stated the average cost of recruiting, hiring, preparing, and then losing a single teacher is approximately $50,000 (Vail, 2005).Nationwide, teacher attrition has developed into a significant, costly concern for school administrators.

Attrition in Urban Schools

In urban schools, which generally face even more challenges than non-urban schools (Sutcher et al., 2018), teacher turnover is heightened to a metaphor of a revolving door of teachers (Cochran-Smith, 2006; Gaikhorst et al., 2014; Hanushek, et al., 2005; Ingersoll, Merrrill, & Stucky, 2014; Jacob, 2007). Nearly 100% of urban schools consistently have job vacancies for teaching positions (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2011). The urban teacher shortage is not a new problem. Podgursky et al. (2016) found teachers were more likely to leave their current teaching positions if they were in an urban school with more economically disadvantaged students. The Urban Teacher Collaborative (2000), reporting the results of a survey of 40 urban school districts serving 6.5 million students, found that 100% of the districts had an immediate need to fill teaching positions. Likewise, Ingersoll (2001) found that teacher turnover is 50% higher in urban settings and high-poverty schools. Teachers are simply less attracted to schools where there will be significantly more challenges to deal with on a day-to-day basis.

Justifiably, administrators in urban districts express concern about losing teachers to surrounding suburban school districts (Papay et al., 2017). While teachers may begin teaching in an urban setting, Podgursky et. al (2016) showed a substantial number of educators leave urban schools that serve low-income students to work in suburban schools that serve more affluent students. In studies nationwide, teachers report they are hesitant to teach and remain in high-

poverty schools (Sutcher et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2005). A higher rate of teacher turnover in urban districts exacerbates many of the challenges already existing in urban district settings. Urban districts have a higher percentage of students in poverty, increased number of students receiving special education or English language services, and a lack of adequate resources to meet the needs of the students served (Sutcher et al., 2018). Though turnover rates vary by school and district, those in rural and urban settings serving high percentages of students in poverty experience the highest turnover rates (Learning Policy Institute, 2017). Urban school communities often have greater needs with fewer financial resources to pull from (Kelly et al., 2015; Podgursky et. al, 2016). Additionally, urban schools are often characterized by over-crowded classrooms, limited resources for instruction, lack of parental involvement, and student behavior concerns (Sutcher et al., 2018). Given these less than desirable working conditions, it is not surprising that many teachers choose to leave teaching in urban school settings. While some teachers leave to teach in more desirable schools, many teachers choose to leave the profession entirely (Ingersoll & May, 2011).

Reduced school funding and limited budgets plague urban schools, resulting in teachers feeling underpaid and unsupported (Farinde et al., 2016). Urban school settings may not have the resources needed to mentor and retain novice teachers (Marinell & Coca, 2013). With the lack of funding for mentoring new teachers, novice teachers in urban school settings are often underprepared to meet the academic and behavioral needs of students and feel a lack of administrative support (Huisman et al., 2010).

Teacher Job Satisfaction

The lack of job satisfaction in an urban school setting can contribute to the revolving door of teachers. For example, teacher attrition is twice as high in under-resourced schools than in affluent schools (Sutcher et al., 2018; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001) and the most notable reason for departure is job dissatisfaction, not retirement (Edinger & Edinger, 2018; Ingersoll & May, 2011). Several studies have found an overall teacher dissatisfaction rate between 32% to 43% (Brunetti, 2001; McConaghy, 1993; Mertler, 2001; Perie & Baker, 1997). This level of teacher job satisfaction is an important predictor of the likelihood of teacher attrition (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Sutcher et al. (2016) found teacher retirements generally constitute less than one-third of those who leave teaching in a given

year, and of those who leave teaching voluntarily, most teachers note some type of dissatisfaction as very important or extremely important in their decision to leave the profession. While an abundance of literature addresses the concept of teacher retention and attrition, most research addresses why teachers choose to leave the profession in urban school settings. While these research indicators can be helpful to understand, often there is little that districts can do to change some of the perceived negative factors. Conversely, if administrators had a better understanding of the positive reasons teachers choose to stay, they could actively focus on supporting these positive factors to increase urban teacher retention. This study seeks to identify job satisfaction factors that contribute to a teacher's choice to continue teaching in urban school settings. In addition to addressing the gap in research, this study seeks to identify the positive components of teaching in an urban setting from urban teachers' perspective, as measured by Paul Spector's *Job Satisfactory Survey* (Spector, 1985). School administrators and school boards could use the findings of this study to promote urban teacher retention.

Statement of the Problem

While much research has been conducted on why teachers leave, little research explores why teachers choose to continue teaching in urban school settings. For teachers, the level of satisfaction experienced at work is regarded as an important predictor of their likelihood of quitting their teaching position (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Teacher retention has been directly tied to student achievement and school success. A report by the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) (2007) noted a significant correlation between student achievement and teacher turnover: schools with higher teacher turnover consistently reported lower student achievement on standardized assessments. In contrast, schools with lower teacher turnover rates reported higher achievement by students. Retaining effective teachers is necessary for students to learn. Assuring that all students have a highly qualified, effective teacher is a necessity for school administrators (Fullan, 2003). The key factor in student achievement is the quality and skill of the teacher (Darling-Hammond, 2009; Fullan, 2003; Haycock etal., 2009; Marzano, 2003; Reeves, 2004, Schmoker, 2003), yet because of the higher teacher turnover rate, high-poverty, urban schools tend to have teachers with lower qualifications than low-poverty, suburban schools (Clotfelter et al., 2007; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007; Jackson, 2009; Scafidi et al., 2007). In a correlational research study between uncertified

teachers and student achievement, Sutcher et al. (2016) found high-minority schools have four times as many uncertified teachers as low-minority schools. Students attending poor, urban schools routinely fall to the bottom of the achievement scales on national achievement assessments (Bloom & Owens, 2013). Research indicates that students taught by highly effective and qualified teachers score better on state exams and demonstrate higher graduation rates than students taught by ineffective teachers (Peske & Haycock, 2006; Mayer et al., 2000; Clotfelter et al., 2007; Hanushek, 2006; Gordon et al., 2006; Koedel, 2008; California Dropout Research Project, 2008; McKinsey, 2009). Additionally, students taught by ineffective teachers generally underachieve and require several years of intense remediation and intervention to catch up with peers and graduate high school. Increased teacher retention has a positive correlation with instructional quality, student achievement, and educational outcomes (Ingersoll et al., 1997). To increase academic achievement, administrators in urban school settings must find ways to retain effective teachers.

Teacher effectiveness, retention, and student achievement in urban school settings may be directly impacted by the extent of job satisfaction teachers feel. Onuoha & Segun-Martins (2013) found that teacher morale is the driving force behind student learning and the manifestation of student achievement and success in all school settings. The 2012 MetLife Survey of American Teachers, an annual survey of teacher feelings, found that morale among teachers nationwide was at the lowest in 20 years (Giordano, 2012). Job satisfaction and teacher turnover can have serious consequences for the success of schools as both issues negatively affect student achievement, teacher quality, and accountability (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Teacher turnover is twice as high in under-resourced schools than in affluent schools and the prominent reason for departure is job dissatisfaction, not retirement (Ingersoll & May, 2011). Teachers who express high levels of commitment—reflecting their sense of efficacy, motivation, and job satisfaction—are much more likely to provide higher quality instruction for their students (Ingersoll et al., 1997).

Teachers who choose to teach in urban school settings often report low levels of job satisfaction. As noted by Sutcher et al. (2016), teacher turnover is higher in cities than in suburban or rural districts. Perie and Baker (1997) found that teachers at suburban schools have the highest level of job satisfaction, while teachers at urban schools have the lowest level of job satisfaction. Urban school settings embody a demographic of students that may be challenging

for teachers (Kelly et al., 2015; Whipp & Geronime, 2017). Teachers in urban schools serving predominantly minority and low-income students experience significantly greater stress and lower job satisfaction than colleagues teaching students in higher income, suburban, and rural settings (Markow et al., 2006). Hiring and retaining good teachers is a challenge faced by urban school setting administrators nationwide. Job satisfaction also influences teachers' enthusiasm (Weiqi, 2007). Increased job satisfaction may enhance teacher performance, quality of work life, organizational effectiveness, and student performance (Rinehart & Short, 1993). This study seeks to identify job satisfaction factors that contribute to a teacher's decision to continue teaching in urban school settings.

While an abundance of literature notes "why" teachers choose to leave, little research exists that examines the positive reasons teachers elect to teach and keep teaching in urban schools. Olson and Anderson (2007) categorized urban teachers into three categories: *stayers* who planned to continue teaching in the urban school setting indefinitely, *uncertains* who could not hypothesize their future or intended to teach a while longer in an urban setting and then leave the field, and *leavers* who were planning to leave the urban teaching classroom. Perrachione et al. (2008) found intrinsic factors, such as personal teaching efficacy, working with students, and job satisfaction, significantly influence teacher retention in high-need schools. Research shows that teachers' decisions to either stay or leave the classroom are directly related to their resiliency. In a study conducted by Muller et al. (2011), teacher resiliency was examined. The study identified six factors that might contribute to developing resiliency in teachers: (a) purpose and expectations, (b) nurture and support, (c), positive connections, (d) meaningful participation, (e) life guiding skills, and (f) clear and consistent boundaries. Student success, subject matter taught, and the art of teaching are reasons that some teachers decide to stay in education (Thidodeaux et al., 2015). As noted by Dave and Raval (2016), "teachers are employees and they have their own specific characteristics as knowledge workers" (p. 37). While teachers are more likely to remain teaching when they experience opportunities to develop a sense of resiliency, these experiences may be less available to urban teachers (Whipp & Geronime, 2017). Further research is necessary to identify factors that contribute to a teacher's choice to remain teaching in an urban school setting.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore factors that contribute to teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching position. This study explores the job satisfaction of current teachers teaching in Indiana urban school districts that participate in the Indiana Urban School Association (IUSA). The IUSA is comprised of 35 urban school districts that serve more than one-third of all public school students across the state of Indiana. Member districts of the IUSA include a minimum of one of the following traits of significant student enrollment: urban/suburban centers, English language learners, minority student population, special education, and poverty. The IUSA serves the needs of urban Indiana students by "advocating and supporting a legislative agenda at the local and state levels that recognizes the unique needs of urban children in Indiana; providing a forum in which the needs of the urban community can be considered and addressed; cooperating with other organizations that have an interest in the educational advancement of urban children; providing services and programs specifically designed for the use of urban schools, and their students, faculty, and administration; and supporting programs and activities designed to benefit all children in Indiana schools."

School administrators need to identify methods to retain effective teachers. Instead of focusing on why teachers leave, determining why teachers choose to stay will provide a perspective missing from current research. To understand why teachers choose to remain in urban school settings, administrators must be able to identify specific factors that contribute to job satisfaction in urban schools.

Through this quantitative study, the research will achieve the following:

Identify factors that predict urban teacher job satisfaction based on Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey Factors.

Identify factors that predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

Conceptual Framework

Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1985) serves as the conceptual framework for this research. There is a body of evidence in the literature that corroborates Spector's JSS nine subscales as being linked to motivation, morale, and retention. These nine subscales included

pay, promotion, fringe benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, coworkers, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication.

Teacher motivation and morale are directly linked to job satisfaction. Armer (2011) researched factors that affected job satisfaction of middle and high school teachers using the JSS. Results indicated a moderately positive relationship between satisfaction and the variables of pay, supervision, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, and communication. Fringe benefits and job satisfaction demonstrated a low positive relationship. The study concluded that job satisfaction created motivation and positive morale for teachers. Lasseter (2013) sought to identify which job-related factors were most likely to affect teachers' sense of satisfactions. The School Staffing Survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (2011) was utilized to collect data from a sample of 19,120 teachers participating in the study. Results indicated that classroom autonomy and administrative support had a greater impact on teacher job satisfaction than demographic characteristics of schools and teachers. Classroom autonomy, administrative support, and staff collegiality demonstrated a significant effect on teachers' job satisfaction. The study concluded that administrative support along with support from coworkers increases teachers' job satisfaction.

Communication is a significant factor of teacher job satisfaction. Alanezi (2011) examined the level of communication satisfaction among teachers. Alanezi researched the relationship between communication satisfaction and teachers' demographic variables of gender, years of experience, and school district. The relationship between communication and organizational commitment within the sample of 465 secondary teachers participating was also studied. Results indicated no significant relationship between communication and years of experience, and there were no significant differences between male and female teachers in their communication. The study concluded that supervisor communication, horizontal communications, and communication with subordinates were the predictors of organizational commitment and retention.

Several studies have found a link between supervision (leadership), pay, nature of work, and coworker relationships with teacher job satisfaction. Tobias (2017) investigated teacher job satisfaction, teacher-preferred leadership behavior, and their impact on teacher job satisfaction. In one component of the study, a sample of 81 teachers participated by completing Spector's (1985) JSS. The study revealed that teachers were satisfied with their jobs but not satisfied with

their pay. The research concluded leadership behaviors could assist in creating effective school climates for maintaining job satisfaction. Pittman (2015) researched teacher retention in rural school districts of South Dakota. Results indicated that leadership and management methods that promoted retention included financial benefits and professional development opportunities for teachers. Pittman concluded that positive methods that increased job satisfaction and retention included multi-year retention bonuses, paying student loans, and peer observation. Queyrel-Bryan (2017) used the JSS and the Professional Practice Questionnaire to study the job satisfaction of teachers in public elementary schools. Teachers were moderately satisfied with their coworkers, nature of work, and supervision. They were dissatisfied with pay and operating conditions. Teachers indicated that positive school climate, nature of work, and morale increased their job satisfaction. This study concluded that job satisfaction is essential to retaining teachers. Several job satisfaction factors influence extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. England (2016) studied factors that influenced job satisfaction, including both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. A sample of 965 kindergarten and fifth-grade teachers participated in a three-part teacher information survey consisting of components including motivation, factors influencing job satisfaction, and willingness to encourage future teachers. Results indicated a majority of teachers entered the profession as a result of intrinsic motivation. Teacher autonomy and self-efficacy were positive influences of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was a major factor encouraging teachers to influence prospective teachers. While intrinsic motivation reasons were on top in influencing teachers to enter the profession, job demands and poor working conditions negatively impacted teacher job satisfaction.

Teacher job satisfaction factors may differ based upon years of experience. Bumgartner (2013) researched factors that lead to job satisfaction among rural teachers using the JSS (Spector, 1985). Results indicated a significant difference in job satisfaction for age, highest level of education, grade taught, years of experience, and salary. The subscales of promotion and supervision were found to significantly affect job satisfaction. The nature of work subscale received 85.5% level as a job satisfaction factor among teachers, while the coworker subscale received 80% degree of job satisfaction. The study concluded that pay, promotion, and operating procedures received a low degree of job satisfaction, and the coworker subscale had association with teacher job satisfaction.

A growing body of research indicates that job satisfaction is an important predictor of teacher retention. The nine subscales that make up Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey identify specific job satisfaction factors: pay, promotion, benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, coworkers, operating procedures, nature of work, and communication. These subscales are linked to teacher motivation, morale, retention, and job satisfaction (Armer, 2011; Lasseter, 2013; Bumgarter, 2013; Pittman, 2015; England, 2016; Tobias, 2017). This study utilizes the JSS subscales to identify factors that contribute to a teacher's decision to remain teaching in urban school settings.

Research Questions

To identify factors affecting teacher job satisfaction and teachers' intent to remain teaching in urban settings, the following research questions guided the study:

Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographic factors predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

Hypotheses

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1 1$: There is a significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographic factors predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

$H_0$2: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1$2: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

Significance of the Study

This study has significant implications for teacher retention and student achievement in urban school districts. When there are not enough certified teachers, the schools with the fewest resources and least desirable working conditions are the ones left with vacancies (Sutcher et al., 2016). Urban schools need dedicated educators who will remain committed to their students. Teacher turnover affects student achievement (Clotfelter et al., 2007; Johnson, 2010; NCES, 1997; NCTAF, 2007; Park, 2005). High levels of teacher attrition affect the sustainability of educational reform efforts in any school, especially in high-need schools (Ingersoll, 2001; Green & Munoz, 2016). Dissatisfied teachers may undermine school educational goals, and dissatisfaction with teaching conditions may lead to higher teacher absenteeism, reduced commitment, stress, and turnover/attrition (Banerjee et al., 2017; Perrachione et al., 2008; Renzulli et al., 2011; Evans, 2001; Huberman, 1993; Ingersoll, 2001; Sargent & Hannum, 2005; Weiqi, 2007; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Increasing urban teacher job satisfaction and retention has the potential to increase student achievement and keep effective teachers teaching students who need the most support. Before administrators can support urban teacher job satisfaction and retention, they first to need to know what factors will be effective. The National Center for Education Statistics (1997) reported a significant correlation between teacher effectiveness, student achievement, and teacher job satisfaction. As noted by Inman and Marlow (2004), "as beginning teachers continue to leave the profession within the first several years of entering, educators must identify factors related to attrition if the current teacher shortage is to be remedied" (p. 606). While the reasons why teacher leave urban school settings are important to study, identifying factors that motivate teachers to stay would provide insight to administrators as they consider recruiting, preparing, and retaining teachers in urban school settings (He et al., 2015). Determining factors that predict urban teacher job satisfaction may increase retention and

allow administrators to focus more on quality instruction and less on recruitment and retention, saving districts both money and time. Administrators, current teachers, potential teachers, and teacher educators can all benefit from the results of this study.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined to provide a common understanding in their meaning and scope of words throughout this dissertation:

Attrition. Also called turnover, this is the measured rate that employees leave the system in which they are employed (National Center for Education Statistics, 2007).

Communication. Sharing of information within the organization either verbally or in writing.

Contingent rewards. Rewards (not necessarily monetary) that are given for good performance such as recognition, appreciation, and a sense of respect (Spector, 1997). In education, examples of contingent rewards include column shifts in salary (contingent upon increased education for the teacher), step salary increases (contingent upon successful and satisfactory completion of a year of teaching), and merit pay.

Coworkers. Teachers who are employed in the same school or in the same school district.

Fringe benefits. Benefits other than salary, which could be either monetary or nonmonetary in nature, such as health benefits, time off, flexible schedules, insurance, vacation time, etc. (Spector, 1997).

Full-time. Full-time refers to those teachers participating in the study whose formal employment contract requires them to work at least 180 days per school year.

Incentive pay. A system of compensation that provides set financial rewards for reaching predetermined goals (Brooks, 1980). In school settings, incentive pay is usually associated with increases in student achievement.

Job dissatisfaction. The degree to which an individual feels negatively about his/her job; a negative attitudinal and affective response to one's workplace (Spector, 1997).

Job satisfaction. The state of mind of employees (with respect to their beliefs, values, and dispositions), that constitute the way people feel about their jobs, as well as about the different aspects of the job such as pay and promotion (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is the feeling that employees have about their jobs (Spector, 1997).

Job satisfaction subscales. The various aspects of the job identified by Spector (1997) measured in the JSS. The subscales used in this study include: Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Operating Procedures, Contingent Rewards, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS was created by Paul Spector (1997) and is designed to measure the job satisfaction levels of employees in a wide variety of occupations, but was designed initially for use in service organizations and public service sectors. It is a 36-item survey utilized to collect data regarding an employee's level of satisfaction in nine areas correlating this his/her job satisfaction. Four subscales measure satisfaction on intrinsic factors and five measure satisfaction concerning extrinsic factors of the job (Spector, 1997).

Likert scale. A type of rating scale used to measure attitudes or opinions. Rensis Likert (1932) created the Likert format, in which the respondent is requested to respond to a question that asks them to agree or disagree with a statement and requires the respondent to note the degree of agreement or disagreement (Dillman, 2000). Using a Likert scale, Spector (1985) created the JSS on a six-point scale for question response, which range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Merit pay. Refers to the practice of rewarding a worker for service or production that goes above and beyond a par standard (Spector, 1997), usually paid as a bonus and not part of base salary. Merit pay is interchangeable with incentive pay and performance-based pay.

Nature of work. Characteristics of tasks assigned in a job, such as work attributes, variety, challenge, and autonomy, the type of work being done, and the sense of worth that are associated with work. This could include one's feeling about the meaningfulness and personal enjoyment associated with the job.

Operating conditions. Policies, procedures, and rules within the workplace.

Overall job satisfaction. A state of satisfaction when perceiving the job as a whole rather than of its parts.

Parental involvement. The amount of participation a parent has when it comes to his/her child's schooling and life.

Pay. Amount and fairness or equity of salary and increases in salary.

Principal. The building-level administrator of a school. The principal is viewed as the school site-based leader in all aspects of the school (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

Promotion. Advancements in careers usually associated with increases in compensation (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Retention. The act or process of keeping a worker in his/her job or the power or capacity to keep an employee at this/her job (Tack & Patitu, 1992).

Suburban school setting. A school setting located within the area surrounding a central city within the Metropolitan Statistical Area (Lippman et al., 1996); generally categorized by middle-class or upper-class white majority students

Supervision. Actions of an individual's immediate supervisor in dealing with fairness and competence of assigned tasks. Supervision may include overseeing the tasks the employees must accomplish, goal setting and attainment, quality of work, and assurance that employees are preforming the required tasks as expected by the supervisor.

Teacher. Any person employed full-time by a school and who has the responsibility of instructing students; refers to certified personnel assigned to a group or groups of students for the majority of the school day for the purpose of instructing students (Lanier, 1997).

Teacher job satisfaction. Teachers' affective reactions to their teaching role (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011)

Turnover. Also called attrition, this is the measured rate that employees leave the system in which they are employed (NCES, 1997).

Urban school setting. School setting located in central cities of Metropolitan Statistical Areas (Lippman et al., 1996); urban school settings are often characterized with diverse demographics and funding challenges. For the purpose of this study, urban school settings are defined as school districts within the Indiana Urban School Association. Member districts of the IUSA include a minimum of one of the following traits of significant student enrollment: urban/suburban centers, English language learners, minority student population, special education, and poverty. The IUSA serves the needs of urban Indiana students by "advocating and supporting a legislative agenda at the local and state levels that recognizes the unique needs of urban children in Indiana; providing a forum in which the needs of the urban community can be considered and addressed;

cooperating with other organizations that have an interest in the educational advancement of urban children; providing services and programs specifically designed for the use of urban schools, and their students, faculty, and administration; and supporting programs and activities designed to benefit all children in Indiana schools" (Indiana Urban School Association, n.d.).

Working conditions. Extrinsic factors that modify or restrict the nature of work; environment or context within which an individual works (Herzberg, 1966). Working conditions may include hours worked, the environment under which work is performed, the quality of supervision, and a variety of other factors that are non-compensatory in nature.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Ninety percent of open teaching positions are created by teachers who choose to leave the profession (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017b). While some may retire, about two-thirds of teachers leave for other reasons, most due to dissatisfactions with teaching (Banerjee et al., 2017). Each year educational leaders across the country are tasked with recruiting effective teachers in order to replace teachers leaving the field or moving to another school. School officials have struggled to find ways to attract, retain, and encourage quality educators (DeAvila & Hobbs, 2017; National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983). Urban school administrators face even more challenges retaining teachers as the issue of teacher retention is greater in urban school settings (Cochran-Smith, 2006; Gaikhorst et al., 2014; Hanushek et al., 2005; Ingersoll et. al., 2014; Jacob, 2007).

Teacher job satisfaction may negatively affect teacher retention. The urgency to improve education has created additional challenges for teachers. Increased challenges for teachers include increased class sizes, rising numbers of students with limited English proficiency, shifts in modes of teaching and learning due to the technological revolution, and an increase in scrutiny and accountability for educators (Johnson, 2010). These and many other factors have changed the working environment for educators. Many of these changes have been perceived negatively, not only by the educators they affect, but also by educational support groups across the nation (Bracey, 2009). Education has become a more stressful and less rewarding occupation than in the past.

Teacher compensation, workplace conditions, relationships with coworkers, nature of work, lack of parental support, and administrative leadership play significant roles in teacher job satisfaction. Giacometti (2005) found emotional factors, culture shock, teacher preparation, managing and assessing students, and instructional support are all directly associated with teacher retention. Sutcher et al. (2016) note significant factors associated with teacher attrition include the quality of school leadership, professional learning opportunities, instructional leadership, time for collaboration and planning, collegial relationships, and decision-making input. The need for teachers to work in urban school settings is heightened by the problem of the

"revolving door" of teachers in urban, high-poverty schools (Ingersoll, 2001; Quartez et al., 2008). For example, in urban Chicago, the 5-year retention rate for beginning teachers is just 30% (Allensworth et al., 2009).

Literature supports the assertion that teacher retention in urban schools is a major concern. Roselle (2006) notes retention of teachers in urban schools specifically continues to plague public schools. According to Ingersoll (2007), half of trained teacher candidates never enter teaching, and 40-50% of those who do enter teaching leave the field altogether within the first five years of teaching. Given the additional struggles urban education settings endure, it is understandable that administrators of urban schools need to find ways to retain quality teachers. Urban, low-income school communities face extreme turnover rates and significant staffing issues every school year (Olsen and Anderson, 2007). Not surprisingly, low-performing Title I urban schools experience high annual teacher attrition rates (Ingeroll & Smith, 2003). The characteristics of urban schools likely attribute to increased teacher attrition. School size, socioeconomic states, and standardized test performance make a significant impact on teachers' decision to leave the field of education (Hughes, 2012). Likewise, McKinney et al. (2007) found in their study of high-poverty schools that schools with higher needs tend to have a higher turnover rate than other schools.

Research indicates that minority student enrollment continues to increase in urban school districts while the number of minority teachers is grossly underrepresented (Taylor, 2013). Urban school administrators seek to hire teachers who represent the diverse population of their students. Mueller et al. (1999) found when teachers do not match with the ethnic background of their students, an experience of less positive working conditions may reduce their job satisfaction. During the 2008-2009 school year, only 16.5% of all teachers were minority, compared to 41% of students (Ingersoll & May, 2011). Urban schools also struggle to retain highly effective minority teachers. Further complicating things, Springer et al. (2016) noted highly qualified minority teachers leave urban, disadvantaged schools at a higher rate than their less-qualified colleagues.

In response to high teacher turnover in urban school settings, research has sought to study the factors, such as teacher job satisfaction, that contribute to urban teacher attrition. Findings from several studies indicate that increased teacher job satisfaction significantly affects teacher retention in urban school settings (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Curtis, 2012; Giacometti, 2005; Green

& Munoz, 2016; Kahn, 2007; Olsen & Anderson, 2007). Teacher job satisfaction research conducted by Dinham and Scott (1997) found that intrinsic factors such as student achievement, positive relationships with students, self-growth, and mastery of professional skill influence the level of teacher satisfaction positively. Conversely, extrinsic factors such as the rapid pace and nature of educational change, increased expectations, and lack of support for implementation of policy changes were found to negatively influence teachers' level of job satisfaction. Shen et al. (2012) found that teacher job satisfaction is a function of teacher, principal, and school background, along with school processes such as working conditions, leadership, student behavior, and parental support.

Indiana Teacher Retention Crisis

The state of Indiana struggles to retain teachers, regardless of teaching setting. Indiana teachers (and students) are often caught in the crossfire of political decisions made by state legislators. Sutcher et al. (2016) identified the state of Indiana as ranking last in the country for retaining teachers. Indiana teacher concerns parallel those concerns of teachers across the country: dissatisfaction with state testing and accountability laws and practices, low salaries, lack of opportunities for advancement, working conditions, and lack of respect from society (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017b).

Additional findings from Sutcher et al. (2016) indicate that Indiana teachers are more concerned than teachers of any other state that student test scores significantly affect their job security. Indiana has been plagued with issues of ineffective standardized testing for years. The former state assessment, ISTEP (Indiana Statewide Testing for Educational Progress-Plus), was frequently criticized due to technological issues and the length of testing. Due to concerns of the new ILEARN assessment scores, Indiana Governor Eric Holcomb and State Superintendent of Public Instruction Jennifer McCormick requested legislators pass a "hold harmless" exemption in an effort to protect schools and teachers from being negatively impacted by test scores (Fittes, 2019). The graphic below from Sutcher et al. (2016) demonstrates the percentage of Indiana teachers concerned about job security based on student performance on assessments.

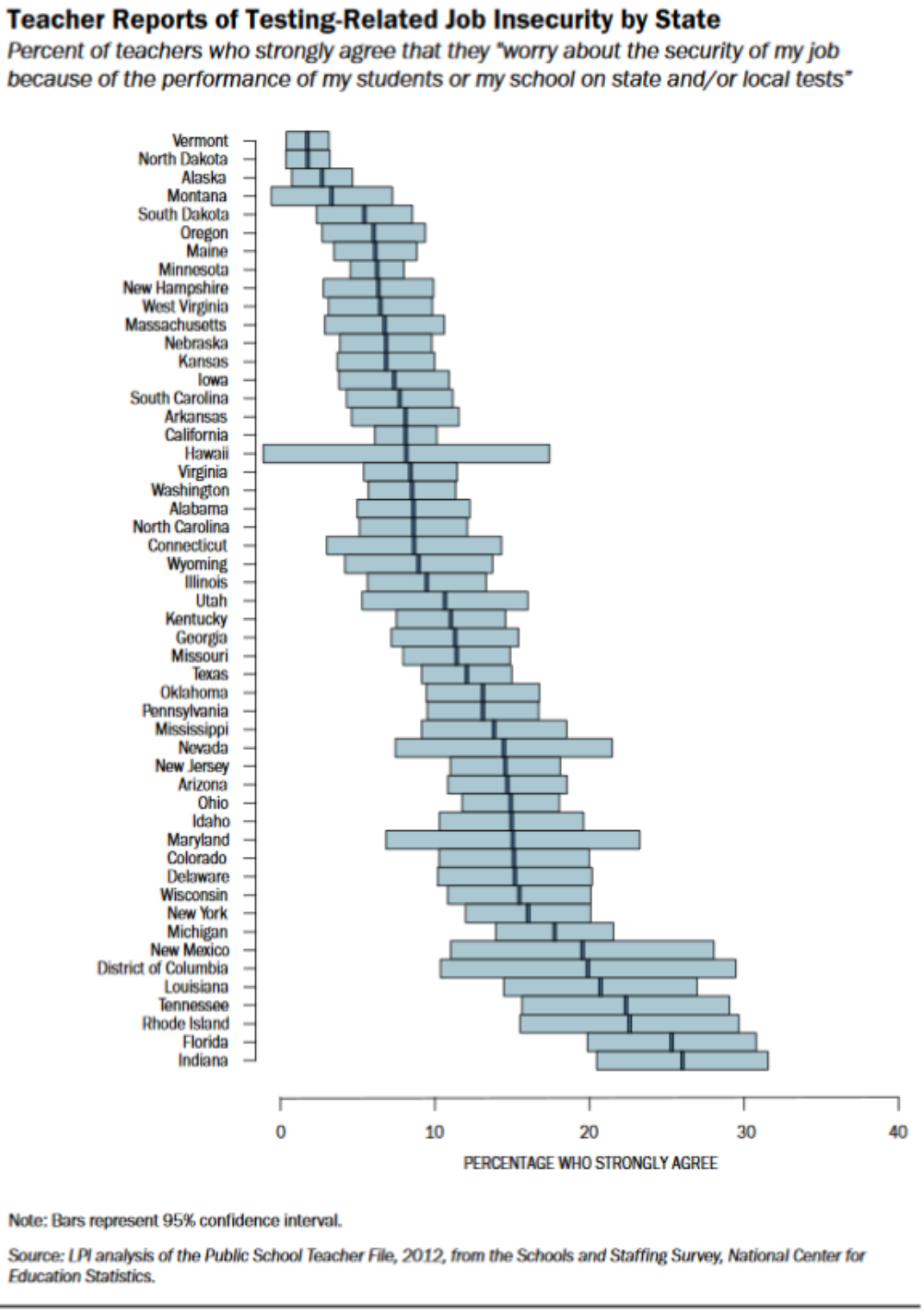

Figure 2. Teacher reports of testing-related job insecurity by state. *Note*. Reprinted from "A coming crisis in teaching? Teacher supply, demand, and shortages in the U.S.", by Sutcher et al., 2016, Learning Policy Institute.

Fair compensation is another major concern of Indiana teachers. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2016), the average teacher salary in Indiana is $50,554. To make salaries competitive with neighboring states, an estimated $658 million would need to be invested in Indiana teacher salaries (Wang, 2019). Indiana teachers have experienced a decrease in average pay when inflation is considered. Understandably, Indiana teachers are displeased with their current salaries. On November 19, 2019, thousands of Indiana teachers took part in a rally at the State Capitol in Indianapolis to draw attention to the need to raise teacher pay. Teachers in Indiana were asking the Republican-controlled state legislature to commit $700 million in 2020 to increase the average salary statewide to $60,000, near the national average (Woolston & O'Brien, 2019)

Unfortunately, Indiana teachers and students are often caught in the middle of political debates regarding education in Indiana. New legislation has been passed aimed at improving teacher retention and pay. House Bill 1009 provides a new pilot program that gives prospective teachers a full year of intensive, preservice experience under the guidance of a mentor teacher. Funding will go to local school districts that establish this kind of "teacher residency" program, with the expectation that both the prospective and mentor teacher will be compensated (Anderson, 2019). House Bill 1008 will create "career ladders" to provide classroom teachers with more leadership opportunities, allowing the possibility of additional pay. House Bill 1003 sets a goal for each school district to spend 85% of all spending in the classroom. Conversely, other legislation has passed that has outraged Indiana teachers. House Bill 1002 requires teachers to complete a 15-hour externship to fulfill licensing requirements. This legislation has made teachers feel disrespected by legislators. Teachers are seeking to have this law repealed, as it requires them to take private-sector jobs for a time to renew their teaching licenses.

Indiana's average retention rate for educators, both teachers and administrators, is approximately 82% annually. This means that a significant amount of time and money is spent each school year hiring new teachers (and administrators). To address teacher turnover, state and district policymakers should consider improving the key factors associated with turnover: compensation, teacher preparation and support, and working conditions (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017b; McCoy, 2019). In regards to the teacher retention crisis in Indiana, State Superintendent of Public Instruction Jennifer McCormick stated, "Sadly, 'Indiana' and 'teacher shortage' have become synonymous terms." (Grant, 2019).

Theoretical Construct

Two theoretical constructs guided this study to link teacher satisfaction to job retention: Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivator Hygiene Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) and Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs (1943). The theories by both Herzberg et. al (1959) and Maslow (1943) have been closely linked to studies related to job satisfaction and employee retention, thus providing the framework for this study.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivator Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et. al (1959) were early researchers of job satisfaction, and their theories have been widely studied and applied in many fields in relation to job satisfaction, employee retention, and employee turnover. Herzberg et al. (1957) correlated positive relationships between certain factors of the job and satisfaction and productivity of workers. Herzberg sought to understand what workers valued about their jobs. He believed job satisfaction contributed to positive employee motivation (1959). Herzberg identified two factors as beneficial to sustaining an effective and satisfied work environment: (a) intrinsic satisfiers, and (b) extrinsic satisfiers or dissatisfiers.

Whether or not the motivation to work is influenced intrinsically or extrinsically, there are basic common needs among humans that affect motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg identified specific intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors, or satisfiers, are motivators that tend to create a positive attitude about one's job and may contribute to job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) identified five intrinsic satisfiers: sense of achievement, recognition, interesting work, advancement opportunities, and personal and professional development. Extrinsic hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, may not be motivators; however, if they are missing or applied incorrectly, they may contribute to job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, if applied correctly, extrinsic factors can serve as satisfiers. Herzberg et al. (1959) identified ten extrinsic factors: company policies and administration; supervision; relationships with supervisor, peers, and subordinates; working conditions; salary and benefits; personal life; status; and job security.

Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs

The five sets of human needs in Maslow's theory tie closely to the intrinsic motivators identified by Herzberg (1957). Maslow (1943) sought to understand how the fulfillment of human needs impacted the attainment of an individual's potential, and the impact human needs have upon the motivation of the individual. Maslow's *A Theory of Human Motivation* (1943) centers on the idea that all humans have needs that must be met in sequential order before an individual can reach self-actualization. The theory identifies these human needs and the order in which they must be achieved, from the most fundamental to the highest order. Maslow (1943) identified five sets of human needs: (a) physiological need, (b) safety, (c) love, (d) esteem, and (e) self-actualization. Maslow (1943) described the highest level of needs, self-actualization as:

"A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man *can* be, he *must* be. This need we may call self-actualization . . . it refers to the desire for self-fulfillment, namely, to the tendency for him to be actualized in what is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (p. 383).

Age & Years of Experience

A teacher's age and years of experience may affect job satisfaction, teacher retention, and student achievement. Research indicates that teacher age affects job satisfaction (Avi-Itzhakm 1988; Borg & Riding, 1991; Galloway et al., 1985; Lowther et al., 1985). Mertler (2001) studied the relationship between teacher age and job satisfaction and found teachers ranging from 26 to 30 years of age as well as 56 years of age and older reported the highest levels of satisfaction with their jobs. Conversely, teachers from 31 to 35 years of age reported the lowest job satisfaction rates. Years of experience may affect urban teacher job satisfaction. Teachers with fewer years of teaching experience encounter different issues in their job from more experienced teachers. Novice teachers may be underprepared to meet the academic and behavioral needs of students, especially in urban school districts (Gimbert et al., 2010; Huisman et al., 2010). Beginning teachers may experience a degree of stress as what they perceived their work to be before they started may differ from the reality of their classroom. Examples of these stressors include working with limited resources, increased demands on teachers to improve student test

scores, and a reduced amount of time available to make use of the best practices that they learned in their teacher education programs (Farber and Ascher, 1991; Claycomb, 2000; Gehrke, 2005; Weiner, 2006). Research results exploring the relationship of years of teaching experience and teacher job satisfaction have been mixed. Some studies have found no significant association between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Green-Reese et al., 1991), while other studies have found a significant correlation between years of teaching experience and teacher job satisfaction (Van Houtte, 2006; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; US Department of Education, 1997).

Many studies indicate years of experience as a significant predictor of teacher job satisfaction (Klecker & Loadman, 1997; Lobosco & Newman, 1992; Pearson, 1995). Kleckler and Loadman (1997) conducted research to find the influence of years of teaching experience across seven factors of job satisfaction, including salary and fringe benefits, opportunities for professional development, level of personal/professional development, level of professional autonomy/decision-making authority, general work conditions, interactions with colleagues, and interactions with students. Utilizing the National Follow-up Survey of Teacher Education Graduates Job Satisfaction Subscale, Klecker and Loadman (1997) found no statistical significant difference of "years of experience," but indicated that further research in this area was recommended with a larger sample size.

In other studies, the factors that contribute to teacher job satisfaction have been shown to differ according to years of teaching experience. Selzer (2000) found beginning teachers reported lack of administrative support, lack of orientation to policies and procedures, and their working conditions as most detrimental to their job satisfaction. Novice teachers may be unaware of the challenges associated with teaching in an urban school setting. Many new teachers are not fully prepared for the complex setting of an urban school (Haberman, 1996; Helfeldt et al., 2009). Matsko and Hammerness (2014) state, "urban school districts are host to a variety of complicated, interrelated issues that have implications for aspiring teachers, including racial and ethnic heterogeneity, concentrations of poverty, and large, dense bureaucracies" (p. 128). Urban school districts that predominately serve students of color frequently base curriculum, instruction, and expectations off European American culture (Hollins, 2012). New teachers may be unaware of implicit bias or lack skill in culturally responsive teaching practices (Fowler & Brown, 2018). Pringle et al. (2010) found that ethnicity and race do influence teacher perceptions

of students, which in turn affect teacher morale. Many teacher preparation programs do not prepare prospective teachers specifically for teaching in urban school settings (Carter Andrews, 2009; Freedman & Appleman, 2009; Quartz et al., 2004; Schultz et al., 2008). Thus, novice teachers in urban school settings enter the field unprepared and are unequipped to teach traditional urban students.

Teacher years of experience may also impact student achievement. A report by NCTAF (2007) indicated a positive correlation between the experience of a teacher at the school site and student achievement. Other studies have found a teacher's human capital—"an individual's cumulative abilities, knowledge, and skill developed through formal and informal education and experience" (Pil & Leana, 2009, p. 1103)—is an important predictor of students' achievement in school (Daly et al., 2011; Pil & Leana, 2009). Nye et al. (2004) conducted a study to determine the impact teachers have on student achievement. Nye et al. (2004) noted that the impact of experience was most heavily felt relatively early in a teacher's career. Nye et al. (2004) defined student achievement by performance on the standardized mathematics and reading assessments administered in grades K-3. Students whose teachers had more than three years' experience outperformed their peers with less experienced teachers on all but one measure (grade 1 mathematics), but a statistically significant difference was only found in two instances (grade 2 reading and grade 3 mathematics) (Nye et al., 2004). Darling-Hammond (2003) stated that a "possible cause of this curvilinear trend in experience effects is that older teachers do not always continue to grow and learn and may grow tired in their jobs" (p. 6).

The Role of Gender in Urban Teacher Retention and Job Satisfaction

Literature supports the concept that gender may play a role in teacher retention and job satisfaction. Dave and Raval (2016) state, "the status of teachers, mainly male teachers, has suffered so badly that sophisticated jobless become teachers only as a last resort and leave immediately when better and more respected job opportunities come along" (p. 33). Donaldson (2008) found that male and White teachers were more likely to leave teaching than their female counterparts. Further research suggests that teacher gender influences job satisfaction (Avi-Itzhakm, 1988; Borg & Riding, 1991; Galloway et al., 1985; Lowther et al., 1985). Additionally. Ramayah et al. (2011) found significant variances between male and female teacher participants. Male participants noted working conditions as least important and pay structure as most

important; however, female participants reported work and supervision as most important and compensation as least important. Scott et al. (2005) found that male teachers rated the demographic domains of teaching, marital status, and age lower than female teachers, indicating a lower level of commitment. Several studies have shown that female teachers reported higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts (Borg & Riding, 1991; Ellis & Bernhardt, 1992; Galloway et al., 1985; Lowther et al., 1985; McConaghy, 1993).

Teacher gender may specifically affect job satisfaction in urban school settings. Female teachers tend to be more committed to their urban school settings than male teachers, while new teachers are generally less committed than experienced teachers (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997). Klassen (2010) found that significantly more female than male teachers reported feeling stressed due to student behavior. Additionally, female teachers indicated a great deal of stress due to their workload and decreased teacher morale. The importance of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to teachers may also by vary by gender. In general, teachers who enjoy teaching in urban school settings appreciate the intrinsic value of teaching in a challenging environment. Ethington (1988) found that men are sensitive to pay and promotion prospects when choosing a career, while women are more attracted to what they see as intrinsic rewards, such as job satisfaction. Johnston et al. (1999) found male teachers attached significantly greater importance to extrinsic factors such as financial rewards, status, and peer reactions than female teachers. Male teachers reported being significantly less concerned than female teachers with intrinsic factors such as job satisfaction potential and the challenge of being mentally stimulated. Utilizing the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey, Mertler (2002) found gender significantly impacted job satisfaction.

Parental Support and Involvement

Lack of parental involvement may affect urban teacher job satisfaction. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found that a lack of cooperation or trust from parents negatively impacts a teacher's sense of belonging. Lack of parental involvement and support makes professional life difficult and unpleasant for teachers (Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Kraft et al., 2015) found that lack of parental engagement in urban, high-poverty school settings contributes to a teacher's uncertainty about remaining in the profession.

Parental involvement impacts urban school teachers. Epstein (1995) recognized six forms of parental involvement: (a) establishing home environments that support learning, (b) facilitating effective communication between school and home, (c) helping the school and supporting students, (d) learning at home, (e) participating in school decision-making processes, and (f) working with other stakeholders to strengthen the school. Research has found that parents' positive attitudes about education and their communication of expectations to their children concerning academic achievement, such as fostering academic and career aspirations, connecting school work to current events, and discussing learning techniques, contribute to student achievement and teacher satisfaction (Grolnick & Slowiacek, 1994; Hill & Tyson, 2009; Murray et al., 2014). Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) suggested that parents' decisions to engage in parental involvement are influenced by three motivational factors: (a) motivational beliefs, (b) parents' perceptions of invitations to become involved, and (c) parent's personal life context.

Many parents in urban school settings experience barriers to parental involvement. Studies have found low socioeconomic status to be a risk factor associated with lower parental involvement (Kohl et al., 2000). Low-income parents are more likely to have inflexible work schedules, multiple jobs, and/or jobs without paid leave benefits, which serves as a barrier for parents to attend school meetings, volunteer at school, or participate in other parental involvement activities (Mannan & Blackwell, 1992; Murray et al., 2014; Van Velsor & Orozco, 2007). African American parents with low income and educational levels experience more parent involvement barriers than white or advantaged parents (Frew et al., 2012; Halle et al., 1997; Trotman, 2001; Williams & Sanchez, 2013). Van Velsor and Orozco (2007) found low-income African American parents may have the perception of racism as well as their own negative school experiences, which may shape their self-efficacy and distance them from the school setting. Similarly, any parent with a limited educational background may lack the confidence to interact with teachers and navigate the school system (Kim, 2009; Koonce & Harper, 2005). Turney and Kao (2009) found minority parents are less likely to be involved in school and reported more barriers to involvement than native-born White parents. Because lower-income neighborhoods with higher shares of non-White residents are often associated with fewer neighborhood resources and lower quality residential amenities (Quane & Wilson, 2012), residing in a poor, minority neighborhood has often meant attending a poor, minority school

(Frankenberg & Orfield, 2013). Parents with low educational attainment may lack the skill set and knowledge base to assist students with schoolwork past the elementary level (Trotman, 2001). Limited resources, such as a lack of transportation, can also contribute to the lack of involvement for urban parents (Williams & Sanchez, 2013). Low-income parents are more likely to experience psychological barriers or experience negative mental health effects that may limit a parent's capacity to engage in school activities (Murray et al, 2014; Van Velsor & Orozco, 2007).

Urban school teachers may unknowingly contribute to the lack of parental involvement in urban school settings. There is evidence that some teachers may not promote parental involvement because of their frustration with low-achieving, low socioeconomic status (SES) students, or because they view the parents as a contributing factor to their students' academic problems (Eccles & Harrold, 1993; Griffith, 1998; Trotman, 2001; Van Velsor & Orozco, 2007). Archer-Banks and Behar-Horenstein (2008) found that most parents viewed parental involvement as important; however, the school environment (particularly the school personnel's expectations, practices, and policies) significantly influenced their level of involvement. Murray et al. (2014) noted one-half of the urban middle school parent participants in their study "indicated having negative impressions of teachers in the school and generally discussed unfriendly and hostile interactions with teachers" (p. 7). Teachers may lack the resources necessary to communicate with urban parents. Reynolds et al. (2015) found both teachers and parents note a need for bilingual communications and support for teachers who do not speak the language of the parents.

Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Factors

In the area of human services, literature supports the concept that job satisfaction is associated with employee performance and client outcomes (Wiggins & Moody, 1983; Buffum & Konick, 1982; Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964; Schwartz & Will, 1961). Human services researcher Paul Spector designed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to measure the major components of job satisfaction in human service, public, and nonprofit organizations. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p. 2). Spector stated, "job satisfaction is to some extent a reflection of good treatment" and can also "be considered an indicator of emotional well-being or psychological health" (1997, p.

2). Spector's survey measures job satisfaction in nine subscales (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, operating conditions, contingent rewards, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The remainder of this chapter seeks to utilize Spector's subscales to analyze current literature addressing teacher retention in urban schools.

Pay & Promotion

Spector (1997) defines pay as a method of financial compensation for doing routine, scheduled, or interval tasks as prescribed by a job. Literature supporting teacher contentment shows a real relationship with pay structure and other benefits (Dave & Raval, 2016). Rawdha (2012) notes that pay and allowances are variables that contribute to teacher discontentment. Teachers feel that their income is low in comparison to their efforts. Muhammad et al. (2009) found that teachers are unhappy with their pay and dissatisfied with the lack of pay structure provided for teachers. Additionally, Koustelios (2001) found that teachers were generally content with the job itself and their supervision, though unhappy with payment and promotional opportunities. In a national study of math and science teachers in high-poverty schools, Ingersoll and May (2011) found that teacher salary was the greatest predictor of retention for science teachers.

Pay and opportunities for promotion influence teacher motivation, performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Cable & Judge, 1994; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990; Huselid, 1995; Milkovich & Newman, 2002). In 1983, the nation report *A Nation at Risk* stated, "salaries for the teaching profession should be increased and should be professionally competitive, market sensitive, and performance based" (p. 30). Urban school districts often struggle to remain competitive with surrounding districts' teacher salaries. Sutcher et al. (2016) recommend policies that create "competitive, equitable compensation packages that allow teachers to make a reasonable living across all kinds of communities, leverage more competitive and equitable salaries so districts serving high-need students have a fair shot at recruiting well-qualified educators, and create incentives that make living as a teacher more affordable, including housing supports, childcare supports, and opportunities to teach or mentor after retirement to more effectively recruit and retain teachers" (p. 1).

Financial promotion at the teacher level is minimal; however, school administrators can control job assignments for teachers within a school district. Promoting teachers into teacher-

leader positions or as instructional coaches can reward highly effective teachers with increased professional responsibility, though increased compensation may not be available (Chingos & West, 2011). Teachers seeking increased responsibility and financial compensation may choose to leave the classroom for school administration.

Operating Conditions

Operating conditions in urban schools can be more challenging than those of suburban or rural school settings. Working conditions should be accounted for in examining high rates of teacher attrition in urban schools (Hanushek et al., 2004). Dave and Raval (2016) found, "working conditions had a positive relationship with a teacher's job contentment regardless of whether a teacher is in a private or public school, or an elementary or secondary school, and despite the teacher's background attributes or the school demographics" (p. 33). Working conditions tend to be worse in urban school settings. Urban schools are often associated with poor organizational conditions creating challenges to teacher retention (Ingersoll & May, 2011).

Urban teacher retention can be negatively impacted by undesirable working conditions. Loeb et al. (2005) found school working conditions to be the greatest predictor of teacher turnover. Simon and Johnson (2015) found working conditions to be a greater predictor of teacher retention than the characteristics of students served. Stress levels are high for teachers in urban school settings, as they face considerable challenges such as limited resources, overcrowding, chronic disruptive student behavior, and high-pressure accountability policies (Atkins et al., 2003; Capella et al., 2008; Shernoff at al., 2011). Darling-Hammond and Sykes (2003) notes class size, classroom facilities, administrator support, and the availability of teaching resources as job facets affecting teacher work conditions. Lippman et al. (1996) found student behavior problems were more common in urban schools than in other schools, particularly in the areas of student absenteeism, classroom discipline, weapon possession, and student pregnancy.

Facilities in urban school settings are often plagued with challenges. Research indicates a relationship between school facilities, student achievement, and teacher morale. Blazer (2012) found that students attending schools with poor physical conditions scored lower on standardized achievement tests than students in newer school buildings. Factors contributing to lower performing students included poor air quality and lighting, excessive temperature, and high noise

levels (Blazer, 2012). Deteriorating schools influenced higher teacher burnout and decreased teacher retention. Vandiver (2011) studied the role school facilities play in teacher retention and job satisfaction and found that poor school facilities influenced teachers to have negative feelings about remaining in their current school. In addition, teachers felt that schools lacked satisfactory facility management, which was important to sustain the positive influence of a school facility on teachers.

Working conditions and school safety contribute to teacher attrition in urban schools. Research indicates that teachers may leave urban schools due to safety of the school or community (Smith & Smith, 2006). In reference to urban novice teacher retention, Frankenburg et al. (2010) state, "new teachers are negatively affected by poor working conditions found in many of their schools, including lack of mentoring, insufficient curricular guidance, lack of disciplinary structures, information-poor hiring processes, unsuitable teaching assignments, and poor leadership" (p. 314). Wiebke and Bardin (2009) suggested that poor working conditions and lack of support are the primary factors of teacher attrition. Klecker and Loadman (1997) noted working conditions was the lowest category of job satisfaction identified by teachers in the National Follow-up Survey of Teacher Education Graduates Job Satisfaction Subscale.

Operating conditions affect job satisfaction for urban educators. Research indicates a positive school context is significant for teacher job satisfaction (Day et al., 2007; Scheopner, 2010). The educational environment for all educators has shifted from teacher freedom to teacher accountability. Teachers with more freedom demonstrate more contentment than teachers who feel they have less freedom (Dave, N., & Raval, D., 2016). When teachers feel the school environment is encouraging, they are more likely to remain in the school (Khan, T., 2007). Ma and MacMillan (1999) note that the nature of perceived administrative control and organizational culture plays a role in teacher job satisfaction. Teachers are more satisfied with their jobs when they feel support from administration, cooperation from colleagues, have the resources they need to teach, are asked to provide input with administration to discuss approaches to instruction, and have the perception of control over their classrooms and influence in school policies (Henke et al., 1996; Leithwood & McAdie, 2007; Perie & Baker, 1997; Petty, 2007; Shen et al., 2012; Thornton, 2004; Whiteford, 1990). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) note that operating conditions may be changed and improved, thus potentially improving teacher job satisfaction.

Fringe Benefits

Fringe benefits can be defined as forms of compensation made to an employee in addition to direct salaries or wages (Rebore, 2001). Examples of fringe benefits include paid or reimbursed tuition for continuing education, medical insurance, dental insurance, life insurance, sick leave, paid holidays, and retirement pensions (Zou, 1996). The benefit package has a direct relationship with both employee attitudes and job satisfaction (Kouzes & Posner, 1999; Tremblay et al., 2000; Weathington & Tetrick, 2000). Conversely, a lack of benefits could result in "dissatisfaction, higher levels of absenteeism, lower levels of performance, and higher turnover rates" (Hart & Carraher, 1995, p. 481).

Fringe benefits of urban school teachers are typically the same as those of teachers in non-urban school districts. Podgursky (2013) notes that teacher fringe benefits include health insurance, retirement plans, summers off, and contracted shorter work days in comparison to non-teaching occupations. Podgursky argues that the fringe benefits make teaching family-friendly and "an attractive occupation to those who wish to balance work and family needs" (2003, p. 72). Research comparing the fringe benefits of urban teachers to non-urban teachers does not exist.

Contingent Rewards

Contingent rewards refer to non-wage forms of compensation that recognize and reward employees for good work. Spector (1997) defined contingent rewards satisfaction as "satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) given for good performance" (p. 8). Lack of performance-related incentives could result in confusion and dissatisfaction (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Though many avenues for compensating teachers currently exist, most teachers in the United States are paid based on salary schedules designed largely to recognize years of teacher experience and education (Podgursky & Springer, 2008). Podgursky and Springer's (2008) study revealed that nearly 96% of the public school districts account for nearly 100% of the use of the traditional salary schedule to compensate teachers today. As such, little financial incentive exists for teachers to be effective. For example, two teachers with the same years of experience and education level would be making the same salary regardless of student progress or achievement.

The present compensation system exerts equal pull on effective and ineffective teachers alike because pay is not linked in any way to performance (Hassel and Hassel, 2010). Because only a few variations of different compensation models have been researched to date, performance pay for teachers is still a faith-based initiative rather than an educational practice (Gratz, 2011). To address this issue, teacher compensation reform by way of financial incentives has been initiated at both the state and federal levels. The state and federal standards-based reform has shifted towards results-based and teacher accountability (Brodsky et al., 2010).

Merit pay is an example of a contingent reward for teachers. Attempts at merit pay and other such arrangements have yielded mixed results at best, and have not been sustained or widely adopted for a variety of reasons (Colson & Satterfield, 2018; Chait & Miller, 2009; Harris, 2007). Springer and Gardner (2010) identified the lack of efficient performance monitoring and the complexities of measuring student learning as two of the reasons why pay for performance has failed. Factors out of teachers' control, such as student socioeconomic status, limited English proficiency, or lack of preparation from previous teachers or parents, make merit pay controversial and unpopular among teachers. In a study conducted by Brodsky et al. (2010), teachers expressed strong reservations about the emphasis on student standardized test scores as the primary basis for determining teacher pay incentives, and teacher union representatives filed lawsuits challenging the programs. Springer and Gardner (2010) found that the design of incentive programs has the potential to lead to dramatic effects on teachers, administrators, and students, determining it essential that educators use the lessons learned from the experiences associated with strategic compensation initiatives to continue both to evaluate and refine such programs to maximize their effectiveness.

Contingent rewards outside of merit pay are often the responsibility of the building-level principal. Principal support and recognition can increase teacher job satisfaction and the likelihood that a teacher will remain in their current teaching setting. Hughes et al. (2015) found that principals' emotional, environmental, and instructional support were instrumental in influencing teachers to leave or stay at a school. Teachers in the study indicated they felt supported when their principal recognized them for a job well done. Teachers with few instances of individual recognition by their principal were more likely to leave the field than those who were praised individually.

Coworkers

As in any field, relationships with coworkers play a role in job satisfaction. Spector (1997) defined a coworker as an associate, fellow worker, or employee with whom one works; coworkers include both peers and supervisors. Positive relationships with coworkers increase teacher commitment. Teacher commitment is necessary for schools to create and maintain a culture that supports school-wide instructional improvement (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Aesthetic factors such as relationships teachers have with colleagues create a positive impact on teachers' longevity in the field (Ouyang & Paprock, 2006). Collaborative work with fellow teachers and school staff members is known to increase teacher job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Scott et al., 2001). Barth (2006) found congenial relationships of significant importance to teacher retention. Lortie (1975) found that teachers surveyed significantly valued associating with other teachers. Kokka (2016) found collegiality with veteran teachers contributes to teacher longevity. Farber (1982) found collegial relationships contribute to teacher job satisfaction.

Relationships with coworkers influence school climate and job satisfaction for teachers in urban school settings. Studies have found a relationship between staff collegiality, teacher job satisfaction, and teacher willingness to stay in the teaching profession (Banerjee et al., 2017; Brunetti, 2001; Shen et.al., 2012; Woods & Weasmer, 2004). Scott et al. (2001) found teachers believe that working in teams with colleagues and staff members, planning collaboratively, and achieving goals together contributes greatly to their job satisfaction. Research indicates that a positive social climate and social support are positively related to motivation and teacher satisfaction (Day et al., 2007; Dinham & Scott, 1998; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Scheopner, 2010; US Department of Education, 1997). Emotional support and positive relations with colleagues promote a feeling of belonging for urban teachers (Skaalvik, S., & Skaalvik, E. M., 2011). A sense of belonging increases job satisfaction. Educational research indicates that *teacher trust* in other school member teachers is positively associated with teachers' own professional attitudes, their collective efficacy, and their collaboration (Goddard et al., 2000; Tschannen-Moran, 2004; Tchannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Trust in coworkers leads to increased job satisfaction (Banerjee et al., 2017).

Negative interactions with coworkers can increase the likelihood of teacher job dissatisfaction. Troman (2000) found that unsatisfactory social relationships between teachers in a school are an important source of stress in teaching. Low levels of trust between teachers are

shown to be associated with teachers' self-estrangement, powerlessness, and conflict (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Nature of Work

Spector (1997) defined the nature of work as an individual's satisfaction with the type of work that is performed and the job tasks themselves. Teaching is a profession driven by values, ethical motives, or intrinsic motivations (Sahlberg, 2010). Areas of teaching that influence job satisfaction include "working with children and seeing them achieve, working collaboratively with other members of the education community, and achieving personal professional growth" (Scott et al., 2001, p. 5). Working in urban school settings is a choice some teachers willingly make. Teachers' perceptions surrounding the nature of their work play a significant role in teacher retention. Watson's (2011) findings suggest, "teachers used the perceived behaviors, values, and beliefs of students to measure how urban a student was and, therefore, to guide their expectations of and satisfaction with their placements" (p. 24). Many teachers feel passionately about working with urban students. Some teachers may view teaching in nonurban schools as regular or easy, while teaching in an urban school requires an extra skill set all teachers do not possess (Watson, 2011).

The challenges of the urban school setting peaks the interest of teachers motivated to make a difference. Bennett et al. (2013) found teachers reported their interactions with students were a significant factor related to teacher commitment and longevity in the teaching field. Research notes that positive relationships between students and teachers, in which teachers feel that they are making a significant difference in students' lives, contribute to persistence in teaching (Cochran-Smith, 2006; Perrachione et al., 2008). Positive teacher-student relationships are associated with greater job satisfaction (Veldman et al., 2013). Shann (1998) notes, "teachers felt that teacher-pupil relationships were most important and reported they were more satisfied with this aspect of their job than any other (p. 72). Lortie (1975) found that of more than 5,800 teachers surveyed, over 76.5% stated the primary reward of teaching is intrinsic. Goodlad (1984) found the majority of teachers enter the profession due to the intrinsic nature of the work. Neito's (2003) study of teacher longevity found social emotional rewards most influential to teachers' satisfaction and longevity in the classroom. Klecker and Loadman (1997) found teacher satisfaction was rated highest in the area of interactions with students. The few studies that

address urban teacher preparation programs have found that teachers from these urban-focused programs have felt more committed to their students and staying in teaching longer than is typical nationwide or in urban districts (Quartez et al., 2003).

The nature of work teaching in urban school settings can be challenging. Matsko and Hammerness (2014) state, "urban schools tend to serve concentrations of students whose experiences with and orientations toward schools are often different from and sometimes conflict with mainstream assumptions and attitudes towards schooling" (p. 129). Urban schools face special challenges in the improvement of academic performance because of crime and poverty (Reyes, 2006; Waxman & Padron, 1995). Furthermore, the National Partnership for Teaching in At-Risk Schools (2005) notes the dimensions of poverty and crime, in addition to the economic and social consequences for poor and minority children, make teaching students in urban school settings challenging. The negative impact of disruptive student behavior also contributes to the challenges of teaching in urban classroom and teacher attrition (Ouyang & Paprack, 2006). As Bennet et al. (2013) noted, "the pressure and stress of testing, paperwork, classroom management, and lack of mentorship influence teachers' decisions to remain in the field" (p. 574).

The nature of urban school settings alone can contribute to teacher mobility. Johnson et al. (2005) state that "schools with lower student achievement levels, higher poverty, higher rates of behavior problems, and more students of color have higher overall teacher mobility rates . . . Teachers who stay in teaching but change schools tend to move to schools with more wealth and/or fewer minority students" (p. 77). Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammind (2017a) note turnover rates are 70% higher for teachers in schools serving the largest concentrations of students of color. Research shows that new urban teachers who remain in the profession but choose to transfer are usually moving to suburban schools with higher percentages of White and non-low-income students than the urban schools they choose to leave (Loeb & Reininger, 2004; Lankford et al., 2002).

Communication

Employees who experience positive communication relationships experience more positive job satisfaction. Bartlett (2001) found that offers of help, offers of cooperation, frequency of contact, and trust were substantially related to subordinates' job satisfaction. Baker

(1992) stated, “strong and weak task-related communication, informal socializing, advice-giving, and advice getting organization may suffer from work-related disintegration” (p. 11). In order for leaders to persuade subordinates to follow their vision, they need to communicate effectively by appealing to their followers (Salacuse, 2007).

Counterproductive communication can cause job dissatisfaction. Dysfunctional communication contributes to dissatisfaction with superiors, jobs, and organizations (Jablin & Krone, 1994). Korte and Wynne (1996) found a deterioration of relationships in organizational settings resulting from reduced interpersonal communication between workers and supervisors negatively influenced job satisfaction and sometimes led to employees leaving their jobs. Madlock (2008) found a strong relationship between leadership style and employee job and communication satisfaction.

Similarly, communication from administrators effects job satisfaction of urban educators. Teachers expect and desire communication from school administrators. Principals who communicate effectively promote an atmosphere of dialogue and participation from teachers (Ma & MacMillian, 1999). Poor communication and a lack of principals’ administrative leadership are leading factors for teachers who leave the profession (Anhorn, 2008; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). Hughes et al., (2015) found the value of communication and being notified of what was happening in the building was important to teachers deciding to stay at their school.

Supervision (Leadership)

Building- and district-level leadership impact urban teacher retention. Poor administrative support is a significant factor of teacher attrition in urban schools (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll & Perda, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Kim, 2019; Prather-Jones, 2011; Reed & Swaminathan, 2016). Sutcher et al. (2016) found that teachers who find their administrators to be unsupportive are more than twice as likely to leave as those who feel well-supported. Teachers’ perceptions of their school district leadership, the amount of quality professional development and support provided by school leadership, and teacher feelings of empowerment and autonomy help predict teacher commitment (Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Weiss, 1999). Lack of mentorship, leadership, and professional development increase the likelihood that teachers will leave urban teaching settings (Blair-Larsen, 1998). Bennett et al. state, “researchers recognize the effectiveness of administrative leadership and school

environment as a significant factor related to teacher retention, particularly for less-experienced teachers" (2013, p. 563). Easely (2006) suggested moral leadership is important to support retention, specifically the ability of administrators to facilitate teacher interaction within schools to create environments of support and fulfillment. Bennett et al. (2013) found "teachers deemed certain factors relevant: the need for administrative support to provide assistance to address negative student behavior, a commitment to maximizing learning, a positive school climate, and the ability to maximize professional autonomy through teacher input" (p. 563). Kokka (2016) emphasized the importance of administrative responsiveness to disruptive disciplinary issues in order for teachers to feel competent in their teaching ability. Research indicates that teacher autonomy influences teacher retention and job satisfaction for teachers of all subject areas, grade levels, and school settings (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Boyd et al., 2008; Hanusek et al., 2004; Ingersoll, 2001). Lack of leadership, professional development, and mentorship increased the likelihood teachers would leave the field (Blair-Larsen, 1998).

School administrators play a significant role in teacher satisfaction and commitment (Kim, 2019; Reed & Swaminanthan, 2016). Boyd et al. (2011) found that of all the working conditions that may influence a teacher's resignation from a school (teaching assignment, respect from students, safety, emphasis on testing, dissatisfaction with administrators, classroom autonomy, school facilities), dissatisfaction with school administrators had the greatest influence on a teacher's decision to leave or remain in their current school. As building-level leaders, school administrators are in positions to establish work environments that increase teacher satisfaction towards their jobs (Prather-Jones, 2011; Rinehart & Short, 1993). The US Department of Education (2016) noted that 95% of public teachers surveyed who agreed that the administration in their schools was supportive were satisfied with their jobs. This statistic was 30 percentage points higher than teachers who disagreed that the administration was supportive. School leaders play a crucial role in establishing a school environment conducive to the development of trust relations (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kochanek, 2005; Prather-Jones, 2011; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

Building-level principals can promote retention and teacher satisfaction by developing a collaborative and supportive school environment (Anthorn, 2008, Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007; Leithwood & McAdie, 2007; Prather-Jones, 2011; Shen et al., 2012). The principal sets the tone of the school and can foster a climate of recognition, respect, and appreciation, which in turn

contributes to teacher job satisfaction (Kouzes & Posner, 1999; Petzko, 2004; Richards, 2005; Richardson et al., 1996). Pearson and Moomaw (2005) found that principals impacted teacher job satisfaction by how much the principals empowered the teachers at the school. Supporting teacher efficacy has been linked to the development of teacher job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Ingersoll and Connor (2009) found a strong association between teacher job satisfaction and the amount of control they have over their classroom and school policies. Shead (2010) found principals contributed to teacher job satisfaction and intrinsic value through recognition, hiring teacher assistants to ease the workload of teachers, offering monetary incentives for training and tutoring, encouraging teachers to further their education, and being positive leaders and role models for their teaching staff. Bennett et al (2013) state, "the support of administration, in addition to mentorship, professional development, and autonomy, are factors that might contribute to teachers remaining in the field" (p. 563). Teacher need to feel comfortable asking questions and engaging in reflective dialogue with administrators in order to participate in positive teaching cultures (Scherer, 2005). The 2008-2009 Schools and Staffing Survey showed that a significant majority of teachers do not feel that their administration supported, valued, or recognized teachers. The survey further indicated that 89-90% of teachers who remained in the profession noted that they had support and encouragement from administrators. Brown and Wynn (2009) found that the support of administration is necessary to retain the commitment and sense of calling that novice teachers feel (2009).

The management style of school leaders affect the job satisfaction of urban teachers. Marks and Printy (2002) concluded that integrated leadership, a combination of transformational leadership and instructional leadership, resulted in teacher empowerment and retention. The National Partnership for Teaching in At-Risk Schools (2005) proposes the idea of "distributed leadership—that is, sharing leadership across various staff levels from teacher to school administrators within a school—is beginning to receive more attention" (p. 13). Studies have found that organizational factors most consistently predict stress and satisfaction, and are more frequently reported by teachers as significant contributors to stress (Dorman, 2003; Shernoff et al., 2011). Teachers in less hierarchical schools report higher job satisfaction (Hoy & Sousa, 1984; Taylor & Bogotch, 1994). Schools with strong organizational cultures usually have positive leadership, a clear sense of purpose, more formalized organizational structures, a

tradition of recognition, appreciation, and communication, collegiality among teachers, and higher expectations for students (Cheng, 1993).

Why do Teachers Choose to Remain Teaching in Urban Schools?

Despite the struggles, many teachers choose to remain teaching in urban school districts. Bennett et al. (2013) found experienced teachers were likely to continue teaching because they felt it was their calling, placed value on molding children into becoming good citizens, and felt spending summertime with family was important. Novice teachers were more likely to remain teaching due to love of children, administrative support, and supportive colleagues (Bennett et al., 2013). Perrachione et al. (2008) found teachers felt teaching was a calling and felt a sense of intrinsic value, which in turn influenced their decision to remain teaching in urban school settings. Freedman and Appleman (2009) found that teachers' disposition for hard work and persistence, sense of mission, teacher preparation programs that focused on academic and practical knowledge, the practice of reflection, ongoing administrative support, and access to professional networks were reasons teachers remained teaching in urban schools. Several studies have shown that a positive combination of school leadership, collegial relationships, and school culture can impact a teacher's decision to continue teaching in an urban school setting (Boyd et al., 2012; Ladd, 2011; Simon & Johnson, 2013).

Many teachers who attended urban schools chose to return in a teaching capacity. Reininger (2012) found that teachers who attended a K-12 urban school were more likely to choose an urban school setting for their first teaching position. Boyd et al. (2005) found that more than 90% of the teachers who attended school in New York City took their first teaching position in New York City public schools. Ronfeldt, Reininger, and Kwok (2013) found that teachers who attended high school in large urban districts were more likely to express a preference for teaching in urban settings before and after student teaching. Andrews (2009) found that commitment to teaching in urban schools is higher for those who personally attending K-12 urban schools. These studies affirm the earlier work of Haberman (1996), who found that effective urban teachers tend to have life experiences in urban schools and neighborhoods.

Though research regarding teacher retention is extant, most research examines why teachers leave the field or strategies to retain teachers. Because teachers usually lack many extrinsic rewards, such as high salaries and promotional opportunities, teachers mainly need to

obtain satisfaction from intrinsic rewards, such as their work and interactions with students and colleagues (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Lee et al., 1991; Lortie, 2002; Nias, 1981; Troman, 2000). Research supports the theory that teachers' decisions to remain in teaching are impacted by their perceptions of how effective they are with students (Hughes, 2012). Many studies seek to identify why teachers just entering the profession lose interest in staying in the classroom (De Strecke et al., 2015), as opposed to focusing on what continues their interest in pursuing their chosen profession of teaching. Most literature focuses on attrition, citing reasons for teachers' exit, rather than identifying reasons long-term teachers continue teaching in urban schools (Kokka, 2016). As stated by Bennett et al., "researchers must continue to address teachers' decisions to stay in the field, and educators and administration must work to support teachers based upon these reasons" (2013, p. 574). That being said, there is a gap in the research in regards to why teachers actually choose to keep teaching in urban schools.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this quantitative study is to identify job satisfaction factors that correlate to a teacher's intent to continue teaching in an urban school setting. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1985) was used to collect data among urban school teachers to determine if any statistically significant correlations exist between the teacher's pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, communication, and overall job satisfaction in relation to their intent to continue teaching in an urban school setting. The results of this study may assist administrators in preparing, recruiting, and retaining quality teachers in the urban school setting, particularly with today's increasing struggle to retain teachers.

This chapter provides a description of the methodology utilized to collect and analyze data, including a description of the research design, participants, sampling procedure, and the instrumentation and measures.

Research Design

This quantitative study utilized a survey research method. Creswell (2008) explained that when a researcher is seeking to collect data on predetermined instruments that are statistically sound, a survey strategy is appropriate. In this study, data were collected utilizing a predetermined instrument, the JSS, to determine factors that contribute to teachers' intent to continue teaching in urban school settings in Indiana. Surveys are used in quantitative studies to discern general patterns of social behavior or opinions. Creswell (2009) noted, "survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (p. 145). Spector's (1985) JSS is a survey instrument that gathers opinion-type data. The data were utilized to examine participants' perceptions of factors influencing job satisfaction in urban school settings.

To answer the research questions, a correlational research design was utilized. Correlational research is a type of non-experimental research in which the researcher measures two variables and assesses the statistical relationship between them (Creswell, 2009). In this

study, the researcher sought to assess a correlation between variables (*JSS factors and intent to continue teaching in urban setting)* that exist naturally without experimental manipulation. The researcher did not attempt to manipulate an independent variable to test for a causation between variables as would be done in an experimental research design (Creswell, 2018). In this study, the specific relationship between factors of job satisfaction and the intent of urban teachers to return to an urban teaching position are measured.

Methodology

Population

Classroom teachers employed within member school districts of the Indiana Urban School Association (IUSA) were invited to participate in this study. The IUSA is comprised of 35 urban school districts that serve more than one-third of all public-school students across the state of Indiana. Member districts of the IUSA include a minimum of one of the following traits of significant student enrollment: urban/suburban centers, English language learners, minority student population, special education, and poverty. The IUSA serves the needs of urban Indiana students by "advocating and supporting a legislative agenda at the local and state levels that recognizes the unique needs of urban children in Indiana; providing a forum in which the needs of the urban community can be considered and addressed; cooperating with other organizations that have an interest in the educational advancement of urban children; providing services and programs specifically designed for the use of urban schools, and their students, faculty, and administration; and supporting programs and activities designed to benefit all children in Indiana schools" (Indiana Urban School Association, n.d.). Teachers in kindergarten through 12th grade were included in this study.

Sampling

A convenience sampling procedure was employed in this quantitative research study. Creswell (2018) advises using convenience sampling when researching a population close at hand and relatively easy to access. Convenience sampling allows the researcher to draw a sample from voluntary participants within this population (Creswell, 2018). In this study, the population is classroom teachers employed within member school districts of the Indiana Urban School

Association (IUSA). The member schools of the IUSA provide for a convenient, close at hand population with access to district administration for permission to acquire access to survey a voluntary sample of urban teachers. In Indiana, there are a handful of school buildings within an urban district that geographically may not be identified, in general, as an urban school even though it is a part of an urban defined district. For the purpose of this study, urban school settings are defined as school setting located in central cities of Metropolitan Statistical Areas (Lippman et al., 1996) and maintain membership with the Indiana Urban School Association. In 2006, The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) revised its definitions of school locale types after working with the Census Bureau to create a new locale classification system. The revision capitalizes on improved geocoding technology and the 2000 Office of Management and Budget (OMB) definitions of metro areas that rely less on population size and county boundaries than proximity of an address to an urbanized area.

Data Collection

Prior to administering the survey, permission to conduct this study was obtained from the Purdue University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Permission to survey teachers then was then obtained from each IUSA member school district superintendent. Superintendents were notified of the researcher's intent to conduct research and collect data in their school districts through a written letter via email. The letter included the purpose of the study and the need for teachers' participation. Upon approval to conduct research in the school corporation, superintendents forwarded an email detailing the study that contained a link to Qualtrics, where teachers respond to demographic questions and the JSS items (Appendix A and B). Participants signed a consent form that explained the confidentiality in preserving information and data gathered in the research and respect for ethical standards established by the Purdue University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Instrumentation and Measures

Participants responded to items on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) created by Paul Spector in 1985. The JSS is a copyrighted scale. Spector has given permission for researchers to use the JSS for noncommercial educational research purposes with the agreement the researcher

shares the research results with Dr. Spector (1997). The JSS is a 36-item 6-point Likert-style scale ranging from "agree very much" = 6 to "disagree very much" = 1. The variables measured teacher's perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs related to pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. In addition, participants were asked for demographic information limited to gender, years of experience, and intent to return to an urban school teaching setting.

The Job Satisfaction Survey by Spector was primarily developed for use in human services research, though it has been applied to many other fields of study (Spector, 1997). The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a 36-item, nine-facet scale to assess employee attitudes about their job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items.

Table 1 lists the nine subscales and a brief description of each:

Table 1. Description of JSS Nine Subscales

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

Paul Spector (1994)

Instrument Reliability and Validity

The JSS has been established as a valid and reliable survey instrument. Spector's (1985) reliability data suggests that the total scale and subscales have acceptable internal consistency. Creswell (2018) suggests an optimal Chronbach's alpha value between a .7 and .9 to establish

excellent internal consistency. The coefficient alpha for the nine facets ranged from .62 to .91 (Spector, 1997). The scale has been shown to exhibit acceptable levels of reliability (internal consistency reliability and test-retest reliability), and good evidence of construct validity (Spector, 1997). The JSS has been validated against the Job Descriptive Index, which is the most carefully validated scale of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

Spector (1985) computed the internal consistency reliability for the JSS based on a sample of 2,870. Table 2 contains a listing of all coefficient alphas for the JSS. The lowest coefficient alpha for the nine facets was coworkers (0.60) and the highest was supervision (0.82). Only two of the facets fell below a coefficient alpha of 0.70 and the coefficient alpha for the total scale was 0.91.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for the JSS

Subscale	Mean	SD	Mean inter-item correlation	Coefficient alpha	Test-retest reliability
			43	75	45 62
Pay	10.5	5.1	40	73	55
Promotion	11.5	5.1	53	82	37
Supervision	19.9	4.6	40	73	59
Benefits	13.1	5.0	44	76	74
Contingent rewards	13.4	5.1	29	62	64
Operation procedures	12.5	4.6	33	60	54
Co-workers	18.8	3.7	50	78	65
Nature of Work	19.2	4.4	38	71	71
Communication	14.0	5.0	21	91	43
Total satisfaction	133.1	27.9	2,870	2,870	
n	3,067	3,067			

Note. From *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences* (p. 10) by P.E. Spector, 1997, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Copyright Paul E. Spector, 1997.

Description of Variables

This study includes a variety of dependent and independent variables.

Independent Variables (IV): Independent variables included in the study include total job satisfaction score, the nine individual factors of the JSS, years of experience, and gender.

Dependent Variable (DV): The dependent variable included in the study is the intent to return to the urban teaching setting.

Research Questions

The study addressed the following questions:

Is there a relationship between total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics (DVs) predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting (IV) the following school year?

Null Hypotheses

RQ1: Is there a relationship between total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1 1$: There is a significant relationship between total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

$H_0 2$: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_12: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

JSS Scoring

The nine subscales of the 36-item instrument are measured utilizing four items per each subscale. The instrument constructs a total score based upon responses to all 36 items in the survey. Items were written in both positive and negative formats. If a question was posed in a negative format, scale scoring was reversed for that item. The response format consisted of a 6-point Likert-type scale. Participants were asked to select one of six numbers that corresponded to their agreement or disagreement about each statement. Response choices for each question were scored as 1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree moderately, 6 = agree very much. For each item, high scores (6) represent high satisfaction, while low scores (1) represented low satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

Table 3 identifies which questions were assigned to each subscale and which were reverse scored.

Table 3. Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey

Scale	Item numbers
Pay	1, 10r, 19r, 28
Promotion	2r, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12r, 21r, 30
Fringe Benefits	4r, 13, 22, 29r
Contingent Rewards	5, 14r, 23r, 32r
Operating Procedures	6r, 15, 24r, 31r
Coworkers	7, 16r, 25, 34r
Nature of Work	8r, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18r, 26r, 36r
Total	1-36

Note. From *Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS,* by P. Spector, 1999, retrieved from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jssscore.html. Copyright 1999 by Paul E. Spector. Reprinted with permission.

Data Analysis

The JSS was administered to teachers via Qualtrics. There was no identifiable demographic information collected, securing anonymity of respondents. Data analysis was conducted through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Scoring followed guidelines established by Spector (1985) to ensure scoring procedures were correctly applied for both forward and reverse stated questions.

A cross-tabulation of decision to return to teach and gender was conducted. Additionally, a Chi-square test of independence was performed to determine if the decision to return was significantly associated with gender. Point Biserial Correlations were conducted to determine any significant correlations between returning to teach, age, and years teaching. Years of teaching was measured as an ordinal categorical variable, age as interval, and returning to teach was measured as a nominal dichotomous variable.

Binary logistic regression was utilized to address each research question and hypothesis to measure the probability of a teacher's likelihood to return to an urban school setting based upon JSS factors and teacher demographics. Logistic regression was utilized for analyzing binary outcome data and to yield information about the relationship between individual risk/protective factors and the outcome (Sainani, 2014).

Limitations

Several limitations applied to this study. This study took place over a period of six weeks. The study utilized quantitative data collected with a survey distributed via email. The identified factors contributing to the job satisfaction and intent to return to teaching in an urban school setting were limited to the factors included in the JSS. The following limitations applied to this study.

One limitation to using quantitative methodology is the inability to measure the feelings of the respondents (Macur, 2013). Respondents may not feel comfortable providing honest and accurate answers, particularly if the responses present them in an unfavorable manner. Additionally, responses were reliant on the teachers' individual interpretation of the questions. Survey question answer options could lead to unclear data as certain answer options may have

been interpreted differently by respondents. Outside variables could also affect participant responses.

The geographical location of the study was also limited. The study was limited to educators actively teaching in an urban school setting in Indiana. Urban school teachers were asked to participate in this study on a voluntary basis, therefore sample size varied across school districts. Therefore, generalizations from the results of this research is limited.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore factors that contribute to teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching position. This study explores the job satisfaction of current teachers teaching in Indiana urban school districts that participate in the Indiana Urban School Association (IUSA). The IUSA is comprised of 35 urban school districts that serve more than one-third of all public-school students across the state of Indiana. The following research questions and hypotheses were investigated in this study:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1 1$: There is a significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

$H_0 2$: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1 2$: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

This chapter presents the data in three different sections. The first section presents the demographic information of the participants. The second section presents data and findings relative to the research questions, the overall job satisfaction subscale, and the nine subscales from Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1985). The third section is a summary of the chapter.

Participants and Demographic Information

The invitation to participate in the study was distributed to the 35 superintendents of the school corporations that maintain membership with the Indiana Urban School Association. Of the 35 superintendents, 12 agreed to have their corporation participate in the study. A total of 552 teacher responses were received. After the removal of cases with incomplete JSS surveys as well as missing demographic items, the final data set included N = 459 participants. Most people were female, 353 (76.9%), followed by male, 106 (23.1%). Ages of participants ranged from 22 to 72 years (M = 43.86, SD = 10.74). Regarding number of years of teaching experience, most had over 20 years of teaching experience, 161 (35.1%). This was followed by 6-10 years, 80 (17.4%); 16-20 years, 74 (16.1%); 1-5 years, 68 (14.8%); 11-15 years, 65 (14,2%); and less than one year, 11 (2.4%). Table 4 depicts this information.

Table 4. Demographics (N = 459)

Variable	*f*	%	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
Gender						
Male	106	23.1	-	-	-	-
Female	353	76.9	-	-	-	-
Age	459	-	22	72	43.86	10.74
Years teaching						
< 1 year	11	2.4				
1 -5 years	68	14.8				
6 – 10 years	80	17.4				
11 – 15 years	65	14.2				
16 -20 years	74	16.1				
Over 20 years	161	35.1				

When asked whether or not they were planning on returning to teach, 440 (95.9%) responded yes while 19 (4.1%) replied no. Table 5 shows this information.

Table 5. Return To Teach

	Frequency	Percent
No	19	4.1
Yes	440	95.9
Total	459	100.0

Associations between demographic variables and decision to return to teach

A cross-tabulation of decision to return to teach and gender was conducted. Additionally, a Chi-square test of independence was performed to determine if the decision to return was significantly associated with gender. Table 6 provides the cross-tabulation. Out of 106 male teachers, 3 (2.8%) decided not to return, whereas 16 out of 353 female teachers (4.5%) decided not to return. Out of 106 male teachers, 103 (97.2%) decided to return, whereas 337 out of 353 female teachers (95.5%) decide to return. These proportions were not considered to be significantly different, as indicated by the results of a non-significant Chi-square test, $\chi 2\ (1) = 0.595$, $p = .440$ depicted in Table 7. Statistical significance would have been established if the p-value was less than 0.05. Most quantitative studies make use of a .05 significance level because it adequately provides enough statistical evidence of a test (Creswell & Poth, 2017).

Table 6. Gender * Return to Teach Cross-tabulation

			Return to Teach		Total
			No	Yes	
Gender	Male	Count	3	103	106
		% within Gender	2.8%	97.2%	100.0%
	Female	Count	16	337	353
		% within Gender	4.5%	95.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	19	440	459
		% within Gender	4.1%	95.9%	100.0%

Table 7. Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	*p*
Pearson Chi-Square	.595[a]	1	.440
N of Valid Cases	459		

Point Biserial Correlations were conducted to determine any significant correlations between returning to teach, age, and years teaching. Years of teaching was measured as an ordinal categorical variable, age was interval, and returning to teach was measured as a nominal dichotomous variable. A point-biserial correlation is used to measure the strength and direction of the association that exists between a continuous/ordinal variable, age and years teaching in this case, and one dichotomous variable, return to teach: 1 = yes or 0 = no (Field, 2018). As Table 8 represents, there was a significant negative correlation between age and returning to teach (r = -.135, p = .004). Increasing age is associated with the decision not to return to teach. Years teaching was not significantly correlated with returning to teach (r = -.020, p = .663), though the association was negative.

Table 8. Point Biserial Correlations (N = 459)

		1	2	3
1. Return to Teach	*r*	1		
	p			
2. Age	*r*	-.135*	1	
	r	.004		
3. Yrs Teaching	*r*	-.020	.704*	1
	p	.663	.000	

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

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1985) served as the conceptual theoretical framework within this research. The survey consists of 36 6-point Likert items, which measure nine subscales: pay, promotion, fringe benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, coworkers,

operating conditions, nature of work, and communication. The reliability of each subscale was measured by calculating Cronbach's alphas for each. A general accepted rule is that α of 0.6-0.7 indicates an acceptable level of reliability, and 0.8 or greater a very good level. Nunnally (1978) recommends a minimum level of .7. All subscales demonstrated acceptable reliability and are depicted in table 9.

Table 9. Cronbach's Alpha for Subscales

Subscale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Pay	4	0.811
Promotion	4	0.766
Supervision	4	0.907
Fringe Benefits	4	0.833
Contingent Reward	4	0.862
Operating Procedures	4	0.649
Coworkers	4	0.783
Nature of Work	4	0.754
Communication	4	0.850

The mean responses of the items that composed each subscale were calculated, as well as the mean of all responses. Table 10 below provides descriptive statistics of these subscales and overall mean JSS. The subscales ranged from 1 to 6, with increasing values corresponding to increased levels of agreement. The scale ranged from "disagree agree very much" = 1 to "agree very much" = 6. The highest level of job satisfaction was the nature of the work (M = 5.10, SD = 0.80). This was followed by supervision as the next highest (M = 5.00, SD = 1.21). The lowest level of job satisfaction was pay (M = 2.87, SD = 1.20). This was followed by promotion as the second lowest (M = 2.88, SD = 1.03). Table 10 provides the means and standard deviations of the other subscales.

Table 10. JSS Subscales (N = 459)

	M	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pay	2.87	1.20	.312	-.706
Promotion	2.88	1.03	.195	-.461
Supervision	5.00	1.21	-1.398	1.164
Fringe Benefits	3.33	1.35	.137	-.786
Contingent Reward	3.53	1.26	.006	-.738
Operating Procedures	3.04	.99	.329	-.191
Coworkers	4.90	.94	-1.158	1.552
Nature of Work	5.10	.80	-1.128	1.495
Communication	4.11	1.16	-.435	-.465
JSS_Mean	3.86	.75	-.127	-.244

Skewness and kurtosis index were used to identify the normality of the data. Hair et al. (2010) and Bryne (2010) argued that data is considered to be normal if skewness is between -2 to +2 and kurtosis is between -7 to +7. The skewness and kurtosis values shown in Table 10 were within acceptable ranges to support normality of each subscale.

Correlations between job satisfaction and decision to return to teach

Point biserial correlations were conducted to measure correlations between the decision to return to teach and each of the nine subscales of the JSS. There were significant positive correlations of returning to teach with supervision (r = .158, p = .001), contingent reward (r = .102, p = .029), nature of work (r = .102, p = .030), communication (r = .099, p = .030), and overall job satisfaction (r = .104, p = .026). Increasing levels of these subscales were associated with returning to teaching. No other significant correlations were found.

Table 11. Point Biserial Correlations (N = 459)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Return to Teach	*r*	1										
	p											
2. Pay	*r*	.005	1									
	p	.907										
3. Promotion	*r*	.070	.538**	1								
	p	.137	.000									
4. Supervision	*r*	.158**	.293**	.388**	1							
	p	.001	.000	.000								
5. Fringe Benefits	*r*	.028	.383**	.263**	.054	1						
	p	.546	.000	.000	.251							
6. Contingent Reward	*r*	.102*	.581**	.623**	.637**	.286**	1					
	p	.029	.000	.000	.000	.000						
7. Operating Procedures	*r*	.059	.454**	.431**	.367**	.257**	.573**	1				
	p	.209	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000					
8. Coworkers	*r*	.013	.251**	.321**	.575**	.083	.466**	.292**	1			
	p	.786	.000	.000	.000	.074	.000	.000				
9. Nature Of Work	*r*	.102*	.275**	.336**	.407**	.057	.510**	.366**	.442**	1		
	p	.030	.000	.000	.000	.223	.000	.000	.000			
10. Communication	*r*	.099*	.405**	.468**	.633**	.197**	.652**	.472**	.530**	.425**	1	
	p	.033	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
11. JSS_Mean	*r*	.104*	.698**	.712**	.708**	.458**	.874**	.679**	.623**	.584**	.780**	1
	p	.026	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results of hypothesis testing

Binary logistic regression was conducted to address this first research question and hypothesis:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_11: There is a significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

Prior to conducting binary regression, there were assumptions that had to be tested.

Linearity of JSS_mean with respect to the logit of the dependent variable was assessed via the Box-Tidwell (1962) procedure. A Bonferroni correction was applied using all three terms in the model, resulting in statistical significance being accepted when $p < .01667$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Based on this assessment, JSS_mean was found to be linearly related to the logit of the dependent variable, as indicated by the non-significant interaction term ($p = .847$) shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Box Tidwell Procedure for Linearity (RQ1)

	B	S.E.	Wald	*df*	*p*	*OR*	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
JSS_Mean	-.247	4.856	.003	1	.960	.781	.000	10628.050
JSS_Mean by JSS_Mean_Ln	.418	2.170	.037	1	.847	1.518	.022	106.754
Constant	2.014	7.363	.075	1	.784	7.495		

Standardized residuals beyond three standard deviations were excluded from the analysis. The model explained 48.6% (Nagelkerke R2) of the variance in decision to return to teach. Overall JSS was not found to be statistically significant at the 5% level ($B = 4.488$, $p = .085$), thus the first null hypothesis cannot be rejected since the p-value was greater than 0.05. Thus, there is no significant relationship between total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a

teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year (See Table 13).

Table 13. Variables in the Equation (Nagelkerke R2 = 48.6%)

	B	S.E.	Wald	*df*	*p*	*OR*	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
JSS_Mean	4.488	2.608	2.962	1	.085	88.944	.536	14749.581
Constant	-6.256	5.359	1.363	1	.243	.002		

Binary logistic regression was conducted to address the second research question and hypothesis:

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

$H_0$2: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

$H_1$2: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

Prior to conducting binary logistic regression, the assumptions of linearity, multicollinearity and outlier detection were performed. There were no variance inflation factors (VIFs) that exceeded 10, thus indicating no issues with multicollinearity. Table 14 shows this information. Linearity of each continuous predictor with respect to the logit of the dependent variable was assessed via the Box-Tidwell (1962) procedure. A Bonferroni correction was applied using all 22 terms in the model, resulting in statistical significance being accepted when $p < .002$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Based on this assessment, all continuous predictors were found to be linearly related to the logit of the dependent variable, as indicated by the non-significant interaction terms ($p > .002$). Table 15 provides these details.

Table 14. Variance Inflation Factors

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF (1/Tolerance)
Gender	.957	1.045
Age	.933	1.072
Return to Teach	.941	1.063
Pay	.552	1.813
Promotion	.555	1.803
Supervision	.423	2.364
Fringe Benefits	.802	1.246
Contingent Reward	.298	3.354
Operating Procedures	.617	1.621
Coworkers	.573	1.746
Nature of Work	.651	1.536
Communication	.450	2.221

a. Dependent Variable: ID

Table 15. Box-Tidwell Procedure for Linearity (RQ2)

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	*p*	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Gender	-.823	.753	1.195	1	.274	.439	.100	1.921
Age	-.133	.037	13.089	1	.000	.875	.815	.941
Yrs Teaching	.584	.246	5.643	1	.018	1.794	1.108	2.905
Pay	-4.204	2.532	2.757	1	.097	.015	.000	2.135
Promotion	6.710	2.380	7.946	1	.005	820.192	7.725	87084.176
Supervision	4.023	2.638	2.326	1	.127	55.847	.318	9820.599
Fringe Benefits	-1.211	2.234	.294	1	.588	.298	.004	23.753
Contingent Reward	-3.305	2.767	1.427	1	.232	.037	.000	8.309
Operating Procedures	-3.935	3.810	1.067	1	.302	.020	.000	34.200
Coworkers	-3.668	4.109	.797	1	.372	.026	.000	80.192

Table 15 continued

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	*p*	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Nature of Work	-2.807	6.787	.171	1	.679	.060	.000	36134.064
Communication	2.862	2.842	1.014	1	.314	17.500	.067	4596.247
Pay by Pay_Ln	1.840	1.215	2.294	1	.130	6.295	.582	68.090
Promotion by Promotion_Ln	-3.168	1.189	7.100	1	.008	.042	.004	.433
Supervision by Supervision_Ln	-1.510	1.156	1.706	1	.191	.221	.023	2.128
FringeBenefits by FringeBenefits_Ln	.713	1.043	.467	1	.494	2.039	.264	15.742
ContingentReward by ContingentReward_Ln	1.568	1.300	1.457	1	.227	4.799	.376	61.280
OperatingProcedures by OperatingProcedures_Ln	1.859	1.866	.993	1	.319	6.419	.166	248.623
Coworkers by Coworkers_Ln	1.171	1.692	.479	1	.489	3.226	.117	88.964
NatureOfWork by NatureOfWork_Ln	1.465	2.730	.288	1	.592	4.326	.021	911.787
Communication by Communication_Ln	-1.140	1.273	.802	1	.370	.320	.026	3.876
Constant	15.004	13.561	1.224	1	.269	3283657.716		

Standardized residuals beyond three standard deviations were excluded from the analysis. The model explained 53.9% (Nagelkerke R2) of the variance in decision to return to teach. Of the 12 predictors, six were found to be significant: age (B = -.293, OR = 0.746, $p < .001$), years teaching (B = 1.164, OR = 3.204), pay (B = -1.439, OR = 0.237, p = .008), promotion (B = 1.403, OR = 4.066, p = .047), coworkers (B = -1.160, OR = 0.313, p = .020), and nature of work (B = 1.32, OR = 3.103, p = .043). An increase in age was associated with a decreased likelihood of returning to teach by 0.746. An increased number of years of teaching was associated with an

increased likelihood of returning to teach by 3.204. Surprisingly, an increase in pay was associated with a decreased likelihood of returning to teach by .237. As promotion increased, there was an increased likelihood of returning to teach by 4.066. Relationship with coworkers was associated with a decreased likelihood of returning to teach by .313. Finally, increasing levels of nature of work were associated with increased likelihood of returning to work by 3.103. Table 16 provides these results.

Table 16. Variables in the Equation (Nagelkerke R Square = 0.539)

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	p	*OR*	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Gender	-1.739	1.358	1.640	1	.200	.176	.012	2.516
Age	-.293	.083	12.439	1	.000	.746	.634	.878
Yrs Teaching	1.164	.414	7.891	1	.005	3.204	1.422	7.218
Pay	-1.439	.546	6.949	1	.008	.237	.081	.691
Promotion	1.403	.707	3.940	1	.047	4.066	1.018	16.243
Supervision	.927	.476	3.786	1	.052	2.527	.993	6.429
Fringe Benefits	.634	.406	2.442	1	.118	1.885	.851	4.174
Contingent Reward	-.137	.559	.060	1	.807	.872	.291	2.611
Operating Procedures	-.909	.580	2.457	1	.117	.403	.129	1.255
Coworkers	-1.160	.500	5.392	1	.020	.313	.118	.834
Nature of Work	1.132	.559	4.102	1	.043	3.103	1.037	9.281
Communication	1.076	.572	3.532	1	.060	2.932	.955	9.003
Constant	10.879	4.734	5.280	1	.022	53029.345		

Summary

Logistic regression was performed to address the following two research questions:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

Regarding the first research question, although an increased total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was associated with a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year, the association was not significant (p = .085), as determined by binary logistic regression. However, point biserial correlations did reveal a significant correlation between total score on the JSS and teachers' decision to return to teaching (p = .026).

Regarding the second research question, increases in age, pay, and relationship with coworkers were associated with a decreased likelihood of returning to teach. Additionally, increases in number of years of teaching, promotion, and nature of work were associated with an increased likelihood of returning to teach. Specifically, an increase in age was associated with a reduced probability of returning to teaching by 0.746. An increase in the number of teaching years was related to an increased probability of returning to teaching by 3.204. Surprisingly, an increase in pay was related to a reduced probability of returning to teaching by .237. There is an increased chance of returning to teaching by 4.066 as promotion increases. A reduced probability of returning to teaching by .313 was correlated with relationships with colleagues. Finally, increasing levels of nature of work was associated with increased likelihood of returning to teach by 3.103.

What follows in Chapter 5 is a discussion of how the results of this study are interpreted in the context of the theoretical framework. Any limitations of the results of the study will be provided. Additionally, recommendations for future research will be discussed.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, & SUMMARY

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore factors that contributed to teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching job position. This study explored job satisfaction of teachers currently in Indiana urban school districts that participate in the Indiana Urban School Association (IUSA). The IUSA is comprised of 35 urban school districts that serve more than one-third of all public-school students across the state of Indiana. According to Crossman and Harris (2006) and Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011), the level of teacher satisfaction predicted whether teachers retained or quit their teaching positions.

Given the high rates of teacher attrition in urban schools, this study sought to identify factors that influence a teacher's decision to return teaching in an urban school setting. Reports released by the National Commission on Teaching and American's Future (NCTAF) (2007) presented that teacher retention was to an extent directly linked with overall student performance. Moreover, NCTAF (2007) noted a significant association between student achievement and teacher turnover. According to NCTAF (2007), schools with higher teacher turnover had students with poorer performance in academics and lower student achievement on standardized assessments. Correspondingly, schools with lower teacher turnover rates recorded higher student achievements, an indication that retaining teachers improved student performance.

This chapter will briefly highlight the research questions guiding the study, population sample and the research design in addition to presenting a more in-depth discussion of the study' findings, recommendations for practice and future research, study limitations and then wrap with a conclusion summarizing key findings.

Research questions and hypotheses

The current quantitative study was guided by the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_11: There is a significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_02: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_12: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

Summary of Findings

The researcher grouped the findings of the study into two categories. First, the researcher examined whether demographic variables influenced teachers' decision to return to teach. An analysis of demographic variables showed that gender did not influence a teacher's decision to return to teaching. The demographic variable age was found to be statistically significant, in that it negatively correlated with a teacher's decision to return to teaching. However, years of teaching was found to be statistically insignificant and did not correlate with a teachers' decision to return to teaching.

The researcher also presented the study's finding on job satisfaction as measured by Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey of 1985. The survey measured teacher job satisfaction on nine subscales that included pay, promotion, fringe benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, coworkers, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication.

To test the first research question and hypothesis, the researcher conducted a Binary logistic regression.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_11: There is a significant relationship between the total score on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

The Binary logistic regression of the relationship between teachers' total score on the job satisfaction survey (JSS) and their likelihood of returning to teach was statistically insignificant; hence, the null hypothesis was not rejected. In other words, the results of the analysis showed that teachers' score on the job satisfaction scale did not influence teachers' decision to return to the urban teaching setting.

Binary logistic regression was also conducted to answer the second research question.

RQ2: Do factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year?

H_02: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics do not significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

H_12: Factors included in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and/or demographics significantly predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following school year.

This study found that age, years of teaching, pay, promotion, coworkers and nature of work were statistically significant and either positively or negatively influenced a teacher to return to teach. Consequently, results showed that as age increased, the teachers' likelihood of returning to teach was diminished, meaning age negatively correlated with returning to teach. Additionally, a further observation of the results showed that increasing pay and the relationship between coworkers negatively correlated with teachers' intent to return to teaching. Conversely, promotion increases and increasing the levels of nature of work positively associated with teachers' likelihood of returning to teach.

Interpretation of the Findings

Job satisfaction measured on the JSS can be interpreted in two ways. First, a total score on the JSS indicates overall job satisfaction. Second, satisfaction can also be interpreted in terms of individual subscale scores: pay, communication, coworkers, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, promotion, operating conditions, and nature of work. In the current study, the researcher assessed how teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting was affected by (a) overall satisfaction as measured by the JSS instrument, and (b) satisfaction on individual JSS subscale scores.

Teachers' Likelihood of Returning to Urban Setting and Overall Satisfaction

First, the researcher found a non-significant association between overall job satisfaction and teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting. Generally, these findings indicate that overall satisfaction is not associated with teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban school setting. These findings are not consistent with Herzberg's motivation theory. Specifically, Herzberg's (1959) theory contends that job satisfaction not only improves productivity of workers but also their overall motivation to work. Building on Herzberg's (1959) theory, motivation has been found to be significantly associated with low turnover among employees. Specifically, employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to leave than those who are not satisfied with their jobs. However, in light of the findings of the current study, overall satisfaction does not seem to influence the likelihood of teachers returning to the urban teaching environment.

The lack of consistency between findings in the current study and what the theoretical literature suggests could be accounted for by several factors. First, there could have been a slight error in the measurement of overall satisfaction, which translated to a p-value that was significant in the 90% C.I but not in the intended 95% C.I. Specifically, a p-value of 0.085 indicates the results could have turned out to be significant if proper measurement could have been conducted. Second, the JSS scale may be too generic and therefore may not have been effective in measuring job satisfaction within the teaching context. Lastly, some satisfiers included on the JSS may have clashed with certain ethical standards in the teaching profession, hence being regarded by teachers as less important in determining satisfaction and the

subsequent likelihood of returning to the urban teaching setting. According to Herzberg et al. (1957), there are different intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors, or satisfiers, are motivators that tend to create a positive attitude about one's job and may contribute to job satisfaction. Extrinsic hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, may not be motivators; however, if they are missing or applied incorrectly, they may contribute to job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, if applied correctly, extrinsic factors could serve as satisfiers. As such, further discussion regarding the specific satisfiers on the JSS and how they are associated with teachers' likelihood of returning to the urban teaching setting is warranted.

Teachers' Likelihood of Returning to an Urban Setting and Specific JSS Satisfiers

Findings in the current study indicate that pay, promotion, coworkers, and nature of work significantly influenced teachers' likelihood of returning to the urban teaching setting.

Pay and Relationships among Coworkers

Two factors were specifically found to decrease teachers' likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting: pay and coworkers. These findings imply that increasing teachers' pay actually influences them not to return to the urban teaching setting. These findings are not consistent with what the JSS theory and prior scholars have reported. Specifically, the JSS theory predicts that increasing employees' compensation for services rendered reduces their turnover intent. Literature supporting teacher contentment shows a positive relationship between teachers' turnover intent and pay. In a national study of math and science teachers in high-poverty schools, Ingersoll and May (2011) found that teacher salary was the greatest predictor of retention for science teachers.

Additionally, several scholars have reported that pay influences teacher motivation, performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Cable & Judge, 1994; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990; Huselid, 1995; Milkovich & Newman, 2002). In 1983, the national report *A Nation at Risk* stated, "salaries for the teaching profession should be increased and should be professionally competitive, market sensitive, and performance based" (p. 30). Urban school districts often struggle to remain competitive with surrounding districts teacher salaries. Sutcher et al. (2016) also recommended development and implementation of policies that facilitate creation of

compensation packages for teachers to enhance their living standards so they do not think of leaving their profession for other well-paying economic activities.

However, per the findings of the current study, pay is seen to have a negative influence on teachers' intention to return to urban school settings. Even if they were offered huge pay packages, Indiana teachers still report opting for other teaching contexts rather than the urban teaching settings. In past studies, researchers focused on different geographical contexts, while in the current study, the researcher focused on Indiana. Consequently, this study provides new findings regarding teachers in Indiana; they appear to have less preference for urban teaching contexts regardless of amount of compensation.

In light of the current study, relationships with coworkers also adversely affect teachers' intention to return to urban school settings. As such, Indiana teachers are likely to opt for teaching settings in which there are negative relationships among coworkers. These findings seem illogical in light of the JSS theory and existing prior studies. Specifically, the findings sharply contrast with the JSS theory and past research. According to Spector (1997), positive relationships among employees increase their commitment and career longevity, which may reduce their turnover intent. Similarly, Ouyang and Paprock (2006) reported that aesthetic factors such as relationships teachers have with colleagues create a positive impact on teachers' longevity in the field. Additionally, several scholars reported a direct positive association between collaboration among teachers and job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Scott et al., 2001). In another study, Barth (2006) found congenial relationships of significant importance to teacher retention. Lortie (1975) found that teachers surveyed significantly valued associating with other teachers. Kokka (2016) found collegiality with veteran teachers contributes to teacher longevity. Farber (1982) found collegial relationships contribute to teacher job satisfaction. Research indicates that a positive social climate and social support are positively related to motivation and teacher satisfaction (Day et al., 2007; Dinham & Scott, 1998; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Scheopner, 2010; US Department of Education, 1997). By contrast, negative interactions with coworkers can increase the likelihood of teacher job dissatisfaction. Troman (2000) found that unsatisfactory social relationships between teachers in a school are an important source of stress in teaching. Low levels of trust between teachers are shown to be associated with teachers' self-estrangement, powerlessness, and conflict (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Even though there is overwhelming evidence for the positive association between coworker relationships and job satisfaction, the current study adds novel findings to existing literature. Specifically, the current study has found that among teachers in Indiana, positive relationships among coworkers are likely to reduce teachers' job satisfaction, and subsequently their intention to stay. Since no plausible explanation can be given for such findings, it is recommended that future scholars focus on examining the subject more deeply using a qualitative inquiry approach.

Promotion and Nature of Work

Findings in the current study indicate promotion and nature of work are positively associated with teachers' intent to return to urban school setting. Specifically, Indiana teachers may be more willing to return to the urban school setting if they were given job promotions. These findings are consistent with the JSS and what prior scholars have reported. According to several scholars, promotional opportunities significantly influence teacher motivation and turnover (Cable & Judge, 1994; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990; Huselid, 1995; Milkovich & Newman, 2002). Financial promotion at the teacher level is minimal; however, school administrators can control job assignments for teachers within a school district. Promoting teachers into teacher-leader positions or as instructional coaches can reward highly effective teachers with increased professional responsibility even though increased compensation may not be available (Chingos & West, 2011). Teachers seeking increased responsibility and financial compensation may choose to leave the classroom for school administration.

However, even though the findings on job promotion are consistent with existing literature, they still add new knowledge. Specifically, while prior studies had focused on job promotion in different geographical contexts, the current study specifically focused on the Indianan geographical contexts. As such, the current study adds new knowledge to existing literature regarding the association between Indianan teachers' intention to return to the urban school setting and job promotion.

Nature of work has also been found in the current study to be a significant predictor of Indianan teachers' intention to return to the urban school setting. According to Spector (1997), nature of work refers to an individual's satisfaction with the type of responsibilities they are assigned at work. Teaching is a profession driven by values, ethical motives, or intrinsic

motivations (Sahlberg, 2010). Findings of the current study regarding nature of work are consistent with the JSS theory and prior empirical literature on the same. Goodland (1984) found the majority of teachers enter the profession due to the intrinsic nature of the work. Neito's (2003) study of teacher longevity found social emotional rewards most influential on teachers' satisfaction and longevity in the classroom. Klecker and Loadman (1997) found teacher satisfaction was rated highest in the area of interactions with students. The few studies that address urban teacher preparation programs have found that teachers from these urban-focused programs have felt more committed to their students and staying in teaching longer than is typical nationwide or in urban districts (Quartez et al., 2003). Consequently, the current study adds new knowledge to existing literature by reporting a positive association between nature of work and Indiana teachers' intention to return to the urban school setting.

Implications of Findings

Numerous researchers concur with the reports posted by NCTAF on the significance of teacher retention on student performance. Clotfelter et al. (2007), Gordon et al. (2006), Ingersoll et al. (1977), and Onuoha and Segun-Martins (2013) reported that low teacher attrition acted as a motivator for students to perform better academically. Additionally, research has shown that students who were taught by highly qualified teachers posted better grades on state exams and demonstrate higher graduation rates compared to students taught by ineffective or unqualified teachers. The positive and improved performance by students correlates with higher teacher retention in terms of instructional quality and student achievement (Ingersoll et al., 1997). Teacher effectiveness, retention, and student achievement in urban school settings may be impacted by how satisfied teachers feel about their teaching positions. The Survey of American Teachers conducted by MetLife in 2012 showed that teacher motivation had hit a significant low in the past two decades and could be the reason for high attrition rates (Gordon, 2012). Teachers in urban school settings have indeed reported low levels of job satisfaction, as evidenced by findings of Sutcher et al. (2006).

According to Sutcher et al. (2006), teacher turnover is higher in cities than in suburban or rural districts. Moreover, Sutcher et al. (2006) found that teachers at suburban schools have the highest level of job satisfaction, while teachers at urban schools have the lowest level of job satisfaction. Similarly, Marko et al. (2006) observed that teachers in urban schools teaching

predominantly minority and low-income students experienced greater stress levels and lower job satisfaction than colleagues teaching students in higher income, suburban, and rural settings. Increased job satisfaction may enhance teacher performance, quality of work life, and student performance (Rinehart & Short, 1993). Therefore, this study sought to explore factors that aid in job satisfaction and contribute to a teacher's decision to continue teaching in urban school settings.

Findings from this study could be utilized to address the teacher retention crisis in Indiana. According to Sutcher et al. (2016), the state of Indiana is ranked last in the entire country in terms of teacher retention. Consistent with the findings of the current study, this teacher retention crisis may be explained in terms of four key factors: promotion, nature of work, pay, and relationships among coworkers. First, the low teacher retention in Indiana may be due to lack of opportunities for promotion. According to Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017b), one of the key reasons for a low teacher retention rate in Indiana is the lack of opportunities for advancement. Additionally, the nature of work, especially in terms of unfavorable working conditions, could be the reason why there is low teacher retention in Indiana. Similar observations were made by Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017b), who reported tough working conditions as one of the key factors causing a drop in teacher retention in Indiana. As per the findings of the current study, poor relationships among coworkers may also be responsible for low teacher retention in Indiana.

Limitations of the study

While conducting this particular study, the researcher encountered numerous challenges that should be addressed in future works. To begin with, the factors contributing to teacher satisfaction and teacher' intentions to return to teach were limited to the factors included in the Job Satisfaction Scale. Using Paul Spector' Job Satisfaction Survey did not allow or provide room for other additional factors that may influence a teacher's decision to return to teach (Spector, 1985). Secondly, the study was limited to urban schools in Indiana, and did not include suburban schools and schools in rural or remote areas. As a result of this, the obtained results may be inaccurate for generalizability for all schools within the United States. Moreover, the findings will only apply to urban schools within Indiana and not in other urban centers due to differences in geographical distribution. In other words, the study is also limited by its

geographical setting. Further affecting the generalizability of the obtained results is the small number of participating schools, which limited the number of teachers recruited for the study.

The current study was also limited by the method and design used to collect, analyze, and present data. The current study employed a quantitative research methodology with a correlational research design. According to Creswell (2009), quantitative studies are used when a researcher seeks to present the study results in mathematical applications. Quantitative research, unlike qualitative research, does not measure and record participants' views or feelings (Macur, 2013). Therefore, respondents may not feel comfortable providing honest and accurate answers, particularly if the responses present them in an unfavorable manner. Consequently, responses for the presented research questions relied on participant teacher interpretation; as such, there are questions of authenticity and accuracy in the provided answers. In addition, the survey questionnaire has multiple answer options, which might lead to unclear data as participants interpret and answer questions based on their own understanding.

The current study was also limited in several ways by the prevailing coronavirus pandemic that has significantly shifted how learning in schools is being conducted. The outbreak of the pandemic forced schools to temporarily close to limit the spread of the virus. Due to this, many superintendents declined to have their teachers participate in the study. The teachers who did participate in the study were simultaneously learning to navigate the new world of online teaching. This may have affected participation levels and participant responses.

Recommendations for Future Studies and Practice

From the limitations discussed above, the researcher recommends that future scholars consider expanding or increasing the size of the population. For instance, the current study included a total of 35 school corporations. Future studies may choose to include 100 or 200 school corporations to provide for greater generalizability of the results. Also, the current study was also limited by the geographical area of the study setting, which also negatively impacted on the generalizability of the results. In future studies on the same topic, researchers should focus on expanding the geographical area of study to include different states and urban centers and even some outside the United States to provide for a more generalizable sample. On the same note, researchers in future works should also expand the types of schools included. For example, the current study included urban schools only. Therefore, future researchers should seek to include

rural and suburban public and private schools. Teacher retention and attrition is a sensitive topic that affects virtually every aspect of student and teacher life. For instance, increased teacher attrition impacted negatively on student performance (Clotfelter et al., 2007; Gordon et al., 2006). Therefore, future studies should seek to investigate the same topic using a mixed-research method. A mixed-research method will allow future researchers to present both statistical and qualitative findings simultaneously.

The results presented also provide some clues for what school administrators could do to discourage teacher attrition and encourage the return of teachers into the profession. The results of binary logistic regression in chapter four indicated that job satisfaction, promotions, increasing years of teaching, and the levels of nature of work increased the likelihood that a teacher will return to teach. Although previous literature indicated that increasing pay for teachers encouraged their decision to stay (Wang, 2019), the current findings contrasted this notion by showing that although pay was a critical factor, it did not suffice to motivate teachers to return to work. Therefore, school administrators concerned with education should consider working on teacher promotion, improving the work environment by increasing the nature of work, and taking into account a teacher's years of teaching to retain teachers still in the profession. Moreover, schools may wish to focus on factors that will enhance teacher experience and overall job satisfaction to discourage attrition. For instance, Ingersoll et al. (1997) showed that satisfied teachers were more likely to stay in a situation that reflected positive instructional quality and overall student performance.

Chapter Summary

The chapter began by restating the purpose of the study and a brief description of the problem that has prompted the researcher to undertake the study. Subsequently, the chapter briefly highlighted the research questions and hypotheses that guided this particular study. Also, the chapter examined the results and findings presented in chapter four and provided an in-depth discussion of the results with references to the scholarly articles reviewed in chapter two. In summary, teacher intention to return to teaching was measured using the Job Satisfaction Scale that measured for factors such as pay, promotions, job satisfaction, nature of work, relationship with colleagues, age, and years of teaching. Analyzing the factors in the Job Satisfaction Scale, the researcher has shown that factors such as years of teaching, nature of work, promotion, and

job satisfaction are positively associated with the teacher' likelihood of returning to teach. On the other hand, age, relationship with coworkers, and increasing pay were found less likely to influence teachers to return to teach.

APPENDIX A. JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida 	
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much / Disagree moderately / Disagree slightly / Agree slightly / Agree moderately / Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6

16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much / Disagree moderately / Disagree slightly / Agree slightly / Agree moderately / Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6

34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1 2 3 4 5 6

The JSS is provided free for non-commercial educational and research purposes.

APPENDIX B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Gender:
____Male ____Female
Age (fill in the blank):
___
Years of Teaching Experience:
____<1 year ____1-5 ____6-10 years ____11-15 years ____16-20 years ____20+

Do you plan to return to an urban teaching position next school year (2020-2021)?

____ Yes ____ No

APPENDIX C. REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE THE JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

Dated 4/1/2020

Dear Dr. Spector,

My name is Laurie Rinehart, and I am currently a doctoral student at Purdue University in West Lafayette, Indiana. I am working to complete my dissertation project which is entitled, "Urban Teacher Retention: What Makes Them Stay?"

My advisory is Dr. Alice Johnson, Clinical Assistant Professor of the Department of Educational Studies at Purdue University.

I am requesting permission to utilize your Job Satisfaction Survey to conduct my research. I agree to the two conditions identified on your website:

"1. The use is for noncommercial educational or research purposes. This means no one is charging anyone a fee. If you are using any of my scales for consulting purposes, there is a fee.

2. You agree to share results with me. This is how I continue to update norms and bibliography."

I willfully agree to both conditions. There is no compensation for this study, and I will share my results when the study is complete. I anticipate completion of my project by 12/1/2020 and will share my results with you at that time. I look forward to hearing from you, and thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Laurie Rinehart
3370 Whirlaway Ct
West Lafayette, IN 47906
(765)404-0826 (cell)
(765) 772-4700 (work)
lrineha@purdue.edu

APPENDIX D. PERMISSION BY DR. PAUL SPECTOR

Retrieved from: http://paulspector.com/scales/our-assessments/conditions-for-using-these-assessments/

Conditions for Using These Assessments

All of the assessments in the Our Assessments section of paulspector.com are copyrighted.

You have my permission for free noncommercial research/teaching use of any of the assessments that are in the Our Assessments section of paulspector.com. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, as shown in the downloadable copy of each scale.

For commercial uses there is a fee for using these scales. A commercial use means you are charging someone a fee to provide a service that includes use of one or more of these scales. Contact me at paul@paulspector.com to discuss fees for commercial use.

Translations

You are welcome to translate any of these scales into another language if you agree to send me a copy of the translation. Word (.doc or .docx) is best, but .pdf is also acceptable. Be sure to include the copyright statement on the translated version, as well as credit the person who did the translation and the year.

Sharing Results

A condition for free use of these assessments is that you share results. The results I need include:

1. Means per subscale and total score
2. Sample size
3. Brief description of sample, e.g., 220 hospital nurses. I don't need to know the organization name if it is sensitive.
4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., the language used. I am especially interested in nonAmerican samples.
5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional)
6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional)

Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a conference paper, dissertation, journal article, thesis, etc.) where one or more of these assessments are used.

You can share the material with me via e-mail: pspector@usf.edu

APPENDIX E. EMAIL TO INDIANA URBAN SCHOOL ASSOCIATION PERMISSION FOR PARTICIPATION

On Fri, Apr 17, 2020 at 2:14 PM Laurie Eileen Rinehart <lrineha@purdue.edu> wrote:
Dear Dr. David Marcotte**,** Executive Director of the Indiana Urban Schools Association:

My name is Laurie Rinehart, and I am an educator in Indiana. I am also a doctoral candidate at Purdue University working with Dr. Alice Johnson in the College of Education. I am seeking your permission to utilize the Indiana Urban Schools Association member schools as an urban population sample for my dissertation research. I would also ask for your help with encouraging member school superintendents to participate by sending an introductory email from the organization to be on the lookout for my e-mail seeking participants. I will be happy to craft the email for you. With so many e-mails in today's workplace, I am hopeful this strategy would increase the likelihood of a superintendent opening my email and participating in the study.

I am researching factors that predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following year. The goal of the study is to survey certified kindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers currently teaching in urban Indiana school corporations. Teachers will respond to John Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey, four demographic questions, and indicate their intent regarding remaining in an urban teaching setting. The survey is anonymous, with *no identifying information* collected by the Qualtrics survey system.

Results from this study may help building-level administrators identify job satisfaction factors that contribute to a teacher's decision to remain teaching in an urban setting, and guide strategies to help address the teacher shortage epidemic in Indiana, specifically in urban schools. Should you have any questions about this research, please contact me at lrineha@purdue.edu or Dr. Alice Johnson at alicejohnson@purdue.edu. I look forward to your response.

Respectfully,

Laurie Rinehart
Doctoral Candidate
Purdue University

Dr. Alice Johnson
Assistant Clinical Professor
Purdue University

APPENDIX F. SUPERINTENDENT PERMISSION EMAIL

Dear **(Superintendent Name):**

My name is Laurie Rinehart, and I am an educator in Indiana. I am also a doctoral candidate at Purdue University working with Dr. Alice Johnson in the College of Education. For my dissertation, I am researching factors that predict a teacher's likelihood of returning to an urban teaching setting the following year. The goal of the study is to survey certified kindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers currently teaching in urban Indiana school corporations associated with the Indiana Urban School Association. Results from this study may help building-level administrators identify job satisfaction factors that contribute to a teacher's decision to remain teaching in an urban setting, and guide strategies to help address the teacher shortage epidemic in Indiana, specifically in urban schools.

I ask for your assistance in inviting certified kindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers to participate in this study by forwarding this email to certified teachers in your school corporation. The survey consists of four demographic questions followed by four measures totaling 39 questions. It will take an estimated 5-10 minutes to complete the study. The survey is anonymous, with *no identifying information* collected by the Qualtrics survey system.

If you are interested in having your urban school corporation participate, please reply to this email. I will then send an email with the survey, which you would simply forward to your teachers.

I appreciate your time and assistance as I gather data to help retain excellent teachers for our children!

Should you have any questions about this research, please contact me at lrineha@purdue.edu or Dr. Alice Johnson at alicejohnson@purdue.edu.

Respectfully,

Laurie Rinehart
Doctoral Candidate
Purdue University

Dr. Alice Johnson
Assistant Clinical Professor
Purdue University

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