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Examining Work-related Factors that May Predict Teacher Retention Intention in Rural Georgia

Katrina M. Evans-Dobbs

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EXAMINING WORK-RELATED FACTORS THAT MAY PREDICT TEACHER RETENTION INTENTION IN RURAL GEORGIA

by

KATRINA M. EVANS-DOBBS

Under the Direction of Teri Denlea Melton

ABSTRACT

This study utilized a quantitative, statistical, non-experimental design to collect, analyze, and interpret data on variables that might predict retention of beginning teachers (0-3 years of experience) and experienced teachers (more than 3 years of experience) in a rural county school system in Georgia. The following variables were examined: retention intention, job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, lateral/non-lateral status, induction, and mentoring. There were 728 participants from 14 elementary schools, five middle schools, and four high schools. This study found there were no statistically significant differences in retention intention between *lateral and non-lateral* teachers. There was a statistically significant difference between teachers who participated in an *induction* program and those who did not. Results showed there was not a statistically significant mean difference in retention intention between teachers who were *mentored* and those who were not. There was not a statistically significant relationship between teachers based on *experience*. Results of the overall regression analysis revealed four of the predictors were significantly related to retention intention: job satisfaction, workload pressure, leadership support, and induction. Four predictors: mentoring, lateral/non-lateral status, experience, and job autonomy were not statistically significant to retention intention. For teachers with three years' experience or less, job satisfaction and workload pressure proved statistically significant. For teachers with more than three years' experience, results of the regression analysis showed that four of the factors were found to be statistically significant to this group: job satisfaction, leadership support, workload pressure, and induction. For teachers with three years' experience or less, there was a negative association between job satisfaction and retention intention and there was a positive association between workload pressure and retention intention. For teachers with more than three years' experience, there was a negative association between job satisfaction and retention intention, and leadership support and retention intention. And, for this same group, there was a positive association between induction and retention intention, and workload pressure and retention intention.

INDEX WORDS: Beginning teacher attrition, Teacher induction programs, Job satisfaction, Leadership/principal support, Workload pressure, Quantitative, Teacher experience, Lateral status, Mentoring, Retention intention

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DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

I could not have done this without a village of support.

I want to first thank God within whom I had to trust and believe in to see this moment into existence. Thank you for loving me and for thinking enough of me to manifest my dreams into reality. Thank you for seeing me through the most difficult, yet most fulfilling journey of my life.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In a world of culturally, linguistically, and socioeconomically diverse students, it is increasingly incumbent upon teacher educators in helping in-service teachers develop pedagogies and practices that engage them to meet the high demands of state and local educational policies and standards (Andrews, Bartell, & Richmond, 2016). In the United States where students compete against peers from across the world, and with each other as future leaders who will shape the global economy, their academic performance is a primary indicator of a strong future economy and its sustainability (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2015).

Nationally, educational leaders increasingly acknowledge the critical role of teachers in impacting student achievement and growth (Amos, 2012; Department of Education, 2015; Ingersoll, 2011). *The Global Partnership for Education* (GPE, 2017), the only global fund solely dedicated to education in developing countries, recognizes teachers as essential in advancing student achievement. GPE adopted their vision of equitable, quality education for all by 2030 by creating and promoting policies that support teachers' professional development and growth, and recommend educational leaders develop initiatives that invest in high-quality teachers, promote teacher collaboration through ongoing support, and encourage the use of information and communication technology. This initiative has resulted in 78% of GPE teachers receiving pre- and in-service training (GPE, 2017). According to Fatima (2012), "If education is the backbone of a nation and teachers are the chief contributors to the structure of the educational system, then job satisfaction is an important factor in the retention of

teachers” (p. 260). Yet, despite the belief by some that teachers are key to shaping future leaders who will improve and sustain the economy, teacher attrition remains a national concern. Over a half million teachers leave the profession annually (Amos, 2014), and the annual attrition rate for first-year teachers has increased by more than 40% over the past two decades (Haynes, 2014). Additionally, teacher attrition is extremely costly and affects student achievement. According to one estimate, the United States alone loses between \$1 billion and \$2.2 billion annually because of teacher attrition (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Hassel and Hassel (2010) estimated that about one million students lose access to top teachers each year due to teacher turnover. Top teachers were defined as teachers in the top 25% of U.S. teachers—more than 800,000 of them—who enable students to meet and exceed educational testing standards. This epidemic is leaving leaders and various educational organizations scrambling to find new ways to retain highly-qualified teachers.

Research varies regarding what factors motivate beginning teachers to remain, transfer, or leave the profession. Kidd, Brown, and Fitzallen (2015) examined beginning teachers’ (teachers in year 0-3) perceptions of their teacher induction program and the level of support provided at the building level. Their findings indicated that factors such as heavy workloads, lack of planning time, lack of administrative support, and lack of access to teacher induction impacted their decisions to remain at their current school. Kidd et al. (2015) also noted that many teachers hired after the beginning of the school year and those hired under long-term contract often do not have access to a teacher induction at their school, but are expected to meet the same expectations as faculty receiving induction. *The Teacher Attrition and Mobility 2012-13 Teacher Follow Up*

Questionnaire (U.S. Department of Education [US DOE], 2014) revealed that of the 3,377,900 teachers interviewed, 84% of teachers remained or stayed in their current school, 8% transferred or moved to a different school, and 8% left the profession altogether. To illustrate, roughly 540,464 teachers either transferred out of their current school or left the profession.

To move beyond institutional liberalism where district and building leaders design Teacher Induction Programs based on their perceptions of what beginning teachers need, they must begin to align them with beginning teachers' perceptions, including the impact of leadership, on best practices and pedagogies (Richmond, Bartell, & Young, 2016). While schools and students can benefit from more effective teachers, the power of high-quality induction programs can provide specialized support beginning teachers need and help transform their schools into professional communities where they want to remain—and successfully work with students as emerging leaders (Goldrick, 2016). Such a change requires new initiatives and structures to attract, develop, and retain the best teaching talent in schools serving students with the greatest needs, as well as a system that ensures that new teachers receive comprehensive induction and access to school-based collaborative learning (AEE, 2012).

The federal government enacted the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2002) to “ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments” (Sect. 1001, p. 1). NCLB's purpose was to ensure that teacher preparation and training curriculum were developed and aligned with assessments to meet the needs of low achieving children at our nation's

highest poverty schools and closing the achievement gap between high and low performing students across the country by recruiting, hiring, and retaining highly qualified teachers.

In response to NCLB, Congress and President Obama enacted the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESEA, 2015) allowing states to develop their own accountability systems and adopt challenging academic standards in math, reading, and science. Under this Act, states provide targeted academic support to the lowest performing 5% of students that builds on the success in recent years of educators, the community, and students (ESSA, 2015). President Obama (2015) stated, "With this bill, we reaffirm that fundamental American ideal—that every child, regardless of race, income, background, the zip code where they live, deserves the chance to make of their lives what they will" (www.ed.gov/essa).

In order for educational systems to grow and transform, they must look to new and innovative ways to support beginning teachers during their first three years of employment—crucial years in the career of a beginning teacher. It is imperative that beginning teachers receive support from day one (New Teacher Center [NTC], 2014), and is incumbent upon leaders to use “consistent protocols and methodologies that are followed by every staff member whether a new teacher, mentor, induction coach, or administrator/principal” (NTC, 2014, p. 2). Particularly, rural and/or economically disadvantaged school systems—when compared to larger school districts with more resources such as salary, technology, and travel distance—face additional challenges of recruitment and retention (Ingersoll, 2012; NTC, 2014).

While recognizing the importance of developing Teacher Induction Programs, limited research exists on the role induction programs have on beginning teachers' perceptions of factors that impact their decisions to stay or leave schools, and how it affects cost, organizational consistency and stability, and changes to state and local educational policies. However, to provide insight into the background of Teacher Induction Programs, background information presents an overview of the four decades of research which exists in the United States.

Background on Teacher Induction Programs

Dating back to the late 1970s and early 1980s, many Teacher Induction Programs were initially developed by state and local school districts to address gaps in student achievement and offer beginning teachers' professional development in the early stages of their career (Botha & Reddy, 2011; Carter, 2012; Ingersoll, 2011). Perry and Hayes (2011) found that high-quality induction, along with high-quality mentoring, has the potential to increase the retention rate of new teachers and improve the quality of the instruction they deliver. Even so, researchers concluded that teacher induction programs vary in structure and purpose with some states providing no training or mentoring to beginning teachers or in-service teachers (Gabriel, 2010; Hassel & Hassel, 2011; Ingersoll, 2011; New Teacher Center, 2014).

Pre-service and In-service

To help distinguish between pre-service and in-service programs, Botha and Reddy (2011) described pre-service programs—mainly offered at colleges and universities—as teaching theoretical frameworks centered around “learning about teaching and teaching about learning” (p. 257), whose aim is to prepare students with the

foundational knowledge they will need. In contrast, Teacher Induction Programs—instituted at the building-level of schools—are designed to demonstrate the daily practice on teaching and reflect the knowledge base and era in which they are initiated, usually by district and building-level school leaders. Moreover, NTC (2014) reported that no matter how bright the beginning teacher or how extensive their pre-service, many new teachers will find they are ill-prepared for the realities of the classroom, and 40-50% will quit before their fifth year. Richmond, Bartell, and Dunn (2016) challenged educational leaders to move beyond “tinkering” (p. 103) around the edges of induction accountability to systematically addressing conversations of content and accountability as *only* part, but not all, of the larger dialogue.

Research has long supported the need for teacher induction programs for beginning teachers. Through peer and mentor collaboration, Botha and Reddy (2011) noted that beginning teachers have opportunities for feedback and professional growth. Perry and Hayes (2011) identified the first three years as a critical period in the career of a beginning teacher. With effective teacher induction programs, schools are less likely to experience teacher attrition and more likely to positively impact student achievement.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011) identified a Comprehensive Induction as having the following components:

- multi-year assistance for at least two years, with multi-support design;
- carefully selected, well-prepared, and systematically supported mentors who focus on instruction and student learning;
- ongoing formative assessment of the teacher’s practice to guide learning experiences and professional goal setting;

- sanctioned time for targeted professional development activities and for mentors and beginning teachers to work together, observe practice, and analyze student learning data;
- engaged principals who know how to create conditions that support teacher development;
- program leadership collaboratively shared among all stake-holders, including district administration and union/association leaders; and,
- strong alignment with other district goals that support teacher learning (e.g., evaluation, tenure, professional learning communities).

Darling-Hammond (2001) addressed the importance of systematic, intense mentoring during the first year of teaching as a means of securing competent and effective teachers who will remain in the profession. Consequently, some experts recommend comprehensive mentoring for teachers through the induction process over two years to secure higher levels of excellence and competence for poor and minority students (Haynes, 2014).

Raskin, Krull, and Thatcher (2015) found a positive empirical link between leadership support (e.g., administration, induction coach, mentors) and beginning teachers' perceptions of support. As educational leaders are often who make decisions regarding what support—if any—is provided in their schools to their beginning teachers, it is important to note what constitutes an effective principal (or administrator).

Raskin et al. (2015) listed five practices of an effective principal:

1. Shaping a vision for academic success for all students;
2. Creating a climate hospitable to education;

3. Cultivating leadership in others; requires developing self and developing others;
4. Improving instruction; and,
5. Managing people, data, and processes to foster school improvement.

Ingersoll (2011) suggested that principals and leaders within school systems should build upon current induction program designs as these decisions also impact teacher quality, student achievement (high stakes' testing), and changing state mandates, regulations, and politics in which they are governed as leaders. What many principals and administrators fail to realize is that about 16% of the American workforce of 3.4 million public school teachers either moves or leaves the profession each year (Haynes, 2014). These data can be alarming for national and local leaders who attempt to ensure that all students have access to a highly qualified teacher.

These attrition rates affect poverty and at-risk schools at 20% higher—roughly 50%—than more affluent schools (Haynes, 2014). Haynes (2014) referencing the *Teaching, Empowering, Leading, and Learning/TELL Questionnaire* (2008-09), revealed that teachers perform better with supportive leadership which includes high-quality induction support. Subsequently, The *TELL Questionnaire* (2013-14, 2015), administered to Colorado teachers, found professional development designed to differentiate the needs of the teacher was 48.5% and instructional support to meet the needs of all students was 53.4% (www.tellcolorado.org). Conversely, these findings indicated that 51.5% of programs in Colorado do not meet their beginning teachers' needs for differentiation, and that 46.6% did not meet their beginning teachers' need for more instructional support.

To work collaboratively, there must be a shared understanding of teachers' most pressing concerns. By working closely in Teacher Induction Programs, educational leaders can identify critical needs of beginning teachers and advance preparation in the classroom environment as well as inform pre-service programs how to better adjust curriculum standards and protocols for entry into the profession (Franklin & Molina, 2012).

High attrition rates are problematic and costly, even in school districts where funding and resources may be more available to recruit highly-qualified teachers. However, high teacher attrition can be financially devastating for school and local districts in many rural counties and states where resources are scarce, and the lack of teacher autonomy and isolation are prevalent. Researchers concluded that teachers' feelings of professional isolation and stress strongly correlated with a weak principal relationship, followed by poor relationships with colleagues, parents, and students causing stress and burnout (more burnout than stress), lack of time in planning, and lack of mentor collaboration (Amos, 2014; Dussalt, 2007; Ingersoll, 2011). Beginning teachers must often contend with the same career responsibilities as their peers of experienced teachers, but many lack the on-the-job support to understand the dynamics of building a collaborative culture and improving their pedagogical skills. Only half of beginning teachers receive mentoring from someone in their content field or have common planning time (Amos, 2012). Thus, no matter how intelligent or extensive their pre-service preparation is, beginning teachers are insufficiently prepared to handle classroom management, professional isolation, and lack mentoring from someone within the same subject (NTC, 2014).

Mentoring helps teachers be more effective by providing professional development, offering coaching, or supervision (Hassel & Hassel, 2011). In the presence of effective mentors, teachers are more likely to modify their methods of instruction, thus impacting student learning and achievement (Haynes, 2014). Huling-Austin (1990; 1998) defined induction as “a planned program intended to provide systematic and sustained assistance, specifically to beginning teachers, for at least one year which offers ethical, professional, and personal assistance and not merely a series of orientation meetings or a formal evaluation process used for teachers new to the profession” (p. 536). Mentoring, in contrast, is a component of a high-quality induction that usually pairs a veteran teacher usually with more than 3 years’ experience with a beginning teacher to embed discussions of student achievement data, student and teacher learning conditions, and post collegial support (Amos, 2014; NTC, 2014).

In 1978, Florida became the first state to establish a state-level induction program (Wood & Stanulis, 2005). In that same year, seven other states claimed to have initiated induction programs administered mainly by local school districts and universities. By the 1980s, a reform movement ushered in an infusion of teacher induction programs. These programs were developed by local school districts, colleges of education, and state agencies (Furtwengler, 1993; Huling-Austin, 1985). Many programs were referred to as model teacher induction projects or MTIPs. Forty-eight states during this same period claimed some form of induction for beginning teachers. Florida was also the first state to implement a year-long program for beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1990). These programs aimed to assist beginning teachers in becoming competent professionals as “rapidly, efficiently, and cost-effectively as possible” (Huling-Austin, 1985, p. 22).

Wood (2004) noted that between 1986 and 1989, Teacher Induction Programs included principal and university observations and pedagogy support. In this era, they found that teachers had at least 15 years of career experience. Subsequently, AEE (2012) found that today's teachers have one or two years of career experience.

Because teacher attrition is a primary cause of the U.S. teacher shortage, more communities, stakeholders, and principals should begin recognizing teachers for their talent and effort in the classroom (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). With the emphasis on educational reform following the NCLB Act, expectations of teachers have been heightened. As a result, teachers in schools across the U.S. are challenged to master content pedagogy in subjects such as English, reading or language arts, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography. Highly-qualified teachers must have full certification, a bachelor's degree, and demonstrated competence in subject knowledge and teaching (USDOE, 2014). In earlier research, Feng (2005) addressed the growing needs of beginning teachers and how attrition is linked to beginning teachers' perceptions of support by principals and other teachers within their schools. McKinney (2015, citing Friberg's 2007 analysis) emphasized the effect of teacher attrition on the ability of public schools to meet NCLB legislation and guidelines.

Between 1990 and 1996, 65% of teacher induction programs were influenced by the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium's Model Core Teaching Standards (2013). These induction programs included one-on-one mentoring and professional development activities. But, despite evidence of accomplishing their goals using their models in this period, many induction programs were terminated due to

elimination of program funding. Ingersoll (2011) listed reasons why teachers leave, such as inadequate administrative support, isolated working conditions, poor student discipline, low salaries, and a lack of collective teacher influence on school wide decisions. Moreover, measures for better school discipline, parental involvement, smaller class sizes, and more authority were recommended. Beginning teachers' perceptions of their induction process and recommendations on professional development can curtail the enormous costs of attrition and retention. Devos (2010) observed that as the demands for beginning teachers continue to grow, mentors are more often provided with less training, support, or reward for their role, and that the roles assigned to mentors seem to diminish what quality teaching encompasses. Paris (2013) researched the role of "reciprocal mentoring" (p. 136) as one way to prevent attrition for beginning teachers. The Reciprocal Mentoring and Professional and Community Experience Project/RM-PCEP (Paris, 2013) described an initiative in Australia and abroad aimed to enhance induction and reduce professional isolation. Through this program, beginning teachers and experienced teachers are paired together, but each contribute to the professional relationship through shared pedagogy (practice and theory) and pastoral care.

Currently, organizations such as the New Teacher Center are established to focus on improving the effectiveness of new teachers and school leaders across the country. Their support extends beyond the classroom to assist beginning teachers with issues or concerns that arise both personally and professionally. Their program seeks to help foster a culture where the curriculum is conveyed through essential components such as program structure, *serious* mentoring, and discourse on institutional norms and expectations (Sandford & Self, 2011). Mentoring and leadership Coach John Maxwell

(2007, 2014)—in addition to conducting national conferences on leadership and authoring books on transformational leadership skills—offers online mentoring through daily emails, newsletters, and audio presentations to his subscribers at no charge.

A review of the literature revealed as many as 28 states with some form of mentoring and induction that pairs first-year teachers with veteran teachers (Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn, 2012; NTC, 2012; Perry & Hayes, 2011). However, only 17 of those states provided dedicated funding for teacher induction. Three states—Connecticut, Delaware, and Iowa—required induction programs but specified no minimum program length. Thirteen states required one year of program induction; five states required two years of program induction, and six states required more than two years of program induction. While many states have some form of induction, few state-mandated teacher induction programs exist to support beginning teachers.

Even the most prepared beginning teachers can face difficulties in transitioning from college or university to the realities of the classroom. Their first few years (0-3) can be described as cloud-covered. To address the perceptions that some beginning teachers feel, transformational initiatives must occur. However, these initiatives do not solve some of the immediate problems beginning teachers face such as more accountability for improved student achievement.

Beginning teachers perceive positive relationships with principals and colleagues as factors that matter most to their long-term retention. Subsequently, fostering a supportive relationship between beginning teachers and principals can positively impact beginning teacher's decisions to remain at their current school and bridge a gap in the literature and advance research on improvements. District leaders who transferred

principals unwillingly to other schools also negatively impacted beginning teachers' decisions to remain at their current school or district. Ingersoll (2011) examined fifteen empirical studies that dated back to the 1980s and found a positive impact of teacher induction and perceived principals' roles on beginning teachers' commitment and retention, classroom instructional practices, and student achievement.

Although funding for teacher induction programs is limited and program development varies in structure, the disconnection between principals' perceptions and beginning teachers' perceptions of the level of support they receive within their first year is causing concern. Furthermore, most pre-service institutions do not have formal agreements in place with school districts to provide ongoing support and systems to collaborate among beginning teachers, professors, and principals.

Goldrick's (2016) review of state policies on induction revealed that only three states (Connecticut, Delaware, and Iowa) required schools and districts to provide multi-year support for new teachers, required teachers to complete an induction program for a professional license, and provided dedicated funding for teacher induction. In terms of state program accountability, the Georgia Department of Education (2018) offers tools and resources as guidance in the development and implementation of induction programs; how to monitor a comprehensive, coherent, and sustainable induction program; self-assessments for teacher induction and leader induction; and resource guides aligned to induction standards. These guides were adapted to The New Teacher Center's Induction Program Standards (Wylter, 2018). However, in Georgia, induction program funding and decisions to offer teacher induction programs are usually made at the district-level by school building leadership, and program development primarily depends on available

funding for training and additional resources such as mentor compensation. Additionally, the GADOE (2018), offers an annual ‘Georgia Induction Summit’ throughout the state, in collaboration with K-12 school systems, university systems, and state RESA (regional educational service agencies) partnerships.

Policy makers often avoid addressing teacher working conditions due to perceived costs of fixing problems such as mentor compensation, sanctioned time away from instruction to collaborate with an experienced mentor, and the costs of materials and resources or program restructuring. This can be even more problematic in rural counties where the retention intention of experienced and credentialed teachers is vital for student achievement—especially in high-needs schools. Good teachers gravitate toward places they will be supported through the use of sustained, supportive, positive school and learning environments. To concede the dichotomies of beginning teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of best practices and reduce attrition, a comprehensive study on factors that support beginning teachers and the impact of leadership support in their decisions to remain at their current school or why they leave, should be examined.

Research Questions

Research exists on what factors impact teacher attrition in the U.S. However, limited research exists nationally and in local school districts on teachers’ perceptions of their teacher induction programs and their decisions to remain or leave their current school. Still, less quantitative studies exist on retention intention of teachers (beginning and experienced) in rural Georgia school districts that are often struggling to retain qualified teachers and are subsequently facing the high costs of replacing them annually.

Teachers’ perceptions of their induction continue to be prevalent ideologies in literature; however, limited in research are quantitative studies in the method of questionnaire data that

allow for confidentiality for beginning teachers. The perceptions of beginning teachers—before they transfer or leave altogether—will be useful to establish accountability at the building level as well as inform district leaders on how to improve existing programs, enhance national research practices and policies, and reduce the enormous costs associated with teacher attrition.

The following questions guide this research:

1. Does retention intention differ between lateral and non-lateral teachers, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
2. Does retention intention differ between teachers who participated in an induction program and those who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
3. Does retention intention differ between teachers who received mentoring and teachers who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
4. Does retention intention differ between teachers with three years of experience or less than teachers with more than three years of experience, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
5. Do differences in retention intention by lateral status, induction, mentoring, and teacher experience, change when leadership support, job autonomy, job satisfaction, and workload pressure are statistically controlled?
6. Do any of the differences examined in question five vary between those with three years or less experience than those with three years or more experience?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because the data and findings add to the limited quantitative data existing in the role of Teacher Induction Programs within reform efforts, particularly in rural areas that comprise half of all school districts across the U.S. and one-third of all public schools. With high-quality induction, the improvement in teacher

effectiveness has the propensity to improve rates in graduation, reading proficiency, college readiness, and employability for Georgia's students. The perceptions of beginning teachers—many who leave within their first three years—is one of the most overlooked dilemmas facing school systems. Research indicated that the issue facing school systems across the country is not the recruitment of new teachers, but the retention of them. Beginning teachers face the challenges and demands of achieving highly-qualified certification status, increasing student achievement, maintaining classroom structure, and satisfying behavioral expectations of the district at the same expectations of their more experienced peers and colleagues.

Statistically, attrition in rural counties has serious financial and structural repercussions. The costs of attrition are enormous (roughly \$1 billion to 2.2 billion annually) and induction alone cannot solve all the issues concerning what motivates a teacher to remain at his or her current school. In Georgia, an estimated 8,588—roughly 8%—of teachers leave the profession annually. This estimate costs the state between \$37,485,313 and \$81,591,743 annually (Owens, 2015). The perceptions of beginning teachers entering the profession (as well as leaving the profession) should be examined along with who will remain in the profession beyond year three. Where concerns to find mentors and expectations of mentors prevail, induction programs can comprise of structured activities where principals can attend meetings regularly or unstructured, informal interactions such as impromptu conversations in the hallway.

Approval or acceptance from administration can provide beginning teachers with greater feelings of competence, respect, autonomy, and self-esteem. Data obtained through this process can be used to align dialogue around the increasing need for more

transformative, systematic induction programs that improve student achievement, teacher pedagogy, and support.

Definition of Terms

The following terms will be used in the study:

Autonomy. Autonomy is the degree to which the responsibility for decision making teachers have collectively in the school-wide decisions that affect their jobs (Walker, 2016).

Beginning Teachers. Beginning teachers are public or public charter school teachers who teach grades K–12 or comparable ungraded levels. These teachers include regular full-time teachers who taught at least one regularly scheduled class, excluding library skills classes. Beginning teachers in Chestine (pseudonym) County School System are considered new to district or new to their current school (NCES, 2017).

Full-Time Teacher. A full-time teacher is employed for at least 90% of the normal or statutory number of hours of work for a full-time teacher over a complete school year is classified as a full-time teacher.

Job Satisfaction. Teacher job satisfaction is defined as and is measured by how content a teacher is with their job. According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction constitutes an attitudinal variable that measures how a person feels about his or her job, including different facets of the job.

Lateral Entry Teacher. Lateral entry is one method used to recruit, prepare, and license individuals who seek entry into the teaching profession. Teachers who hold lateral certification traditionally already have a bachelor's degree or higher, and lateral entry is

an alternate, often quicker, route to teaching than what is offered through traditional teaching residency programs in colleges and universities.

(www.dpi.state.nc.us/licensure/lateral, 2016).

Mentor. A mentor provides ongoing support for teachers to work with peers to review school system culture and protocols such as instruction, student performance data, and additional supports deemed relevant (AEE, 2012).

Non-Lateral Entry Teacher. Non-Lateral entry is provided via traditional pre-service programs which education programs offered at colleges or universities where, upon completion of a bachelor's degree from an accredited college/university, the prospective teacher must pass the state-specific exams in the preferred content area or specific courses as outlined by the college or university. (www.dpi.state.nc.us/licensure, 2016).

Principal/Administrator. This study defines administration as the building principal or leader at the school level. The principal works within the school system to make sure the highest level of educational accomplishment and standards are met within their school or organization (MODESE, 2011).

Retention Intention. Retention intention (or turnover intention) is a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization and is often measured with a specific interval. Turnover intention, like turnover itself, can be either voluntary or involuntary. (Tett & Myer, 1993).

Support. Support is any combination or all school-based leaders (i.e., principal, assistant principals), mentors, Educator Preparation Provider (EPP) supervisors, and content specialists who monitor, mentor, assess, and coach beginning teachers' performance and learning.

Teacher Induction Program. Teacher Induction Programs can vary but are comprised of activities, classes, workshops, orientation meetings, seminars, and mentoring sessions. It is important to note that teacher induction programs, theoretically, do not refer to pre-service training. Teacher induction programs are considered a bridge between being a student of teaching to that of being a teacher of students (GADOE, 2012; Ingersoll & Smith, 2012).

Work Pressure. Although educational leaders have avoided defining the construct as a whole, Spector, Dwyer and Jex (1988) described work pressure as stress or strain with negative impact on the job.

Procedures

The study sought to examine the perspectives of beginning teachers with three years' experience or less within a rural county in Georgia. This study used a quantitative, non-experimental design (Creswell, 2013). Responses of lateral and non-lateral participant respondents to relay their perceptions of the benefits of participating in their teacher induction program, the role of leadership on their retention, and their overall job satisfaction will be examined. Participants were full-time teachers (30 hours or more) who were employed in a rural county school system in Georgia. The online questionnaire was sent through Qualtrics® to examine the following variables: retention intention, lateral status, leadership support, job autonomy, workload pressure, mentoring experience, job satisfaction, induction, and teaching experience.

There were approximately 204 teachers with less than three years' experience in the Chestine (a pseudonym) County School System. The responses of beginning teachers were compared to experienced teachers to determine if group differences existed and

what factors or variables might predict retention intention based on participant responses. The researcher implications from the questionnaire will provide feedback to district leaders and personnel on how to promote and integrate beginning teachers' perceptions into beginning teacher induction program development.

Data were analyzed using statistical software package IBM SPSS Statistics 24. Logical analysis and deductive reasoning were utilized to review questionnaire data from beginning teachers' perceptions of their teacher induction program and the role of administration to determine the impact of their teacher induction program. Ethical precautions were carefully observed to guard participants' anonymity and research was reported with IBM SPSS Statistics 24.

Chapter Summary

The U.S. alone loses between \$1 billion and \$2.2 billion annually due to teacher attrition. It has been noted that 8% of beginning teachers do not remain at their current school or district beyond their third year of employment, another 8% transfer to another school within district or out of district, and an estimated 50% of beginning teachers leave the profession annually.

Research supports the need for teacher induction programs for beginning teachers; however, there are no empirical similarities among states as some offer intense supports while others offer little to no induction for beginning teachers, mentors, and principals who often need mentoring themselves to effectively support their teachers. Gaps in the literature point to limited research about teacher induction programs' impact on beginning teachers' perceptions. Still, less quantitative studies exist that include beginning teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their teacher induction programs

and the impact of their school principal on their decision to remain, transfer to another school (or district), or leave the profession.

Teacher Induction Programs have the potential to become more effective on teacher retention when the principal plays a vital role in the program's development and growth.

Teacher induction programs that share mutual perceptions—from both the principals' and beginning teachers' perspectives—of effective structures and framework, also show a reduction in attrition and an increase in student achievement. With current legislative climates of high stakes accountability, having Teacher Induction Programs that foster beginning teachers' perspectives will develop problem-solving environments, and create discussions for advancing research on improving them.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review focuses on beginning teachers' perceptions of factors that impact their decision to remain at their current school, transfer to another school within their district, or leave the profession. Factors that received close examination included job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, lateral/non-lateral status, mentoring, and the extent to which beginning teachers believe their teacher induction program contributed to their retention intention decision.

Attrition is costly to well-funded, populous school districts where it is less problematic to attract qualified teachers. However, rural communities face tougher challenges as they compete with larger districts for salary, preferential job placement (based on teachers' preference), and higher student achievement. This study seeks to assist educational leaders in developing their existing training and induction programs in a rural Georgia school system where teacher attrition has a greater impact than in metropolitan and suburban areas.

The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), *A Nation at Risk*, suggested that if the U.S. was to have a vibrant democracy, it must increase the academic achievement levels of the vast majority of its students. To further support their claim, the Carnegie Foundation (1986) urged the nation to address the declining supply of its most well-educated teachers and increase minority educators by strengthening current education preparation programs, restructuring salary to fairly and comparatively compensate teachers with salaries offered by corporations, use lead teachers to support developing teachers, and mobilize minority students for future teaching careers.

Beginning Teacher Attrition

Attrition has been a topic of important research within education for decades, and an abundance of research supports the fact that first-year teaching can be fraught with difficulties for even the most capable pre-service graduates entering the workforce as beginning teachers (Andrews, Bartell, & Richmond, 2016; Botha & Reddy, 2011; Carter, 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Since the 1970s, the considerable expansion of the teaching workforce has been accompanied by increased beginning teacher turnover for reasons such as low salaries, marital status (married women were more likely to leave than single women, and men were more likely to receive promotions into leadership than women), educational attainment level, and professional isolation (USDOE, 2016).

Earlier studies revealed that attrition impacted the level of funding school and district leaders allocated to programs and determined which ones would receive greater attention. Programs designed for beginning teacher's professional development and induction were often cut first which created unstable school climates and poor student achievement outcomes (Huling-Austin, 1985, 1988; Ingersoll, 2001; Wood & Stanulis, 2009). However, little research exists on beginning teachers' lesser known reasons for attrition such as teachers who switched from one subject to another (e.g., special education to mathematics) and who switched to a different career within education (e.g., from a teaching position to an administrative position). McCann, Zuflacht, and Gilbert (2015) reported that half of the beginning teachers who leave the profession comprise the top 20% of the most effective teachers in terms of student achievement, costing the nation an estimated \$7.3 billion. However, more importantly, failure to retain them costs students. The report by McCann et al. (2015) found students with an effective teacher are

more likely to make more money over the length of their career, graduate from college, save for retirement, live in better neighborhoods, and not become pregnant as teens.

However, the results of the 2012-13 Teacher Follow-up Questionnaire (TFS) revealed annual attrition rates for teachers nationwide was 13.8% (8.1% movers; 7.7% leavers), a total of 531,300 who moved to another school or district or left the profession altogether. Common throughout the literature was a lack of quantitative data of beginning teachers' perceptions of attrition factors in rural communities and how these decisions to remain, transfer, or leave impacts students, peers, and the overall success of the school climate and district. While many of these beginning teachers go on to further their career and develop their professional expertise elsewhere, the principal and school district leaders are left with financial loss in training and development, low school morale and heavier workloads until replacements are hired, and a culture of job climate instability.

According to Schwab (2015), the world is emerging from the worst economic and financial crisis in the past 80 years. Since the economic recession in 2008, the Executive Office of the President (2012) estimated that 300,000 education jobs have been lost primarily due to budget cuts and layoffs and further concluded that by 2012-13, school districts would face a shortened school year, shortened school week, increased number of students per teacher, and cuts to preschool and kindergarten programs. As a result of the cuts taken between 2008 and 2010, the Executive Office of the President (2012) reported that the average student-teacher ratio increased by 4.6%, reversing nearly a decade of gains since 2000. Their report also clarified, through an updated analysis, that the student-teacher ratio was higher because it included teachers for students with disabilities

and other special teachers who were excluded in class counts (Executive Office of the President, 2012).

The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2014) found public schools nationally employed 250,000 less people than before the recession of 2008–09; however, enrollment had increased by 800,000 and class sizes in many schools were at record highs. Increased class size impacts student achievement since students in smaller classes perform better in all subjects and on assessments compared to their peers in larger classes (NCTE, 2014). Additionally, the United States' global rankings increased to three (previously five) in several education quality indicators, making student success critical in producing future leaders who can compete for the United States' economic sustainability.

Federal Legislation – ESEA, No Child Left Behind

Decisions by state and federal leaders continue to play a large part in developing educational policy in the United States. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 was a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) of 1965 with the goal of ensuring “that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments” (United States Department of Education, 2015).

The NCLB was enacted to close achievement gaps in mathematics and literacy (reading and comprehension) and demanded that students be taught by highly qualified teachers with bachelor's degrees, state certification, and demonstrated knowledge in their subjects of hire. However, NCLB was only the second educational reform effort in the

U.S.—leaving opportunity to improve—and, despite its policy and leadership efforts, it did not entirely address student achievement.

Under President Obama's Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015), another reauthorization of ESEA, states were given greater authority and flexibility in finding solutions to problems in their schools. With firsthand knowledge of current conditions, local leaders could offer recommendations to the federal government based on their assessment of factors that impacted student achievement and teacher learning. Elgart (2016) argued that one way to focus on continuous growth and commitment is to build the morale of students, teachers, and staff and to focus on root causes of problems, not just outcomes. Additionally, Elgart (2016) suggested educators should have deep conversations about how they will recruit, induct, support, and retain teachers, and how they will provide them with opportunities for professional development and growth, although these programs are often the first to be cut in school districts.

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (2015), teachers are the most significant, yet costly, resource in schools and have the greatest impact on student achievement. Yet school systems are losing teachers, primarily beginning teachers, in record numbers. The Beginning Teachers Longitudinal Study 2011-12 (Gray & Taie, 2015)—the most current study of beginning teacher attrition—examined attrition of public school teachers with between one and 3 years' experience and found 89% of beginning teachers with a first-year base salary of \$40,000 or higher were still teaching compared to 8% of beginning teachers with a first-year base salary less than \$40,000. Subsequently, in the latest TFS conducted in 2011-12, Gray and Taie (2015) reported that 86% of beginning teachers with an assigned mentor remained in the profession compared

to 71% who were not assigned a mentor. There were no differences in retention among teachers by gender, race, or educational attainment with a bachelor's degree compared to a master's degree or higher, and teachers with less than 10 years' experience comprised 45% of the overall teaching workforce (McCann et al., 2015). In order for educational leaders to retain the most highly-qualified teachers (certified in the subject they teach) and the most experienced (3 or more years), they will need to consistently employ strategies to recruit and retain them (Amos, 2014; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2015).

Lateral Entry

Lateral entry is one method used to recruit, prepare, and license individuals who seek entry into the teaching profession (www.dpi.state.nc.us/licensure/lateral, 2016). Traditionally, prospective teachers already have a bachelor's degree or higher, and lateral entry is an alternate, often quicker, route to teaching than what is offered through traditional teaching residency programs in colleges and universities. In North Carolina, potential candidates may hold a degree in education or another field of study and may accept a teaching position while they obtain a professional educator's license, preferably in the individual's area of academic study (www.dpi.state.nc.us/licensure/lateral, 2016). In North Carolina, lateral entry applicants must hold a college degree with relevant course work in the subject desired and pass licensure exams such as Praxis, Pearson, and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language/ACTFL. Individuals must be first employed by a North Carolina public school that will request the lateral entry on behalf of the teacher applicant ([www.dpi.state.nc.us/docs/licensure/lateral entry](http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/docs/licensure/lateral%20entry), 2016). Upon receipt of a lateral entry license, further requirements will be outlined and must be

satisfied within three years in order to qualify for a clear, Standard Professional I or II license. Additional requirements include a GPA of at least 2.5, 5 years' experience considered relevant by the employing lead education agency, SAT scores of 1100 or a total ACT score of 24 or higher (www.dpi.state.nc.us).

Approximately one-third of today's teachers have worked in a career field other than teaching, and although varying pre-qualifications exist, states such as North Carolina, California, New Jersey, and Texas have pursued alternative entry programs since the 1980s in their efforts to attract a larger pool of teacher candidates (Zhang & Zeller, 2016). Examples of such programs are Teach for America (TFA), Professional Development Schools, Alternative Certification for Teaching (ACT), Teacher Alternative Preparation Program (TAPP), and the New Teacher Project's (TNTP) Teaching Fellows program, an alternate, faster route to the classroom after an 8-week summer program. To support the credibility of these programs, National Council of Educational Statistics (Aud, Kussar, & Johnson, 2012) found 14.6% of teachers leading classrooms entered through an alternate pathway, and further stated they felt highly competent in teaching. Demographic statistics from NCES, (2012) showed that teachers entering through alternate teaching routes, 70% were older than age 30, 38% were male, 30% were non-white, and 46% were teaching in a large city. Nearly half of the individuals who entered teaching through alternate routes were working in a non-education occupation the year prior to entering an alternate route program.

According to Alternative Teaching Certification (2016), an estimated 250,000 teachers entered the teaching profession nationwide in 2015 through alternative certification programs. Moreover, men, minorities (non-white), mature, and educated

professionals have become K-12 teachers as a result of alternative programs. Nearly half the individuals who became teachers through alternate routes, approximately 125,000 participants, stated they would not have entered the teaching field if these options were not available. However, less teacher candidates applied in core subjects (science, math, special education) or to teach in rural school districts where issues in staffing and retention can be most impacted by beginning teacher attrition (Curtin, Schweitzer, Tuxbury, & D'Aoust, 2016).

According to the Georgia Professional Standards Commission (GaPSC, 2016), prospective teachers seeking an alternative entry to teaching in Georgia must: (a) first pick a grade level (birth to kindergarten, early childhood, middle grades, secondary, or P-12), (b) then choose the subject area in which they want to teach, such as language arts, math, reading, science, social studies, or special education, and (c) enter the profession by enrolling in a college or university program, (d) then seek employment, or (e) qualify for a non-renewable certificate, seek employment, and complete certification within one year or as approved by his or her local school district. Once prospective teachers meet these requirements, they may apply for teaching positions in Georgia schools. In order to convert to a non-renewable certificate, all requirements from a state-approved educator preparation program/Georgia Teaching Approved Preparation Program or a traditional university program must be met (GaPSC, 2016). Although data on retention factors of these programs are varied and inconclusive, after initial employment, lateral-entry teachers reportedly felt more prepared than non-lateral entry teachers to meet the demanding workload (Zhang & Zeller, 2016).

Non-Lateral Entry

Non-Lateral entry is provided via traditional pre-service programs which education programs offered at colleges or universities where, upon completion of a bachelor's degree from an accredited college/university, the prospective teacher must pass the state-specific exams in the preferred content area or specific courses as outlined by the college or university. Additionally, applicants must apply for certification and pass clearance exams (fingerprint and medical screenings) prior to full-time employment (Zhang & Zeller, 2016; www.dpi.state.nc.us, 2016). Despite varying program components, limited studies have shown differences between retention factors for lateral and non-lateral beginning teachers. Although lateral entry programs continue to gain the support of educational leaders, the vast majority of applicants enter the profession through traditional residency programs. Additionally, Teacher Residency Programs are gaining recognition for offering solutions to staffing challenges and retaining teachers to work in high needs schools. In teacher residency programs, through integration between colleges, universities, and school systems, prospective teachers can earn a master's degree while participating in a residency program where they are supervised for a minimum of one year and offered incentives such as financial aid, a salary, and full certification in return for commitment to 3 years' continuous employment in a high needs school before becoming a teacher of record (Gray & Taie, 2015).

Rural Communities

Teachers who transfer from their current school often transfer into schools where there are less minorities—mainly African American and Hispanic students—and less economically disadvantaged students to schools with higher student achievement (Gray

& Taie, 2015). School leaders are challenged with hiring and maintaining highly-qualified teachers in critical needs areas such as reading, mathematics, and special education, and in rural locations with high poverty. Disadvantaged students are only 50% likely to be taught by math and science teachers who are licensed in the field they teach, and high-poverty schools experience an additional 20% turnover in teacher attrition (Haynes, 2014). In rural communities, leaders face the challenge of equitable teacher distribution among challenging schools with different student compositions. The *'Teaching and Learning International Questionnaire'* (2013) found that teachers with weaker qualifications are more likely to teach at disadvantaged schools further impacting students' educational outcomes and opportunities. TALIS (2013) identified the characteristics of challenging classroom environments as follows:

- 10% or more of students speak a native language different from the teacher;
- 10% of students have special education needs; and,
- 30% of students are from low socio-economic backgrounds.

Amos (2014) found that between 2001 and 2005, school-age children between ages 5 and 17 who spoke a language other than English at home more than doubled, from 4.7 million students (roughly 10 %) to 11.2 million (21%). With the alarming rates of beginning and experienced teachers exiting the profession, Amos (2014) predicted school leaders will be forced to hire teachers who do not have the skills, credentials, and/or pedagogy necessary to improve student achievement and rigor.

A significant sector of the American workforce known as *Baby Boomers* comprise 50% of the nation's educators and are reaching retirement age, making the issue of teacher retention more crucial as leaders struggle to fill these vacant positions (Pucella,

2014). In the U.S., the number of public school teachers increased 23% % between 1995 and 2008, a period of 13 years; however, according to Hussar and Bailey (2011), the projected number of public school teachers will only increase by 7% between 2008 and 2020, making this decline in available teachers more likely to increase the student-teacher ratio and further impact student achievement.

Theoretical Framework

Andragogy, or the study of adult learning, by Malcolm Knowles, provides the theoretical framework for this study. The term ‘andragogy’ was first authored by German high school teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833 (Henschke, 2011). Another German, Rosenstock-Huessy (1925) used the term in 1918, after World War I, to help German adults rebuild their country. Lindeman (1926) introduced the term in the U.S., but did not develop it into theory. However, it was not until Malcolm Knowles (1970) developed it into theory did it become the theory that is used to today in a wide spectrum of settings: higher education, corporate, business, healthcare, religious education, and elementary and secondary remedial education (Henschke, 2011). Since 1970, multiple researchers have provided research and scholarly methods in the teaching of adults (Knowles, 1970; Merriam, 2001; Henschke, 1989; Poggeler, 1994). Knowles’ (1970) five assumptions in the study of adult learning are:

1. The adult learner can direct his or her own learning.
2. The adult learner has a large amount of life-experiences that enrich learning.
3. The adult learner has specific learning needs that are tied to changing social roles.
4. The adult learner tends to be problem-focused and seeks immediate solutions.

5. The adult learner is motivated by internal rather than external factors.

Different from pedagogy, the art and science of teaching youth, the andragogical model is a process model where the teacher is a facilitator and consultant who guides the adult learner to draw on life-experiences within collaborative learning communities that encourages dialogue and provides reflection and clarification opportunities as the learner grows into his or her knowledge (Knowles, 1976, King & Lawler, 2003, Holton, & Swanson, 2015). Moreover, adult learning theory prepares the learner by creating a climate conducive to learning by offering a mutual mechanism for planning (collaboration), diagnoses the needs of the learner (assessment), and formulating activities for future growth and development by both the leader and teacher (reflection). By doing so, the goal is to establish a clear pattern of learning experiences to which knowledge of suitable materials and techniques are used for evaluating outcomes (reflection and future recommendations).

Pratt (1993) explains that andragogy is “based on five humanistic values including placing the individual at the center of education, believing in the goodness and potency of each person, in each person’s potential to grow toward self-actualization, and in autonomy and self-direction as signposts to adulthood” (p. 21). As in historical teachers of adults (e.g., Confucius, Aristotle, Jesus in biblical times), facilitators lead learners into dialogue that establishes future patterns for norms and methods that work for adults (Henschke, 2007). Houle (1996), in talking about Knowles’ work in andragogy, concluded that even leaders who guide learning chiefly in terms of the subject matter, know they must involve learners in as many aspects of their education as possible in a climate they can learn best. Rachal (2002) supported this claim with empirical evidence

by identifying how future empirical studies on andragogy can be identified and implemented within collaborative environments such as Teacher Induction Programs. As such, Induction Programs should be learner-focused instruction, offer differentiation to its program components, be transformative in its approach, and ultimately, support beginning teacher's retention intention commitment to their career (Darling & Hammond, 2003). With appropriate support in place (mentoring, leadership support, comprehensive induction), beginning teachers may report higher levels of job satisfaction and professional commitment during their first years of service, resulting in a decline in teacher attrition.

Knowles (1976) developed the five characteristics as follows:

1. Self-concept. As a person matures, he/she transitions from one of dependent learner to a self-directed learner. Therefore, adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.
2. Experience. As a person matures, he/she accumulates a reservoir of experiences and increasing resources for learning. Experiences, included making mistakes, but provide the basis for learning activities.
3. Readiness to learn. As a person matures, he/she becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his/her social roles.
4. Orientation to learning. As a person matures, his/her perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application; thus, learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to problem centeredness.
5. Motivation to learn. As a person matures, he/she is motivated by both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. While adults are responsive to some

external motivators, such as better career opportunities and promotions, most motivation is due, in part, from internal pressures such as the desire for increased job satisfaction and self-esteem.

In contrast to children's subject-centered orientation to learning, adults are life-centered in their learning. To this extent, educational leaders should design their beginning teacher programs around problem-centeredness tasks (rather than content-oriented tasks) to address the needs of the adult learner. When describing the needs of adult learners, Knowles (1975) explained, "their richest resource for learning is the analysis of their own experience . . . they become ready to learn as they experience the need to learn . . . their orientation toward learning is one of concern for immediate application" (p. 87).

Yet, despite the theoretical implications of the 'Andragogical Model', Knowles (1984) stated the challenges of being a self-directing learner based on previous learning experiences: For even though adults may be totally self-directing in every other aspect of their lives – as workers, spouses, parents, citizens, leisure-time users — the minute they walk into a situation labeled "education," "training," or any of their synonyms, they hark back to their conditioning in school, assume the role of dependency, and demand to be taught (p. 199). Henschke (2011) suggested that future collaboration and dialogue in adult learning settings should go beyond Knowles' version to gain broader perspectives of others and develops a pathway for enhanced methodology and more empirical studies.

Beginning Teachers' Perspectives of Retention Factors

TALIS (2013) found that two-thirds (66%) of beginning teachers perceived teaching was not valued as a status career. Symeonidis (2015) found beginning teacher's perceptions of "status" (p. 10) were related to aspects of quality education and socio-cultural and economic contexts, job security, salaries, working conditions, teachers' professional development, representation of the teaching profession, professional autonomy, social dialogue, and involvement in decision-making. According to TALIS (2013), beginning teachers' perceptions alone could be a predictor of higher attrition rates in the next ten years. Once praised as a valued profession within society, TALIS (2013) found beginning teachers did not feel they were important upon career entry and planned to seek careers that gave them self-satisfaction and fulfillment. Additionally, TALIS (2013) found that beginning teachers' perceptions of the associated hardships of a fluctuating economy, high educational costs, and repayment of student loans, along with avoiding life-long poor career decisions, were notable concerns in their plans for future employment. Many beginning or prospective teachers find out early in their career that the pathway to obtaining highly-qualified status and/or completing certification is a complicated and daunting task. These negative perceptions, mixed with their beliefs that their in-service programs do not adequately prepare them for a full-time workload, cause many beginning teachers to exit the profession entirely.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011) found beginning teacher induction to result in positive gains on three outcomes: teacher commitment and retention, teacher classroom instructional practices, and student achievement. These outcomes resulted in overall job satisfaction and lower attrition rates.

Amos (2014) noted that too many students enter colleges and universities unprepared to meet the high demands and rigorous academic programs, resulting in half of all students needing remedial course work and low graduation rates—around 72% overall— (with minority students closer to 50%). Of the students who receive low pre-qualification scores in college and university assessments to determine their prior knowledge of the content, many are placed in remedial or prerequisite courses. This potentially jeopardizes their chances of graduating since many students who begin college in remedial classes are less likely to graduate, have less jobs available, have lower incomes than their peers who graduate in 4 years, and are more likely to suffer from poverty (Amos, 2012). If school leaders are to improve performance of their students, they must focus on recruiting and retaining competent teachers who want to work as teachers and who understand and accept the demographic components and challenges their students encounter (OECD, 2015). In order for the teaching profession to regain the confidence of society, education professionals must quickly adapt to education’s fast-changing pace with the skills, knowledge, and training necessary to meet the demands of the future. Restoring confidence in the educational system means retaining effective teachers (from the first day of employment) and providing them with opportunities and incentives that encourage high performance (OECD, 2015).

Teacher Induction Programs

Teacher induction programs arose in the late 1970s and early 1980s to address attrition and respond to the needs of beginning teachers early in their school orientation and career. Amos (2014) noted that the culture of high-performance standards and how teachers are supported from day one must change. Further, Ingersoll and Strong’s (2011)

earlier research suggested more structured training specific to beginning teachers' needs as incentives to attract and develop them. Similar to professional learning communities (PLCs), induction programs offer professional collaboration among teachers; however, they differ from PLCs as their duration is usually one year or less. They also differ from PLCs in that they pair a beginning teacher with a mentor. PLCs traditionally do not have assigned mentors and focus on group collaboration. Further, induction programs are different from training received in pre-service programs in that orientation in induction programs is shorter in duration and is guided by an onsite peer mentor (Franklin & Molina, 2012).

Adoniou (2013) suggested that the quality of many current induction program models has failed to keep pace with student diversity and learning in the actual classroom setting and have focused on theoretical concepts, not mirrored in daily interactions with students and peers, such as diversity and poverty. Amos (2014) questioned whether induction programs can simultaneously improve teachers' pedagogy and engage higher-order inquiry in students. Amos (2014) concluded that induction programs that are not part of a systemic approach to professional development, may be insufficient to reduce the attrition rate of beginning teachers.

As teacher induction programs continue to gain recognition at federal, state, and local levels, leaders will continue to work to implement them as part of their district initiative to acculturate teachers and increase the likelihood that competent, highly-skilled teaching professionals will remain in the profession (Franklin & Molina, 2012). However, the goal is not indoctrination of teachers, but rather development of teachers who can contribute to the personal educational practices of the school community.

Furthermore, induction is more than a brief introduction into the school or district. It should offer continuous assistance to beginning teachers beyond annual pay, activities to develop knowledge of school culture, and recognition for leadership in students' extra-curricular activities.

In many cases, however, teacher induction programs are one-size-fits-all programs that do not meet the needs of the beginning teacher but are implemented with the primary purpose to help ease the shock they may experience moving into the system, assist with enculturation, and optimize socialization (Nassur-Abu & Fresko, 2016; Kelly, Reushle, Chakrabarty & Kinnane, 2014). Programs vary in duration, program components, funding, operation, target population, intensity, and comprehensiveness. Beginning teacher induction programs can be as formal as face-to-face services, workshops, on-site supervision, and course-specific assistance and as informal as mentor-mentee correspondence through email, shared online access to professional development websites, newsletters, and brief conversations in the hallway (Franklin & Molina, 2012; Maxwell, 2014).

While researchers note mentoring as one of the most common components of induction, research findings indicated that several other components make induction successful, such as orientation, written materials, reduced workloads, classroom observation, workshops, and seminars (Nassur-Abu & Fresko, 2016). Orientation that includes a map of the school (e.g. copier area, restrooms, and meeting locations) offered before school begins or within the first day was more important to beginning teachers than when offered after the first few weeks of the school year. Also, the type and intensity of induction received play a critical role in beginning teachers' decisions to

remain or leave the profession. Nassur-Abu and Fresko (2016) found participants in teacher induction programs reported greater benefits in the emotional domain of improving self-confidence, coping with frustration, and coping with discipline problems; however, participants felt the least contribution of their teacher induction program was familiarity with school rules and assimilation as a member of the school team. To improve the mindset of some beginning teachers perceived incompetence or lack of confidence, educational leaders should develop workshops and seminars that involve team building activities that strengthen partnerships among colleagues. Researchers found beginning teachers favored extending the duration of their induction program past one year and extensive mentor support as well as mentors paired by subject level who would offer pedagogic-specific assistance. Content-specific mentor matching was preferred over grade-level mentor matching in that beginning teachers' believed grade-level support provided less assistance (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Nassur-Abu & Fresko, 2016).

OECD (2015) suggested the increased challenges many educational leaders face is due to the limited funding and resources they are allotted for teacher induction programs and professional development. However, principals should understand that the qualities they expect from future leaders are the same as what they should provide within the components of an effective teacher induction program (Paris, 2013).

Mentoring

Pucella (2014) argued for educational leaders to incorporate beginning teachers' perceptions into their induction program and develop beginning teachers' pedagogy as future leaders, mentoring must be incorporated as a key role. Pucella (2014) contended

further that beginning teachers offer a wealth of knowledge, energy, insight, and enthusiasm that others may not have and their perceptions of school leadership impact implementation of major initiatives in school reform and evaluation (Pucella, 2014; Goldrick, 2016). By incorporating beginning teachers' perceptions (many with relevant knowledge of researched-based practicum) into their teacher induction, the induction leader and mentor can build closer relationships with beginning teachers, establish generally accepted roles and responsibilities, and subsequently develop future leaders through beginning teachers' guidance through the processes of accountability, assessment, behavior, and organizational development. Without the support of the vision and mission by school leaders, effective policies and procedures, recruitment, mentors, and decision-making skills will be limited (Goldrick, 2016).

While data varies about the impact mentoring has on beginning teachers' retention, mentors play a determinative role in the effectiveness of teacher induction programs. According to Paris (2013) and Ingersoll and Strong (2012), beginning teachers' decisions to transfer out of low-income schools were linked to how well they were supported by well-matched mentors, valuable induction, and curriculum guidance. However, in many states across the U.S., there is limited program accountability and accreditation for mentors as well as limited evaluation, questionnaires, site visits, self-reports, and other relevant tools and strategies to offer constructive feedback to mentors. Mentors are key contributors to shaping future leaders and determining how beginning teachers perceive workload support. Many beginning teachers prefer mentor feedback through observations and discussions of topics that affect them, shared information, and shared responsibility.

TALIS (2013) reported that with supportive mentors and principals, beginning teachers were willing to engage in discussions, support decisions, and admit mistakes; however, they were less likely to lead discussions or volunteer for leadership roles in general. As it pertains to developing beginning teachers for future leadership roles, Pucella (2014) raised the concern that many beginning teachers do not see themselves in key administrative positions without formal training and self-confidence because they often lack familiarity with the roles and responsibilities of leaders. They do not see that leaders face many of the same demands faced by teachers, such as pressure to increase student achievement, improve teacher pedagogy, and build better community, parent, and student interactions. Therefore, it may not be that beginning teachers do not want to lead, but rather they are unaware of their importance or contributions in the school in addition to not knowing the roles leaders have in their development and often leaders' intent to help beginning teachers develop into this role.

In some programs in Georgia, such as Georgia TAPP, mentors are required to spend up to 75 hours per year with beginning teachers. By incorporating common planning to help build mentor-mentee relationships and allow for this much time spent, leaders should be better equipped to shape the professional paradigm of the school climate and organizational structure (www.griffinresa.net). Problematic for a beginning teacher is that if beginning teachers are employed in a rural district after the school year begins and/or if there is limited program funding, beginning teachers risk not having an assigned mentor or receiving induction. Schools that do not provide induction fail to address specific needs of beginning teachers and risk principal misconduct (failure to offer guidance, conduct fair evaluations, and make unfair comparisons among peers) that

can lead to low morale, stress, perceived incompetence, and higher attrition rates. TALIS (2013) found that taking part in a formal induction program was an important predictor of teacher participation in professional development in later years and better prepares them to serve as mentors. Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn (2012) found that principals reported that induction programs were only available to less than half of their new teachers during their first year of full-time employment. However, TALIS (2013) found teachers who reported higher participation levels in teacher induction also reported higher levels of support from their principal.

The key is to make teacher induction programs more closely connected to beginning teacher experiences in both theory and practice. With regard to understanding teacher induction, Adoniou (2013) suggested that the responsibility to educate, enculturate, and train beginning teachers needs to shift from higher education to local school districts where the focus is on fast-track school-based approaches to skills development in teachers in a reality-based classroom setting. Some governments in the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia have already begun this process (Adoniou, 2013).

Other concerns among beginning teachers include the need for professional development in teaching students with disabilities and developing instructional technology skills necessary for teaching—critical areas in today's leadership expectations (Paris, 2013). However, some of the most common reported reasons teachers do not participate in induction programs were heavy workloads and schedules, covering classes for absent colleagues (with no substitutes), absenteeism, and lack of incentives for participation (TALIS, 2013).

The New Teacher Center's (NTC) Induction Model has been implemented in more than 40 states and U.S. territories (Goldrick 2016; Goldrick et al., 2012). NTC has partnered with states and school districts, mainly in hard-to-staff school districts, to provide tailored mentoring based on the needs of beginning teachers who may have inadequate access to induction because of their location in areas with insufficient funding or resources and with high concentrations of poor and minority residents. When support measures increase, attrition rates for beginning teachers decline and student achievement and performance increase. Goldrick et al., (2012) recommended that a comprehensive induction program include:

- A mentor in the same field;
- Regular communication with the beginning teacher's principal;
- Creating norms for a more organized rational approach to quality induction;
- Ongoing evaluations using multiple measures such as observations, guided practice lesson planning, and beginning teacher feedback;
- Coherent systems such as building longitudinal systems to link teachers and k-12 student learning outcomes;
- Entry-level licensure, extending the length of entry level licensures to a minimum of 2 years along with feedback by well-trained mentors as a requirement for licensure;
- Analysis of teaching and learning conditions using data from validated questionnaires to identify and improve key elements of a positive school environment; and,

- Staff selection and professional growth systems that foster collegial collaboration with structured collaborative learning with peers focused on addressing problems of practice.
- The key to helping beginning teachers improve their practice and to slowing the revolving door of teacher turnover is to support policies and funding that provide a comprehensive induction experience for every new teacher and induction experiences that are tailored specifically to individual needs and school/district/state circumstances. NEA (2014) supported the following:
 - Instituting formal systems of comprehensive teacher induction for at least the first two years of teaching, under the supervision of experienced and/or accomplished teacher-mentors; creating incentive grants to districts to develop peer assistance programs that focus on improvement of staff knowledge and skills;
 - Providing new teachers with a reduced course load and/or less demanding classroom/school assignments that permit them to participate in organized professional development, induction activities, and planning during the school day;
 - Regularly assessing new teachers' classroom performance and basing their professional learning directly on the results of this assessment;
 - Increasing training, accountability, and support for school principals, particularly in schools/districts with high teacher turnover; and,
 - Implementing policies and providing funding to improve significantly the teaching and learning conditions in schools/districts with high teacher

turnover. These conditions include class size, physical infrastructure, teacher input into school policies, and school safety.

Among pre-service college professors and leaders who provide mentoring after college to beginning teachers, Franklin and Molina (2012) found the belief that pre-service leaders can mentor is more philosophical than realistic. These leaders face challenges similar to in-service leaders in that their time is dominated by classroom teaching, student advising, and making off-campus visits. A school visit to see a mentee that purports to take 10% of a professor/mentor's time, may realistically consume 25%-30% of their time and availability, and where each year the same (or similar) responsibilities fall on the same few faculty members. Also, because university students may be employed in districts well outside budgetary restrictions (e.g. outside the state), mentoring and travel are problematic (Franklin & Molina, 2012). Sanctioned time for mentors and implementation is where many schools struggle.

Quality induction programs adopt and measure standards by which beginning teachers can be held accountable in a fair and consistent manner (Elliot, 2015). Teacher quality is the single most important variable influencing student achievement. When used for accountability, instructional improvement, and an organization's goals, teacher appraisal can be a key component of improving teacher quality. Likewise, one component of teacher appraisal is to determine teachers' perceptions of their practice and to examine levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and how to best produce beginning teachers as leaders (Elliot, 2015).

Leadership Support

Leaders must become more interactive in describing the work that is done in these programs with beginning teachers to enhance their own leadership skills. These skills can, in turn, offer something that many in-service teachers do not—a belief early in their career that they have some training in the art of leadership—empowering them to take the induction phase of a long-term career decision. Teachers leave before becoming effective. Based on Ingersoll (2011), the key is having a quality induction that focuses on data with the goal to improve instruction. The main point the researchers use to develop such programs is there is no one-size-fits-all program. Leaders must contextualize and customize to meet specific needs. However, they must make effort to ensure that district goals are aligned and released, involve all stakeholders such as parents and the community, offer a two-year mentoring program that advances student learning, and develops mentors by conducting rigorous recruitment with specific selection criteria. High-quality mentoring and professional development shifts from training students to coaching adults.

An effective principal has a clear vision and is an effective manager of people in areas of instruction, use of data, decision-making, and diversity. Theoretical constructs offer little acknowledgment on how widespread the role of leadership is on beginning teachers' perceptions. "Educational leadership" is a term used to describe the work of principals and leaders (Pucella, 2014, p. 15) with principals now having a more wide-range of responsibilities than ever in managing human and material resources, planning curriculum, following regulations, and implementing goals (TALIS, 2013). The demands placed on them such as social diversity, the inclusion of students with special needs, and

retaining students and teachers, is a daunting task. They are often the connection between teachers, parents, communities, and students in carrying their missions and goals forth. However, the role of principals is not always well understood and there is a lack of empirical data on their role in student achievement (TALIS, 2013). Instead, TALIS (2013) found that leadership is linked to the existence of clarity in how well the principal establishes and sets goals and mission, their impact on overall school climate, and how well-organized the curriculum and instruction is.

With high-stakes testing and the climate of accountability, more distribution of leadership duties is placed on beginning teachers as leaders, thereby expanding leadership roles within schools. This is especially important if the principals expect to transform their schools into a highly-effective and productive climate, and increasingly realize the need to restructure their current organizational and mental model to include beginning teachers. Pucella (2014) also contended that leadership should take place as early as pre-service programs just as higher education programs almost always include a leadership component in its organizational structure and emphasize beginning teachers are not too young to have leadership roles and responsibilities in the early stages of their career. Many principals lack the training and experience needed to run their schools effectively. However, leaders have the potential to empower or discourage many beginning teachers to leave or remain in the profession (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Often, principals lack informational and empirical data to support the benefits of having a more comprehensive assessment of beginning teachers varied philosophical beliefs and educational backgrounds that might contribute to deeper conversations in unifying programs goals and expectations. To avoid professional isolation in beginning teachers, Hoaglund,

Birkenfeld, and Box (2015) suggested leaders should focus on the interaction between beginning teachers and mentors (to include building leadership), review of assessment data and building stronger professional learning connections in curriculum planning.

Goldrick (2014) found educators' perceptions of school leadership impacted the implementation of major initiatives in school reform and evaluations. Without the support of the vision and mission of schools, leaders will suffer in policies and procedures, recruitment, mentors, and decision-making skills. The Teaching, Empowerment, Leading, and Learning (TELL) Questionnaire (2014) revealed one of the strongest areas between leaders and beginning teachers were leadership opportunities within their schools.

However, they also noted this could develop as a result of not having enough experienced teachers, or enough teachers in general, to lead. They found that principals do not always support teachers' efforts to maintain discipline in the classroom and do not consistently enforce rules for student conduct. Decisions made today impact the next decade. District leaders will need to make serious and crucial decisions that will shape education policy for the future (Amos, 2014). Districts that fail to address issues with outdated curriculum and instruction will see continued failure and progress. The aim should be to think of beginning teachers as "educational designers" (Amos, 2014, p. 5) of the landmark of student's academic success for the wealth of energy, insight, and enthusiasm they offer.

As Range, McKim, Mette, and Hvidston (2015) described, the connection forms when beginning teachers see the leadership responsibilities of principals and educational policies, and start to take ownership of their contribution in their school's success or failure. Pucella (2014) described leadership responsibilities as participating in curriculum development, providing input for specific leadership training and mentoring other

teachers—new to the profession or experienced teachers by sharing theoretical concepts—often tied to knowledge that beginning teachers have who recently studied it in their pre-service program. However, the ultimate responsibility of the principal lies with the principal as Chief Executive Officer of the school.

Collaboration between the principal and beginning teacher creates a more orderly environment and can help alleviate traditional problems of classroom discipline, teaching practices, mentor selection, student course offerings, feedback to beginning teachers to proactively address problems, and parent and student accountability for learning outcomes (TALIS, 2013). However, principals' perceptions can vary regarding how to develop future leaders and in particular, how to recognize and develop leadership traits and skills in beginning teachers. TALIS (2013) found that an area of least agreement of beginning teachers was in collaborative efforts by the principal for making group decisions to solve problems. However, TALIS (2013) recommended in areas that require instructional decisions, teachers can play broader roles of staffing, budgeting, and professional development noting that in some cases, principals' limited rationale could be the lack of experience and mentorship they received in principal training and their leadership development. Paris (2013) found that in order to focus on leadership initiatives, one must first focus on the leader.

Just as beginning teachers need support, principals need support from principal supervisors and Superintendents. With time and more understanding of their building needs, they can potentially grow into supportive, concerned principals regarding the issues their beginning teachers experience (Amos, 2014). Since many beginning teachers and potential educators enter their careers without knowing what challenges principals

and principals undergo, they often lack the empathy, patience, and buy-in to invest in their careers.

Thirty-four states have passed accountability legislation for principals to effectively support beginning teachers (Jacques, Clifford, & Hornung, 2012). While there is federal, state, and local accountability in place for school systems, once a teacher is hired, principal support through in-building training and mentor assignment (if received at all) is different among schools—even in schools that expect systemic training among schools. In the state of Georgia, there is no mandatory training for principals or teachers according to the National Association of Elementary Principals (NAESP) and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (Range, et al., 2015). Wallace Foundation (2012) identified six domains of principal evaluation systems: 1) Professional growth and learning; 2) student growth and achievement; 3) school planning and progress; 4) school culture; 5) professional qualities and instructional leadership; 6) stakeholder support and engagement. They also noted five key practices of principals: shaping a vision, creating a positive climate, cultivating leadership, improving instruction, and managing for school improvement (Wallace Foundation, 2015). Principals perceived the performance of the superintendent as a critical factor in their evaluations. They perceived intrinsic attributes such as honesty, professionalism, and trust, but also wanted evaluation components such as clearly identified responsibilities, opportunities for professional growth and development in the form of mentoring, and measurable expectations for student achievement, and instructional leadership focuses with constant feedback—the same measures beginning teachers seek in their training and professional development.

Workload Pressure

Shaefer (2016) found beginning teachers, as a cohort, are more likely than their predecessors to treat teaching as a short-term career. They are less satisfied with professional isolation, standardized pay, undifferentiated roles, and the lack of opportunities for influence and advancement, and autonomy—often confirmed with reality and on-the-job practicum (Shafer, 2016). Prospective individuals interested in becoming teachers can be dissuaded from teaching due to inconsistent career path opportunities and ever-evolving changes to federal and state legislation that place more accountability for student achievement and their performance evaluation. If hired, many depart due to lack of input in decision making, heavier than expected workloads, inadequate leadership and support, and job dissatisfaction (Paris, 2013; Pucella, 2014).

Goldring et al. (2014) found that among public school teachers with 0-3 years' experience, 80 % stayed in their current school, while 20 % transferred or left teaching. Among the 20 % who transferred or left, about 51 % reported manageability of their work was better, and 53% who left reported better working conditions overall than in teaching. Ingersoll et al. (2014) suggested while most of these new hires were young and recent college graduates, a significant number were older yet inexperienced beginning teachers. For example, in 2011-12, one-third of new hires were age 29 or older, and a one-tenth were over 40—the phenomenon often referred to as "midcareer switching" (p. 11). And, although mid-career switching into teaching is not new, beginning teachers under 29 years old decreased from 43 % in the late 1980s to 30 % to 2011-12 (Ingersoll et al., 2014).

Teacher salary, once thought to be the primary determinant to attrition in the 1970's and 1980's, is currently one of the least cited reasons beginning teachers transfer or leave. Research continues to emerge that show while it is important, it is not significant in overall job satisfaction. Beginning teachers note factors such as a supportive principal, positive interactions with students and parents, and working conditions as more prevalent concerns (Shaefer, 2016). Although some districts continue to attempt to lure teachers with lucrative signing bonuses and extra pay, they do not appear to be retaining beginning teachers as attrition continues to be a national concern. However, to address the issues of salary for some, the NEA supports ensuring a \$40,000 minimum salary for all teachers in every school in this country; evaluating any proposed compensation system on whether it is designed to improve student learning through improved teacher practice rather than advancing short-term political goals; and, offer a comprehensive pay system to encourage the factors that make a difference in teaching and learning such as skills, knowledge, and experience.

Furthermore, NEA (2014) promotes creative ideas to enhance the single salary schedules, ensuring that criteria used to determine whether education employees receive additional compensation are clearly stated, subject to objective measurement, and related to the school district's educational objectives. Such ideas include incentives to attract caring and qualified teachers in hard-to-staff schools, for achievement in organizations such as National Board Certification, for teachers to mentor newer colleagues and group incentives that offer teachers the opportunity to gain greater autonomy and discretion in all school matters and improve professional practice and student learning. Additional incentives suggested were for accepting additional responsibilities such as peer assistance

or mentoring; pay for extended contract years, extended days, and extra assignments; pay for teachers for knowledge and skills gained that are directly related to the missions of their schools and/or their assignments; pay for teachers who have advanced credentials/degrees directly related to their teaching assignments and/or the missions of their schools, group or school-wide salary supplements/bonuses for improved student achievement.

Beginning teachers often feel undervalued (OECD, 2015). They enter the profession with a wealth of knowledge of current legislative and researched-based instructional strategies taught in their pre-service programs, but then to have their own pre-conceived ideas of their training and workload overlooked, can cause them feelings of isolation and job dissatisfaction (OECD, 2015). Beginning teachers are often unprepared for the harsh realities of a heavier than expected and inequitable distribution of students with disabilities and behavioral problems. Beginning teachers are generally expected to meet the same workload as their more experienced peers, but are unprepared to meet the demands of their non-teaching assignments such as morning and afternoon bus duty, monitoring hallways, covering other teacher's classrooms for absent colleagues during planning in lieu of substitutes, and challenging and overwhelming job placement/assignments than their more experienced peers. In rural areas, it can be problematic to find substitute teachers who will accept assignments in remote locations when urban districts offer more pay and a shorter drive time between school assignments.

Potentially impactful on workload are the expectations principals place on beginning teachers to sponsor students' extra-curricular interests in such activities as cheerleading, sports, prom, dances, debate clubs, and band. Sponsorship can also require

monitoring students' grades and behavior and supervising practice and events well past work hours and on weekends. If leaders are not understanding of the workload that beginning teachers have, they may have unrealistic expectations of what they can do. However, if beginning teachers perceive this lack of support they may not volunteer for these roles or positions and experience professional isolation from their peers and more job dissatisfaction (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Hoaglund, et al., 2015; Paris, 2013; Pucella, 2014). Not only can these factors impact job satisfaction, they can impact funding through lack of volunteers and sponsors who will lead them, create an instable school culture and poorer outcomes on student achievement, and loss of self-efficacy or feelings of inadequacy for the beginning teacher. TALIS (2013) found a non-linear relationship between time spent on teaching and activities in three main areas: preparing and conducting classes, preparing and conducting extra-curricular activities, and grading assignments. They concluded leaders should encourage new teachers to focus on activities that avoid isolation and focus on interaction with a review of assessment data, common planning for professional learning, and team decisions on planning curriculum instead of what is already planned. Beginning teachers can also work collaboratively on projects together such as presentations, subject-led discussions by content, and develop common assessments, rubrics for grading assessments, and lesson plans. However, beginning teachers should themselves be actively involved in policy development and implementation to feel a sense of ownership of reform.

Teacher participation in policy reform is limited. According to Hoaglund et al. (2015), PLCs should be framed with the model: What should students know; how did students demonstrate their knowledge; and how to respond when students demonstrate

trouble in learning. Ongoing discussions to improve, based on PLC rationale, allows candidates to review their peers as an essential resource in their practice forward. PLCs should be clinically based and align with district expectations to increase beginning teachers' skills and competencies that will prepare them for facing the demands of first year teaching. OECD (2014) suggested that in countries with teacher shortages, teachers' average salaries should be increased and more support teachers employed. However, in countries with an oversupply of teachers, instead of raising salaries, the focus should be on the additional spending to improve learning conditions (technology, classroom management training, and learning conditions). As economies and societies change, teachers are faced with increased expectations about their roles and responsibilities. For the teaching profession to retain the confidence in society at large, it must quickly adapt to its fast-changing pace with the skills, knowledge, and training necessary to cope with the future.

Questions arise among educational leaders on how to make teaching an attractive career choice. One option is to attempt to improve teachers' self-image of their work and importance as role models for students and build stronger connections between schools and the community and between parents and employers to enhance the status. By providing opportunities for teacher growth (observing classroom teaching styles, enhancing the image of teaching through media and marketing, asking teachers' own views regarding training and views on peer interaction and autonomy), and by promoting the positive benefits of teaching such as the impact of being community role models, can leaders effectively implement policies authentically and realistically with beginning teachers' perception at the forefront.

Teacher Autonomy

Autonomy, or the degree to which the responsibility for decision making teachers have collectively in the school-wide decisions that affect their jobs (Walker, 2016). Yet, autonomy can vary in perception and roles as it is possible for teachers to have autonomy in some areas and not others. For example, beginning teachers might have influence in establishing classroom discipline, lesson plans, and safe classrooms, but have little, if any, influence on the what content they will teach, curriculum pace, class size, and pay issues (TALIS, 2013).

Even the principal may be given the tasks of hiring and dismissal, handling pay issues (but not pay salaries, raises, or promotions), school budget, discipline, and assessment. However, they do not make decisions regarding which assessments are administered, what time frame in the school year they will be administered, and at what pace. TALIS (2013) found the higher levels of autonomy that teachers have (beginning or experienced) in their decision-making, the greater their ability to improve student learning outcomes and chances of being a future leader. TALIS results' (2013) recommended that autonomy was an area that countries could use improvement. They noted that teachers should be given more autonomy in the "right areas for the right reasons" (p. 51). For more clarification, policies that grant more autonomy without supportive leadership or accountability is not the answer. The basis for the skills needed to function within a collegial professional learning community must be developed through intentional, scaffolded experiences in an effort to overcome teacher isolation that leads to the attrition of first-year teachers.

Nasser et al. (2016) indicated that email was a preferred method of communication among beginning teachers and mentors when compared to face-to-face meetings that do not offer collaborative strategies to solve common problems that arise in content and grade level such as classroom management and learning the same curriculum. Email allowed quick access during instructional times and saved the time of physical meeting which allowed more time to do multiple tasks in between bell periods. When having to meet in person, beginning teachers preferred topics such as how to handle difficult parents as well as time management to support non-teaching duties that are common to all regardless of their school placement.

Virtual collaboration is designed to improve PLC's, knowledge of technology, communication, opportunities for innovation, professional expertise, and individual learning. DuFour and Reason (2016) found the problem with PLC's is they only address a common interest among some, but not all, educators, and most are ambiguous in leaders' attempt to form congenial relationships. Additionally, when someone else makes all the decisions regarding what is taught and when or how it is taught, teachers are removed from the fundamental premise of authentic induction and conflict is inevitable. However, DuFour and Reason (2016) suggested the biggest problem with induction is the view that it is part of the existing structure and culture of the building, rather than a way of restructuring the culture and working together. DuFour and Reason (2016) offered that many of these challenges can be avoided by putting all educators at the forefront of the learning environment. Virtual learning can reduce isolation as much as it can enhance it. Teachers who are the only one in the building teaching a particular subject as well as the only one on their hallway or who travel to different schools with reduced staffing can

benefit from ongoing and online professional development communities within the district or interstate and internationally.

According to the Seppanen and Gualtieri (2012), the millennial generation (born 1980-1999)—comprising the majority of beginning teacher ages (21-32)—are more educated than their predecessors, more likely to be entrepreneurs, and more technologically advanced, and more likely to make decisions regarding their careers that will shape or influence their lives, especially in environments with instability and in which they are dissatisfied (Seppanen & Gualtieri, 2012). Autonomy, for many of these beginning teachers is not a negative phrase, but an alternative means to communicate with corporate peers outside of education or fellow educators outside their school, and to receive open and honest dialogue, objective feedback, and professional learning.

Job Satisfaction

To some extent, levels of job satisfaction can be linked to self-efficacy, autonomy, and workload, depending on demographic characteristics of teachers' years of work experience (less than three years) and training received in content, pedagogy, and classroom practice of subjects taught. TALIS (2013) found there is a general upward trend in job satisfaction by experience in that teachers with more than 5 years of experience and less than 11 years of experience. However, their report revealed a slight stagnation for teachers with 11-20 years of experience, followed by an increase at 21-25 years of experience. The researchers interpreted there is a slight decrease in teachers' job satisfaction in the first 15 years of experience; thereafter, a positive association emerges of the more years of work experience as a teacher is linked to slightly higher job satisfaction. Although content, pedagogy, and classroom practices are linked to higher

job satisfaction, there is a smaller, but significant effect. The less teachers reported the inclusion of these three levels of training, the lower their levels of self-efficacy. In relation to the classroom environment, students can make a teachers' work more demanding as it applies to demographic composition (achievement levels, behavior, and special needs) and diversity (TALIS, 2013). Teaching students with special needs, especially those with behavioral and emotional problems, are more prone to lower job satisfaction and higher attrition.

Additionally, teachers' perceptions of school climate, leadership, and collaborative culture impact their levels of stress. Perceived stress surrounding heavy workloads, lack of support from principals on matters such as student discipline where beginning teachers do not feel their disciplinary suggestions for students are supported, manifest feelings of isolation, insecurity, and thwarted leadership aspirations. TALIS (2013) noted also, that while relationships with principals were important, teacher-teacher relationships and relationships with students increased job satisfaction and self-efficacy. What the questionnaire revealed was the quality of relationships with other teachers were most important to self-efficacy; however, relationships with students were more directly linked to job satisfaction.

Chapter Summary

Beginning teachers' perceptions of their training and induction matter. Their pre-service training provides them with a measure of pedagogical beliefs prior to entry that must be similar to their in-service program in some ways in order to reduce feelings of failure in either one. Not feeling supported from day one is a primary indicator of why many beginning teachers exit the profession with less than three years' experience and

why they feel isolated from their peers. Mentoring too plays a strong role in why beginning teachers often do not stay. While effective mentors who provide dedicated time with mentees for solutions to real scenarios in the classroom (discipline, parents communication, time management) and who are perceived as non-judgmental and supportive, positively impact retention; mentors who do not support, provide negative feedback, and have negative feelings associated with the school or its leaders, and do not feel supported themselves, can impact attrition rates negatively.

At the start of the 2014 school year, there were 204.5 full-time teacher equivalent (FTTE) vacancies in Georgia's state-integrated schools. Over the next decade, schools in the United States will need to hire many new teachers. Four factors will affect the recruitment of these teachers: a shrinking teaching force, a growing student population, lack of diversity among teachers to match the diversity of students, and a need for teachers in specific types of schools, geographic locations, and subject areas. However, critics argue retirement among Baby Boomers is not the problem and instead blame the issues in the way schools are organized, operated, and managed. Further, they contend that the real issues plaguing America's schools are not the costly and ineffective recruitment initiatives that do not help students, but the lack of pedagogical skills, diminished self-efficacy, and heavy workloads expected of beginning teachers.

What the research does not conclusively reveal is the factors that contribute to beginning teachers' decisions to remain at their current school or district, and what strategies educational leaders must employ to retain the most qualified beginning teachers. The purpose of this study was to explore—through beginning teacher perspectives—which factors (job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure,

leadership support, work experience, lateral/non-lateral status, induction, and mentoring) contribute to their decisions (retention intention) to remain at their current school and district. By asking beginning teachers' their perspectives on these factors as well as collaborating with them on effective ways to develop their Teacher Induction Programs, educational leaders start the process of building future leaders; thereby substantially reducing the costs associated with losing their best and most gifted teachers, and positively impacting students' achievement.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether beginning teachers' perceptions of their possible retention intention in teaching (intention to remain in their current school or district) is predicted by their level of job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, non-lateral status (traditional program entry to become a teacher; i.e., college or university program to become a teacher versus "lateral" status through an alternate program to become a teacher; i.e., TAPP, Teach for America), induction experience, and mentoring. Using a questionnaire instrument with open- and closed-ended Likert scale questions, data were collected from teachers who were classified as having full-time status in Chestine (a pseudonym) County, a rural school system in Georgia. It is the hope of the researcher that these findings will lead to increased inquiry into retention intention factors among beginning teachers in rural counties and contribute to discourse of how educational leaders can improve attrition in rural (and smaller) school districts and the students, stakeholders and communities they serve.

As such, the following questions guided this research:

1. Does retention intention differ between lateral and non-lateral teachers, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
2. Does retention intention differ between teachers who participated in an induction program and those who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?

3. Does retention intention differ between teachers who receive mentoring and teacher who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
4. Does retention intention differ between teachers with three years or less experience than teachers with more than three years' experience, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
5. Do differences in retention intention by lateral status, induction, mentoring, and teaching experience change when leadership support, job autonomy, job satisfaction, and workload pressure are statistically controlled?
6. Do any of the differences examined in question five vary between those with three years or less experience than those with more than three years' experience?

Research Design

This study utilized a quantitative, statistical, non-experimental design to collect, analyze, and interpret data, or variables, that might impact retention of beginning teachers (0-3 years of experience) in a rural county school system in Georgia. This design was appropriate because it allowed the use of a confidential questionnaire to support participant responses. The following variables were examined: retention intention, job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, lateral/non-lateral status, induction, mentoring, and years of teaching experience.

Population and Sample

The researcher chose a rural county in Georgia that consisted of approximately 1,448 teachers of whom approximately 204 were beginning teachers. The researcher chose this county after observing the impact attrition had to the school and district where

she was employed. All 1,448 teachers in the district were asked to participate in the study. The researcher sought to examine if there were differences in retention intention between teachers with three years or less experience and teachers with more than three years' experience. Participants were selected from 14 elementary schools, 5 middle schools, and 4 high schools. According to Creswell (2014), selecting study participants only from one designated area will limit generalizability since the study focuses only on beginning teachers in rural Georgia and may not be applicable to all regions throughout the U.S.

The researcher sought approval for the study through two institutional review boards: Georgia Southern University and the rural school district. However, the email addresses for teachers were a matter public record and were obtained via an email request addressed to the Human Resources' Department Representative at the researcher's school district. Ethical considerations and safeguards to protect participant privacy were employed. Upon approval of the IRB at Georgia Southern, the questionnaire was distributed to 1,448 employees. According to information currently obtained from the Human Resource Department Representative and corroborated by the Georgia Professional Standards Commission (GaPSC/www.gapsc.org) website, as of December 8, 2016, the district employed teachers with lateral and non-lateral qualifications and with provisional and professional certifications. Of the 1,448 teachers who were sent the questionnaire, 928 responded for a response rate of 64%.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire consisted of nine open-ended questions and 21 closed-ended questions based upon the literature that beginning teachers (with three years of

experience or less) leave the profession in record numbers, and what factors might contribute to improved teacher retention. The 21 questions were organized into five construct areas: retention intention, leadership support, job satisfaction, job autonomy, and workload pressure.

The questionnaire items for this study were drawn from two instruments. The first was designed by Hoyt, Howell, and Eggett (2007) using Herzberg's (1968) theoretical model of job satisfaction. Hoyt et al.'s (2007) instrument was developed to study job satisfaction of part-time teaching faculty in continuing higher education at Brigham Young University. Three variables in the current study were measured using items from Hoyt et al (2007): teachers' job satisfaction, leadership support, and teacher autonomy. These measures used a 6-point Likert scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 6 ("strongly agree"). Hoyt et al. (2007) explained that some items were negatively worded to control for "acquiescence" which is the tendency for participants in a study to agree with all items regardless of content (Spector, 1992, p. 12). Hoyt et al. (2007) pilot tested items and then administered the questionnaire to part-time faculty. Hoyt et al. then used factor analysis to assess the dimensions of these items and found adequate factor loadings (.70+) for each on overall satisfaction, job autonomy, and leadership support. Hoyt, Howell, and Eggett granted permission to revise the instrument (Appendix B) as described below.

Job satisfaction. Teacher *job satisfaction* consisted of four items taken from Hoyt et al.'s (2007) measure of overall job satisfaction: "I am completely satisfied with my job teaching," "Based on my experience teaching, I would highly recommend the job to others," "Considering everything, I have an excellent job teaching," "I am dissatisfied

with aspects of my job as a teacher” (this item was reverse scored). These items were adapted from the original wording which focused on job satisfaction of part-time faculty positions. For example, for the first item presented above, the original wording was, “I am completely satisfied with my job teaching courses as a part-time faculty.” For overall job satisfaction, Hoyt et al. (2007), reported a Cronbach’s Alpha (alpha for short) of .85, and for this current study, alpha was .82. Composite scores for job satisfaction were formed by taking the mean of all the above items. Composite scores for job satisfaction can be a range from 1 = low to 6 = high.

Job Autonomy. Teacher *job autonomy* consisted of four items: “I am completely satisfied with the level of autonomy that I have in teaching,” “I have a lot of freedom to develop and modify course content to meet the needs of my students,” “I have a satisfactory level of autonomy to select material and texts,” “and, “I would like more freedom to determine the content, materials, and texts for my classes” (this item was reverse scored). For job autonomy, Hoyt et al. reported an alpha of .82, and for this current study, alpha was .78. Composite scores for job autonomy were formed by taking the mean of all the above items. Composite scores for job autonomy can be a range from 1 = low to 6 = high.

Leadership Support. To measure *faculty support*, Hoyt et al., employed four items: “I receive very helpful advice and support from leadership to improve my teaching,” “The leaders in my school are always available and accessible to me when I need assistance,” “The leaders in my school take a sincere interest in my success as a teacher,” and, “I feel very comfortable requesting assistance from leaders when I have questions about my classes or students.” Hoyt et al. reported an alpha of .86, and for the

current study, alpha was .90. Composite scores for leadership support were formed by taking the mean of all the above items. Composite scores for leadership support can be a range from 1 = low to 6 = high.

Workload Pressure. *Work pressure* was measured using four items from the School Level Environment Questionnaire (Rentoul & Fraser, 1983) scale that consisted of statements to which respondents indicated their level of agreement using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 6 (“strongly agree”). The following items were used: “I have to work long hours to complete all my work,” “As a teacher, I have no time to relax,” “I can take it easy and still get the work done,” and “It is hard to keep up with my workload.” Johnson and Stevens (2001) performed a factor analysis of the SLEQ from over 1,000 participants and found that four of the original seven items loaded well on the work pressure factor. Those four items were used in the study, and the alpha obtained was .60. Composite scores for workload pressure were formed by taking the mean of all the above items. Composite scores for workload pressure can be a range from 1 = low to 6 = high.

Retention Intention. To measure *retention intention*, the researcher used the following items: “I am actively looking for a job outside Chestine (a pseudonym) County,” “As soon as I can find a better job teaching, I am leaving Chestine (a pseudonym) County,” “I am seriously thinking about quitting my job,” “I think I will be working at Chestine (a pseudonym) County three years from now,” and “I am planning to retire within the next three years.” Finally, for retention intention, item 14 (“I am planning to retire in the next three years”) did not fit conceptually with this construct and was removed for greater reliability leaving alpha at .64. Retention intention was reverse

scored for greater overall reliability. Composite scores for retention intention were formed by taking the mean of all the above items. Composite scores for retention intention can be a range from 6 = low to 1 = high.

Induction Experience, Teaching Experience, Mentoring, and Lateral Status.

To measure *teacher induction*, participants were asked the following question: “Did you participate in an induction program at your school (i.e., B.E.S.T.)?” To measure *teaching experience* participants were asked, “How many years have you been teaching at this school or county?” and “How many years have you been teaching overall?” To measure *mentoring* received, participants were asked, “Have you been mentored in this district (e.g., assigned teacher, media specialist, district personnel, principal/assistant principal)?” To measure *lateral or non-lateral entry* into teaching, participants were asked “In what type of program did you receive your training to become a teacher? Traditional/or non-lateral entry, such as through a college or university (undergraduate, master’s degree in Education),” or “Non-traditional/or lateral entry such as through an Alternative Teaching Preparation Program (i.e., Georgia TAPP, Teach for America/TFA)” and “Are you currently enrolled in a Lateral Entry teaching program or alternative teaching program (i.e., Georgia TAPP, Teach for America)? Finally, for descriptive purposes, participants were asked to identify their sex, age range (20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60+), and grade level taught (elementary, middle, and high). A complete copy of the questionnaire is found in Appendix A.

Data Collection

Once IRB approval was granted from Georgia Southern University, data collection began. An anonymous questionnaire using Qualtrics® was emailed to 1,448

full-time teachers employed in the rural school district. As a precaution, the names of full-time teachers were verified with the Human Resources Certification Specialist prior to releasing the questionnaire to ensure accuracy.

The email letter of invitation to participate contained a link to the questionnaire. The first page of the questionnaire included a cover letter describing requisite information regarding research involving human subjects. The letter contained a statement on the bottom that said by completing the questionnaire, the individual is giving passive consent. After the initial email, approximately two weeks later, Qualtrics® automatically generated one follow-up email reminding teachers to participate in the study. To increase participation in the study, the researcher, using her Georgia Southern email, sent a group email to all teachers asking them to participate in the questionnaire. After the initial email and two subsequent email reminders from Qualtrics® and the researcher, no additional emails were sent, and the questionnaire closed in one month of the initial release of the study.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

Attrition is costly to well-funded school districts where it is less problematic to attract qualified teachers. However, this study examined teachers' perceptions of attrition factors, and placed a focus on beginning teachers with three years of experience or less. Because the school system was in a rural school district, this limits generalizability (Creswell, 2014).

There were limitations which existed in the study that were beyond the researcher's control. Participant responses were self-reported. It is assumed that participants are submitting honest answers. Because responses were on a Likert-scale,

there may be some ambiguity due to the limited number of potential responses. Also, issues of validity arise with varied program structures (i.e., induction participation and perceptions of induction support may vary), and teachers' perception of experience may vary (e.g., no experience versus four; three years versus 20 years of experience). Lastly, delimitations on grade levels, geographical areas (one school district), and whether teachers had pre-service induction or a professor mentor prior to and in their induction, were not examined. This suggests that beginning teachers who enter the job from their first day of employment may have preconceived ideas of induction and how their program and orientation should be structured.

Content validity was used to design the instrument which was composed of three questionnaires. Thus, the assumptions are that content validity was properly established. As De Vaus (2014) suggested, the validity of the instrument may not measure what it is intended to measure. De Vaus (2014) warns that there are no well-established measures to test new concepts and content and indicates that "Whether we agree that a measure has content validity depends ultimately on how we define the concept it is designed to test." (De Vaus, 2014, p. 51).

Delimitations which may affect the research are variances in participant responses among grade levels, geographical areas (one school district), teacher gender, and whether beginning teachers had pre-service induction or no beginning teacher training prior to in-service employment. Also, questions regarding whether the beginning teacher was employed previously (e.g. career transition or no prior work experience) may affect the generalizability of research as these perceptions may be different from that of a teacher who has never taught before.

Chapter Summary

The combined instruments used in this study were chosen because they were consistent with the researcher's theoretical perspective of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to overall job satisfaction and job retention intention. Additionally, reliability results and validity measures generally met the standard for consistency with the intended constructs sought to measure as well as the desired sample. The primary factors used in this study were retention intention, job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, teacher experience, lateral entry, induction experience, and mentoring.

CHAPTER IV

REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this chapter is to report the analysis of the findings regarding the research questions. Furthermore, the purpose of this study was to determine whether beginning teachers' perceptions of their possible retention intention in teaching (intention to remain in their current school or district) was predicted by their level of job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, lateral/non-lateral status induction experience, and mentoring.

The following research questions guided this study:

1. Does retention intention differ between lateral and non-lateral teachers, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
2. Does retention intention differ between teachers who participated in an induction program and those who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
3. Does retention intention differ between teachers who receive mentoring and teacher who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
4. Does retention intention differ between teachers with three years or less experience than teachers with more than three years' experience, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference?
5. Do differences in retention intention by lateral status, induction, mentoring, and teaching experience change when leadership support, job autonomy, job satisfaction, and workload pressure are statistically controlled?

6. Do any of the differences examined in question five vary between those with three years or less experience than those with more than three years' experience?

Demographic and Experiential Profile of Respondents

Participants in this study were teachers from a rural Georgia school district. All teachers emailed were classified as having full-time employment. Chestine (a pseudonym) County considers full-time status as employees who work 30 or more hours per week) and were working in all grade levels (elementary, middle, and high). The teachers were given information about the study in accordance with guidelines of the Institutional Review Board at Georgia Southern University. The questionnaire was administered by email invitation to 1,448 teachers, and 728 (50.2%) provided usable responses.

The 728 respondents were both male and female of whom 81.2% were female and 18.8% were male. Within this school district, there were approximately 301 males and 1,159 females which included counselors and administrators. Of the 728 respondents, 18.2% were aged 20-29 years, 41.3% were 30-39, 25.4% were 40-49, and the remainder were 50 or older. Demographic statistics of respondents are reported in Table 1. When asked if they participated in a teacher induction at their school or county, 80.6% reported yes and 19.4% reported no. Teachers were asked about their year of teaching experience in-county and their total teaching experience. When asked about their experience in the county, 23.4% stated they had three years' or less experience, 76.6% stated they had more than three years' experience. When asked about their overall teaching experience, 15.1% stated they had less than 3 years' experience and 84.9% stated they had four years

or more experience. When asked if they were mentored in their district, 77.7% had been mentored, and 22.3% had not been mentored.

By grade level, 38.8% were elementary school teachers, 26.2% were middle school teachers, and 35% were high school teachers. When asked about their lateral status, 71.3% of teachers stated they had participated in a traditional (non-lateral entry) training program, 22.1% stated they participated in a non-traditional, or lateral, training program, and 6.6% stated they had participated in both a lateral and non-lateral training program. Finally, when asked if they were currently in a lateral entry program, 6.2% responded that they were currently enrolled in a lateral entry program, and 93.8% stated they were not currently enrolled in a lateral program.

Table 1. *Demographic Profile of Participants*

Variable		Frequency	Percentage	Total Teacher Count
Sex	Male	136	18.68	301 (21%)
	Female	586	80.49	
	No Response	6	.83	
Age	20-29	132	18.13	1147 (79%)
	30-39	300	41.21	
	40-49	185	25.41	
	50-59	76	10.44	
	60+	34	4.67	
	No Response	7	.14	
	Induction Participation			
	Yes	587	80.63	
	No	141	19.37	
Teaching Experience in County				
	Three Years or Less	170	23.35	
	More Than Three Years	558	76.64	
Overall Teaching Experience				
	Three Years or Less	110	15.11	
	More Than Three Years	618	84.89	
Grade Level Taught				
	Elementary	280	38.46	748 (52%)
	Middle	189	25.96	322 (22%)
	High	252	34.62	378 (26%)
	No Response	7	.96	
Mentored in District				
	Yes	563	77.34	
	No	162	22.25	
	No Response	3	.41	
Type of Training				
	Lateral	161	22.11	
	Non-Lateral	518	71.15	
	Both	48	6.59	
	No Response	1	.15	
Currently in a Training Program				
	Yes	45	6.18	
	No	683	93.82	

Findings

This section provides a brief analysis of each research question as well as tables to illustrate descriptive statistics associated with each question, the statistical test used, and if the findings were statistically significant. Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 compared group differences. Question 5 provided the results of correlations on all eight factors and question 6 was a two-part question that examined predictors through linear and multiple regression based on teaching experience.

Research Question 1: Retention Intention and Lateral Entry

The first question asked, does retention intention differ between lateral and non-lateral teachers, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference? To respond to this, the researcher performed an independent samples *t*-test to determine group differences in lateral status and results are reported in Table 2. There were no significant differences in retention intention between lateral and non-lateral teachers. This suggests both groups are equally likely to remain in their teaching position.

Table 2
Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Type of Program Entry into Teaching

	<i>Entry into Teaching</i>						<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	
	<i>Lateral</i>			<i>Non-Lateral</i>					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	95% CI for Mean Difference		
Retention intention	4.01	.947	141	3.89	1.05	587	-.069, .292	1.21	726

* $p < .05$.

Research Question 2: Retention Intention and Induction

The second question asked, does retention intention differ between teachers who participated in an induction program and those who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference? To respond to this question, the researcher performed an independent samples *t*-test to determine group differences in induction participation. Table 3 shows *t*-test results for induction. Results indicated there is a statistically significant difference between teachers who participated in an induction program and those who did not. This finding suggests that teachers who participated in an induction program are more likely to leave their current school than teachers who did not participate in an induction program.

Table 3 Results of *t*-test and Descriptive Statistics for Induction Experience

	Induction						95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Yes			No					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>			
Retention Intention	4.01	.975	587	3.55	1.17	141	-.64, -.27	-4.80*	726

* $p < .05$.

Research Question 3: Retention Intention and Mentoring

The third question asked, does retention intention differ between teachers who received mentoring and teachers who did not, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference? For research question 3, retention intention was compared between those mentored and those who were not. To respond to this question, an Independent Samples *t*-Test was performed. Table 4 shows *t*-test results based on mentoring. Results of the *t*-test indicated there was not a statistically significant mean difference in retention intention between teachers who were mentored and those who were not. This finding suggests retention intention does not differ based on mentoring experience.

Table 4

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Mentoring Experience

	Mentoring						95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Yes			No					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>			
Retention Intention	3.92	1.05	587	3.89	.935	141	-.15, .21	.296	726

* $p < .05$.

Research Question 4: Retention Intention and Teaching Experience

The fourth question asked, does retention intention differ between teachers with three years of experience or less than teachers with more than three years of experience, and if yes, what is the nature of this difference? To respond to this question, the researcher performed an Independent Samples t-test. Table 5 shows t-test results for years of teaching experience and retention intention. Results of the study showed that there is not a statistically significant relationship between teachers based on experience. This suggests that retention intention does not differ based on years of teaching experience.

Table 5

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Teaching Experience

	Teaching Experience						95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Three Years or More			Three Years or Less					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>			
Retention Intention	3.91	1.04	558	3.96	1.01	170	-.23, .13	-.535	726

* $p < .05$

Research Question 5: Correlations for Retention Intention Factors

Question five asked, do differences in retention intention by lateral status, induction, mentoring, and teaching experience change when leadership support, job autonomy, job satisfaction, and workload pressure are statistically controlled?

To address question five, the researcher performed regression analysis which allowed all eight independent variables to be included in the same analysis of associations with the criterion variable (retention intention). Descriptive statistics and correlations for each of the variables are provided in Table 6, and regression results are provided in Table 7. Results of the regression analysis revealed a statistically significant overall model of fit ($R^2 = .24$, $F = 29.08$, $p = .001$). This finding indicates that about 24% of the variability in retention intention was predicted by the independent variables.

Five of the predictors were significantly related to retention intention: job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, and induction. Job satisfaction had a negative relationship with retention intention, which indicated that the more job satisfaction teachers experience, the less likely they are to consider leaving their current school or district. Job autonomy had a negative and statistically significant relationship with retention intention which indicated that the more job autonomy teachers experience, the less likely they are to consider leaving their current district or school. Leadership support was negatively associated with retention intention. The more leadership support teachers receive, the less likely they are to consider leaving their current school or district. Workload pressure was positively and statistically significant with retention intention which indicated that the more workload pressure teachers experienced, the more likely they were to consider leaving their current school or county. Induction was also

positively significant and showed that teachers with induction experience were more likely to consider leaving their current position at their school or district. Results indicated that teaching experience, lateral status, and mentoring, did not have a statistically significant relation with retention intention.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Retention Intention

Variable	Correlations								
	RI	JS	JA	WP	LS	EXP	NL	IND	M
Retention Intention	1								
Job Satisfaction	.409*	---							
Job Autonomy	.342*	.605*	---						
Workload Pressure	.213*	-.231*	-.272*	---					
Leadership Support	.446*	.684*	.699*	-.233*	---				
Experience	.020	.011	.014	.043	.009	---			
Lateral Status	-.045	-.025	.044	-.078*	.021	-.269*	---		
Induction	.175*	-.117*	-.148*	-.031	-.143*	-.001	-.052*	---	
Mentored	.011	.008	-.010	-.009	-.008	-.004	-.091*	.274*	---
Mean	3.92	2.94	2.73	4.45	2.90	.233	0.78	0.81	0.77
SD	1.03	1.54	1.07	0.84	1.14	0.42	0.42	0.40	0.42

Note: Experience (1 = 3 years or less, 0 = more than 3); Lateral Status (1 = lateral, 0 = non-lateral); Induction (1 = yes, 0 = no); and Mentored (1 = yes, 0 = no) are dummy variables; n = 728

* $p < .05$

Research Question 6: Retention Intention Predictors based on Teaching Experience

Question six asked, do any of the differences examined in question five vary between teachers with three years or less experience than teachers with more than three years' experience? To address question six, two separate regression analyses were performed for teachers with three years' experience or less and teachers with more than three years' experience. Table 8 shows overall regression analysis for these groups.

Teachers with Three Years or Less Experience. Results of the regression analysis for teachers with three years or less experience revealed a statistically significant overall model of fit ($R^2 = .333$, $F = .577$, $p = .001$). This finding indicates that about 33% of the variability in retention intention was predicted by the independent variables. Two of the factors were statistically significant: job satisfaction and workload pressure. Job satisfaction was negatively associated with retention intention, which suggested that the more job satisfaction teachers experience the less likely they are to consider leaving their current position or district. There was a positive and statistically significant association with workload pressure and retention intention, which indicated the more workload pressure teachers experience, the more likely they are to think about leaving.

Teachers with More than Three Years' Experience. Results of the regression analysis for teachers with more than three years' experience revealed a statistically significant overall model of fit ($R^2 = .239$, $F = .489$, $p = .001$) which showed that about 24% of the variability was predicted by the independent variables. Four of the factors were found to be statistically significant to this group: Job Satisfaction, Leadership Support, Workload Pressure, and Induction. There was a negative and statistically significant association between retention intention and both job satisfaction and

leadership support. These negative relations suggest that more satisfied and supported teachers are less likely to consider leaving their job. There was a positive and statistically significant association between retention intention and induction and workload pressure. Those who experienced induction, and who experience more workload pressure, are more likely to think about leaving their current job.

Table 7. Results of Overall Regression by Teaching Experience

	b	se	95% CI	t
Intercept	4.340*	.275	3.80 – 4.88	15.770*
Mentored	-.062	.083	-.266 – .10	-.747
Induction	.324*	.089	.148 – .49	3.624*
Lateral Status	-.071	.084	-.236 – .095	-.837
Experience	.029	.082	-.132 – .190	.352
Job Satisfaction	-.163*	.041	-.244 – .083	-3.975*
Job Autonomy	.023	.046	-.067 – .113	.503
Workload Pressure	.135*	.042	.053 – .217	3.229*
Leadership Support	-.265*	.046	-.355 – -.175	-5.763*

Note: $R^2 = .24$, $F = 29.08$, $p = .001$. Experience (1 = 3 years or less, 0 = more than 3); Lateral Status (1 = lateral, 0 = non-lateral); Induction (1 = yes, 0 = no); and Mentored (1 = yes, 0 = no) are dummy variables; $n = 728$

* $p < .05$

Retention Intention and Teaching Experience

Of the factors examined (i.e., job satisfaction, leadership support, induction, workload pressure, mentoring, job autonomy, lateral status, and teaching experience), between both groups, job satisfaction was the only factor that had a negative and

statistically significant association. And, for both groups, there was a positive and statistically significant association with workload pressure which suggested that the more workload pressure experienced, the more likely both groups of teachers were to look elsewhere. Table 8 shows results of regression analysis by teaching experience.

Table 8. Results of Regression by Teaching Experience

Variable	Experience: Three Years or Less			Experience: More than Three Years		
	b	se	t	b	se	t
Intercept	3.68	.56	6.56*	4.493	.314	14.30*
Mentored	.006	.160	.038	-.095	.097	-.979
Induction	.049	.174	.280	.368	.104	3.549*
Lateral Status	-.035	.137	-.255	-.105	.106	-.989
Job Satisfaction	-.341	.079	-4.33*	-.112	.048	-2.347*
Job Autonomy	-.007	.082	-.089	.050	.055	.919
Workload Press	.324	.091	3.55*	.099	.047	2.108*
Leader Support	-.060	.083	-.718	-.334	.055	-6.050*
Model F	11.56*			24.63*		
Model df	7, 162			7, 550		
R ²	.333			.239		

*p<.05

Chapter Summary

This study showed which factors predicted teacher retention intention in this rural Georgia county. Prevalent throughout the literature review was the significance induction had on beginning teachers' retention intention. However, in this study, induction was not a statistically significant predictor of retention intention for beginning teachers. Instead, the

regression analysis revealed that job satisfaction and workload pressure were the only two predictors impacting their decisions to remain or leave their job.

While this study began by addressing the impact retention intention has on beginning teachers, it ultimately focused on both beginning teachers and experienced teachers' job retention intention. One adverse finding of this study was the role of induction, as only teachers with more than three years' experience found induction to be statistically significant, which suggested that for this group, the more induction received, the more likely they were to consider leaving their current school or district.

For teachers with three years' experience or less, job satisfaction had a negative and statistically significant relationship with retention intention, and workload pressure had a positive and statistically significant relationship with retention intention. This finding suggested that the more workload pressure received, the more likely they were to consider leaving their current job or district. And the more job satisfaction experienced, the less likely they were to consider leaving their school or district.

For teachers with more than three years' experience, job satisfaction and leadership support had negative and statistically significant relationships, which suggested that the more leadership support and job satisfaction received, the less likely they were to consider leaving. Induction and workload pressure had positive and statistically significant relationship with retention intention. This suggested that the more induction received, and the more workload pressure experienced, the more likely they were to consider leaving their current job or district. The remaining factors: mentoring, job autonomy, and lateral status, were not statistically significant for beginning or experienced teachers.

Consequently, induction programs, nor its program components, were examined in this rural school district. The literature revealed that induction programs should not be a one-size-fits-all program and should be designed with the teacher in mind when addressing specific (or differentiated) needs. Researchers suggested that the goal of these programs should be improved job satisfaction with the intention of how to best support its developing teacher workforce (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; NTC, 2014).

Chapter Five presents an overview of the study, a summary of the findings, a discussion of the findings, the implications of this study considering the relevant literature and theory and offers recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER V SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether beginning and experienced teachers' perceptions of their possible retention intention in teaching (intention to remain in their current school or district) was predicted by their level of job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, mentoring, lateral status (traditional program entry to become a teacher; i.e., college or university program to become a teacher versus "lateral" status through an alternate program to become a teacher; i.e., TAPP, Teach for America), and induction experience. Participants in this study were teachers from a rural Georgia school district who responded based on the following demographic categories: age (i.e., 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60+), gender, full-time status, and grade level taught. The confidential questionnaire was sent to 1,448 teachers, of whom 728 responses were analyzed.

As noted throughout the literature, teacher attrition impacts school systems with plentiful and limited resources, and teachers' decisions to leave not only impact their school districts financially, but creates a lack of diversity, lowers morale, and ultimately affects students academically as well as affects their future potential as global competitors. Attrition costs the U.S. between \$1 billion and \$2.2 billion dollars annually, and limited studies exist that address exactly how teacher attrition and its costs affect the country in general. However, losing access to the top 25% of teachers across the country—some 800,000 annually—has left many national, state, and local leaders struggling to figure out how to retain teachers.

An additional component of this study was to examine teachers' perceptions of factors that might impact their retention intention in a rural county in Georgia (USA),

where 47% of the state's teachers left before the end of their fifth year of employment. According to the Georgia Department of Education (2015), roughly 70% of teachers with less than five years of experience were rated as unlikely to recommend the profession to potential teacher candidates. This finding can be an important discussion for educational leaders as quantitative studies were limited on beginning teachers' perceptions of retention intention factors (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

As Knowles' (1976) research on adult learners suggested, evolving from theory to practice is often by experience. Learners develop into competent professionals through their self-concept (i.e., their specific need to be competent professionals and to grow from dependent learners to self-directed learners until they have acquired the pedagogical skills and knowledge needed to make the best and most informed decisions regarding the longevity of their teaching career). Pedagogical skills and knowledge require time, money, and resources, and for most educational professionals, training and development is an ongoing process.

Delimitations set by the researcher and limitations beyond the researcher's control are noted in this chapter. Additionally, Chapter Five offers multiple recommendations and directions for future research, and a summary to contribute to the current literature and ongoing discussion of teacher attrition and its impact on the education system.

Analysis of Research Findings

This study examined teachers' perceptions of possible factors that might impact their retention intention. The eight factors examined were retention intention, job satisfaction, job autonomy, workload pressure, leadership support, work experience, lateral/non-lateral status, induction, and mentoring.

One of the primary factors examined was induction on retention intention, as researchers consistently found induction played a crucial role on teacher's decisions to remain, transfer, or leave. Yet, for this current study, beginning teachers only found job satisfaction and workload pressure to be statistically significant. This finding can aid educational leaders in beginning discourse with their beginning teachers from their first day of employment, as many teachers enter their new roles as teachers with perceptions from pre-service training that often do not match the realities they face in the actual classroom. Problematic also is that beginning teachers' concerns are not always the focus of educational leaders who too often create one-size-fits-all teacher induction programs that do not meet these beginning teachers' needs or expectations of support, and only tinker with what they perceive these teachers should have in their induction program. When induction was examined more closely between groups with three years or less experience and more than three years of experience, the group more likely to leave after receiving induction were teachers with more than three years' experience. Teachers with three years or less experience did not find induction to be statistically significant.

As it pertains to teacher experience, Knowles' (1976) andragogical model suggested that adult learners' specific needs are tied to their changing social roles. As teachers develop from inexperienced to experienced teachers, their roles within their schools and districts can evolve also. They can transition from mentees to mentors, and from classroom teachers who need assistance with solving daily problems to leaders who offer solutions and help lessen the concerns and challenges of their colleagues. As beginning teachers mature into self-guided learners who reflect on what they needed in their induction programs, they may be more able to offer informative discourse on what activities or topics

are best suited to guide their induction or the learning and training of those teachers who are employed after them and find that their induction program was impactful to their decision to remain in their current school or district. While researchers noted the importance of induction programs having multiple components (i.e., a minimum of two years, a mentor in the same subject, supportive leadership) on whether beginning teachers stayed or left, not merely induction alone, within this county induction programs were not examined beyond whether it was offered (e.g., ‘yes’ or ‘no’), nor did it examine which components contributed overall to retention intention, and which components did not. Also, this study did not examine teachers’ perceptions by age. Teachers new to this county, regardless of teaching years of experience, are required to participate in an induction program at their school. And, as the literature suggested, programs can vary by induction leaders (i.e., assistant principal, instructional coach, counselor, or department chairperson) as program components and funding allocations for such programs vary considerably by school and district.

Additionally, the role of mentoring, combined with a comprehensive induction program, had the potential to impact retention intention. This study found that neither teachers with less than three years’ experience nor teachers with more than three years’ experience found mentoring to be a statistically significant predictor of whether teachers would remain or leave. As such, limited data existed on the various influences of mentoring on induction and teachers’ perceptions of support. Beginning teachers’ decisions to transfer out of low-income schools were linked to how well well-matched mentors, valuable induction, and curriculum guidance supported them. However, the literature noted that in many states across the U.S., there is limited program accountability and accreditation for

mentors as well as limited evaluation, questionnaires, site visits, self-reports, and other relevant tools and strategies to offer constructive feedback to mentors. The results showed there was not a statistically significant relationship with retention intention for these groups. Both groups were equally likely to leave or transfer.

Regression results showed there was a positive and statistically significant relationship for retention intention and workload pressure ($r = .213$) and induction ($r = .175$). This finding suggested that workload pressure and induction revealed that the more teachers felt pressured by their workload and the more they experienced induction, the more likely teachers were to consider leaving their current district or school. In this study, the positive correlations between retention intention, mentoring, and teaching experience were not statistically significant, so retention intention was not associated with mentoring and teaching experience. Retention intention had a negative and statistically significant correlation with job satisfaction ($r = -.409$), leadership support ($r = -.446$), and job autonomy ($r = -.342$), which suggested that the more satisfied teachers were, the more leadership support they received, and the more job autonomy they experienced, the less likely they were to look for jobs outside their district or school.

Overall regression analysis was used to determine if there were differences in retention intention by lateral status, teaching experience, induction participation, and mentoring once they were statistically controlled by additional factors examined: job satisfaction, leadership support, job autonomy, and workload pressure. To answer this question, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to allow all eight independent factors to be included in the same analysis of associations with the criterion variable retention intention. The regression model revealed a statistically significant overall model

of fit ($R^2 = .24$, $F = 29.08$, $p = .001$). This indicated that about 24% of the variability in retention intention was predicted by the factors examined. Four of the predictors were significantly related to retention intention: job satisfaction, induction, workload pressure, and leadership support. The strongest predictor of retention intention was leadership support ($\beta = -.265$); next, was the variable job satisfaction ($\beta = -.163$). These factors had a negative relationship in retention intention. This suggested that the more teachers experienced leadership support and job satisfaction, the less likely they were to leave their district or school. Factors that had a positive and significant relationship with retention intention were induction ($\beta = .324$) and workload pressure ($\beta = .135$). This finding suggested that the more teachers participated in induction and the more workload pressure they experienced, the more likely they were to leave their current district or school.

The final focus of this study was on group perspectives by categories and revealed that among teachers with three years' or less experience, job satisfaction and workload pressure were the only two significant predictors of retention intention. However, among teachers with more than three years' experience, job satisfaction, workload pressure, induction, and leadership support were statistically significant predictors. This study found that among teachers with three years or more experience, leadership support and induction were factors that might impact their retention intention. And, although these two factors did not impact beginning teacher's decisions, the findings of this study were tied to Knowles' suggestion that as teachers mature, they become more self-directed than dependent; thus, more able to make decisions for what is best for their long-term career aspirations.

Discussion of Research Finding

The GADOE (2018) suggests that each situation is different as to why teachers leave—by county, district, or school. The quality of leadership and where the new teacher is originally from, and the age of the teacher could be three major factors on retention intention. A second career teacher could have different needs from recent graduates and some new teachers know in advance the district they want to work and will settle for another district until they can secure the desired position (GADOE, 2018).

This study was conducted to contribute to the limited research on factors that may impact retention intention of beginning and experienced teachers. As researchers consistently acknowledge teachers as the backbone of student achievement and growth, they must also develop their teacher induction programs to meet the demands of high stakes testing, educational policies and standards, and a growing and diverse culturally, linguistically, and socioeconomically student population (Amos, 2012; USDOE, 2015). As attrition rates have increased by more than 40% over the past two decades, so has the cost (an estimated \$1 billion to \$2.2 billion) of retaining the most qualified beginning and experienced teachers alike, leaving one million students without access to the top 25% of teachers—some 800,000 of them (Hassel & Hassel, 2010; Hayes, 2014; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

Kidd, Brown, and Fitzallen (2015) found that heavy workloads, lack of planning time, lack of administrative support, and a lack of induction impacted beginning teachers' retention intention. Moreover, Kidd et al. (2015) found that many teachers who were hired after the school year did not receive induction, and for the beginning teachers in that study, induction was significant to their long-term retention intention.

One adverse finding to this current study was that beginning teachers did not find induction to be statistically significant. One possible explanation for this is that many beginning teachers must contend with the same career responsibilities as more experienced teachers but lack the on-the-job support to understand the dynamics of building a collaborative culture and improving their pedagogical skills (Amos, 2012). Franklin and Molina (2012) suggested that by working closely with teachers in their induction programs, educational leaders can identify critical needs of beginning teachers. While beginning teachers and experienced teachers found job satisfaction and workload pressure statistically significant, these two groups differed in their perspectives on teacher induction and leadership support. Teachers with more than 3 years' experience found induction, leadership support, job satisfaction, and workload pressure to be statistically significant.

Knowles (1976) suggested that as a person matures, he/she accumulates a reservoir of experiences and increasing resources for learning. However, included within these acquired experiences were the opportunities to make mistakes with some provided learning activities to improve. This study did not ask what specific level of support was needed by both groups; however, it uncovered that both groups found job satisfaction to be a positive and statistically significant predictor of retention intention; the more job satisfaction, the less likely teachers were to consider leaving their job. While this study does not prove that induction activities are tied to job satisfaction, it does support the literature that induction activities for teachers, developed by leaders who approve induction activities through the school or district's budget, should be developed with the understanding that teachers have differentiated needs and that these activities could be linked to job satisfaction and, ultimately, decisions to remain in their current employment as teachers (NTC, 2014).

Several researchers noted the power of high-quality induction has the propensity to improve teacher retention (Goldrick, 2016; Perry & Hayes, 2011, Richmond et al. 2016). However, high-quality induction was defined as having multiple components which were not examined in this current study. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) found multi-year assistance (two or more years), along with a carefully selected and well-prepared mentor, ongoing formative assessments, time to plan and common planning time, and engaged principals, as potentially impactful on teacher retention intention and in building effective induction programs. Through induction programs that offer opportunities to reflect and engage in collaborative discourse on topics and activities, beginning teachers have opportunity for feedback and growth (Botha & Reddy, 2011). Although induction was not statistically significant for beginning teachers, induction was significant for more experienced teachers. TALIS (2013) found that a fluctuating economy, high costs of student loan repayment, and avoiding life-long poor career decisions were other factors as to why beginning teachers do not remain at their current jobs. Additionally, as was noted in the literature, beginning teachers must increasingly work with English Learner Language (ELL) students, students with special needs, and students from low socioeconomic conditions (Amos, 2014). With the current lack of quantitative studies on rural communities, the differing needs and challenges of students could be an area of training and support offered to beginning teachers by their leadership support, along with diversity and empathy training to meet the needs of these students.

Additional factors that could impact beginning teachers' retention intention is their level of job satisfaction tied to their perceptions of teaching as not being a status career. As many teachers with weaker qualifications are more likely to teach at disadvantaged schools,

many do not enter the teaching profession with the intention to remain and may not view any factor as significant to their long-term retention (Symeonidis, 2015; Teaching & Learning Questionnaire, 2013). And, educational leaders should take note. According to TALIS (2013), teachers' perceptions alone could be a predictor of attrition rates in the next 10 years. Knowles' (1976) suggested that as adult learners mature, they can be motivated by internal factors such as job satisfaction and learning in general and are less motivated by external factors such as raises and promotions. Knowles' (1976) theory focuses on the teacher as facilitator who guides the adult learner to draw on life experiences that encourages dialogue and provides reflection and clarification opportunities. However, Knowles (1976) also acknowledged that the challenges of a self-directed learner is when they hear words such as 'education' and 'training', they revert to that of a dependent learner, and demand to be taught. As a person matures he/she creates a reservoir of experiences, and resources for learning. Beginning teachers and experienced teachers can have very different perspectives on their learning needs and can go from postponed learning to immediacy of application. Once beginning teachers acquire (and realize) the pedagogical skills and knowledge they need, their needs change from self-centeredness to problem centeredness (Knowles, 1976). It was also noted throughout this study that educational leaders must move beyond institutional liberalism and design induction programs with beginning teachers' perceptions of what they must look like—including the role that leadership support has on retention (Richmond et al., 2016). As educational leaders design induction programs, researchers suggest they differentiate their programs to support their beginning teachers from day one. Subsequently, as teachers gain valuable work experience and greater self-efficacy and pedagogy, they may be more likely to leave

and secure jobs where there is less workload pressure to serve their schools or districts in additional (and multiple) roles and responsibilities aside from teaching (i.e., assigned duty, sponsoring programs, and travel time and costs). The immediate problem for Georgia's educational leaders is the roughly 16% of teachers who either transfer to another district or leave the profession annually and the limited research and implications it has on rates and costs of attrition. Owens (2015) estimated that the state of Georgia's teacher attrition rates cost between \$37,485,313 and \$81,591,743 annually.

Educational leaders in this county should develop new and "consistent protocols and methodologies that are followed by every staff member whether a new teacher, mentor, induction coach, or administrator/principal" (NTC, 2014, p. 2). While induction can improve teacher attrition, it should not be designed as a means of generalizing the needs of its teachers; teachers who come to districts with varying levels of experience, different ages, and as the case is for this study, a higher proportion of females (1,147) to males (301). Therefore, induction programs should be designed to differentiate the needs of the learners, offer a multi-year component (more than two) to offer continuous guidance for beginning teachers beyond year one, and examine if males and females in this county have different induction and leadership needs.

At the time of this study, limited empirical research existed on teachers' perceptions of factors that impact their retention intention. It was the goal of the researcher to examine rural school districts that compete for travel distance, mileage, and access to technology when compared to larger, more populous districts that have the resources to hire and retain top teachers. Furthermore, as Amos (2014) noted, questions continue to arise as to whether induction programs can simultaneously improve teachers' pedagogy and engage higher-

order inquiry in students, concluding that if these induction programs are not part of a systemic approach to professional development, they may be insufficient to reduce the attrition rate of beginning teachers, especially in at-risk, poverty, and rural school districts. Collectively, the research suggested that receiving multiple induction components had a stronger effect on whether beginning teachers stayed or left, not induction alone (NTC, 2014).

Conclusions

Since limited quantitative and empirical studies exist on retention intention, the costs of attracting and retaining high-quality teachers is something educational leaders can and should examine as they seek better ways of developing and leading their top commodity (teachers) for improving student learning. This study was initially developed to address the impact of beginning teacher attrition in rural counties. However, it developed into a larger discussion of teacher attrition and retention intention among all teachers, regardless of their level of experience. This study found that teachers have specific educational needs to guide their learning, and their theoretical frameworks must be examined to improve their job satisfaction, so they will want to remain in their current district or school.

In the United States over half a million teachers are leaving the profession annually. In the state of Georgia alone, NES (2017) reported that nearly half of its teachers with less than five years of experience had left the profession. Moreover, they were unlikely to recommend the job to others. There was a period when teachers hired and retired within the profession. However, American teachers who are one of our country's most educated groups, are leaving for greener pastures and utilizing their talents in other career sectors.

With the competitive job market, many prospective teachers will not be interested in teaching careers with increased workloads and working for leaders who do not place enough (or too little) emphasis on their job satisfaction.

To gain more insight into why some beginning teachers leave the profession, the researcher asked a beginning teacher in the district (with two years' total experience) her perspective on why a workload versus a supportive mentor or leadership support might be a factor to retention intention. Her response was that even if an administrator does not support her, she can be an effective teacher if the workload is manageable. This statement led to the conclusion of this study and implications for future research.

Implications

If rural school districts do not ask the difficult questions regarding what factors motivate teachers to stay or remain, they will face a decreasing pool of qualified applicants, many of whom will leave the profession altogether. This study examined eight factors and found that job satisfaction and workload pressure were the most statistically significant predictors of job retention for beginning teachers. And, among teachers with more than three years' experience, the additional factors of induction and leadership coupled with job satisfaction and workload pressure were predictors of retention intention. The implications are far reaching in rural school districts that must compete for talent in the form of highly-qualified teacher applicants and financial resources from larger districts. If the problem of attrition is not addressed among rural school districts, there may not be a qualified pool of applicants in which to choose, further impacting workload pressure by an increased need to increase teacher-student ratios in classrooms and place the burden on higher-performing teachers to improve student's district and state assessments who meet the district's goals

and standards for classroom excellence and teaching. It was noted in the literature that as teachers' pedagogy improve, they leave for greener pastures. Some of these reasons may be schools in which they feel they are better supported with reduced workloads, improved training and induction, and ultimately, where they feel more job satisfaction regarding their work and career.

Furthermore, if educational leaders do not hear the concerns of their constituents; their teachers, and most important resource for student achievement, they will not have the opportunity to develop their beginning teachers' pedagogical skills into future leaders of tomorrow. As educational leaders look to minimize their own workload, they must listen and implement the concerns of their teachers, regardless of how this does not equate with their own values and beliefs. As was also noted in this research, students' needs change over time and they come to the educational setting with diverse interests, cultures, and learning needs. As students' needs evolve, so will the needs of the teachers who are expected to prepare them as students who are prepared to compete with other students from all over the world.

Recommendations

This study examined several factors as to why teachers might choose to remain at or leave their current school. Little research exists on beginning teacher's lesser known reasons for leaving the profession, such as teachers who switched from one subject to another (e.g., special education to mathematics, science, or social studies), who switched to different careers within education (e.g., teacher to administrator), or who left due to medical and health reasons, family issues or retirement.

Because of induction findings, which were averse to the literature (e.g., Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Kidd, et al., 2015; Perry & Hayes, 2011), recommendations are for educational leaders to comprise focus groups to examine teachers' perceptions of factors that impact their retention intention and begin the discourse on how they can best develop their beginning teachers into future leaders who will want to stay in their job or district. These focus groups could be in a central office location or they could be dispersed into schools that face the highest rates of attrition.

Just as students' have various needs such as the fluctuation of ELL learners, more students with special needs, and low-economic backgrounds, teachers also experience changing needs. Educational leaders could begin by providing ongoing questionnaires or assessments to continue to monitor the ongoing and ever-changing needs of beginning teachers. Teachers evolve into self-directed learners based on their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, the immediate learning requirements imposed by their leaders, or the learning requirements for their instructional or behavioral setting. As such, the factors that have greater influence on their intrinsic motivations should be examined. This could be in the form of questionnaires; however, educational leaders would serve their schools better by advocating for budgets to create programs that support training and development, and which build skills and the interest levels of their teachers.

Salary, once thought to be a primary determinant in attrition from the 1970s throughout the 1990s, was one of the least cited reasons teachers leave and was not examined in this study. However, where many districts have peaks and lows in funding and resources, as economic conditions improve, more former and new, prospective educators may be attracted to the profession by the salary they are offered at the onset of their

employment. These professionals come with a wealth of knowledge acquired during their careers, a component that may improve student content knowledge and students' desire to pursue professional careers post-graduation.

Additional recommendations include improving induction programs by assigning well-matched mentors to less experienced teachers through multi-year (more than one) assistance as well as obtaining feedback from experienced teachers as to what factors might motivate them to remain in the profession. Certification programs could be examined to determine which steps in the process can be eliminated and which steps should be added to make teachers more effective. The certification process can be arduous for a teacher, especially given the accompanying stress resulting from the daily expectations of the school administration and expectations for improved student achievement and performance. Once thought to be highly respected and esteemed, perceptions of the teaching profession have declined over time. Thus, teachers may not want to meet these demands when they can work elsewhere for a potentially smaller workload, less pressure, more pay, and more overall job satisfaction. A final recommendation would be to replicate this study in another rural school district. Although this district has shown some recent stability in retention among its' educational leaders, it has also experienced turnover of its educational leaders (e.g., principals, assistant principals, academic coaches, and induction leaders) within schools where some leaders have been promoted to different levels of leadership (e.g., principal to district positions, assistant principal to principal), or have left their current schools/districts/jobs altogether. A complete program evaluation into its induction programs is recommended to develop consistent protocols and methodologies

that are followed by every staff member, teacher, and principal/administrator as most programs vary in structure and purpose (NTC, 2014).

If future research continues to examine beginning teachers' perceptions as well as all teachers' perceptions of factors that might impact retention intention, it is the hope that this study will lead to the development and implementation of better, more effective induction programs in the future. This investment in induction programs and teachers can be a determining factor in overall satisfaction for teachers, stakeholders, and students.

Impact Statement

One of the goals of this study was to examine several possible reasons that might contribute to teachers leaving the profession of teaching. This study was conducted in a rural school district where these districts often compete for economic resources such as highly-qualified teachers, less travel time, and more pay. One of the factors examined was the induction process (or teacher's orientation) into the profession. One way educational leaders can address the subject of teacher attrition is to ask themselves if they are tackling their most pressing concerns from the moment inquisitive teachers entered the profession or are they providing beginning teachers with some type of cookie-cutter, one-size-fits-all teacher induction program just to say they offered them an overview of how their school or district operates along with the school culture and climate they will work. To understand beginning teachers is to know that many of them have already been in pre-service college programs and they have a wealth of knowledge to offer their schools. Within this study, what the researcher discovered was that as teachers mature and develop, their perceptions of what motivated them to leave or stay were different. For example, the researcher expected induction was more important to beginning teachers with three years or less

experience. However, teachers with three years' experience or more were the group who felt their orientation/induction process to be most impactful in their decision to leave. Upon more intensive review of the literature the researcher found that the research supported a multi-year orientation with components such as well-matched teacher mentors (e.g., someone working in the same content or specialty). This made sense. In this rural school district, the researcher observed that many mentors were not well-matched to teachers, as mentees, who were working in the same field. The researcher also noticed that different grade levels viewed the extent and duration of their programs differently. Elementary school leaders offered more quality time for discussions, but high school leaders used their training more within their Professional Learning Communities (or PLCs). As it pertains to retention intention, developing activities and learning communities that do not focus on the specific needs of beginning teachers does not systematically address conversations of content and accountability as part of the larger dialogue of beginning teachers' specific needs. Upon examination of reasons why teachers leave, the researcher continued to discover that the only common thread between groups with more than three years and three years or less was they both felt that job satisfaction and workload pressure were important. The other six factors examined depended on their teaching experience by category of 'three years' or less' or 'more than three years', and this did not determine if they would remain or leave. Both (by experience) were likely to consider leaving.

This study contributes to a larger discussion. It helps educational leaders in planning their induction programs around researched-based strategies and supports. It eliminates some of the guess work out of pre-planning and addresses anxieties and stressors that many teachers have from day one due to their perceived uncertainty of their new job

and their lack of pedagogical knowledge. It answers community questions that are concerned about teacher quality and experience, and it will hopefully, bridge the gap between the lack of community empathy towards teachers' and help support their teacher's evolving needs. Teachers cannot solve all the problems in the classroom. As the nation has more diverse students than ever in terms of language, culture, and class, their needs are also constantly evolving. It takes everyone collaboratively planning and implementing solutions to the shortage of teachers and how this potentially impacts student's achievement and success. When students observe adults working together more collaboratively, they may be more prone to accountability for their own learning. As more teachers enter schools as beginning or experienced teachers, how they are inducted into the school setting and prepared to meet the district's expectations are important. While beginning teachers did not view induction as being important, it could be that the type of induction or program component (or activities) within their own induction are not specifically designed to meet their diverse needs. Thus, whether teachers state induction at their current rural school system is important, their training and how they are supported from day one is crucial to their success. As evidenced in this study by teachers with more than three years' experience, beginning teachers who remain at their current schools and gain more experience, might begin to realize that their induction is more significant than they initially perceived (or tied) to their retention intention.

As induction programs are designed to help beginning teachers become more engaged teachers, part of the ongoing effort to support should be with educational leaders identifying roles in which they can become leaders. For example, special education teachers can be matched with other special education teachers to understand their roles in

meeting the needs of students with disabilities and develop these teachers' pedagogical skills into becoming building leaders or district leaders with their specialized understanding of national, state and local policies and legal requirements. The same is the case as the researcher examines and identifies her own multiple leadership roles as district content leader, special education teacher, English specialist, and mentor. This study prompted the researcher to add to the discussion and larger discourse in hopes of reaching a broader audience equally committed to teachers, and ultimately the impact they have on our future leaders.

Dissemination

The goal of this study was to add to the rich discourse on teacher attrition and retention. The researcher plans to share the results of this study with the following organizations and individuals:

- District Curriculum and Instruction team for which she is a member;
- Through research publications and through communication with other researchers and authors with whom I seek to publish my study;
- Researchers who study and examine teacher attrition and retention factors.
- Georgia Southern University's website; Georgia Southern University's educational programs as they continue to improve upon their teacher preparation models;
- Rural school districts in the state of Georgia and elsewhere in other state rural school systems.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire

1. What is your gender?

Male	Female
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2. What is your age range?

20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
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3. Have you participated in the induction program at your school (e.g., B.E.S.T.)?

Yes	No
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4. How many years have you been teaching at this school?

1	2	3
4	5+	

5. How many years have you been teaching overall?

1	2	3
4	5+	

6. What grade level do you teach?

Elementary	Middle	High
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7. Have you been mentored in this district (e.g., assigned teacher, media specialist, district personnel, principal/assistant principal)?

Yes	No
-----	----

8. In what type of program did you receive your training to become a teacher?

Traditional/or non-lateral entry, such as through a college or university (undergraduate, master's degree in Education)
--

Non-traditional/or lateral entry, such as through an Alternative Teaching Preparation Program (i.e., Georgia TAPP, Teach for America)
--

9. Are you currently enrolled in a Lateral Entry teaching program or alternative teaching program (i.e., Georgia TAPP, Teach for America)?

Yes	No
-----	----

10. I am actively looking for a job outside Chestine (a pseudonym) County.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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11. As soon as I can find a better job teaching, I am leaving.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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12. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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13. I think I will be working at Chestine (a pseudonym) County three years from now.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I am planning to retire within the next three years.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
15. I am completely satisfied with my job teaching.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. Based on my experience teaching I would highly recommend the job to others.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
17. Considering everything, I have an excellent job as a teacher.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
18. I am dissatisfied with aspects of my job as a teacher.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
19. I receive very helpful advice and support from the principals in my school to improve my teaching.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
20. Principals in my school are always available and accessible to me when I need assistance.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
21. Principals in my school take a sincere interest in my success as a teacher.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
22. I feel very comfortable requesting assistance from principals when I have questions about teaching or about students.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
23. I am completely satisfied with the level of autonomy that I have in teaching.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Disagree		Disagree	Agree		
24. I have a lot of freedom to develop and modify course content to meet the needs of my students.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
25. I have a satisfactory level of autonomy to select material and texts.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
26. I would like more freedom to determine the content, materials, and texts for the courses I teach.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
27. Teachers have to work long hours to complete all their work.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
28. There is no time for teachers to relax.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29. You can take it easy and still get the work done.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
30. It is hard to keep up with your workload.					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix B

Georgia Southern University Office of Research Services & Sponsored Programs		
Institutional Review Board (IRB)		
Phone: 912-478-5465		Veazey Hall 3000
		PO Box 8005
Fax: 912-478-0719	IRB@GeorgiaSouthern.edu	Statesboro, GA 30460

To: Evans-Dobbs, Katrina
Melton, Teri

From: Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Administrative Support Office for Research Oversight Committees
(IACUC/IBC/IRB)

Approval Date: 6/23/2017

Subject: Status of Application for Approval to Utilize Human Subjects in Research

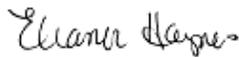
After a review of your proposed research project numbered **H17425** and titled "**Beginning Teachers' Perspectives of Factors that Impact Attrition**" it appears that your research involves activities that do not require full approval by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) according to federal guidelines. In this research project research data will be collected anonymously.

According to the Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Part 46, your research protocol is determined to be exempt from full review under the following exemption category(s):

- B2 Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (I) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (II) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Any alteration in the terms or conditions of your involvement may alter this approval. Therefore, as authorized in the Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, I am pleased to notify you that your research, as submitted, is exempt from IRB approval. No further action or IRB oversight is required, as long as the project remains the same. If you alter the project, it is your responsibility to notify the IRB and acquire a new determination of exemption. Because this project was determined to be exempt from further IRB oversight, this project does not require an expiration date.

Sincerely,



Eleanor Haynes
Compliance Officer