

Quality Teachers and Retention in the State of Pennsylvania

by

Tracy Lynn McCalla

Bachelor of Science, Edinboro University, 1986

Master of Education, Westminster College, 1999

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
School of Education in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

University of Pittsburgh

2005

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

School of Education

This dissertation was presented

By

Tracy Lynn McCalla

It was defended on

December 8, 2005

and approved by

William Bickel, PhD, Professor, Administrative and Policy Studies

Charles Gorman, EdD, Associate Professor, Administrative and Policy Studies

Charlene Trovato, PhD, Clinical Associate Professor, Administrative and Policy Studies

Dissertation Director: Mary Margaret Kerr, EdD, Associate Professor, Administrative and
Policy Studies and Psychiatry

Copyright © by Tracy Lynn McCalla

2005

Quality Teachers and Retention in the State of Pennsylvania

Tracy Lynn McCalla, EdD

University of Pittsburgh, 2005

The purpose of this study was to describe school working conditions perceived by beginning teachers about their first year of teaching in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The specific working conditions that were examined were those identified in the research as contributing to either teacher retention or attrition. The researcher developed three research questions that guided her study. The Pennsylvania State Board of Education aided the researcher in reaching a random sample of Instructional I certificate holders by mail. The letter asked potential subjects to log on to the state board's website and complete an electronic survey concerning the conditions surrounding their first year of teaching in Pennsylvania. Two hundred and seventy-nine certificate holders, who had completed one, two, or three years of teaching, completed the survey. The researcher surmised that the poor response rate was due to insufficient addresses and large numbers of certificate holders who are not currently teaching or not currently teaching in Pennsylvania. Quantitative data were analyzed using percentages, means, and standard deviations. The researcher applied qualitative analysis to interpret the data obtained from the open-ended questions concerning induction programs at the end of the survey.

The results of this study indicated that approximately 26% of survey respondents said they had left teaching altogether or had migrated to another school district. The researcher also found that some of the workplace conditions identified in the literature were causes for this rate of attrition. Many respondents felt their schedule was the same or more challenging than those of veteran teachers, while over half said they taught four or more subjects a day. Many said they

were unhappy with their salary and administrative support, citing these as reasons for migrating to other school districts or leaving the teaching profession altogether.

Another important finding is that nearly all Pennsylvania teachers participated in an induction program. However, many respondents felt the content of the induction program was impractical and felt time spent in induction could have been better spent in preparing lessons.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS	VI
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF FIGURES	XI
PREFACE.....	XII
1.0 CHAPTER LITERATURE REVIEW	1
1.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF LEGISLATION AND RESEARCH ON QUALITY TEACHING.....	3
1.2 THE NATIONAL DEFENSE AND EDUCATION ACT (NDEA)	3
1.3 COLEMAN REPORT.....	4
1.4 A NATION AT RISK	5
1.5 A PLACE CALLED SCHOOL	7
1.6 NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND	9
1.7 TEACHER QUALITY AND NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND.....	11
1.8 NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND AND TEACHER CERTIFICATION.....	12
1.9 HISTORY OF SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION	14
1.9.1 Early Settlement (1600-1700).....	15
1.9.2 Colonial Settlement (1700-1800).....	16
1.9.3 Industrial Development (1800-Early 1900'S).....	16
1.9.3.1 Bureaucracy, Efficiency, and the Superintendent.....	17
1.9.3.2 Progressive Movement (Early 1900's)	19
1.9.4 Modern Supervision (1950-present).....	19
1.10 TENURE AND EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION.....	21
1.11 EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS' VIEWS OF SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION.....	24

1.12	WHAT IS A QUALITY TEACHER?.....	28
1.12.1	No Child Left Behind and Its Critics	28
1.13	TRAINING OF TEACHERS	30
1.13.1	Normal Schools.....	30
1.13.2	End of Normal Schools.....	32
1.13.3	Higher Education Today	33
1.13.4	Teacher Testing.....	34
1.14	TEACHER MORALE, EFFICACY AND BURNOUT	37
1.15	TEACHER ATTRITION.....	41
1.15.1	Statistics on Teacher Attrition.....	42
1.15.2	Why Teachers Leave.....	42
1.15.2.1	New Teacher Induction Programs	44
1.15.3	Teacher Salaries	47
1.15.4	Higher Salaries for Quality Teachers	48
1.16	TEACHER RETENTION.....	49
1.16.1	Teacher Retention at the State Level	52
1.17	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	54
1.17.1	Evolution of Quality Teaching.....	54
1.17.2	What is a Quality Teacher?	55
1.17.3	Teacher Retention and Attrition	56
2.0	METHODOLOGY.....	58
2.1	BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM.....	58
2.2	PRIOR FINDINGS THAT SERVE THE BASIS FOR THIS STUDY.....	59
2.3	THE IMPORTANCE OF THIS STUDY	60
2.4	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	61
2.5	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	61
2.6	OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS	62
2.7	METHODOLOGY	63
2.7.1	Subjects	63
2.7.2	Recruitment of Subjects	64

2.7.3	Survey Instrument	65
2.7.4	Data Collection	65
2.7.5	Analysis of the Data	66
3.0	RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	67
3.1	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	67
3.2	FINDINGS.....	69
3.2.1	Demographic Characteristics	69
3.2.2	Research Questions.....	70
3.2.3	Research Question #1: What are the current working conditions for first year teachers?	70
3.2.3.1	Workplace Conditions and Time Spent on Preparation.....	70
3.2.3.2	Workload.....	71
3.2.3.3	Administrative and Colleague Support	72
3.2.3.4	Feeling Effective and Safe and Secure	73
3.2.3.5	Having Their Own Classroom.....	73
3.2.3.6	Salary	73
3.2.4	Research Question #2: To what extent are administrators providing first year teachers with the resources that the literature states is important for first- year teachers to be successful in the classroom?	74
3.2.4.1	Induction.....	74
3.2.4.2	Mentoring	76
3.2.4.3	Extracurricular Activities and Administrative Support.....	77
3.2.4.4	Weaknesses and Valuable Information from Induction	77
3.2.4.5	Value of Induction	78
3.2.4.6	Weaknesses of Induction.....	80
3.2.5	Research Question # 3. How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?.....	84
3.2.5.1	Migration.....	85
3.2.5.2	Leaving the Teaching Profession.....	88
3.3	SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	89

4.0	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	91
4.1	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.....	91
4.1.1	Low Return Rate.....	92
4.1.2	Teacher Attrition in Pennsylvania	93
4.1.3	Schedules and Salary	94
4.1.4	Having Own Classroom.....	96
4.1.5	Other Workplace Conditions.....	97
4.1.6	Induction, Mentoring, and Administrative Support	97
4.2	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	100
4.2.1	Recruitment of Subjects	100
4.2.2	Survey Instrument	101
4.2.3	Bias of the Researcher	102
4.2.4	Generalizability of the Findings	102
4.3	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY	102
4.4	SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....ERROR! BOOKMARK NOT DEFINED.	
	APPENDIX A	108
	APPENDIX B	109
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	118

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Timeline: Educational Research and Legislation	27
Table 2.1	Overview of Teacher Attrition and Retention Factors	60
Table 2.2	Survey Questions Reflecting Research Questions	68
Table 3.1	Descriptive Statistics for Working Conditions	74
Table 3.2	Helpfulness of Induction Programs/Frequencies and Percentages	75
Table 3.3	Helpfulness of Induction Programs/Means and Standard Deviations	76
Table 3.4	Categories and Tabulations for Open-ended Responses	78
Table 3.5	Factors Influencing Teachers to Change School Districts	86
Table 3.6	Descriptive Statistics for Factors Causing Teacher Migration	87
Table 3.7	Descriptive Statistics for Factors Causing Teachers to Leave	88
Table 3.8	Ranking of Factors That Cause First-year Teachers to Leave	89

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Time Spent Outside of School on Preparation	71
Figure 3.2 Number of Subjects Taught Per Day	72

PREFACE

This dissertation is dedicated to my mentor, Mrs. Arlene Wetzel.

First, I would like to express my deepest appreciation and thanks to my advisor, Dr. Mary Margaret Kerr, for her advice, intellect, energy, patience, and valuable time during my doctoral journey. I hope someday I can share with my advisees the guidance, patience and energy that she gave me.

Secondly, I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Charles Gorman, Dr. William Bickel, and Dr. Charlene Trovato. I could not have picked a more stellar committee that combined such experience, wisdom, and insight in the field of education and research.

Next, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Jim Buckeit, Executive Board Director of the Pennsylvania State Board of Education, for his endless efforts in facilitating this study.

Many thanks go to Dr. Russell Schuh, Research Associate from the School of Education, and Dr. Elaine Rubinstein from the Office of Evaluation and Statistics for helping me with the data analysis.

I would like to thank my friends and colleagues for their endless hours of proofreading and editing my survey and literature review. I would also like to thank my friends and family for their support and encouragement.

Donna, thanks for your aid in the early stages of my research. JP and CB, thanks for answering all of my technology questions, even at 9 p.m. on a Saturday night. Dina, thanks for being my

very own, dial-up, personal thesaurus. Beej, thanks for being a great friend and for letting me vent.

Finally, I would like to thank the 279 respondents who took the time to complete my survey, so that we could gain insight into the first-year teaching experience.

1.0 CHAPTER LITERATURE REVIEW

Brenda, a first year teacher, enthusiastically accepted a teaching position in an urban middle school. She was hired to teach Spanish to 10 different classes of sixth, seventh, and eighth graders. Brenda did not have her own classroom and had very limited curriculum guidelines. When her principal assigned her to the very same schedule the following year, Brenda decided to seek a teaching position at a different school (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003).

At 31 years of age, Sharon decided she wanted to be a teacher. She had already completed her bachelor's degree in psychology many years before, so she enrolled in an alternative teacher certification program in order to obtain her teacher's certificate. After four weeks of orientation, which mostly consisted of guest lecturers and puppet shows, Sharon entered the classroom. One year later, Sharon quit.

The first day I had to break up five fights; one boy, who I later found out had just had his medication changed was running around the room. The room was one big space of desks and non-working computers. I hadn't seen my textbooks yet. I didn't know anything about how to set up my room for learning, create lesson plans, what happens on a typical first day, what an IEP was (Scherer, 2003).

Julie, who taught history and English in a public school, was reputed as being an outstanding teacher. Parents, students, teachers, and administrators believed she was one of the best. However, after a few years in the classroom, Julie decided to quit.

At one time she brought enormous energy and commitment to her work, putting in long hours and agreeing to do all sorts of 'extras' above and beyond the call of duty. Now she

is exhausted just going through the motions and doing the bare minimum. At one time she was deeply involved with her students, attentive to their progress and achievement . . . Now she is more negative and cynical about their motivation and skills (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

After 20 years of legislators and educational experts focusing on graduation requirements, assessment tests, and curriculum standards, political leaders *now* agree that every classroom needs a quality teacher (Kaplan & Owings, 2002). This shift in focus derives from years of research concluding that teacher quality is the most important factor in influencing student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rivers and Sander, 1996; Kaplan Owings, 2002).

In all schools, regardless of school wealth, student demographics or staffing patterns, the most important resource of continuing improvement is the knowledge and skill of the schools' best-prepared and most committed teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003, p. 9).

Despite growing consensus that quality teaching is the strongest factor in determining student achievement, hundreds of quality teachers leave their classrooms every year (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Since having qualified teachers in every classroom is important to student learning, shouldn't school districts make teacher retention a priority?

This literature review focuses not only on the causes and effects of teacher attrition, but also on what has been done historically to foster quality teaching. Four sections comprise this analysis: (a) historical legislation such as NDEA (National Defense and Education Act) and educational research (such as the Coleman Report and Goodlad's work) which has helped to create and define quality teaching; (b) an overview of supervision and evaluation as tools to improve the performance of teachers; (c) the definition of a quality teacher and how legislators and researchers define what constitutes quality teaching; and (d) teacher attrition and what school districts can do to retain quality teachers.

1.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF LEGISLATION AND RESEARCH ON QUALITY TEACHING

In the last 50 years, the federal government has made major contributions in fostering the concept of the quality teacher. The federal government's approach to quality teaching has evolved from merely funding incentives to establishing a legal standard for a quality teacher.

1.2 THE NATIONAL DEFENSE AND EDUCATION ACT (NDEA)

In 1957, the federal government prioritized for the first time the role of the teacher by appropriating funds for prospective public school teachers. During the 1940's and early 50's, Congress failed to pass such legislation despite crowded classrooms brought on by the baby boom and low pay for teachers (Spring, 1996). Resistance to federal aid disappeared on October 4, 1957, when the Soviet Union launched the first satellite, Sputnik I, into space (Bailey & Kennedy, 1994). The United States' government believed that the Russian satellite symbolized that America had lost the technology race; public schools took much of the blame (Spring, 1996). Congress responded by passing the National Defense and Education Act (NDEA), sending a message that the role of the teacher is key to school improvement. NDEA school loans were made in amounts of up to \$5,000 but recipients were eligible for loan forgiveness if they became public school teachers (Pulliam, 1976). Under the direction of President Eisenhower, NDEA also called for a system of nationwide testing for high school students and developed incentives to persuade academically talented students to pursue fields in science and math education (Spring, 1976). Additional funds supported laboratory equipment and materials for

science experiments (Pulliam, 1976). The passing of NDEA reflected for the first time in our nation's history a negative perception of public education and Congressional commitment to establish policies to improve the quality of our schools (Spring, 1976). This legislation sent a message that our public schools were in dire need of bright, energetic, and motivated teachers.

1.3 COLEMAN REPORT

The Eisenhower administration believed that intelligent and energetic teachers, especially in critical fields such as math and science, would improve student achievement. However, the Coleman Report refuted this notion: teacher quality did not matter and children could only make progress in schools if they could overcome their socio-economic status. The Coleman Report, the largest comprehensive data collection “gathered on consistent specifications throughout the whole nation” (Coleman, 1966, p. 3), responded to Section 402 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

The Commissioner shall conduct a survey and make a report to the President and the Congress, within two years of the enactment of this title, concerning the lack of availability of equal educational opportunities for individuals by reason of race, color, religion, or national origin in public educational institutions at all levels in the United States, its territories and possessions, and the District of Columbia (p. iii).

The National Center of Educational Statistics of the United States Office of Education hired Coleman to survey six racial and ethnic groups: African Americans, American Indians, Oriental Americans, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, and whites. Coleman addressed four major questions: (1) What extent are racial and ethnic groups segregated from one another in public schools? (2) Do schools offer equal educational opportunities in terms of educational quality? (3) How much do students learn as measured by their performance on standardized

achievement tests? (4) What is the relationship between student achievement and the kind of school he/she attends?

Coleman claimed that American public education “remains largely unequal in most regions of the country, including all those where Negroes form any significant proportion of the population” (p.3). However, Coleman found that whatever “may be the combination of non-school factors—poverty, community, attitudes, low educational level of parents—which put minority children at a disadvantage in verbal and nonverbal skills when they enter the first grade, the fact is the schools have not overcome it” (p. 21). The report indicated that the factors assumed to improve student achievement (e.g., class size, school spending and integrated curriculum) had little impact. The Coleman Report claimed that socioeconomic issues were most responsible for student achievement—or lack of it. The report forecast a negative outlook on the ability of schools to overcome poverty and solve social issues (Coleman, 1966). However, research conducted since Coleman has shown that individual teachers can have a *profound* effect on student achievement. Coleman’s report examined the effect of schools, not teachers, on student achievement. We now know that variable teacher quality results in major differences in student achievement (Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock, 2001).

1.4 A NATION AT RISK

Despite the level of NDEA funding, improvements in education were not forthcoming. In 1981, the U.S. Secretary of Education, concerned about the quality of our nation’s schools, created a National Commission to explore the quality of education in the United States. The Commission relied on five sources of information in constructing their report: papers from experts on a

variety of educational issues, testimony of administrators, teachers, students, parents, professional and public groups, business leaders, public officials, and scholars. Eighteen months later, the Commission issued a warning about the quality of our public schools:

- Standardized test scores from high school students are on the average lower than standardized tests from the 1950's.
- Achievement scores from students graduating from college are lower than test scores from the 1950's.
- Twenty-three million American adults are functionally illiterate.
- Approximately 13 percent of all 17-year-olds are illiterate. The percent rises to 40% if the student is a minority.
- Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SATs) fell steadily from 1963 through 1980. Average verbal scores fell over 50 points and average math scores fell nearly 40 points.
- The proportion of students scoring in a superior manner on SATs has also fallen dramatically.
- Over half of the population of gifted students does not match their tested ability with their achievement in school.
- Nearly 40% of 17-year-olds cannot make conclusions from written material, one-fifth cannot write a persuasive essay and only one-third could solve a mathematical problem requiring several steps.
- Other industrial countries such as Great Britain spend eight hours a day in the classroom compared to seven in the United States.
- Some schools in the United States spent only 17 hours a week on academic instruction.
- Because of poor management of classroom time of schools in California, some elementary students received only one-fifth of reading instruction than that of other students.

Although the report focused on the poor ability of our nation's students, most of the recommendations given by the commission dealt with teachers. First, the commission suggested

that teacher salaries be increased to attract and retain educators. Additionally incentives should be made available to attract superior students to the teaching profession. Secondly, teachers should be tested to demonstrate an aptitude for teaching. Thirdly, school boards should develop career ladders for beginning teachers, experienced teachers, and master teachers.

Most of the recommendations involved attracting new teachers to the profession with salaries and incentives, while existing teachers were overlooked. Could it be that the poor student achievement observed by *A Nation at Risk* (1983) resulted from unmotivated and demoralized teachers who no longer found their work meaningful?

1.5 A PLACE CALLED SCHOOL

Shortly after *A Nation at Risk* (1983) was published, Goodlad published his work, *A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future* (1984), the most recent longitudinal study of American schools. Over a period of eight years, Goodlad's research team investigated schools from every region in the United States. They visited over 1,000 classrooms, interviewed 1,300 teachers, 8,600 students, and 17,000 parents. Goodlad's study concluded that America's public schools could collapse. Low achievement, high drop-out rates, loss of teacher morale and public confidence were problems that could not be solved by monetary support alone. Goodlad emphasized the importance of having quality teachers in every classroom and offered suggestions for improvement. Initially, he believed that teacher quality was connected to teacher satisfaction. In other words, a happy teacher is a productive teacher: "Studies of a variety of workplaces suggest that remedying conditions tending to frustrate and irritate the workers increases both their satisfaction and productivity . . ." (Goodlad, 1984, p. 176). He also suggested

that teachers who are perceived as professionals by their principals would experience greater work satisfaction. He also believed that teachers were better satisfied if granted autonomy. For example, administrators could give teachers authority in developing staffing plans and allocating money for supplies.

Goodlad (1984) made other suggestions for improving teacher quality, including the following:

- Increase teacher salaries
- Use merit pay as an incentive for quality work from teachers.
- Develop superior teacher education programs
- Do more research in the area of teacher quality.
- Assign student teachers only to superior teachers
- Look for leadership from teachers in your own buildings
- Have head teachers not just based on seniority but master teaching.

Goodlad (1984) believed that one of the most important factors in teacher quality is for administrators to create an atmosphere where teachers do not become demoralized by their profession. Teacher morale is critical in improving schools, but many teachers' schedules do not foster positive morale. "During each day of the week, many secondary teachers meet hour after hour with successive classes of as many as 35 students each" (p. 194). He interviewed teachers who believed their schedule was both physically and emotionally draining. Goodlad suggested reducing teachers' instructional time in order to allow more time for planning, working individually with students, and correcting essays. Despite Goodlad's urging, little if any policy change has addressed the demoralization of teachers. Not surprisingly, research since Goodlad's work has shown that unmotivated teachers or teachers experiencing burnout negatively affect student achievement (Spaniol & Caputo, 1979; Dworkin, 1987; Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

1.6 NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND

Improving teacher quality to increase student achievement has been at the forefront of public education for the last four decades. Despite the millions of federal dollars spent on education over the past 50 years, schools have failed to demonstrate sufficient academic progress. In 2002, the Bush administration passed the landmark No Child Left Behind (NCLB) law designed to improve achievement and close student achievement gaps. NCLB is an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), originally passed in 1965 during President Johnson's Great Society program. In authorizing this amendment, Congress took an important step in helping schoolchildren across the United States (Schugurensky, 2002). Designed to amend ESEA, No Child Left Behind constituted a major effort by the federal government to support elementary and secondary education in the United States. NCLB is based on four components: improvement based on scientific research, accountability for results, expanded parental options and provided local control and flexibility.

Under NCLB, states must begin testing students in grades three through eight annually in reading and mathematics by the 2005-2006 school year. The tests must be aligned with state standards. The basic goal of NCLB is that all students will pass their states' assessment tests by the end of the 2013-2014 school year. However, to meet this goal, highly qualified teachers must be in place (NCLB, 2002). NCLB offers compelling evidence from the Universities of Texas and Tennessee that highly qualified teachers are one of the most critical factors in how well students achieve. In other words, teacher quality equates high student achievement (Sanders and Horn, 1998).

"Highly qualified" is a specific term defined by NCLB. "No Child Left Behind" legislation defines who is a 'highly qualified' teacher and seeks to overhaul how teachers are

trained, recruited, inducted into the profession, and nurtured in the classroom” (Blair, 2002). The law outlines a list of minimum requirements that a highly qualified teacher would meet in the area of teaching skills and content knowledge. The minimum qualifications are a bachelor’s degree, full state certification, demonstration of content, and competency for each subject taught. Beginning teachers at the elementary level must demonstrate competency by passing state tests in reading, language arts, writing mathematics, and other areas of the basic elementary school curriculum. New teachers at the middle or high school levels must pass a state test in each academic subject in which they teach or hold a bachelor’s degree in that subject (Trahan, 2002). Practicing teachers (those with at least three years of experience) must also meet the states’ “highly qualified” requirements by holding certification in the subjects they teach. States are also supposed to develop systems to assess the qualifications of experienced teachers, but the criteria has been vague and undetermined (U.S. Department of Education, 2001).

Other language in the law states that all Title I schools are expected to hire only “highly qualified” teachers and to ensure that all teachers are fully certified within four years in the field in which they teach. Because many teachers in rural areas teach various subjects without certification, the Education Department amended the certification issue in March of 2004 by providing a three-year grace period for these teachers to become certified (Cardman, 2004). The law has also been flexible by allowing states to exercise control in line with NCLB in developing a definition of highly qualified in order to meet the needs of their particular district or state. Moreover, NCLB says that states must provide annual report cards of how they are moving toward this goal. In these reports, states must inform the federal government of the number of teachers who are not fully licensed or certified in the subjects in which they teach (Trahan, 2003).

In summary, NCLB, while building on the foundation of ESEA, includes provisions for major shifts in how our schools educate students and how our teachers will be held more accountable.

1.7 TEACHER QUALITY AND NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND

During the last decade, research has confirmed that teacher quality is the most important predictor of student success (Kaplan & Owings, 2002; Rivers & Sanders, 1996; Sanders, 1996). The more years that students work with effective teachers the higher their achievement, therefore, showing more success than their peers who start out with equal achievement but spend successive years with ineffective teachers (Kaplan & Owings, 2002). Sanders (1996) concluded that students taught by the most effective teachers for five consecutive years posted academic achievement gains 54% higher than those of students who had ineffective teachers for three consecutive years. Similarly, Rivers and Sanders (1996) found that elementary school students who worked with effective teachers for three consecutive years scored higher than their peers (50 points higher) of the same initial ability taught by ineffective teachers for three consecutive years. Haycock (1998) studied high school students taught by effective teachers: the students showed improvements in reading and math that exceeded the national median. Their peers, taught by ineffective teachers that year, showed no growth.

1.8 NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND AND TEACHER CERTIFICATION

Because teacher credentialing traditionally has been left to the states, it is not surprising that the provisions concerning the highly qualified teacher are controversial (Rotherham & Mead, 2003). Much of this controversy stems from the NCLB requirement that all teachers be fully certified in the subjects they teach by 2006. However, the research connecting teacher quality and licensure and certification is mixed. Many educators and researchers believe that NCLB weakens teacher quality by weakening the requirements to become certified in a subject area. For example, potential teachers need to hold bachelors' degree, have full state certification or have passed the state licensure exam, and pass a state test in their subject area in order to hold a license to teach (Rotherham & Mead, 2003). Teachers no longer need the traditional courses in educational theory and practice to become secondary school teachers. In addition, under NCLB, potential secondary teachers must take rigorous subject state tests but need not pass a teacher preparation test. NCLB advocated subject knowledge as more important than teaching knowledge. Kaplan and Owings (2002) believe that NCLB weakens teacher quality by permitting those with subject matter knowledge only to begin teaching in our public schools. Although this fast route to certification will allow principals to have a wider range of candidates, Kaplan and Owings (2002) believe that these potential teachers will not know how to teach adolescents effectively.

Much research has uncovered the connection between quality teachers and traditional certification (Darling-Hammond, 2000; McDiarmid, 1991; Monk, 1994). Most researchers have determined that teachers who have gone through a traditional certification program have more success in reaching students academically. However, traditional educational programs vary and states differ in their licensing requirements. A standard certification usually means that a teacher has successfully completed a state-approved teacher education program at the graduate or

undergraduate level. The graduate has also completed a major or minor in the field of study with 18 to 40 education credits and has student-taught for eight to 18 weeks (Darling Hammond, 2000). In addition, Darling-Hammond (2000) found that teacher preparation has a more powerful effect on student achievement than overall spending, class size, and teacher salaries. Similarly, McDiarmid and Wilson (1991) showed that teachers with subject knowledge only and alternative certification had misconceptions about how to teach content and were unable to integrate content with the best teaching practices. Likewise, Monk (1994), in his study of math and science achievement of high school students, found that the educational coursework of teachers was more influential in achievement than subject matter knowledge. Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2002) studied teacher licensure in Arizona and found that elementary school pupils who had fully licensed teachers achieved 20% higher gains than students of teachers not traditionally licensed. Having a traditional license or certification rather than a nontraditional certification equated to two months growth in student achievement for many students.

Some researchers have discovered that teachers who lack traditional teacher preparation struggle with classroom discipline. “Teachers who lack effective classroom management skills, regardless of how much subject matter they know, cannot create a classroom environment that supports student learning” (Darling-Hammond, 2000, p. 29). Barton, Coley and Wenglinsky (1998) found that poor discipline in the classroom resulted in student disorder, which lowers student achievement.

Although many researchers have stated that traditional teacher certification greatly contributed to student achievement, others agree with NCLB that teacher content is the most important aspect in increasing student achievement. Kaplan and Owings (2002) argued the following:

Briefly, one cohort believes that quality teachers are those who have content knowledge and have studied instructional ideas and practices that increase student learning. The other faction believes effective teachers only need strong content knowledge; any other criteria required for teaching candidates are burdensome and unnecessary. Both groups cite research to support their agenda (p. 22).

No Child Left Behind attempts to add rigor to teacher quality by boosting subject knowledge expertise, especially at the middle and secondary levels (Rotherham & Mead, 2002). This spotlight on subject knowledge is a result of evidence that a substantial number of students are taught by teachers without training and/or knowledge in the subjects they teach (Jerold & Ingersol, 2002). Although some earlier research concluded that demographic factors were the major determinant of student achievement, Darling-Hammond (2000) stated that more recent research concludes that what teachers know is the most important factor influencing what students learn. However, Jerold and Ingersoll (2002) reported that nearly 25% of core academic classes at the secondary level are taught by teachers lacking a major or a minor in the subject they are teaching. In conclusion, the legislators who constructed NCLB believe that a “highly qualified” teacher needs to possess strong content knowledge, an important point that is grounded in research.

1.9 HISTORY OF SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

When school districts interview potential teachers, credentials, experience and knowledge are key factors. However, once a candidate is hired, the teacher’s road to growth and improvement should not be stymied as long as school districts have comprehensive supervision and evaluation plans in place. The history of supervision and evaluation has evolved as teachers and schools have transformed, but one factor has remained constant. Adequate supervision and evaluation

programs need to be in place to ensure that schools are staffed with quality teachers. However, some contemporary researchers believe that the supervision and evaluation programs in many schools are lacking.

Many researchers agree that teacher evaluation and supervision are a vital part of improving teacher quality in schools (Glanz, 1994; McLaughlin & Piferifer, 1998; Kosmoski, 2000). Proper supervision and evaluation of new teachers can help determine if new teachers can teach, help all teachers improve, and indicate whether teachers can or will not teach effectively (Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, and Bernstein, 1984). Supervision, therefore, is a vital tool which will ensure the continued success of our schools (Glanz, 1994).

The historical perspectives of school supervision can be traced back to the early years of American settlement. As the American political, religious, and economical landscape changed so did supervision and evaluation of teachers. Glanz (1994) believes that analyzing supervision of the past is important to be able to comprehend supervision of the present and possibly avoid problems in the future.

1.9.1 Early Settlement (1600-1700)

Prior to 1647, education consisted of parents educating their children. Pilgrims of the 17th century thought it very important for their children to be able to read the Bible. However, the pilgrims soon recognized the need for a more formalized education. In 1647, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts passed the Massachusetts School Law of 1647 (also known as The Old Deluder Satan Act), which required communities of 50 or more families to provide children with instruction in reading and writing. In addition, communities with 100 or more families must establish formal grammar schools (Bailey & Kennedy, 1994). Early supervisors were known as

selectmen, who were often businessmen, parents, and clergy. Selectmen visited their communities' grammar schools to insure that teachers were performing their duties, which consisted of instructing students in reading and writing to protect them from Satan.

1.9.2 Colonial Settlement (1700-1800)

During this century, colonial population and the number of grammar schools grew rapidly. Selectmen found it difficult to keep up with their supervisory duties. Supervision fell to inspectors who were often religious leaders or other distinguished citizens whose task was to determine if teachers were adequately performing their duties. These religious leaders stressed strict morality and religion in the lives of their teachers and made sure that teachers were performing their custodial tasks of the public school. One of the major duties of early settlement teachers was care of the school. A sample list of rules for teachers in which supervisors were asked to reinforce is as follows:

- Each day teachers will fill lamps and clean chimneys.
- Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and a bucket of coal for each school day.
- Male teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes as long as they attend church regularly.
- Every teacher should put aside a portion of his earnings for his retirements, so he will not be a burden on society (*Teachers' Rules*, 1872).

1.9.3 Industrial Development (1800-Early 1900'S)

The turn of the century ushered in great changes in supervision and evaluation of teachers. As towns and cities continued to grow, schools became larger and more diverse. The need for tax-

supported education surfaced through educators, Henry Barnard and Horace Mann. As more schools were built and more teachers were hired, this created a need for a more sophisticated system of supervision. “Head teachers” or “principal teachers” in the mid 1800’s were hired to teach their own classes, cover other teachers’ classes on occasion, and show other teachers how the job should be done (Elbree, 1939). The role of the superintendent surfaced in the early 1900’s whose main responsibility was improvement of instruction (Kosmoski, 2000).

1.9.3.1 Bureaucracy, Efficiency, and the Superintendent

The late 19th century brought greater population growth to American cities. This growth is the single most important factor in bringing bureaucracy to government, business, industry, and public schools. With the bureaucratic emphasis on education, supervisors and educators placed more value on authority and control than on freedom and autonomy. Bureaucracy in public education created “a centralized, standardized, hierarchical, administrative structure” (Glanz, 1991, p. 24).

Bureaucracy was initially developed in business and industry. Max Weber, known sociologist and economist, developed the characteristics for an ideal industrial bureaucracy: hierarchy of authority, impersonality, written rules of conduct, promotion based on achievement, specialized division of labor, and efficiency. All of these characteristics have one goal: to reach the organization’s goals. Weber believed that a true bureaucracy should consist of a hierarchy in which power flows from superordinates (the top) to subordinates (the bottom) (Aron, 1970). Industrialist Frederick Taylor furthered this idea through a discipline known as scientific management. Taylor explored ways in which to conserve the laborers energy and increase productivity (Taylor, 1967). The movement to increase efficiency was furthered by Henri Fayol

by focusing on the manager instead of the worker. He developed a management plan that included planning, organizing, commanding, co-ordination, and control (1967). As the industrial world followed Taylor's and Fayol's lead to become more efficient, these ideas spilled over into education and were adopted by administrators and supervisors in schools (Glanz, 1991). Teaching in this scientific model was viewed as a science rather than an art. Therefore, "teaching could be examined, dissected, ordered, and objectively evaluated" (Kosmoski, 2000, p. 5). The efficiency model combined with the bureaucratization of schools led to a vigorous supervision and evaluation system. The hierarchy created in the bureaucratic model spread to schools creating a need for a manager, hence the creation of the superintendent. A major responsibility of the superintendent in the bureaucratic model was to determine whether principals were doing an adequate job of supervising their teachers (Urban & Wagoneer, 2004). Furthermore, superintendents believed that a bureaucratic form of control would result in a positive influence on public education (Glanz, 1994). To ensure efficiency, supervisors used rating scales designed to rate teacher effectiveness. Nolan and Hoover (2004) wrote that scientists could study effective teachers and develop descriptors of their behaviors. Those descriptors could then be transformed into scales to rate the effectiveness of other teachers. Skilled supervisors could use the descriptors on the rating scales to make teachers more efficient. Nolan and Hoover (2004) added that the rating scales were used exclusively during the twentieth century despite little agreement of what exactly constituted effective teaching. Despite opposition to the rating scale as being undemocratic, the scales were widely used to evaluate teachers.

1.9.3.2 Progressive Movement (Early 1900's)

Many educational leaders found fault with the rigid and undemocratic supervision and evaluation system stemming from the efficiency movement. During the Progressive era of the early 1900's, some educators sought an evaluation system that was less rigid and controlled. Nolan and Hoover (2004) wrote that "the Progressive era, with its philosophy of inquiry, democratic processes, and scientific investigation, led to a supervisory process that was seen as helpful, improvement oriented, and collaborative" (p. 23). Reformers such as Dewey encouraged teachers and administrators to experiment with classroom practices in their schools. This new supervisory approach downplayed teacher evaluation and emphasized collaboration, group processes, inquiry, and experimentation. It contrasted drastically with the efficiency model and saw teachers as part of the solution rather than part of the problem. However, both models continued to coexist and marked the beginning of the ongoing conflict between democratic and autocratic supervisory styles (Nolan & Hoover, 2004).

1.9.4 Modern Supervision (1950-present)

The remainder of the 20th century saw a virtual tug of war in supervision and evaluation programs. The Progressive movement of the 1920's brought about the human relations supervision movement, which contrasted with the bureaucratic/efficiency model. Elton Mayo, a social philosopher and professor at Harvard University, developed the human relations movement. Mayo believed that the productivity of teachers could be increased by meeting their social needs at work. This entailed providing teachers with opportunities to interact with each other, treating them with respect, and involving them in the decision-making process

(Sergiovanni, 2002). Mayo believed that supervisors needed to work to create a feeling of satisfaction among teachers. “It was assumed that a satisfied staff would work harder and would be easier to work with, to lead, and to control” (Sergiovanni, 2000, p. 15).

Clinical supervision became the watchword in education in the 1960’s. Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) developed much of the literature on this model. Clinical supervision involved the development of a trusting relationship between the supervisor and the teacher, where together they analyzed teaching within the framework of pedagogy and recent research on those practices (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969).

Also in the 1970’s, Hunter, an educational psychologist, developed a model of supervision also known simply as “clinical supervision.” Although Hunter’s model was called “clinical supervision,” it bore little resemblance to Cogan and Goldhammer’s model, for Hunter’s model was much more authoritarian (Hunter, 1989). Hunter’s lesson design included eight essential elements that when used would maximize learning. These included anticipatory set, stating the purpose of the lesson, modeling, and guided practice. Hunter’s model swept like wildfire across the nation, and many school districts turned the model into a teacher-rating checklist for supervision and evaluation (Nolan & Hoover, 2000).

Currently, several models of supervision continue to exist. Supervision tends to reflect a supervisor’s personal philosophy, although most subscribe to the human relation model. Additionally, supervision has been influenced by the work of Charlotte Danielson. Teacher training programs at colleges and universities use her nationally recognized program for evaluating teachers and improving instructional practices. Danielson developed a framework that identifies those aspects shown to promote student learning. Her two textbooks, *Teacher Evaluation to Enhance Professional Practice* (2000) and *Professional Practice: A Framework*

for Teaching (1996) are also widely used in implementing these practices. Recently the Pennsylvania Department of Education adopted her strategies in the revamping of the standard teacher evaluation form and asked all school districts in the state to begin using the new form.

This historical review has traced the role of the supervisor over the last 300 years showing how the tasks of supervision have changed as the United States has changed. Since accountability is more important than ever with NCLB, teacher evaluation is at the heart of educational policymakers. Teacher evaluation done properly will contribute to quality education by helping school districts to dismiss incompetent teachers, to give feedback on ineffective classroom practices, and most importantly, to improve the overall instruction of teachers. Teacher evaluation is an important strategy for enhancing the quality of education in our public schools (McLaughlin & Pfeifer, 1988).

1.10 TENURE AND EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION

Tenure in its original form was created to prevent quality teachers from being arbitrarily dismissed by school boards. However, many educational reformers feel that tenure has evolved into protection for the bad teacher. The following is a brief history of tenure and how it has evolved.

Tenure is a form of job security for teachers who have successfully completed a probationary period of teaching (Scott, 1986). Tenure would make possible the employment and retention of teachers who would be free to teach without fearing the arbitrary, political, and personal actions of administrators and school boards (American Association of School Administrators, 1973). Looney (2004) stated that tenured status means that school districts must

grant the dismissed teacher the right to due process. This guarantee of due process originated in the 1800's during the period of Jacksonian democracy when the spoil system was prevalent. Unfortunately with this system, teaching jobs were given to those who curried favor with political bosses (AASA, 1973). Demands for the merit system with teaching positions came with the realization that good teachers were not being chosen with the spoil system, and advocates of teacher tenure urged for reform (Beale, 1972). However, educators believe that tenure has had both a positive and negative impact on the field of supervision and evaluation. In the last 20 years, tenure has received much negative press because many people believe that it enables poor teachers to hold onto their jobs. In fact, many states have attempted or achieved reforming teacher tenure laws due to the amount of red tape in dismissing teachers. For example, in the state of Pennsylvania, tenure status has been changed from a probationary period of two years to three. During the probationary period, a teacher is observed at least two times and success or lack of it is carefully documented (Bon Reis, 2000). Once a teacher is granted tenure, he cannot be dismissed without due process (Looney, 2004; Andrews, 1995; Imber & Van Geel, 2001). Therefore, once a district grants tenure, dismissing a teacher who is not performing well will become more difficult. Nolan and Hoover (2004) wrote that the "granting of tenure confers a presumption of competence; if a district attempts to dismiss a tenured teacher, that presumption must be disproven by the district" (p. 286). Thus, the probationary period is a crucial time for districts to determine whether the new teacher they hired is the best for that position. The decision to grant tenure should be based on numerous sources of data accumulated over the entire probationary period and should involve as many administrators in the district as possible (Nolan & Hoover, 2004).

One administrator summed up the importance of tenure with this statement:

I think we have been too casual about the tenure decision, and we have paid a price for that easygoing attitude. It's clear to me now that the tenure decision is the last opportunity we have to enforce the high performance standards on our teaching staff. Once they receive tenure, they have to be a blatant failure before we can get rid of them. Students get short-changed, parents eventually complain; and administrators wind up spending an inordinate amount of time and energy trying to rescue the unsalvageable. . . Before we assume a million dollar obligation to a teacher and limit our future instructional flexibility, we need considerable assurance that our decision to grant tenure is the right one (Bridges, 1992, p. 51).

Historically, the dismissal of incompetent teachers has been difficult (Looney, 2004; Bon Reis, 2000; Imber & Van Geel, 2001). Andrews (1995) stated that the dismissal of tenured teachers has traditionally been upheld in courts but the firing of teachers is often the last resort. He continued, "Far more often, a good faculty evaluation system should indicate ways in which excellent performance can be recognized and shortcomings can be remedied" (p. 1)

Although a multitude of evidence supports the claim that evaluation of teachers is critical in ensuring a quality education for students, many administrators have not taken (or have) the time to supervise and evaluate teachers properly—especially tenured teachers. Many principals believe that "even if you had definite evidence of inadequate or even shockingly inferior performance you just couldn't get rid of the tenured teacher anyway unless he had committed some overt act of malfeasance or immorality" (American Association of School Administrators, 1973, p. 14). In addition, Association (AASA) also believed that many administrators do not have the professional courage or do not know how to document charges against incompetent teachers. In this case, the AASA (1973) believed that tenure laws serve and protect inept administrators, not just weak teachers.

AASA (1973) also believed that very often the problem in evaluation and supervision of teachers is not ineptness of administrators but often lack of time. Many districts have an inadequate number of administrators who do not have the time to supervise teachers. AASA

(1973) stated that for sufficient evaluation of teachers and due process to be guaranteed, districts must make sure that they have an adequate number of administrators to do the job.

A Nation at Risk and Supervision and Evaluation

Teacher evaluation in our public schools has fluctuated in importance during the last 200 years. However, in 1983 when a federal commission developed by the Reagan administration published *A Nation at Risk* (1983), teacher evaluation became a national issue. Although the commission addressed many aspects, which were in need of reform in public education, teacher evaluation was one of them. The commission stated the following:

Persons preparing to teach should be required to meet high educational standards, to demonstrate an aptitude for teaching, and to demonstrate competence in an academic discipline . . . Salary, promotion, tenure, and retention decisions should be tied to an effective evaluation system that includes peer review so that superior teachers can be rewarded, average ones encouraged, and poor ones either improved or terminated (p. 30).

1.11 EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS' VIEWS OF SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

Shortly after the commission published *A Nation at Risk*, other educational reformers expressed the need for change to foster teacher quality in our public schools. Goodlad (1983) believed that the entire teacher evaluation process needed to be overhauled including employing head teachers as supervisors instead of principals.

All head teachers would teach part of the time, occupying positions normally filled by regular classroom teachers. In addition, however, they would be expected to serve as role models to fellow teachers, provide them with inservice assistance, diagnose knotty learning problems and so on (p. 302).

Goodlad (1983) also believed that principals are overloaded with the managerial responsibilities that come with running a school and therefore the evaluation of teachers suffers.

Neglect [of teaching evaluation] already is showing up in cases reported to me and others of harassed principals quickly and routinely checking off the competencies of their teachers on forms provided for this purpose (p. 303).

A considerable amount of literature concerning teacher evaluation effectiveness surfaced in the 1980's and 1990's after *A Nation at Risk* and Goodlad's work was published. Murphy (1987) believed that an evaluation system that encouraged better instruction included the following:

- 1) Organizational structures that teachers need such as peer observations.
- 2) Raises instructional issues as a priority in schools.
- 3) Improves the level of professional dialogue among teachers and administrators.
- 4) Adds to professional discussions among staff.
- 5) Helps develop instructional consistency in the school.

Some researchers have found that to achieve effective teacher evaluation, one size does not fit all. Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, and Berstein (1984) found that effective teacher evaluation systems varied by the teacher who was being evaluated and purpose of the evaluation. “. . . districts represent dramatically different contexts for teacher evaluation in terms of student population, financial circumstances, and political environment” (p. vii). In addition, the type of evaluation system must be appropriate for the district and the community, and the system must be able to adapt to change. “. . . rigid adherence to a conceptual framework adopted at some time in the past can result in evaluation services that neither adapt to the evolving needs of the school system nor keep pace with the state of the art of evaluation” (Stufflebeam & Webster, 1989, p. 570). Wise, et al (1984) agreed that a teacher evaluation program must suit the educational goals, management style, and values of the community in order to be successful.

Many researchers agreed that prioritizing teacher evaluation, making the time to observe teachers, and providing adequate training for evaluators are key elements in effective teacher evaluation. Millman (1981) wrote that administrators who evaluate teachers should have intense

preparation in evaluation theory and practice, the commitment to make it a priority, and the time and resources to make the system credible and objective. Wise, et al (1984) said for an evaluator to be successful, he must be able to make sound judgments about teacher quality and be able to make recommendations for improvement. In addition, an evaluator must have a strong foundation of instructional theory not just a checklist of what should be included in a lesson. Evaluation of teachers without adequate training can waste time and money and provide little professional growth for teachers (Hunter & Russell, 1989).

Although much has been written during the last two decades about what constitutes a successful teacher evaluation system, some schools still are not implementing them. Murphy (1987) believes that a majority of schools had no systematic way of evaluating teachers. He believed that this is unfortunate, for it gives teachers little or no feedback concerning their performance or skills. Worse yet, he stated that “token supervision degrades both the importance of teaching and learning and the professional positions of supervisors” (p. 157). Murphy (1987) also stated that many teacher evaluation systems are ritualistic—teachers are observed in order to satisfy a paper audit. He believed that when supervisors simply go through the motions of supervising and evaluating teachers, they are communicating two messages to the staff: (1.) administrators are not overly concerned about teaching and learning and (2.) administrators are not competent to make credible decisions concerning teaching and learning. Goodlad (1983) believed that one of the major reasons that schools have ineffective evaluation systems is because of a lack of leadership. In most schools, principals are the evaluator. Goodlad wrote that it is both naïve and arrogant to believe that principals have a higher level of teaching expertise than those teachers who are engaged in instruction as a full time occupation. Goodlad also argued that principals do not have the time to observe teachers. Developing and maintaining a

school is a full time job. Being the role model and monitor for teachers is a full time job also; therefore, one of them is bound to suffer.

Table 1.1. Timeline: Educational Research and Legislation.

Reformer, Legislation, or Research	Remedy	Date
NDEA	Federal response to Sputnik. Appropriated money for prospective teachers.	1957
ESEA	First Federal legislation to help children in schools.	1965
Coleman Report	Reported that students fail because of socioeconomic disadvantages.	1966
Hunter	Developed a standard lesson design that included eight essential elements.	1970's
Goodlad's Research	Report that stated that the quality of education is so poor that schools need to undergo major changes.	1983
Nation at Risk	Federal commission issue report concerning poor quality of public education.	1983
NCLB	Federal legislation asking for all teachers to be highly qualified and for all students to be proficient.	2001

1.12 WHAT IS A QUALITY TEACHER?

Currently the federal government has their own concrete definition of just what is a quality teacher through their landmark legislation, NCLB; however, many contemporary researchers do not believe that their definition can be so concise. Some believe that many innate and learned characteristics are part of teacher quality. Others believe that teacher training is a key factor.

1.12.1 No Child Left Behind and Its Critics

NCLB Act defined teacher quality as one who has many years of teaching experience, certification in the subjects taught, engagement in pedagogical coursework, and successful performance on teacher subject tests (NCLB, 2001). However, many educational experts conflict on whether these components actually result in quality teaching. For example, Rice (2003) found that with the exception of math and science, no correlation could be found between a teacher's certification status and student achievement. However, she did find that "tests that assess the impact of literacy levels or verbal abilities of teachers tend to show a positive effect on student achievement" (p. 46).

While Rice's research tends to agree or disagree with NCLB's idea of quality teaching, other researchers feel that quality teaching is more than just coursework and teaching experience. For example, Glasser (1993) developed six specific conditions of quality teaching: (1) create a warm, supportive classroom, (2) ask students to do only useful work, (3) ask students to do the best that they can do, (4) ask students to evaluate their own work and improve it, (5) encourage students in believing that quality work always feels good, and (6) encourage students that quality

work is never destructive; it is not quality to achieve positive feelings through abusing drugs or by hurting people, living creatures, or the environment.

Although Glasser focuses on the quality conditions of a teacher's classroom, he also focuses on the teacher as a person. Glasser (1993) believes that quality teachers should be known and liked by their students. He believes that when students know and like their teachers, they will work harder for that teacher. Glasser believed that teachers should in the first few months of school reveal naturally the following: (1) who you are, (2) what you stand for, (3) what you will ask them to do, (4) what you will not ask them to do, (5) what you will do for them, and (6) what you will not do for them.

Stronge and Hindman (2003) agree with Glasser that quality teachers exhibit personal quality characteristics.

Effective teachers exhibit caring and fairness; have a positive attitude about life and teaching; are reflective thinkers; and have high expectations for themselves and their students (p. 51).

In addition, the Education Policy Leadership Center (2004) recently surveyed superintendents from Pennsylvania with questions about their hiring practices. Not only did these superintendents look for academic prowess and skilled pedagogy, but also for creativity, flexibility, and compassion. One superintendent said clearly, we are looking for "kid magnets" (p.4).

Although personal characteristics are important in teacher quality, researchers also believe that adapting instructional strategies to individual student needs is an important component in teacher quality.

Effective teachers foster higher student learning gains by providing instruction that meets individual needs through the use of such strategies as hands-on learning, problem solving, questioning, guided practice, and feedback (Stronge & Hindman, 2003, p. 51).

Darling-Hammond (2000) agrees that quality teachers are those who use a range of teaching strategies and interaction styles rather than one single approach. However, Kaplan and Owings (2001) believe that teacher quality is not just limited to variations in instructional practice. Teacher quality is what teachers do to promote student learning. This includes selecting appropriate instructional goals and assessment, creating a positive learning environment, and using the curriculum effectively.

Stronge and Hindman (2003) also add that quality teachers determine priorities, plan instruction, allocate time, have high expectations for their students, make the most of instructional time, and create situations in which students can feel safe in taking academic risks. They also think that effective teachers “monitor learning and use their findings to adjust instruction so that all students in the classroom achieve, regardless of student abilities (p. 51).

In closing, many researchers believe that by simply listing the characteristics of quality teaching gives educators a false sense of coverage of what is a complex and shifting sense of components of human performance. Because these components of quality teaching are complex, it is difficult to make a complete list of what a quality teacher is.

1.13 TRAINING OF TEACHERS

1.13.1 Normal Schools

A major key to the history of quality teaching is the history of training teachers. The beginnings of teacher education may be traced back to the mid 19th century when the first schools, called normal schools, were established to train potential teachers (Brichman & Lehrer, 1962).

Massachusetts established the first normal school in 1823 and provided coursework in history and philosophy of education, methods of teaching, spelling, reading, writing, grammar, geography, poetry, piety, and morality (Sedlack, 1989). Normal schools offered a two year program for elementary teachers only, but by the end of the 19th century, most normal schools expanded their programs to three or four years and added secondary education (Ornstein & Levine, 1987).

By 1860, 10 states had established normal schools, but enrollment was low. However, by 1875, normal schools spread rapidly across the country, and enrollment rose dramatically. Normal school attendance grew from 10,000 in 1870 to 70,000 by the end of the century (Brichman & Lehrer, 1962).

Although normal schools were the first teacher education programs, they were subject to many criticisms. “. . . teacher training enjoyed neither an intellectual nor a clear organizational identity. It was born out of intimacy with the public schools, for which teachers needed no clearly defined preparation” (Goodlad, 1990, p. 72). Brichman and Lehrer (1962) wrote that normal schools across the country all differed in quality.

At its worst, the normal school was a shabby little institution with a single teacher who taught courses in pedagogy with perhaps a little time for a review of the elementary subjects. At its best, however, it was a very substantial professional school, headed by an able educator who was assisted by a devoted faculty (p. 157).

Ten years after the opening of the first normal school, many educators were disappointed with the efforts to improve standards (Herbst, 1989). The normal school usually accepted students whose education ceased in elementary school, and often the institution had no admission requirements (Brichman & Lehrer, 1962). Students were often immature and unqualified. Graduates of the normal school often “learned on the job, disappointed their employers and failed to be hired for the next term” (Herbst, 1989, p. 218). Warren also added

that many people complained of the incompetence of many of the normal school graduates. Some men “taught in order to support themselves during their college studies, or because they were waiting for more lucrative employment, or because they had failed at everything else” (p. 217). Still normal schools made considerable contributions to teacher preparation by training thousands of candidates during the 19th century. Because of their normal school education, these teachers seemed better prepared than those who simply passed a county exam in order to teach. Normal school curriculum varied from campus to campus, but teachers who spent even a trifling two years at these training institutions gained confidence in their teaching abilities (Altenbaugh & Underwood, 1990).

1.13.2 End of Normal Schools

In the early 1900’s, educational professionals such as state, county, and city superintendents wanted to upgrade normal schools to the college level (Herbst, 1989). As colleges and universities became increasingly interested in teacher education and began adding teacher education to their list of programs, normal schools found it difficult to compete with these colleges. Graduates of normal schools found it difficult to get teaching positions when competing against college graduates (Altenbaugh & Underwood, 1990). In addition, politicians and bureaucrats pressed on for stricter certification standards for teachers. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (NCA) in 1896 pressured high schools to accept only college-trained teachers. Normal schools responded to these demands by evolving into teachers colleges (Altenbaugh & Underwood, 1990).

After 1920, most two or three year normal schools evolved into four-year teachers colleges. These colleges only offered one degree, a Bachelor of Science in education (Brichman

& Lehrer, 1962). In 1920, the United States had 46 teachers colleges and 137 state normal schools. In 1933, these figures shifted to 146 and 50 respectively (Altenbaugh & Underwood, 1990).

The state teachers colleges, however, had a short life. Within 20 years of their inception, they transformed themselves into state colleges or state universities, which granted liberal arts and other degrees as well as a bachelor of science degree in education (Brichman & Lehrer, 1962).

The transition of all state teachers colleges was virtually complete by the 1970's. Within the college or university was the teacher education program that had once been dominant in the normal schools and teachers colleges (Herbst, 1989). University and college education programs grew rapidly as states developed specific licensure requirements often based on college level coursework. The number of professional courses offered for potential teachers and administrators grew from two or three in 1900 to several hundred in 1960. The norm for teacher education programs encompasses a degree with a major in an academic subject, a completion of required education courses, and one semester of student teaching (Goodlad, 1990).

1.13.3 Higher Education Today

Although much has been written in the last century about the need for reform in education, only a small amount has been aimed at teacher education (Goodlad, 1984). In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education published their report, *A Nation at Risk*, which lambasted public education because of its high dropout rates, poor student test scores and high rates of illiteracy (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983). A major reform movement in education was mounted; however, teacher education did not take the spotlight.

1.13.4 Teacher Testing

Teachers' test scores no doubt are one of the best indicators of what teachers know and can do because these tests assess the knowledge and skills that perspective teachers have acquired (Rice, 2003). Therefore, many political leaders see testing as one of the few steps that they can take to improve the public's confidence in the teaching force (Orstein & Levine, 2003). The assumption of these political leaders is "that the more academically talented the teacher, the more his or her students will learn" (Rollefson & Smith, 1997, p. 47). However, the research connecting high teacher test scores and high student achievement are mixed (Rice, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2000) and the use of the exam has been inconsistent since its inception in the 1920's.

In the 1920's and 1930's, the United States experienced an influx of teacher applicants due to higher teacher salaries, positive public policy, and job security (Sedlak, 1989). Gradually more states sought to improve the qualifications of the teaching force by raising certification standards and by testing teacher candidates. Many critics of the initial testing for licensure believed that examinations could discriminate among well-qualified candidates. However, policymakers wanted to create a respectable examination to help districts sort through many applicants for jobs. In 1940, the National Teachers' Exam (NTE) was created. The NTE asked college graduates questions about professional knowledge or how best to control adolescents (Sedlak, 1989). Hence, in the late 1940's, The American Council of Education, the NTE's sponsor, merged its testing program with those of the College Entrance Examination Board and the Graduate Record Office to form the Educational Testing Service (ETS). "Production, administration, and evaluation was transferred to ETS in 1951" (Sedlak, 1989, p. 281).

Once the National Teachers' Exam began to be administered in the 1940's, many teachers condemned the test as a measure of quality teaching. However, World War II drew

many teachers and perspective teachers to Europe, and most states no longer needed the exam to weed out the surplus of immigrants (Sedlak, 1989). Testing reappeared in the 1970's after Florida passed a bill requiring a comprehensive examination for licensure. In 1978 after the Supreme Court ruled that the NTE was not discriminatory (however more African-Americans failed it than other races), other states began to use it (Pulliam, 1987).

Teacher testing continued to come on strong during the decade of the 1980's. During that time, the number of states "employing tests of verbal skills, content knowledge, and or professional knowledge, and/or professional knowledge for licensure dramatically increased to more than 40" (Wayne & Youngs, 2003, p. 98). This was due to the Federal government's report, *A Nation at Risk*, in which the commission suggested that "persons preparing to teach should be required to meet high educational standards, to demonstrate an aptitude for teaching, and to demonstrate competence in an academic discipline" (*Nation at Risk*, p.30). After this report was published, most states acquired the NTE drawing on the argument "that teachers who have very low reading, mathematics, communications, and/or professional knowledge probably are ineffective in their teaching . . ." (Orstein & Levine, 2003, p. 22). During the 1990's the NTE evolved into the Praxis test, which 40 states currently use. This test measures general knowledge of teaching, communication skills, and professional knowledge. Passing scores on this test is required for certification in many states, and some schools consider scores when hiring new teachers (Johnson, Dupuis, Musial, Hall, Gollnick, 1996).

The testing of prospective teachers has been a controversial topic since its inception. Most of the controversy stems from the fact that research connecting high teacher test scores and teacher quality are mixed (Orstein & Levine, 2003). Quirk, Witten, and Weinberg (1973) conducted one of the first studies done on teacher testing and teacher quality. They found a

positive relationship between teacher scores and teacher performance and competence. Strauss and Sawyer (1986) also found in a study of North Carolina teachers that NTE scores had a strong influence on student achievement. However, most research has established a weak connection between teacher test scores and teacher performance. Dorby, Murphy, and Schmidst's (1985) study of 45 student teachers found no connection of NTE professional knowledge scores and measures of student-teacher competence. Similarly, Ayers (1988) study of 48 education graduates found virtually no connection between NTE scores and principal ratings of teaching performance. Also in a 1991 study of 493 first year teachers in Indiana, the researchers found no connection between NTE tests and teacher effectiveness (Moore, Schurr, & Henriksen, 1991). Andrews, Blackman, and Mackey's (1980) study concluded that the NTE is valid in showing what is learned in the college classroom but does not necessarily predict teacher performance. One study of 32 students in North Carolina actually found that students learned less by teachers who scored high on the NTE (Summers & Wolfe, 1975).

Many researchers and educators oppose teacher testing for the obvious reason that the connection between student achievement and teacher testing is tentative. However, many oppose testing because they believe "that this process unjustifiably excludes people who do poorly on paper and pencil tests" (Ornstein & Levine, 2003, p. 18). Others oppose the testing of teachers because they believe the existing tests "are biased against minorities and other candidates not from the central mainstream" (Ornstein & Levine, 2003, p.18). In a society that is desperate for teachers of color, it seems as though a test that is given to improve basic skills of teachers may be a trade off for inhibiting applicants of color into the teaching profession (Memory, Coleman, Watkins, 2003). In addition, the Education Policy Leadership Center (2003) surveyed superintendents who conveyed their fear that tests may keep talented potential teachers from

entering the classroom. The center made this recommendation from the surveys. “Policymakers should explore ways to reinforce existing quality initiatives and to monitor their progress to ensure that the desired results are achieved without significant unintended consequences” (p.14).

Despite the controversy over teacher testing, proponents argue that most state tests simply demonstrate that teacher candidates can function at the seventh and eighth grade level in reading, writing, and mathematics. All teachers should be able to function at this level, regardless of the connection to student achievement, in order to perform effectively at their jobs (Ornstein & Levine, 2003)

However, given the debate of whether teacher testing actually results in teacher quality and student achievement, testing teachers will continue to be a focus of policymakers for years to come.

1.14 TEACHER MORALE, EFFICACY AND BURNOUT

Since certification, subject knowledge, and years of experience have all been proven factors in student achievement, policy-makers have been quick to act. However, despite a limited amount of research connecting teacher job satisfaction with student achievement, virtually no policy has resulted. In their extensive study linking teacher efficacy and student achievement, Ashton and Webb (1986) made the following observation:

. . . teaching is an imperiled profession precisely because it deprives so many good teachers of their motivation and sense of professional self-esteem. Increasing the length of the school day or school year or tightening the requirements for high school graduation, two recommendations made by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) would mean little if large numbers of teachers remain demoralized by the compromises they are forced to make and the conditions under which they are forced to work (p.2).

Compared to the amount of research connecting teacher certification and subject knowledge to student achievement, the amount of research connecting teacher morale and student achievement is lacking. This could be because student achievement is “communal—shared and intertwined with teacher, student, and school variables in such a way that it cannot be teased out” (Dworkin, 1987, p. 152). Even though teacher efficacy, morale, and burnout are difficult variables to separate from other school factors, some researchers believe that teachers who are unmotivated in the classroom negatively affect student achievement (Ostroff, 1992; Ashton & Webb, 1996). Since teacher quality has become such an important policy issue, it is important to analyze the connection between low teacher morale and student achievement and the factors that cause teachers to become unmotivated in the classroom. “Unless something is done to overcome the demoralization of teachers, it is unlikely that any reforms will improve significantly the quality of education in the United States” (Ashton & Webb, 1986, p. 1).

Researchers have used many descriptors to characterize an unmotivated teacher. Teachers have been described as having low personal efficacy, low morale, or loss of enthusiasm for teaching. In extreme cases, some teachers experience burn out. Teachers who fit this mold could be thought of as cynical, negative, inflexible or rigid (Cedoline, 1982). Teachers who experience burnout will withdraw from their job, both psychologically and physically. They tend to invest less time and energy in their work, do only what is absolutely necessary, and often miss work (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Historically, burnout was believed to be a problem with the individual, meaning a person “becomes burned out” because of flaws in one’s character. However, recent research has shown that burnout is not a problem with people themselves but a problem with the social environment in which people work. “Burnout is not caused by a failure of character or a lack of

ambition. It is not a personality defect or a clinical syndrome. It is an occupational problem” (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Some researchers have discovered that low teacher morale or burnout produce negative effects toward teacher quality. Spaniol and Caputo (1979) believe that not only is burnout harmful to the teacher but also to students because it severely restricts the amount of energy that teachers can give to students. The result can be that the teacher is less productive invests less in his teaching. Therefore, if a characteristic of low enthusiasm or teacher burnout is a reduced willingness to expend extra efforts for clients, an expected result would be lower achievement gains (Dworkin, 1987). Dworkin (1987) found that low teacher morale has the most negative effect on children who are high achievers who are in need of a teacher who is enthusiastic and willing to make extra efforts for these students. Other studies have shown that burnout results in large numbers of experienced teachers exiting the classroom. Since researchers have established the connection between experienced teachers and high student achievement, schools suffer when their most experienced teachers leave the classroom. High rates of teacher turnover impede efforts to improve schools since high performing schools are distinguished by stability, continuity, and unity among staff (Coleman & Hoffer, 1997). Ashton and Webb (1986) conducted one of the most extensive studies connecting a teacher’s sense of personal efficacy and student achievement. Unlike the results of Dworkin’s study (1987), which showed a correlation between the effects of low morale and student achievement for *high* achievers only, Ashton and Webb showed the connection to be content specific among *all* levels of achievement. For example, they found that students who were taught math by a teacher with a high sense of efficacy raised their scores by 24%. In language arts, the variance accounted for an increase of

46%. Ashton and Webb demonstrated a strong correlation between a teacher's sense of efficacy and student achievement.

If indeed, a poor sense of efficacy, low morale, or burnout influences student achievement and causes experienced teachers to leave the profession, we must identify the causes of teacher burnout. A series of studies determined that workplace conditions by far distinguished satisfied teachers from dissatisfied teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 1997; Cedoline, 1982; Darling-Hammond, 2003). "The most satisfied teachers worked in a more supportive, safe, autonomous environment than the least satisfied teachers" (U.S. Department of Education, 1997, p.32).

The Department of Education found that administrative support, good student behavior, parental support, staff recognition, a positive school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy all are factors in teacher satisfaction. Although workplace conditions were strongly associated with teacher satisfaction, salaries were only modestly related. Imazeki (2003) verified that public school teachers value school resources and better student discipline over salary. The data in this research have shown "that salaries and income independence exert small effects on the various aspects of teacher burnout and commitment" (p. 170).

Johnson (1990) found a strong correlation between poor teacher morale and a lack of administrative support. Her data showed that teachers grew frustrated when administrators did not provide high standards for student behavior or high expectations for staff. This led some teachers to withdraw to their classrooms to "focus exclusively on their students, recognizing that their independent influence as individuals might be less than it could have been in a better organized, more independent school" (Johnson, 1990, p. 325). Other teachers in Johnson's study showed low morale by abandoning work on outside committees or developing curriculum when

the administration ignored their efforts. Many teachers spoke of feeling less optimism about their careers and found no incentive to work harder. Still others grew frustrated by the amount of time spent on clerical or supervisory duties. These duties they felt undermined their efforts to do what they were trained to do—teach children. “When there was insufficient time for teachers to do their best work or when their time was poorly protected from disruption and abuse, the quality of teaching was inevitably compromised” (p. 325-326).

Comparably, Ashton and Webb (1986) found that a low sense of personal efficacy resulted from teachers’ lack of participation in the decision-making process. Hornstein, Callahan, Fisch, and Benedict (1968) suggested that student performance is likely to increase if teachers play a significant role in school decision-making.

Another aspect of the administration’s role that is likely related to a teacher’s sense of efficacy is recognition and support of teachers. Chapman and Lowther (1982) found that the recognition and support that teachers received from their principals were positively related to their job satisfaction. Maslach and Leiter (1997) concluded that a school “that does not help its teachers remain engaged in their work make less of a contribution to student learning” (p.73).

1.15 TEACHER ATTRITION

The major theme of this literature review thus far is the importance of having quality teachers in place to ensure student achievement. Therefore, since teacher quality is of grave importance, it is imperative to study and reveal the reasons why large numbers of teachers leave the profession and determine what can be done to retain them.

1.15.1 Statistics on Teacher Attrition

Since the early 1990's, the number of teachers who leave the profession annually surpasses the number of entrants with only 20% of this attrition due to retirements (Ingersoll, 2001). Currently, 29% of new teachers leave education within their first three years, and by the end of five years, 39% have left (NCES, 1996). Rates of attrition also include those who leave to go from one school district to another. Ingersoll (2001) refers to this phenomenon as *migration*. This movement from district to district accounts for ½ of the turnover that many schools experience, especially schools that contain a large percentage of minority and poor students (Darling-Hammond, 2003). To make matters worse, many of the teachers who leave the profession or go to other schools tend to be the best (Gordon & Moxey, 2000). With this type of turnover in our public schools in the first few years of a teacher being hired, the education force never reaps the long-term benefits from its investment in new teachers who leave (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Ingersoll (2002) stated that well over 90% of new hires are for teachers who have left the profession. With this type of exodus, schools waste time and money re-teaching the basics to teachers who enter a school inexperienced and exit before being fully trained (Carroll, Reichart, and Guardino, 2000).

1.15.2 Why Teachers Leave

Educational research is virtually unanimous in the fact that quality teachers are the most important factor in student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rivers & Sanders, 1996; Kaplan & Owings, 2004). Therefore, keeping good teachers should be the most important agenda

for any school leader. To keep quality teachers teaching, school districts need to determine why new teachers leave the profession.

Darling Hammond (2003) found that lack of administrative support is a major factor in teacher attrition. Wong (2004) revealed that teachers stay in a district when they feel supported by their administrators, have strong bonds with their colleagues, and “are collectively committed to pursuing a common vision for student learning” (Wong, 2004, p. 52). Wong believes that structured and sustained professional development and principals who are strong leaders are essential in retaining quality teachers. He stated, “Good teachers do not choose to remain at schools where principals perform poorly” (p. 55). He also added that new teachers need professional development programs “that allow new teachers to observe others, to be observed by others, and to be part of networks of study groups where all teachers share together, grow together, and learn to respect each other’s work” (p. 52). Moore and Birkeland (2003) found that teachers who migrated to other school districts cited dissatisfaction with school administrators more often than any other factor. These teachers said their administrators were “aloof and inaccessible” (p.23). In fact, when searching for new schools, many of these teachers paid close attention to the leadership abilities of their potential new bosses.

Darling-Hammond (2003) also found that poor working conditions for teachers, especially new teachers, are a major factor in teacher attrition. The first few years of a teacher’s career are particularly challenging; however, these teachers very often receive the least desirable schedules. For example, beginning teachers often have the most challenging students and the most rigorous schedule. They sometimes are asked to teach from a cart because they do not have a permanent classroom and are often asked to advise or coach extracurricular activities (Renard, 2003). “New teachers often find themselves overwhelmed by work, both at school and at home.

Yet we continue to ask them to do all of the ‘extras’ that veteran teachers do” (Renard, 2003, p.63).

1.15.2.1 New Teacher Induction Programs

Since the early 1990’s many states have implemented teacher induction programs in order to help new teachers survive their first few years of teaching. Research has revealed that many teachers leave the profession after one year because of a feeling of helplessness and isolation (Heller, 2004; Johnson, 1990; Ingersoll, 2001). Studies have shown that well-designed induction programs reduce attrition rates and increase teacher effectiveness during the early years of a teacher’s career. Darling-Hammond believes that new teacher induction programs aid in retention “by improving their attitudes, feelings of efficacy and instructional skills” (2003, p.11).

Wong (2004) defines teacher induction as the following:

Induction is a systemwide, coherent, comprehensive training and support process that continues for 2 or 3 years and then seamlessly becomes part of the lifelong professional development program of the district to keep new teachers teaching and improving toward increasing their effectiveness (p. 42).

Since the early 1990’s, an increasing number of school districts now offer induction programs to train and support their new teachers. More than half of the states address induction in some way; however, content of the programs is left to the individual school districts (National Teacher Recruitment Clearinghouse, 2005). Therefore, induction programs can take many forms. Traditionally, school districts have chosen their induction program from three models: (a) Basic orientation model, (b) instructional practice model and (c) the school transformation model. Most school districts choose the basic orientation model. This approach helps new teachers learn about school procedures and policies and to understand their responsibilities as a classroom teacher. They are assigned a mentor and may attend a series of workshops and/or classes. The

instructional practice model is similar to the basic orientation model but besides helping teachers with procedures and policies, this model links induction efforts to existing state or local standards for accomplished teaching. Skilled mentors assist new teachers with theory and practice by using research-based instruction strategies. The school transformation model is rarely used by school districts. It incorporates aspects of the other two models while connecting induction to a school-wide renewal effort that promotes continuous improvement (NEA, 2002)

Most recent research focuses on the basic orientation model where the major focus is providing a strong support system for novice teachers in hopes of retaining them. Heller (2004) believes that successful induction programs create an atmosphere of community, provide expert training and support for the teacher, especially during times of frustration (Heller, 2004). Researchers have found that the most successful new teacher induction programs assist with policies and procedures, classroom management, feedback on instructional strategies, lesson planning, positive parent communication, and the development of higher order thinking skills.

Most induction programs provide the new teacher with a mentor, a veteran teacher who assists the beginning teacher with new pedagogies and socializes them into their new professional career. However, some schools provide the new teacher with a mentor and a one-day orientation at the beginning of the school year and call this induction. Breaux believes that new teacher induction involves full-scale training and support beginning on the first day of school and continues throughout the first two or three years of teaching (Delisio, 2003). She adds that mentoring cannot do it all. “A mentor alone cannot provide all the feedback, support, and ongoing training a new teacher requires. Induction, however, can—and does” (Delisio, 2003, p.2).

Breaux also believes that no two induction programs are exactly alike. Induction programs are unique to the culture and needs of its school district. However, she believes that the most successful programs have common components:

- 1) training for four or five days before the start of school.
- 2) Ongoing training for two or three years.
- 3) Strong participation of the school districts administrators.
- 4) A network of new teachers for additional support.
- 5) Effective modeling of teaching during in-services.
- 6) Opportunities for new teachers to visit veteran teachers' classrooms (Delisio, 2003).

An additional bonus of mentoring/induction programs is that they energize veteran teachers who serve as mentors. Some veteran teachers need challenges in order to continue to remain excited about their careers. "Many say that mentoring and coaching other teachers creates an incentive for them to remain in teaching as they learn from and share with their colleagues" (Darling-Hammond, 2003, p.11). The federal NCLB Act has also realized the importance of teacher induction programs. These programs could receive federal support over the next few years (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

Darling Hammond (2003) stated that teacher attrition results in many students being taught by ineffective teachers. "Unless we develop policies to stem such attrition through better preparation, assignment, working conditions, and mentor support, we cannot meet the goal of ensuring that all students have qualified teachers" (p. 9). Breaux adds that induction programs help increase teacher competence, which directly influences student achievement. She concludes:

Research has proven time and again that it is the teacher who makes the difference in the classroom; just as it is the pilot who makes the difference on the airplane; just as it is the surgeon who makes the difference in the operating room. The better trained the pilot, the better the chances of arriving safely at your destination. The better trained the surgeon,

the better the chances of successful patient recovery. Likewise, the better trained the teacher, the better the student achievement in the classroom (Delisio, 2003, p. 3).

1.15.3 Teacher Salaries

Rotherham and Mead (2003) believe that many talented, young people leave the teaching profession or do not enter it at all because of low salaries. Teaching is one of the few professions that reward comes with longevity instead of performance skills. It is no wonder that many young people become dissatisfied and pursue more lucrative employment.

Historically there have been three phases in the development of teacher pay (Kershaw & McKean, 1962). The first stage, which lasted into the early 1900's, saw teacher pay being negotiated between individual teachers and school boards. As school districts grew, teachers became disenchanted with this process. In response, grew stage two, which was the gradual movement to the salary schedule, which differed by grade level and position (i.e., Secondary teachers were paid more than elementary teachers were). Phase 3 commenced in the 1940's and became known as the single salary schedule, which is the norm today. This schedule brought secondary and elementary school teachers together on equal footing, and the schedule would be based on longevity (Kershaw & McKean, 1962).

Historians who discuss teacher income tend to use adjectives like "low" and "underpaid" (Lortie, 1975). Elsbree (1939) placed the average income of teachers during the colonial period to be above that of common laborers but below that of ministers, physicians, and lawyers. Some economists point out that teachers have been paid "the going rate" but consider teacher incomes inappropriate given the importance of educating children (Lortie, 1975). Teacher salaries have been rising and falling dramatically since the 1960's. At the time of *A Nation at Risk* (1983), teacher salaries were just beginning to rise from their lowest point since

the 1960's (Byrd, 1997). Although salaries continued to climb during the rest of the 1980's, by 1988, they had just caught up to the high that was reached in 1972. Since 1988, salaries have risen modestly (Byrd, 1997).

1.15.4 Higher Salaries for Quality Teachers

Many educational researchers believe that higher salaries would help lower attrition rates for new teachers, while attracting quality personnel to the teaching profession. Overall, teacher salaries are 20% below the salaries of other professionals who have similar education and training (Darling Hammond, 2003). Darling-Hammond (2003) believes that although many teachers are altruistically motivated than many other workers, they are more likely to quit if they work in districts with low salaries, especially in high demand areas such as math and science. Arguments are therefore made that to attract quality graduates to teaching, salaries must be raised. Rotherham and Mead (2003) feel that “to attract teachers . . . it is necessary to pay them more relative to other opportunities outside of and within education” (p. 70). These researchers also feel that we need to break away from salaries based on seniority and degrees. “Such rigid salary schedules are unfair to many talented teachers and have a pernicious effect on students” (p. 70). Podursky (2001) believes that a single-salary scale in teaching works against recruiting and retaining quality teachers, especially in hard to staff schools. He added that if all teachers are compensated equally, regardless of the task, they would naturally move to jobs with more pay, less stress, fewer demands, or perhaps easier students to teach. This idea of merit pay has its proponents and opponents. Teachers in Johnson's study (1990) expressed dissatisfaction with being paid without regard to the quality of their teaching. They find fault in a pay scale “that fails to distinguish between the better teacher, the average teacher, and the weak teacher” (p. 312).

However, other teachers were skeptical that merit awards could ever be distributed without prejudice or patronage. Others thought that merit pay could make matters worse by causing resentment among those teachers who were not compensated for quality teaching. In addition, some teachers thought that good teachers might leave the profession if they were overlooked and under-compensated for their quality teaching (Johnson, 1990).

Finally, it does appear that the public at large supports raising teacher salaries. National opinion polls consistently reveal that the public believes that teacher salaries are too low and that the public is willing to pay more in taxes to reward high quality teachers for high quality teaching (Berry, 2004).

1.16 TEACHER RETENTION

Despite the available research on why teachers leave the classroom, thousands of teachers continue to exit every year. If school administrators want to lower their attrition rates and retain quality teachers, they need to adjust their new teachers' work load and provide additional support (Renard, 2003; Darling Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

In her analysis of first year teachers, Renard (2003) concluded that it is unfair to treat new teachers like veteran teachers. She added that new teachers need more time to do what we consider routine aspects of teaching. It takes them more time to create tests, worksheets, and activities. New teachers often find themselves under tremendous stress, both at work and at home. However, administrators continue to expect new teachers to perform at the same level as veteran teachers do. Renard (2003) stated, "We should not be surprised that new teachers often end up feeling demoralized and dispirited, anxious about their efficacy and their capacity to cope

. . . It is no wonder that many teachers leave after their first, second, or third year of teaching” (p. 63).

Other researchers agree that new teachers should not be treated like veteran teachers and that schools cannot hold teachers accountable for skills and knowledge that they will gain only with experience. One place to start is with teacher induction or teacher mentoring programs. (These were previously discussed under *Teacher Attrition*.) Nearly all researchers in the field of teacher retention believe that teacher mentoring or teacher induction programs are crucial in retaining teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Renard, 2003; Wong, 2004). For example, the NCES (2000) and Ingersoll and Smith (2003) found that teachers who participated in an induction and/or mentoring program improved their retention rates by 15 to 50 percent.

Besides having well-designed mentoring programs established in schools, many researchers believe that new teachers need extra administrative support. In her case study of a New Jersey school district, Sargent (2003) found that the districts system of hiring quality teachers and new staff orientation programs result in this district having a 99% retention rate. After further analysis of the district, Sargent concludes that a district can have great success with retention when principals establish relationships with new teachers early. Sargent also suggested the following recommendations for administrators:

- Include new teachers in orientation programs.
- Invite new teachers to summer workshops.
- Introduce new staff to veteran teachers of same content and subject areas.
- Include new staff information in district newsletter.

In addition, Renard (2003) believes that special attention should be given to new teachers' schedules. The typical teacher's schedule is overwhelming for a veteran teacher, let

alone a new teacher. Renard (2003) thinks that administrators should gradually introduce new teachers to their complete set of duties and makes these recommendations.

- Refrain from asking new teachers to team-teach.
- Avoid asking new teachers to coach or sponsor extracurricular activities.
- Do not ask or place new teachers on department committees.
- Refrain from giving new teachers more than two course preparations.
- Try to provide new teachers with a classroom rather than moving from moving from room to room with a cart.
- Make sure the new teacher and his mentor have the same planning period.
- Avoid changing the new teacher's schedule for at least two years before giving her a new teaching assignment.

In 2003, AARP conducted a study of 50 teachers who left the classroom in pursuit of other employment and asked them what would have to change for them to come back to teaching. Interestingly, they suggested many of the same changes as already mentioned by other researchers but offered a few new suggestions:

- Increased pay.
- More autonomy with curriculum and discipline
- Positive and focused communication with parents and administration.
- Tangible rewards and recognition programs.
- Full time aid or part time volunteer help with large classes.
- Fewer standardized tests.
- Outlets for frustration.
- Opportunity for advancement.
- Colleagues who are supportive.

Another suggestion for retaining teachers is to do away with the state grading of schools. Acker and Hocevar (2001) found that high poverty schools, which receive a failing grade by the

state, find it difficult to retain teachers. Some principals believe it is unfair that the state holds poverty schools and affluent schools equally accountable when it is difficult for the failing poverty school to retain quality teachers. One principal said he loses 25% of his teaching staff every year because working in a high poverty school that received a “D” or an “F” is difficult for some teachers. Some principals in Acker Hocesvar’s study (2001) believe that the only way to retain their teachers is for the state to have different accountability measures for poverty schools.

1.16.1 Teacher Retention at the State Level

Some organizations and researchers have been concerned with teacher quality at the state level. For example, Strauss (1998) conducted an extensive study determining policies that affect the preparation, assessment, and hiring of new teachers in Pennsylvania. Because of his report, The State Board of Education Study Liaison Committee made several recommendations to the State Board of Education. The recommendations focused on matters of certification, assessment, supply and demand, recruitment, and hiring practices of teachers. In fact, the committee stated the following in their report:

No factor in the improvement of teaching and learning is more important than the classroom teacher. New academic standards, curricular designs and delivery systems, instructional resources and technology can and will play their part in promoting quality in the classroom, however it is the teacher—and the skills and talents, attitudes and dispositions, and instructional strategies he or she brings to the job—who remains central to teaching and learning. Efforts should always be made to bring the highest quality individuals to teaching . . . and the likely retirements of up to 60% of the current teaching force in the next decade create a great opportunity to bring teachers who are most able to promote student achievement into the classrooms of the Commonwealth (p. 226).

Similarly, the EPLC (Education Policy Leadership Center) undertook a 16-month Teacher Quality and Supply Project in 2001. The original intent of this project was to delve into

the issue of teacher supply in Pennsylvania in order to predict teacher shortages. Secondly, the project also looked at issues of teacher quality. While focusing on teacher supply and quality, the report outlined hiring practices, mentoring programs, certification practices, professional development, and teacher evaluation. The report (2001) stated, “In order to ensure that every Pennsylvania child has a real opportunity to obtain a quality education, the state must ensure an adequate supply of ‘highly qualified’ teachers who also are high quality teachers as demonstrated by their effectiveness in the classroom” (p. 14). The EPLC made four policy recommendations to the state: promote professionalize teaching in Pennsylvania, enhance the preparation of future teachers, address specific staffing problems, and improve the collection and utilization of data.

While both the EPLC’ and State Board of Education Study Liaison Committee’s report focused on different aspects of teacher quality and emphatically agreed that quality teachers must be placed in Pennsylvania classrooms, both ignored the issue of teacher retention. Because of the focus on quality teaching, the state has brought emphasis and change to certification requirements, assessments, hiring practices, and professional development. It is clear that the state of Pennsylvania has made an investment in quality teaching. However, what is the state doing to retain the quality teachers already in place in our classrooms? While the state continues to focus on how to get quality teachers in the front door, many quality teachers are exiting out the back. The state has largely ignored the issue of teacher attrition and retention of its quality teachers. Shouldn’t we look at the reasons why quality teachers are leaving our classrooms and look for ways in which to keep them?

1.17 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1.17.1 Evolution of Quality Teaching

Public schools have existed in the United States since the mid-1800's. Throughout the history of public education, student achievement has been a priority. Nevertheless, determining just what should be done to foster this achievement has been the topic of constant debate.

During the early 19th century, many public schools leaders in the United States surmised that rigorous evaluation and supervision programs could result in quality teaching. Eighteenth century supervisors (who were members of the clergy) reinforced teacher rules such as filling lamps and cleaning chimneys in the classroom. Dramatic change occurred during the 19th century, as supervisors became the instruments for teacher instruction and improvement. Those directly involved in supervision and evaluation determined early on that quality teaching resulted in student achievement. However, not until the mid-20th century did policymakers and researchers conclude that quality teachers are essential to student achievement. In 1957, because of Soviet competition, our federal government passed The National Defense and Education Act (NDEA). This legislation provided funding to encourage bright, talented youth to consider teaching careers. Finally, after 100 years since the first public school was established, the federal government seemed to be saying that quality teaching matters. However, two prominent researchers brought pessimism to those who felt we could easily improve our schools through federal funding. Coleman (1966) argued that quality teachers will not increase student achievement, especially in high poverty schools. Goodlad's (1984) view was not as gloomy, but he believed that America's schools were in peril and that major reforms needed to be established (especially in the area of quality teachers) in order for schools to increase student achievement.

As Goodlad and others were pressing for change, Congress responded with *A Nation at Risk* (1983), a report that criticized the lack of achievement in public schools. Not only did the report outline specifically how public school children lacked aptitude in various subjects, but also made recommendations for attracting quality teachers. Unfortunately, the report laid out a plan for improvement but provided no funding. Despite the many empirical studies correlating effective teachers with student achievement (Sanders, 1996; Rivers and Sanders, 1996; Haycock, 1998), startlingly, new legislation providing substantial reform for quality education was not forthcoming for almost 20 years. In 2002, the federal government passed the landmark law, *No Child Left Behind*, the most comprehensive school reform package thus far in education. Millions of dollars were allocated to improve student achievement and teacher accountability (NCLB, 2001). Critics of public education hailed this sweeping legislation as a long overdue antidote for America's ailing schools. Finally, quality teachers landed at the forefront for public policy.

1.17.2 What is a Quality Teacher?

In 2002 with the passing of NCLB, Congress defined just what a highly qualified teacher is. According to NCLB, highly qualified teachers have a bachelor's degree, have full state certification, and can demonstrate competency for each subject taught (NCLB, 2001). However, many researchers and educational experts believe that NCLB's definition of highly qualified is too narrowly focused on coursework and test scores. For example, Darling-Hammond (2001) argues that quality teachers are those who use a variety of teaching strategies. Kaplan and Owings (2001) believe that quality teachers use appropriate instructional goals and assessment and create a positive learning environment. Others argue that quality teachers exhibit personal

characteristics, such as fairness and compassion (Stronge & Hindman, 2003). Despite differences of opinion of specific definitions of quality teaching, NCLB can be credited for its unprecedented emphasis on the contribution of the individual teacher.

1.17.3 Teacher Retention and Attrition

At no other time in our history has the role of the individual teacher been so prominent in educational reform. The federal government and the Pennsylvania Department of Education's goal has been to place a quality teacher in every classroom. However, while focusing on certification requirements, graduation standards, subject knowledge and test scores, one issue that has been virtually ignored is teacher attrition. Approximately 29% of new teachers leave their school or leave teaching altogether within three years (NCES, 1996). Additionally, 39% of new teachers leave within 5 years (NCES, 1996).

It follows, then, the issues of retention and attrition should take on new importance for policymakers. Teachers who leave cite a lack of administrative support. Poor working conditions and feelings of isolation are also causes (Ingersol, 2002b). With such high attrition rates, schools cannot possibly reap the benefits of having highly qualified experienced teachers. This type of exodus costs time and money in re-teaching the basics to teachers who enter a school inexperienced and leave before they are fully trained (Carroll, Reichart, & Guardino, 2000).

Pennsylvania, like other states, has focused its efforts on recruiting quality teachers but has yet to examine fully the reasons why so many teachers are leaving Pennsylvania schools. Recent reports by the EPLC (2004) and State Board of Education (Pennsylvania) (1998) focused on hiring practices, induction programs, certification practices, and teacher evaluation—all done to insure teacher quality. It is clear that Pennsylvania is committed to quality education in our

public schools; however, quality teachers continue to exit our schools in alarming numbers. If the state is clearly dedicated to quality teaching, shouldn't we determine the reasons why Pennsylvania teachers are leaving our classrooms and pursue a remedy?

National studies that include Pennsylvania cite teacher attrition problems (NCES, 1996); however, to date, we do not have research offering a clear picture of working conditions for beginning teachers in Pennsylvania. Such a study is important given what we know about the exodus of teachers from classrooms. The next section outlines a proposed study of the working conditions of first year teachers in Pennsylvania as a step towards understanding and altering the exodus of new teachers from Pennsylvania's classrooms.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

2.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

During the past several years, the phrase “teacher quality” have almost become a cliché. After many years of debate, state and federal policymakers finally have agreed that quality teaching matters more than any other school characteristic such as class size or socio-economic status. In 2002, our federal government concluded that every classroom must have a quality teacher through their landmark No Child Left Behind law. This law forced individual states, including Pennsylvania, to re-examine many aspects in education, especially hiring practices and certification processes.

In the state of Pennsylvania, many changes have occurred to foster quality teaching. However, while the state focuses on teacher recruitment, hiring practices, certification, professional development, and teacher evaluation, little research has been conducted on teacher attrition and retention. A major problem in Pennsylvania and other states is that many first, second, and third year teachers are leaving the classroom, either to find employment at another school or to leave the teaching field entirely. This exodus costs school districts both academically and financially, as they have to re-hire and re-train new teachers. Hard-to-staff schools in particular feel the impact, as students from these schools never benefit from having *experienced* teachers. This study hopes to contribute to our understanding of factors contributing

to teacher attrition (including teacher migration) and teacher retention in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

2.2 PRIOR FINDINGS THAT SERVE THE BASIS FOR THIS STUDY

Research has shown that administrative support, workplace conditions, and mentoring contribute to the retention of quality teachers. However, hundreds of teachers, especially new teachers, leave the classroom every year because of a lack of administrative support, inadequate workplace conditions, and feelings of isolation and stress (Renard, 2003; Sargent, 2003; Ingersol and Smith, 2003). Drawing from studies of teacher attrition and retention, this study used a survey comprised of items that reflect (a) the most frequently cited causes for teacher attrition and (b) the factors that contribute to teacher retention. Table 2.1 provides an overview of the attrition and retention studies, the causal factors, and the resulting survey items.

Table 2.1. Overview of Teacher Attrition and Retention Factors as Reflected by the Survey Instrument.

Author(s) and date of study	Factors contributing to attrition	Factors contributing to retention	Survey item
Renard (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Treating 1st year teachers like veteran teacher 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Altered schedules for 1st year teachers • Having own classroom 	4,5,6,7,8 9,22,23,30
AARP (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No support from colleagues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy 	24,25,30
Sargent (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of administrative support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation programs 	10,11,12 24
Johnson (1990)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single salary pay scale 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administrative support 	24,28
Wong (2004)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring programs 	15,16,17,18,19 20,21
Imazeki (2003)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working conditions • Student discipline 	26,29,31
Darling-Hammond (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low poverty schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentors • Induction programs 	10 through 21
Ashton & Webb (1986)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feeling of being effective 		27

2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF THIS STUDY

The State Board of Education in Pennsylvania has made quality teaching a priority, yet the State Board has not benefited from a study of the working conditions of new teachers that may be contributing to the documented attrition of these promising educators. “Pennsylvania has an

important obligation to ensure that all public school teachers are able to offer high-quality instruction to their students and also meet the Pennsylvania Code requirements, Chapter 49, 49.18(a), (2) (iii) and 49.81 (b)(1-10)” (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2005).

2.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study sought to describe school working conditions perceived by beginning teachers (those holding Instructional I certification) about their early years of teaching in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The specific working conditions examined were those identified in the research as contributing either to *teacher attrition* (including migration) or to *retention*, as these are the foci for this study. Because an individual’s perception of working conditions is crucial to one’s decision to remain or leave his or her current position, this study posed its questions directly to individual teachers, through an electronic survey.

2.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study of teachers was conducted to address the following research questions:

- 1) How do second and third year teachers describe their working conditions during their first year of teaching?
- 2) To what extent are administrators providing first-year teachers with resources in which the literature has identified as needed by beginning teachers to become successful in the classroom?

3) How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?

2.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

State assessment tests or standardized tests---exams in which particular designated grades (in Pennsylvania—grades 5, 9, and 11) take in order to measure student achievement.

Full state certification---The Pennsylvania Department of Education awards a Level I certificate to an applicant who completes a state-approved teacher education program, receives the recommendation of the institution’s teacher certification officer, and passes the Praxis exam.

New teachers---Teachers who have taught less than three years and have not received an Instructional II certificate.

Veteran teachers---Teachers who have taught more than three years and have received an Instructional II certificate.

Quality teachers---(as defined by NCLB) A teacher who has at least a bachelor’s degree, full state certification, and can demonstrate content and subject knowledge.

Instructional I certificate--- The initial teaching certificate granted by the Pennsylvania Department of Education. “The Instructional Certificate is issued to a person whose primary responsibility shall be direct contact with learners in teaching-learning situations.” (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2005).

Instructional II certificate---awarded to teachers who have completed (1.) three years of satisfactory service on the Pennsylvania Level I certificate and (2.) 24 post-baccalaureate credits.

Teacher efficacy---A teacher's perception that she or he has been instrumental in his students' learning and achievement.

Teacher burnout---A feeling of cynicism, withdrawal, and exhaustion towards one's job.

Teacher attrition--teacher migration from one school district to another or exodus from the profession altogether.

Teacher retention---refers to teachers staying in their present districts and/or staying in the teaching profession.

Teacher induction programs---programs in which new teachers are given short-term support; these usually include some form of mentoring.

Merit pay---salary is determined by the quality of one's work.

Professional development---continuing education for teachers, which could include college classes, conferences, workshops, and in-service courses.

Supervision---"The leadership process whose ultimate purpose is to improve instruction and thereby facilitate and promote successful student learning" (Kosmoski, 2000, p.14).

2.7 METHODOLOGY

2.7.1 Subjects

First, it is important to note that the Pennsylvania State Board of Education aided the researcher in the recruitment of subjects. The State Board, under the direction of Executive Board Director Jim Buckeit, aided in this project. Subjects for this study were individuals whose first, second, or third year of full-time teaching in Pennsylvania took place between July 1, 2002 and June 30, 2005. These individuals held active Pennsylvania certification as teachers (Instructional I). The

State Board pulled a random sample of 6,926 of the 44,258 individuals initially certified as teachers in the state of Pennsylvania between July 1, 2002 and June 30, 2005. Given budgetary limitation, the State Board determined that it could support the reproduction, supplies, and postage costs for 10,000 letters. The data processing staff suggested taking every seventh name from the list in order to generate the requisite sample. Based on studies of volunteer completion of surveys, the anticipated number of participants was 30% of the total sample (6,926) or approximately 2,100 individuals.

2.7.2 Recruitment of Subjects

The State Board of Education sent a recruitment letter to 6,926 individuals whose first year of teaching (a) took place between 2002 and 2005 and (b) whose teaching took place in a Pennsylvania public school district, intermediate unit, vocational school, or charter school. (The letter is displayed in Appendix A.) The recruitment letter invited potential subjects to go to the state board's website where they could find and complete an on-line survey set up through surveymonkey.com. Due to cost, follow up letters were not sent. Each survey was conveyed to the researcher without any identifying information.

2.7.3 Survey Instrument

After extensive study of the literature on teacher retention and attrition, the researcher developed a survey instrument to obtain the necessary information about teachers' perceptions of administrative support, mentoring experiences, induction programs, working conditions, and other variables. Table 2 shows how the survey instrument reflects this research. The survey instrument is exhibited in Appendix B. The researcher used surveymonkey.com to create her internet survey. The researcher used the template provided by surveymonkey but designed the font, layout, color scheme and created the questions. Both the Office of Tests and Measurements at the University of Pittsburgh and officials of the State Board of Education reviewed the instrument and suggested revisions. The researcher shared the survey with 35 colleagues both inside and outside the educational field, inviting them to provide feedback on the wording of questions. This exercise allowed the researcher to identify questions that were unclear or were not yielding the information that the study sought. Participants were invited to share their suggestions about how to improve the survey instrument. Approximately 35 individuals participated in helping to revise and edit the survey.

2.7.4 Data Collection

The researcher collected the survey data from September 9, 2005 until October 27, 2005.

Each survey was conveyed from surveymonkey.com to the researcher without identifying information.

All data from this study were maintained in a secure and locked file or in a password-protected website. Data were maintained in accordance with the regulations of the University of Pittsburgh's Institutional Review Board.

2.7.5 Analysis of the Data

The researcher sought qualitative and quantitative data by constructing single response, ranking, Likert scale, and open-ended questions. The on-line survey service provider collected data gathered from the surveys and provided numerical and graphical results. This internet survey service also allowed the information to be downloaded into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The questions with a Likert scale format provided descriptive statistics such as standard deviations (a number which shows how close or far apart the answers were) and means (an average). With the Likert scale formatted questions, score values were assigned to possible responses (low to high). For example, question number eight on the survey, "How supportive was your building administrator to you as a first-year teacher?" Score values were assigned to possible responses: *not supportive at all* (score value of 1), *somewhat supportive* (2), *supportive* (3), *very supportive* (4). The means and standard deviations were only reported for variables for which these descriptive statistics were meaningful to the analysis of the data. Furthermore, data were simply given in percentages for questions that were not designed with a Likert scale format.

3.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS

3.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions articulated in chapter 2 were stated as follows:

- 1) How do second and third year teachers describe their working conditions during their first year of teaching?
- 2) To what extent are administrators providing first-year teachers with resources in which the literature has identified as needed by beginning teachers to become successful in the classroom?
- 3) How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?

The researcher chose these particular research questions after reviewing the research on teacher attrition and retention. The 279 participants responded to questions on how first-year teachers perceived their working conditions, how supportive administrators were toward first-year teachers, and whether adverse working conditions and a lack of administrative support caused first-year teachers to migrate to other schools or leave the teaching field altogether. The research findings are presented as they correspond to the research questions (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2. Survey Questions Reflecting Research Questions.

Research Question	Survey Questions
What are the working conditions for first-year teachers?	4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31
To what extent are administrators providing first-year teachers with resources in which the literature has identified as needed by beginning teachers to become successful in the classroom?	10, 11, 12, 13, 14 ,15, 16,17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, 40, 41
How do the current working conditions of school districts cause first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?	33, 34, 35, 36 37, 38, 39,

3.2 FINDINGS

3.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic information included the following: how the participant was certified, type of school, grade level taught, and number of years spent teaching.

- Of the 279 respondents, 217 (77.8%) completed four or five year traditional college or university certification programs while 62 (22.2%) completed alternative certification programs.
- When asked at what type of school did you teach during your first year: 113 (40.6%) replied that they taught at a suburban school, 89 (32%) taught in a rural school, while 76 (27.3%) taught in an urban setting.
- Grade levels taught during first-year:
 - 1) 98 (35.4%) taught grades 9 through 12
 - 2) 80 (28.9%) taught grades 7 and 8
 - 3) 82 (29.6%) taught grades 4, 5, and 6
 - 4) 33 (11.9%) taught kindergarten
- Years of teaching completed:
 - 1) 86 (31.1%) one year of teaching.
 - 2) 68 (25.4%) two years of teaching.
 - 3) 114 (42.5%) three years of teaching.

Much of the demographic information was evenly dispersed. Grade levels were evenly represented as were types of schools. Years of experience were not as evenly mixed, as third-year teachers filled out more surveys than first and second-year teachers. As expected, traditionally certified teachers dominated the study over non-traditionally certified teachers.

3.2.2 Research Questions

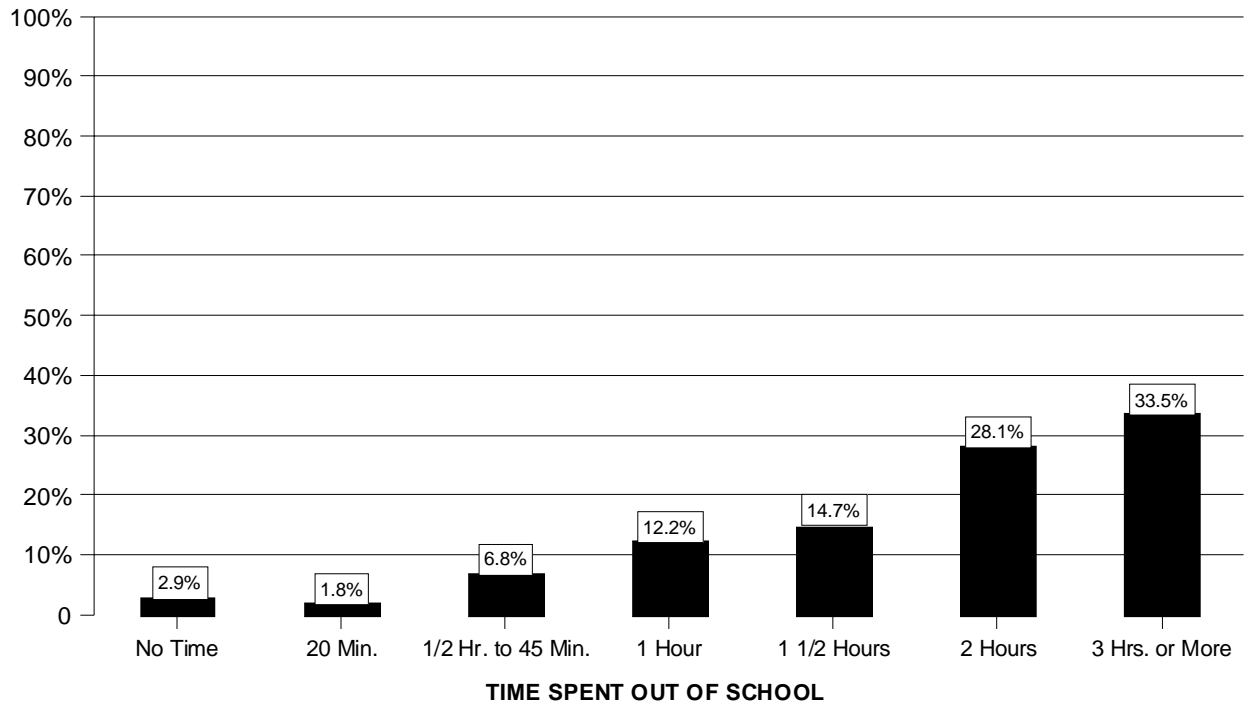
The researcher developed three research questions to fulfill the purpose of this study. What follows in this section is a presentation of the findings as they relate to each research question.

3.2.3 Research Question #1: What are the current working conditions for first year teachers?

3.2.3.1 Workplace Conditions and Time Spent on Preparation

In response to this research question, the researcher analyzed responses to the survey relating to first-year teacher workplace conditions such as teaching schedules, time spent outside of school on preparation, and the amount of time allotted inside school for preparation. When asked to what extent were you satisfied with the overall working conditions (physical environment, relationship with colleagues, administrative support, workload) at your school, 176 (63%) were very satisfied or satisfied while 99 (35.4%) were somewhat satisfied or not satisfied. (See table 3.1 for means and standard deviations for workplace conditions.) In addition, the respondents were asked questions relating to specific workplace conditions. When asked how much time did you have during the school day to prepare lessons and grade papers, 109 (39.4%) respondents said they had 30 to 44 minutes to prepare, 91 (33%) had 45 minutes to one hour, 41 (14.8%) had 0 to 29 minutes, and 36 (13%) had more than an hour to prepare. In relation to time spent outside of school on preparation, grading papers, contacting parents, 93 (33.5%) spent three hours or more on preparation while 8 (2.9%) spent no time outside of school. (See Figure 3.1 for a complete response of percentages of teachers who spend time per day outside of school on preparation).

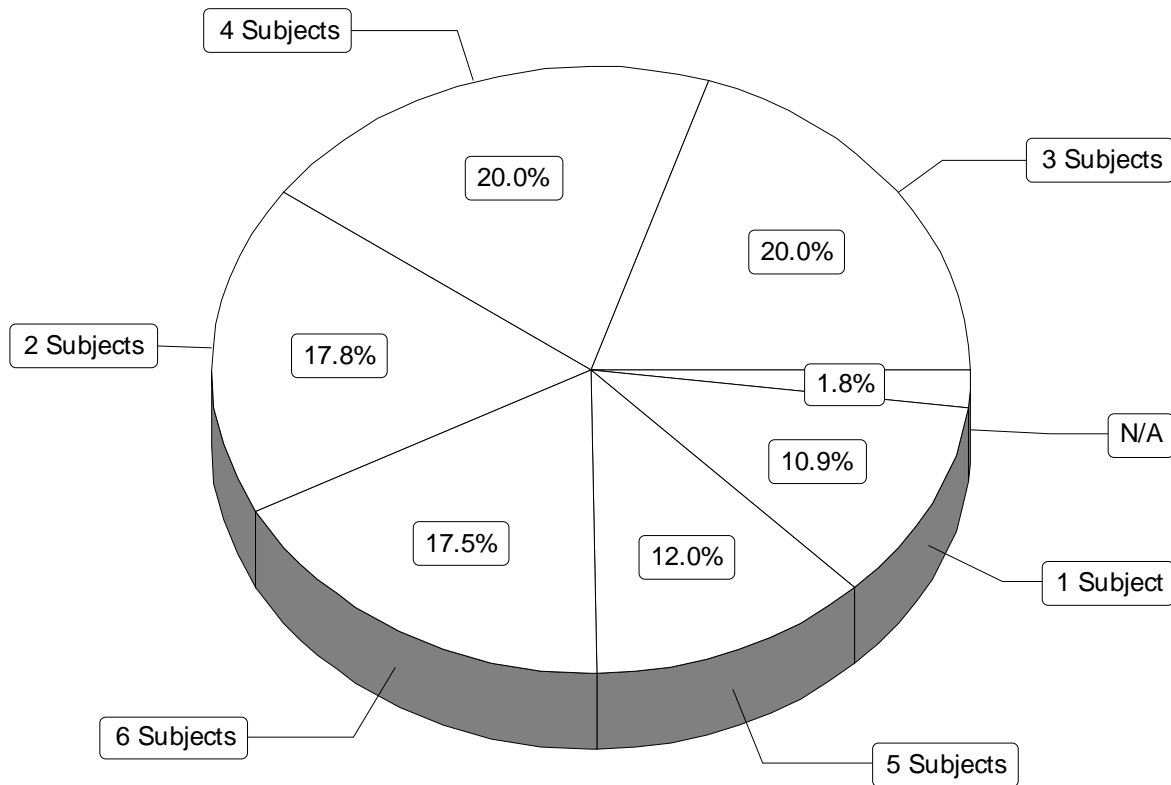
Figure 3.1. Time Spent on Preparation Outside of School.



3.2.3.2 Workload

Next, the researcher attempted to assess the first-year teacher's workload. When asked how their schedule compared to those of veteran teachers, 167 (60%) said their schedule was the same while 98 (35%) thought their schedule was more demanding. When asked how many subjects they taught per day during their first year of teaching, 55 (20%) said they taught four subjects while 48 (17.5%) said they taught six. Figure 3.2 displays the percentages of teachers who teach one to six subjects per day.

Figure 3.2. Number of Subjects Taught Per Day.



Next, the researcher wanted to determine if new teachers were asked to perform additional duties outside of teaching. Out of the 277 responses, 152 (54.9%) replied that they were not asked to serve on a committee. Similarly, 170 (61.6%) respondents said they were not asked to coach or supervise an extracurricular activity. On the other hand, 106 (38.4%) were asked to coach or supervise.

3.2.3.3 Administrative and Colleague Support

When participants were asked how they perceived administrative support, 183 (65.6%) responded that their administrators were very supportive or supportive while 92 (33%) believed

their building administrator was somewhat supportive or not supportive at all. In addition, when asked about colleague support, 222 (79.6%) believed they were supportive.

3.2.3.4 Feeling Effective and Safe and Secure

When asked how safe and secure they felt at school, 210 (75.3%) respondents said they felt very safe and secure and/or safe and secure. When responding to how effective they felt to their students, 215 (77.1%) said they felt very effective or effective. In addition, when rating student behavior at their school, 140 (51.3%) rated it as good while 61 (21.9%) said it was fair.

3.2.3.5 Having Their Own Classroom

Because of limited space in some school buildings (more common at the secondary level), many teacher must “travel” from room to room to teach their classes. When surveyed, 179 (64.4%) of these first-year teachers stated that they had their own classroom while 60 (21.6%) said at some time during the school year, they had to travel to teach.

3.2.3.6 Salary

Finally, when asked if they were satisfied with their salary, 143 (51.3%) said they were very satisfied and/or satisfied while 132 (47.3%) were somewhat satisfied and/or not satisfied. In addition, salary received a mean score of 2.45. Additional means and standard deviations for workplace conditions in terms of satisfaction are available in the following table (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Descriptive Statistics for Satisfaction with Working Conditions (n=279).¹

Item	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation
Working Conditions	2.75	.862
Administrative Support	2.93	.983
Safety and Security	3.11	.885
Student Behavior	2.67	.863
Salary	2.45	.896
Teacher Effectiveness	3.01	.660
Colleague Support	3.22	.856

3.2.4 Research Question #2: To what extent are administrators providing first year teachers with the resources that the literature states is important for first-year teachers to be successful in the classroom?

3.2.4.1 Induction

In response to this question, the researcher analyzed responses to survey responses pertaining to transitional services for first-year teachers such as mentoring assignments and induction programs. Eighty-six percent of the survey respondents said they participated in an induction program. Respondents were also asked to rate how helpful the content for specific areas of the programs. The findings in table 3.2 indicate frequencies and percentages in induction program helpfulness.

¹ 1=not satisfied, 2=somewhat satisfied, 3=satisfied, 4=very satisfied.

Table 3.2. Helpfulness of Induction Programs/Frequencies and Percentages.

AREA OF INDUCTION	EXTREMELY HELPFUL	HELPFUL	SOMEWHAT HELPFUL	NOT HELPFUL	NO INDUCTION
Resources	9% (25)	27.6% (77)	26.2% (73)	26.2% (73)	8.2% (23)
Support Services	9.7% (27)	25% (70)	20.4% (57)	33.3% (93)	8.2% (23)
District Policies	13.6% (38)	34.8% (97)	27.2% (76)	12.5% (35)	8.2% (23)
Areas of Responsibility	12.5% (35)	28.3% (79)	25.1% (70)	22.6% (63)	8.2% (23)
Building Level Responsibilities	11.5% (32)	25.4% (71)	29.4% (82)	22.2% (62)	8.2% (23)
Members of the Staff	14.7% (41)	25.8% (72)	20.4% (57)	28% (78)	8.2% (23)

Table 3.3 rates induction program helpfulness in terms of means (highest to lowest) and standard deviations. Note that information concerning district policies was believed to be most helpful receiving a mean score of 2.56 and a standard deviation of .918 while the area of induction believed to be least helpful was support services receiving a means score of 2.13 and a standard deviation of 1.042.

Table 3.3. Helpfulness of Induction Programs/Mean and Standard Deviations.

Area of Induction	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
District Policies	246	1	4	2.56	.918
Areas of Responsibility	247	1	4	2.35	1.012
Members of the Staff	248	1	4	2.31	1.085
Building Level Responsibilities	247	1	4	2.30	.987
Resources	248	1	4	2.22	.982
Support Services	247	1	4	2.13	1.042

Also as part of the induction process, some schools require first year teachers to take classes through the Intermediate Unit or local colleges and universities. When asked if they were required to take these classes 175 (63.6%) said no. Of the 76 (28%) who said yes, only 33 (15.2%) said they were very practical and useful or practical and useful.

3.2.4.2 Mentoring

When surveyed, 247 (89.2%) said their school district provided them with a mentor, and 173 (64.1%) said they taught in the same content area as their mentor. However, only 76 (28%) said they had a common planning time. When asked how helpful their mentor was during their year of teaching, 157 (55.9%) said their mentor was very helpful or helpful while 90 (32%) said somewhat helpful or not helpful. The survey respondents were also asked to describe the amount of time spent with their mentor for guidance and state who initiated contact. Forty-one percent (112 respondents) said they met with their mentor once or twice a week. When asked who initiated contact, 181 (66.5%) said sometimes I did; sometimes my mentor did.

3.2.4.3 Extracurricular Activities and Administrative Support

When first-year teachers were asked to rate administrative support, 184 (65.6%) said very supportive or supportive and 92 (33%) said somewhat supportive or not supportive at all. In addition, 170 (61.6%) said their building administrator did not ask them to supervise an extracurricular activity; 152 (54.9%) said they were not asked to serve on a committee.

3.2.4.4 Weaknesses and Valuable Information

In order to gather in-depth information concerning the impact of induction programs in Pennsylvania, two optional open-ended questions were added to the end of the survey. Of the 279 teachers who took the online survey, 121 (43%) answered the optional question, “What do you feel was the most valuable information you received during the induction process?” Of the 279 teachers who took the online survey, 128 (46%) answered the optional question, “What do you feel were the weaknesses of the induction process?” After analyzing the total number of responses for both questions, the researcher was able to code answers into 11 categories and tabulate the number of responses for each (see Table 3.4). It is worthy to note that not all negative comments were made under the weaknesses question. Many respondents responded with negative information when asked, “What was the most valuable information you received during induction?” For example when asked about what was valuable during the induction process, 19 teachers responded negatively by saying it was a complete waste of time, very impractical, or useless. The following table shows the number of categories the researcher was able to create from the open-ended responses. In the right hand column is the number of tabulated responses.

Table 3.4. Categories and Tabulation for Open-ended Responses.

Category	Number of Responses
Mentoring	
Good mentoring experience	36
Bad mentoring experience	26
Induction	
Program was repetitive of college	14
Waste of time/not practical	65
Too much information in short amount of time	6
Able to meet new teachers and share experiences	10
School law/policies	12
Weak leadership	15
Too much busy work	20
Other	
Miscellaneous comments	45
Not able to be coded	14

Total = 263²

3.2.4.5 Value of Induction

Respondents made 204 comments related to induction or mentoring, excluding miscellaneous and comments not able to be coded.³ Of the 204 comments, 56 were positive statements. Of the 56 positive statements, 36 were about positive mentoring experiences. Many revealed that their mentor was invaluable, priceless, or wonderful:

² Some single responses contained a multiple category of ideas. (i.e., I had a great mentor, the people leading induction were weak, and the classes I took were a waste of time.)

³ The researcher coded comments “miscellaneous” for responses in which no one else answered similarly. “Not able to be coded” was given to those comments that did not answer the question.

The most valuable part of the induction experience was working side by side with my mentor. He was the greatest resource I could have asked for.

Having a mentor during my first year was invaluable. She was very helpful and remains a close friend and colleague.

Spending time with my mentor was the best part of the induction program. She was priceless.

The most valuable part of the induction program was getting a mentor who was excellent.

My mentor was positively amazing.

My mentor was the best part of the induction program. She was always willing to answer my questions, and I didn't feel like I was bugging her.

I received the most valuable information from my mentor.

A trusting relationship where I could vent frustration and felt secure with the knowledge and guidance my mentor provided.

In fact, three of the survey respondents felt that the only valuable part of the induction process was having a mentor:

Besides being assigned a mentor, I found the entire induction process a waste of time.

Having a mentor was the only valuable part of the induction for me.

Thank goodness I got a good mentor from the experience, otherwise there would have been nothing redeeming about the program.

School laws and/or policies was another area that received positive comments:

I received valuable information on how my school district is run and what policies are in place.

My induction at . . . was invaluable. It was helpful in learning the procedures for the school.

. . . taught me the guidelines and policies of my school district. Also what was expected of me.

Of the twenty positive comments respondents made about induction, 10 cited the opportunity to meet new teachers as a valuable component. Having the opportunity to share experiences and being able to vent frustration with fellow teachers was important during the first-year teaching experience:

Getting to know the other new teachers through our interaction during our induction program time.

Being united in the same place with other first year teachers.

Meeting other teachers that I knew were at the same place I was—confused, overwhelmed, and exhausted from the preparation.

I gained experience from fellow new teachers who were a first year teacher at the same time I was. It was nice to hear what other people were going through and to know I was not alone.

3.2.4.6 Weaknesses of Induction

However, many respondents did not feel that their induction experience was positive. In fact, many respondents took the opportunity to vent their frustration concerning their induction and mentoring experiences. The researcher analyzed 204 comments that were made concerning mentoring and induction (excluding miscellaneous and other comments). Out of those 204 comments, 148 (73%) were negative. Many of these negative comments were made when asked to cite valuable information about their induction experience. Twenty-six comments were made about poor mentors or poor mentoring experience:

My mentor was only in it for the stipend.

The program was not so good because many people did not have good mentors.

I was assigned a mentor who was never around. I met with her only a few times prior to the school year. Very unfair.

My mentor was very unfriendly and did not like me.

Mentor teacher did not seem interested.

Mentor was at a different school.

My mentor had little experience.

My mentor was seldom available.

Did not have a common planning time to meet with my mentor.

When asked to state the weaknesses of their induction program, 14 said it was repetitive of what they learned in college:

We talked about nonsense things I did for four years in college.

We don't need information that we learned about in college courses.

Content was repetitive of early college classes.

Too much repetition of ideas already drilled into our heads throughout our undergrad program (class management, etc.)

One additional comment was made when asked to state valuable information gained from induction:

. . . there was not one thing covered that was not covered in my student teaching class.

Of the 142 comments made concerning the induction process, 20 respondents said there was too much busy work involved in induction. Many felt overwhelmed with the obligations of the induction process coupled with their first-year responsibilities as a teacher:

I didn't need a review—I needed time to work.

Required a lot of homework to be completed. This was difficult because we were teaching. We really didn't need more work to do. Some induction teachers were in school so that outside homework was a real hardship.

. . . induction program wasted valuable time I could have spent preparing lessons for classes and the setup of my classroom.

Too much time was required of first-year teachers in their already busy schedule.

And there were too many induction meetings when what new teachers needed most of all was time.

The largest response to the open-ended questions was that the induction program was a complete waste of time or lacked practicality. Of the 142 comments made about induction, 65 (46%) said the program was impractical, not useful, or a complete waste of time:

. . . the workshop routines were condescending, juvenile, and boring. The program was A COMPLETE WASTE OF TIME.

Although there were guidelines to follow, the program had little importance.

The majority of the programs were geared toward “core” classes. Things are different for electives/specials and too often, these classes are overlooked.

Classes at the IU; they were a complete waste of time.

Lack of reality.

It did not apply to my content area.

. . . I wish that they would have given more useful ideas—not theories in induction.

It was a complete waste of time for me. A total waste of my time and my mentor’s time.

The school district of . . . had THE MOST PATHETIC excuse for an induction program that I could possibly imagine. It was unorganized and irrelevant.

Nineteen of these comments about the program being impractical or useless were made when asked to comment on what was valuable about the program:

Nothing. Our program was a complete waste of time.

Nothing. We just read through a manual and signed our names to it.

The induction program was worthless.

I can’t think of anything. In some ways it was belittling.

I did not feel that the induction program was very beneficial.

Besides being assigned a mentor, I found the entire induction program a waste of time.

None. A completely and utterly useless experience. All information of value I sought out on my own.

NONE it was a waste of time. Information was not useful. All textbook stuff that was not applicable in an urban environment.

It was a complete waste of time for me. I had already taught in another district and had already been through an induction program.

I didn't receive any valuable information. This time was a complete imposition on my life. . . . I was forced to travel far from home on the bus late at night. I found this process to be a waste of time and completely inconsiderate. I had friends that had to withdraw from graduate school because of this program. Stress for the first year teacher is very high and to add more responsibility is just irresponsible.

Out of the 12 comments concerning district policies and procedures, 10 respondents believed their programs were helpful in this area. However, two teachers responded to the weaknesses question feeling there was a NEED for school law and policies in their induction program:

Did not clarify the details of rights and responsibilities of teachers or administrative practices and what should be done—need more union input and info . . .

. . . not provided with samples of school paperwork, forms, etc.

Additionally, when asked to comment about the weaknesses of their induction program, 15 cited leadership as a weakness:

Sessions were not very helpful. The instructors just walked through the motions.

I feel that the administrators could have been more involved in the induction process.

The leader of the staff induction program in our district.

Lack of the Director of Curriculum and Instruction to adapt his elementary background to high school and tech. ed.

3.2.5 Research Question # 3. How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?

It is important to remember that teachers who have completed one, two, or three years of teaching completed this survey. So that the researcher could gain rich data concerning the first-year teaching experience, survey respondents were asked to reflect on their first year of teaching when answering all questions. However, the researcher posed separate questions to first year teachers, second year teachers, and third year teachers to determine if they have moved to another district since year one (or are planning to move if they are a first year teacher) or have left teaching altogether. For example, survey respondents who have completed *three* years of teaching (126 respondents=42.5% of total respondents) were asked where they are teaching currently.

- 75 (59.5%) are teaching at the same school as year one.
- 15 (11.9%) are in the same district as year one but at a different school.
- 28 (22.2%) are at a different school and a different district as year one.
- 8 (6.3%) have left teaching

The same question was asked to those respondents who have completed *two* years of teaching (86 respondents=25.4% of total respondents).

- 59 (68.6%) are teaching at the same school as year one.
- 8 (9.3%) are in the same district as year one but at a different school.
- 15 (17.4%) are at a different school and a different district as year one.
- 4 (4.7%) have left teaching.

Those respondents who have completed *one* year of teaching (99 respondents=32.1% of total respondents) were asked to state their plans for next year.

- 62 (62.6%) will stay at the same school.
- 4 (4.%) will move within the district.
- 15 (15.2%) will move to another district.
- 5 (5.2%) will leave teaching altogether.
- 13 (13.1%) are unsure.

After determining the number of teachers who are leaving, staying, or migrating, the researcher wanted to determine which factors are causing teachers to leave or migrate. The researcher composed survey questions concerning salary, administrative support, teaching schedule, colleague support, and other variables. The researcher asked questions to determine how significant these factors were in their decision to change school districts or move to another school district.

3.2.5.1 Migration

When teachers who have changed school districts or are planning to change school districts were asked to rate the factors that caused them to change, salary received the largest response with 86 (36%) citing it as a very significant factor or significant factor.⁴(See table 3.5 for complete list of factors and percentages for changing school districts.)

⁴ Note that the responses do not correlate with the number of second and third year teachers who have migrated to other schools (see page 84) and therefore may indicate that many second and third year teachers are considering migrating to other school districts.

Table 3.5. Factors Influencing Teachers to Change School Districts.

FACTOR	VERY SIGNIFICANT FACTOR	SIGNIFICANT FACTOR	SOMEWHAT SIGNIFICANT FACTOR	NOT A SIGNIFICANT FACTOR	NO PLAN TO CHANGE SCHOOLS
SALARY	24% (57)	12% (29)	10% (25)	10% (25)	44% (105)
LACK OF ADM. SUPPORT	20% (47)	12% (29)	7% (16)	17% (41)	44% (104)
TIME SPENT ON PREP.	11% (25)	12% (28)	8% (20)	25% (60)	44% (104)
NO COLLEAGUE SUPPORT	8% (18)	8% (19)	9% (22)	31% (74)	44% (104)
LACK OF FEELING EFFECTIVE	6% (15)	8% (19)	6% (14)	36% (84)	44% (104)
NO SAFETY AND SECURITY	6% (15)	9% (21)	6% (15)	35% (82)	44% (103)
TEACHING SCHEDULE	11% (27)	11% (27)	11% (25)	23% (55)	43% (103)

Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations were also computed in the analysis of factors causing teachers to migrate to other schools.⁵ Table 3.6 gives descriptive statistics in means and standard deviations. Note that salary was believed to be the most significant factor in migration, receiving a mean score of 2.87 and a standard deviation of 1.153.

Table 3.6. Descriptive Statistics for Factors Causing Teacher Migration.

Factor	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Salary	1	4	2.87	1.153
Lack of administrative support	1	4	2.62	1.254
Time spent on preparation	1	4	2.14	1.186
Lack of colleague support	1	4	1.86	1.109
Feeling ineffective	1	4	1.73	1.083
Lack of safety and security	1	4	1.7669	1.08633
Teaching schedule	1	4	2.1940	1.17925

Survey respondents who have changed school districts or are planning to change school districts were also asked a ranking question to determine the number one reason why they changed districts. While 105 (44.1%)⁶ said they had not changed schools or do not plan to

⁵ 1= not a significant factor, 2=somewhat significant factor, 3=significant factor, 4=very significant factor.

⁶ The researcher believes many respondents did not understand the question. Many skipped the question.

change schools, 47 (19.3%) of those who moved or are planning to move cited salary as the number one reason for leaving.

3.2.5.2 Leaving the Teaching Profession

The researcher wanted to uncover what factors caused teachers in our survey to leave the teaching profession. When asked how significant certain factors were in causing them to leave, salary received the highest mean score (2.71) while lack of safety and security received the lowest (1.25).⁷ (See Table 3.7 for descriptive statistics on factors causing teachers to leave the profession; factors are listed in descending order by means.)

Table 3.7. Descriptive Statistics for Factors Causing Teachers to Leave the Profession.

Factor	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Salary	1	4	2.71	1.290
Time spent outside of school on preparation	1	4	2.35	1.317
Lack of administrative Support	1	3	2.0	.933
Teaching schedule	1	4	1.95	1.244
Lack of colleague support	1	4	1.44	1.086
Feeling lack of effectiveness	1	4	1.39	1.022
Lack of safety & Security	1	2	1.25	.441

When asked to name the number one reason they are leaving teaching or have left teaching, salary and a lack of administrative support tied at 6% (13 responses each), while 171

⁷ 1=not a significant factor, 2=somewhat significant factor, 3=significant factor, 4=very significant factor.

(79.2%) said they have not left teaching nor do they plan on leaving teaching. (See Table 3.8 for a complete ranking of factors which cause teachers to leave the profession.)

Table 3.8. Ranking of factors that cause first-year teachers to leave the profession. (n=216).⁸

Factor	# of Respondents	Response Percent
Salary	13	6%
Lack of Administrative Support	13	6%
Time Spent on Preparation	5	2.3%
Lack of Colleague Support	2	0.9%
Feeling of Lack of Effectiveness	2	0%
Lack of Safety and Security	0	0%
Teaching Schedule	0	0%
High Stakes Testing	4	1.9%
None of These	6	2.8%
I Do Not Plan on Leaving Teaching	171	79.2%

3.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This chapter presented the results of a study of school working conditions perceived by teachers in their first three years of teaching (those holding Instructional I certification) about their first year of teaching in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The researcher organized the chapter

⁸ Sixty-three people skipped the question while others may have not understood the question.

by using the three research questions as headings and choosing the appropriate responses from respondent survey questions as the content.

Research question one asked, “How do second and third year teachers describe their working conditions during their first year of teaching?” The researcher presented the data derived from the electronic survey concerning time spent outside of the school day on preparation, the amount of time allotted during the school day to prepare, the number of subjects taught a day, the safety and security of the school, and other variables.

Research question two asked, “To what extent are administrators providing first year teachers with the resources that the literature states are important for first-year teachers to be successful in the classroom?” The researcher analyzed survey responses of their perceptions of induction programs, mentoring experiences, and administrative support.

Lastly, research question number three asked, “How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrating to other schools?” The researcher answered this research question by analyzing the responses of survey participants concerning what specific workplace conditions caused them to migrate to another school district or leave teaching altogether.

The final chapter is a discussion of the results and the conclusions that the researcher has made because of the data derived from the survey. The chapter also includes the limitations of the study, recommendations for administrators and policymakers, and recommendations for further research.

4.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter includes five sections: (a) discussion and conclusions drawn from the dissertation study, (b) limitations of the study (c) recommendations for further research, and (e) conclusions.

4.1 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus of this study was to describe school working conditions perceived by first, second, or third year teachers about their first year of teaching in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The specific working conditions that were examined were those identified in the research as contributing to either teacher retention or attrition. The researcher developed the following research questions as the focus for the study:

- 1) How do second and third year teachers describe the working conditions they Experienced during their first year of teaching?
- 2) To what extent are administrators providing first-year teachers with resources in which the literature has identified as needed by beginning teachers to become successful in the classroom?
- 3) How do the current working conditions of school districts lead first-year teachers to consider leaving the field of teaching or migrate to other schools?

An electronic survey was used to collect the data needed for this study. The researcher studied literature on teacher retention and attrition and developed her survey questions from the literature. Some of the major trends revealed in the literature were the following:

- National studies have shown that 29% of new teachers leave the classroom or migrate to other school districts within the first three years of teaching (NCES, 1996).
- Educators and researchers have shown growing concern for this exodus because of the effect teacher attrition has on the quality of education in our nation's schools (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rivers & Sanders, 1996).
- Lack of administrative support is a major force behind teacher attrition (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Wong, 2004).
- Poor working conditions and low salaries have been found to influence teacher attrition (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Renard, 2003).
- High quality induction programs can reduce teacher attrition by 15 to 20% (Wong, 2004).

4.1.1 Low Return Rate

Since no formal study had been done of first year teachers in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the researcher wanted to identify what percentages of Pennsylvania teachers are leaving the classroom or migrating to other school districts and what are the conditions that cause these teachers to leave. To aid in this study, the Pennsylvania State Board of Education mailed 6,926 letters to Instructional I certificate holders, asking them to log on to their website

and fill out a survey designed by the researcher concerning the first-year teaching experience in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

Of the 6,926 recipients, 279 teachers logged on to the website and completed the survey for a 4% response rate. The state reported to the researcher that 597 letters were returned because of insufficient addresses. This led the researcher to conclude that one reason for the low return rate may be that the state does not have current addresses for its certified teachers. Another factor that may have contributed to the low return rate is that the state attempted to reach those who received an Instructional I certificate in 2002, 2003, and 2004. Many of those who received a letter requesting their participation in this study may be teaching in another state, teaching in a private school or perhaps not teaching at all. The researcher believes that in order to locate all certificate recipients, the state needs to develop a system whereby teachers whom the state certified must notify the state of a change of address in order to maintain their certification. If the state truly wants to help its new teachers, they have to be able to communicate with them.

Even though the response rate was low, the researcher believes that the data she collected raises important questions and can help policymakers and educators in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania understand the first-year teaching experience.

4.1.2 Teacher Attrition in Pennsylvania

The attrition rate for second and third year teachers in this study was 26%, as 6% left the teaching profession altogether and 20% migrated to other school districts. Since the national attrition rate is 29% (teachers who migrate or leave teaching altogether within the first three years), the 26% attrition rate in this sample of Pennsylvania teachers is close to the national

average.⁹ Moreover, when first-year teachers were asked what their plans were for next year, 20% said they were leaving teaching altogether or moving to another school district to teach (5% plan to leave teaching; 15% plan to migrate to another school district). Although any type of attrition is detrimental to a school district, the researcher thought it important to distinguish in her study the difference between leaving the profession altogether and moving from one school district to another. The results were that much larger percentages of teachers are migrating to other school districts than leaving the profession altogether.

4.1.3 Schedules and Salary

As stated in the literature review, workplace conditions are a major component of whether teachers stay or go. In fact, some researchers believe that special attention should be given to new teachers' schedules to ease them into the demands of teaching in order to aid in retention and therefore promote quality instruction (Renard, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). After analyzing the workplace conditions data from the survey respondents, it does not appear that special attention has been given to first year teachers' schedules in Pennsylvania schools. For example, when asked how first-year teachers perceived their schedules when compared to those of veteran teachers, 168 (60.4%) said they perceived their schedules to be the same. Moreover, 98 (35.5%) believed their schedules were a little more demanding and/or much more demanding than those of veteran teachers. Despite studies recommending that new teachers should not teach more than two different subjects per day (Renard, 2003), half of the respondents

⁹ The national attrition rate given does not distinguish between migration and leaving the teaching profession altogether.

said they taught four subjects or more. Over 1/3 said they spent three hours or more after school hours per day preparing lesson plans, grading papers and contacting parents. Furthermore, according to the literature, administrators should limit the number of extra duties asked of first-year teachers. However, almost ½ of the survey respondents were asked to be on a committee while 106 (38.4%) were asked to supervise an extracurricular activity.

Surveys of teachers have shown that working conditions play a major role in their decision to switch schools or leave the profession altogether. The first few years of a teacher's career are particularly challenging, yet we continue to ask new teachers to perform at the level of veteran teachers. Workplace conditions can cause new teachers to feel alone, isolated and overwhelmed. As a result, many new teachers will look for another school district in which to teach or leave the profession altogether. If we are committed to retaining our new teachers, schools must make a commitment to lighten new teachers' workload and adjust their teaching schedule to set the occasion for success, not failure.

Many new teachers become dissatisfied with their salary and pursue more lucrative employment (Rotherham & Mead, 2003). In this study, almost half of the respondents said they were only somewhat satisfied or were not satisfied with their salary during their first year. Perhaps these teachers will eventually migrate to other schools or leave the teaching profession altogether if their dissatisfaction with salary grows. In addition, salary was cited as the number one reason that new teachers moved to other school districts or left the profession altogether. Teaching is one of the few professions in which reward comes with longevity instead of performance skills. It is no wonder that many young people become disenchanted with teaching and pursue employment that is more lucrative. Teachers also know that mobility later in one's career is nearly impossible because school districts do not want to pay for years of experience.

Teachers are “stuck” in a district after they have six or seven years of experience. Realizing this, many young teachers teach in a poorer paying district to gain experience and then pursue a teaching position in a better paying district. This results in poorer districts having much larger attrition rates. The state could drastically reduce this attrition rate by reducing the disparities of teachers’ salaries among the school districts in Pennsylvania. In addition, although teacher salaries are higher than they have been during past decades, salaries are still not always equivalent to other professions that require similar degrees. State policymakers should consider raising teacher salaries to recruit and retain quality teachers.

4.1.4 Having Own Classroom

Lastly, according to research on early teaching experiences, administrators should give first year teachers their own classroom (Renard, 2003); however, approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ of survey respondents stated that their first-year teaching experience involved traveling from classroom to classroom in order to teach. This may be because some schools do not have enough classrooms for all of their teachers and when a classroom becomes available, it is the veteran teacher, not the new teacher, who moves into it. This is the result of the traditional attitude that the veteran teacher is the most senior member; the new teacher is the least senior member. However, the itinerant faces many obstacles by not having his or her own classroom. She has nowhere to post the classroom rules or a place to display student work. He sometimes feels as though he is a burden to the veteran teacher who would like to be able to use his own room during his preparation period. In addition, the itinerant must be highly organized and make sure she has everything she needs as she travels from room to room. Furthermore, the itinerant’s feeling of isolation is compounded by not only being the new kid on the block but also by not having his own classroom in which to teach.

Administrators need to avoid giving new teachers schedules that require them to change classrooms repeatedly. How can new teachers concentrate on becoming effective classroom teachers if they do not have their own classroom?

4.1.5 Other Workplace Conditions

Since workplace conditions such as colleague support, feelings of safety and security, and feelings of effectiveness also contribute to teacher retention, the researcher asked these first-year teachers to rate their satisfaction with these factors. The majority of teachers in this study expressed satisfaction with these factors in their school districts, and very few expressed these factors as causes for leaving teaching or migrating to other school districts. However, the researcher believes that feelings of effectiveness and feeling safe and secure are dependent on supportive administrators. Perhaps these new teachers feel safe, secure, and effective because they have capable administrators. In addition, colleague support may be high because the administrators foster a caring community where veteran teachers genuinely want to help new teachers succeed.

4.1.6 Induction, Mentoring, and Administrative Support

The literature on teacher retention and attrition identifies induction programs and mentoring experiences as being highly effective in reducing teacher attrition rates (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Wong, 2004; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). One of the most significant findings in this study is that nearly all respondents received transitional support by being assigned a mentor and participating in an induction program. However, many expressed discontent with the quality of their mentoring/induction experience. For example, when respondents were asked to rate the

effectiveness or helpfulness of specific areas (i.e., resources, district policies, and support services) of their induction program, no area came close to achieving a mean score of 3.0 (see Table 8). The researcher found similar results for the usefulness of courses taken as part of the induction process. The mean score for course usefulness was 1.84 (on a scale of 1 to 4—not practical at all, somewhat practical, practical, and very practical). More than half of all respondents believed courses taken as part of the induction process were not useful or only somewhat useful.

The two open-ended questions provided insight into the perceived deficiencies of induction programs. When asked to name the weaknesses of the induction program, 46% said the program was a waste of their time or lacked practicality or usefulness. When asked what was valuable about their induction experience, 16% said that there was nothing valuable; the program was a complete waste of time and/or not useful or practical.

Another important finding in this study was discovering the potential richness of the mentoring experience for first-year teachers. Mentor helpfulness achieved a mean score of 2.86. However, the researcher was able to gain more insight concerning mentor helpfulness by analyzing the responses to the open-ended question, “What was most valuable about the induction program?” In fact, positive mentoring experiences received more comments (30%) than any other category in the open-ended “what was valuable” question. Many respondents commented that they were thankful for having a great mentor, for it was their guidance and support that helped them get through an overwhelming experience of first-year teaching. Although nearly all first-year teachers in Pennsylvania are participating in induction programs, the data collected causes the researcher to doubt the quality of many of the programs. Superintendents and building principals should carefully develop induction programs that suit

the needs for their first-year teachers. Induction programs should not be busy work or as many teachers stated, “a waste of time.” Programs that provide support such as mentoring, orientation to policies and procedures, and training (i.e., classroom management, instructional methods, and student assessment) appear to be most helpful for first-year teachers. The researcher suggests that administrators ask for feedback from teachers who participated in induction. This feedback will allow schools to make the necessary changes to increase the effectiveness of their induction programs. In addition, the researcher suggests that in order for all schools to have consistent induction programs, perhaps the state needs to set and enforce standards for what it expects of these programs.

Since having a capable mentor is important to many first-year teachers and aids in retention, the researcher advises that administrators give beginning teachers a capable mentor. Mentors should not be assigned based on years of experience or because they volunteered (perhaps to receive a stipend). Mentors should want genuinely to assist beginning teachers in making their first year a success. In addition, research has found that common planning time, similar course content, and providing additional time for the mentor and inductee to meet are all crucial components in establishing a positive mentor/inductee relationship.

Lastly, an important finding from the study was the amount of administrative support that first-year teachers received. According to the literature, lack of administrative support is the number one reason teachers leave the classroom or migrate to other schools (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Sargent, 2003). In this study of first-year Pennsylvania teachers, respondents perceived administrative support to be high. Administrative support achieved a mean of 2.93, as 184 (65.6%) said their administrators were very supportive or supportive. This is an important finding, as the researcher believes that positive administrative support is connected to nearly all

aspects important to the beginning teacher. The administrator usually takes charge of the mentoring and induction programs. Administrators choose the schedule for the new teacher, thus controlling class size and workload. In addition, the administrator decides whether to ask the new teacher to coach or supervise an extracurricular activity. Building administrators are instrumental in the retention of new teachers. If teachers perceive their administrators to be supportive, they are more likely to stay remain in their schools and in the profession.

4.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Data collection revealed the limitations of this study. The limitations of this study were: (a) methodology, (b) survey instrument, and (c) bias of the researcher.

4.2.1 Recruitment of Subjects

The researcher believes that the recruitment of subjects was a limitation of the study. The methodology used may have resulted in an extremely low response rate. The State Board of Education aided in this study by sending letters to Instructional I certificate holders asking them to participate in a study of first-year teaching experiences. However, many of the letters never reached the recipients because of incorrect addresses. In addition, many who received letters could not participate in the study because (a) they are not teaching in Pennsylvania, (b) they are not teaching, (c) they are teaching in a private school.

Another reason for the low response rate was that potential subjects did not take the time to log on to a website and fill out the survey. The researcher might have received a larger

response if she could have emailed the survey to respondents, but neither she nor the state had email addresses.

Some potential respondents may have felt that their identity could be revealed (although there was no way to track who responded) and did not want to comment negatively on their school district's leadership. (To minimize this factor, the researcher chose to reach teachers through the state's database rather than attempting to reach first-year teachers through their individual school districts.)

Finally, this study was limited by the inability to send a follow up letter to those who did not complete the survey. Because of personnel and postage costs, the state was unable to send second letters asking certificate holders to participate.

4.2.2 Survey Instrument

The overall use of an electronic survey has its advantages yet yields some limitations. A major advantage was the ease of data collection and analysis. The internet provider provided numerical and graphical results, which could be downloaded in to an Excel spreadsheet. However, a severe limitation was the lack of knowledge of who responded and who did not respond. Because the researcher believed that first-year teachers would not participate in this study if she asked where they taught, she did not ask for identifying information.

Accessibility to the survey was also a limitation of this study. Because the survey was located on the state board of education's website, anyone could have filled out the survey, thus skewing the results.

4.2.3 Bias of the Researcher

As a former first-year teacher herself, the researcher had preconceived ideas about the results of her study. The researcher minimized this bias by using quantitative collection methods.

4.2.4 Generalizability of the Findings

Another limitation of the study is that the 4% return rate eliminates the possibility of generalizing the results to all first-year teachers in Pennsylvania. Those who chose to respond were a self-selected sample. Those who did not respond may have had dissimilar experiences in their first year of teaching. In addition, those who did respond may have done so because they had a negative experience with induction, mentoring, or other variables and may have shared this information in hopes that changes will be made for future first-year teachers.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

From this study, the following recommendations for future research can be drawn. If the same study were to be repeated:

- 1) it would be important to increase the response rate to allow for the generalization of the results to all first-year teachers.

- 2) the researcher recommends using more open-ended questions in order to obtain more qualitative data concerning the first-year teaching experience. The researcher believes she could have benefited by asking new teachers open-ended questions about why they

switched schools or left teaching altogether.

- 3) the researcher recommends cross-tabulating the questions concerning certification programs and leaving the teaching profession to determine what percentages of teachers in this study who completed nontraditional certification programs have left teaching or are planning to leave teaching.

If the same survey instrument were to be used for another study, the researcher recommends:

- 1) changing the order of possible responses in question number 37. Thirty-six respondents skipped this question perhaps because “I have not changed schools nor do I plan on changing schools” was at the bottom. The same goes for question number 39 where 63 respondents skipped this question perhaps because the appropriate response of “I do not plan on leaving teaching” was at the very bottom of possible responses.
- 2) asking second and third year teachers if they are considering migrating to another school district or leaving teaching altogether. (The researcher only asked first-year teachers.)
- 3) that questions asking respondents who have *left* teaching/*or have migrated* to other schools to rate or rank the factors causing them to do so be *separate* questions from those asking respondents who *plan* to leaving teaching/*or migrate* to other schools. Since the question combines answers of those who *have left* with those who *are planning to leave*, the researcher does not get a clear picture of the significant factors that caused teachers to leave the classroom or migrate to other school districts.

4.4 DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study attempted to determine the percentages of Pennsylvania teachers (within the first three years of their career) who are leaving the classroom or migrating to other school districts and to identify the conditions causing them to leave. The researcher also wanted to gain a clear picture of the working conditions facing first-year teachers and to gain insight of the helpfulness of teacher induction programs.

The researcher found that teacher attrition is an issue in this sample of Pennsylvania teachers with approximately 26% migrating to other school districts or leaving the classroom altogether within the first three years of teaching. Twenty percent of this attrition rate is due to migration rather than leaving the profession altogether. However, the literature revealed that this type of attrition is just as costly. First, teacher effectiveness increases sharply after the first three years. Schools that face heavy turnover of teachers never reap the benefits of having quality teachers in their classrooms. Second, cost is a factor. Schools that have heavy turnover must continually retrain new teachers. High attrition rates result in schools taking urgently needed funds for school improvement and using them to retrain new teachers, which produces no long-term payoff for student achievement. Schools would benefit more by instituting policies, which would reduce attrition through higher salaries, reduced workloads, and mentoring and induction support.

The literature identified lack of administrative support and low salaries as factors in causing teachers to leave the profession or to seek higher paying school districts. This study echoed the literature by finding salary and lack of administrative support as major factors in causing teachers to leave their school districts. Although many teachers are altruistically motivated, they are faced with long hours and the stress of teaching and earn 20% less than other

occupations with similar college degrees. Furthermore, administrators can do everything they can to increase retention--reduce the workload of the first-year teacher, give him his own classroom, refrain from asking him to coach or supervise an extracurricular activity, etc., but if salary is inadequate, the new teacher is going to seek employment that is more lucrative. Therefore, policymakers must seriously consider raising teachers' salaries overall and bridge the disparities in salaries among school districts in Pennsylvania.

The researcher also found that some of the workplace conditions identified in the literature are causes for this rate of attrition. Although researchers believe that special attention should be given to new teachers to allow them to grow into their role of teacher, this does not appear to be occurring with this sample of Pennsylvania teachers. The traditional sink or swim attitude seems to exist as the majority of teachers in this sample believe their schedule is more demanding or the same as veteran teachers. The literature reveals that new teachers need time to adjust. Administrators need to introduce gradually to the new teacher a full set of duties. After a few years of teaching, the support by colleagues and administrators should enable them capable of taking on all the roles of a successful classroom teacher.

One of the most significant findings from this study is that nearly all Pennsylvania teachers participated in an induction program. However, many respondents were adamant that the content of the induction program was not useful or practical, and many were dissatisfied with the evening courses that they had to attend. Out of all comments concerning induction, 73% were negative; this should send a red flag to policymakers, induction coordinators, and administrators. To describe their induction experience, teachers used strong words like *pathetic*, *belittling*, *juvenile*, *impractical*, and *useless*. Some capitalized their words to emphasize their frustration with induction. When asked what was valuable about their induction program, many responded

“*NOTHING.*” A few wrote “*IT WAS A COMPLETE WASTE OF TIME.*” Another wrote, *It was a complete waste of time. I CANNOT EMPHASIZE THIS ENOUGH.*” Others were more subtle. “*I didn’t think the induction program very beneficial.*” “*Although there were guidelines to follow, the program had little importance.*” Whether respondents were subtle or adamant, policymakers, induction leaders, and administrators need to take heed to these comments and re-evaluate induction programs.

Furthermore, the life of a first-year teacher is especially laborious. Teachers in this study were critical of the amount of time that induction took away from them. “*I needed time to work,*” “*too much time was required . . .,*” “*what new teachers needed most was time.*” Administrators need to develop induction programs that support their first-year teacher but does not monopolize so much of their time. In addition, the literature identifies feedback as being instrumental in helping induction leaders to identify what was good about the program and what needs improvement.

In addition to analyzing what new teachers deemed negative from their induction experience, we can also look at what they found to be positive. Half of all positive comments that were made about induction were about being able to meet new teachers. Having the opportunity to share experiences and being able to vent frustration with fellow teachers during the first-year of teaching was very important to some respondents. Providing the opportunity for new teachers to bond is crucial. At times when they felt overwhelmed and overworked, nothing could be more beneficial than having the opportunity to meet with fellow colleagues in which they can share experiences. According to the first-year teacher, providing new teachers the opportunity to meet would be more beneficial than attending workshops or classes.

In addition, the literature review in chapter one revealed that mentoring is crucial in the retention of teachers. In this study, many respondents said their mentor was extremely helpful. However, many respondents said their mentor was not helpful. *My mentor was only in it for the stipend,* “*mentor teacher did not seem interested,*” *my mentor was unfriendly and did not like me.*” When reading the negative comments concerning mentoring, the researcher could feel a real sense of frustration in these new teachers. Nothing would be more frustrating than being assigned a mentor who was disinterested or uncaring. By assigning the new teacher a disinterested mentor when we know from the literature how important positive mentoring is, aren’t we setting the new teacher up for failure? Since a capable mentor is crucial in retaining good teachers, mentor assignment should be considered carefully. If a mentor is not extremely helpful to the first-year teacher, the administrator needs to assign the teacher a new mentor.

In summary, this study helped to unveil the first-year teaching experience in Pennsylvania. It added to the abundant literature that attrition is an issue in the teaching profession and that attrition hurts teacher quality. It also echoed the need for higher salaries, administrative support, adequate workplace conditions, and mentoring and induction support. Whether it is an urban, suburban, or rural school, good teachers gravitate and stay at schools where they know they will be supported and appreciated. Pennsylvania policymakers and school administrators need to make hiring, keeping, and supporting good teachers a top priority to ensure that all children have quality teachers in their classrooms.

APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT LETTER

August, 2005

Dear Educator:

The State Board of Education and the University of Pittsburgh are working together to conduct a study of the effect of teacher induction programs on job satisfaction and retention. If you are a recently certified teacher who was hired by a public school district, intermediate unit, area vocational school or charter school between July 1, 2002 and June 30, 2005, we ask for your assistance by taking about ten minutes to complete an anonymous on-line survey that shares your induction program experiences.

If you are not employed by a public school in Pennsylvania, we thank you for taking the time to review this information. You do not need to read any further and may discard this letter.

If you do meet the above criteria, please visit www.pde.state.pa.us/stateboard_ed and click on induction survey. You will be linked to another web site where you can complete the survey. This survey is entirely anonymous. Respondents cannot be identified in any way. All survey summaries are confidential and will be stored in locked files. Your participation is voluntary; you can withdraw from the project at any time.

This information will be useful when the State Board considers policy changes in the future that may help improve the induction program for new teachers entering the profession. We appreciate your taking the time to assist in this research.

Should you have questions about the survey please direct them to Tracy McCalla at tmccalla1@verizon.net.

Sincerely,

Jim Buckheit
Executive Director

APPENDIX B

FIRST YEAR TEACHER SURVEY

Thank you for participating in this survey regarding your first year experiences. Your information will help policymakers understand the first-year teaching experience in Pennsylvania.

Please answer the following questions concerning your first year of teaching. Your first year of teaching means the first year that you taught under your Instructional I certificate (not student-teaching, MAT internship, or other field placements while you were a student).

Your identity is completely anonymous; therefore, confidentiality is assured.

Please fill out this survey if you have completed your first, second, or third year of teaching in Pennsylvania. If you have not, we will not be able to use your survey, but we thank you very much for your time. If you have completed your first, second, or third year of teaching, please continue with this survey.

Please click done after finishing the last question. When you click done, the survey will automatically and anonymously be sent to a secure internet site. Thank you very much for participating in this project.

Demographics and years teaching

1. How were you certified?
 - A. Traditional 4 or 5 year college program
 - B. Alternative certification program

2. At what type of school did you teach during your first year?
 - A. Urban
 - B. Rural
 - C. Suburban

3. Which best describes the grade levels that you taught during your first year of Teaching (you can choose more than one answer if applicable)?
- A. Kindergarten B. Grades 1,2,3 C. Grades 4,5,6 D. Grades 7 & 8
E. Grades 9-12

Your schedule

4. DURING THE FIRST SEMESTER, on average (keeping in mind that some teachers' schedules are different day to day), how much time did you have during the school day to prepare to teach your classes?
- A. More than 1 hour B. 45 minutes to 1 hour C. 30 to 44 minutes
D. 0 to 29 minutes
5. DURING THE SECOND SEMESTER, on average (keeping in mind that some teachers' schedules are different day to day), how much time did you have during the school day to prepare to teach your classes?
- A. More than 1 hour B. 45 minutes to 1 hour C. 30 to 44 minutes
D. 0 to 29 minutes
6. DURING THE FIRST SEMESTER, How many different subjects did you teach per day (keep in mind that different levels, i.e., Honors English 11 and English 11 would be two different classes)?
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 NA
7. DURING THE SECOND SEMESTER, How many different subjects did you teach per day (keep in mind that different levels, i.e., Honors English 11 and English 11 would be two different classes)?
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 NA
8. How did your teaching schedule compare to the schedule of veteran teachers in your school (in terms of workload, # of students, # of classes, etc.)?
- A. much less demanding B. a little less demanding C. about the same
D. a little more demanding E. much more demanding
9. On average how much time outside of school (per day) did you spend on preparing lessons, grading papers and contacting parents?
- A. No time outside B. 20 minutes C. ½ hour to 45 minutes D. 1 hour E. 1 ½ hours
F. 2 hours G. 3 hours or more

members
of the
staff

O O O O O

13. As part of your induction program, were you required to take classes at the Intermediate Unit or local universities?

A. Yes B. No C. I did not participate in an induction program

14. How practical or useful were the courses you were required to take as part of the induction process?

A. Very practical and/or useful
B. Practical and/or useful
C. Somewhat practical and/or useful
D. Not at all practical and/or useful
E. I did not participate in an induction program

Your Mentoring

15. Were you assigned a mentor teacher?

A. Yes B. No (If you answered no, you can put the last answer for the next 4 questions)

16. If you were assigned a mentor, did he or she teach in the same content area?

A. Yes B. No C. I did not have a mentor

17. How helpful was your mentor in your role as a first year teacher?

A. Very helpful B. Helpful C. Somewhat helpful D. Not helpful
E. I did not have a mentor

18. Which best describes the amount of time you met with your mentor for guidance?

A. 1 or 2 times a week
B. Once or twice a month
C. Several times over the semester
D. Once or twice during the year
E. Never
F. I did not have a mentor

19. When meeting or conversing with your mentor, who initiated contact?

- A. I did
- B. My mentor did
- C. Sometimes I did; sometimes my mentor did
- D. My mentor and I rarely or never met
- E. I did not have a mentor

20. During the first semester, did your mentor have the same preparation period as you did?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. I did not have a mentor

21. During the second semester, did your mentor have the same preparation period as you did?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. I did not have a mentor

Your Extra Duties

22. Did you coach or supervise a paid or unpaid extracurricular activity?

- A. Yes
- B. No

23. Did you serve on any type of committee?

- A. Yes
- B. No

Support

24. To what extent was your building administrator supportive of you as a first year teacher?

- A. Very supportive
- B. Supportive
- C. Somewhat supportive
- D. Not supportive at all

25. To what extent were your colleagues (besides your mentor) supportive of you as a first year teacher?

- A. Very supportive
- B. Supportive
- C. Somewhat supportive
- D. Not supportive at all

26. How safe and secure did you perceive your school environment to be?

- A. Very safe and secure
- B. Safe and secure
- C. Somewhat safe and secure
- D. Not at all safe and secure

Working Conditions and Salary

27. How effective do you feel you were as a teacher to your students?
- A. Very effective B. Effective C. Somewhat effective D. Not at all effective
28. To what extent were you satisfied with your salary?
- A. Very satisfied B. Satisfied C. Somewhat satisfied D. Not satisfied
29. To what extent were you satisfied with the overall working conditions (overall physical environment, relationships with colleagues, administrative support, workload, etc.)?
- A. Very satisfied B. Satisfied C. Somewhat satisfied D. not satisfied
30. Which best describes your situation in regards to your classroom?
- A. Had my own classroom for a full year, including during preparation.
B. Had my own classroom for a full year, but it was unavailable during preparation time
C. During at least half of the year, I had to travel to teach.
D. For more than half of the school year, I was without a permanent classroom.
31. How would you rate student behavior at your school?
- A. Excellent B. Good C. Fair D. Poor

Years teaching and future plans

32. How many years of teaching have you completed?
[Please answer this question using the choices below. For the next 3 questions, those with 3 years of teaching experience should answer question #33, those with 2 years teaching experience should answer question # 34, and those with one year of experience should answer question # 35.]
- A. 3 years B. 2 years C. 1 year
33. If you have completed 3 years of teaching (if not, skip to next question), are you . . . ?
- A. At the same school as year 1
B. At a different school but in the same district as year 1
C. At a different school and different district from year 1
D. Not teaching

34. If you have completed 2 years of teaching (if not, please skip to next question), are you?
- A. At the same school as year 1
 - B. At a different school but in the same district as year 1
 - C. At a different school and different district from year 1
 - D. Not teaching

35. If you have just completed your first year of teaching (if not, please skip to next question), what are your plans for next year?

- A. Stay at the same school
- B. Move within the district
- C. Move to another district
- D. Leave teaching altogether
- E. Not sure

36. If you have changed school districts or you are planning on changing school districts within the next year, please rate how these factors affected (or are affecting) your decision to move.

	Very Significant	Significant	Somewhat Significant	Not Significant	I have not changed schools
Salary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of adm. support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time outside school on prep.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of colleague support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling of a lack of effectiveness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of safety & security		<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Teaching schedule	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High stakes testing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

39. If you have left teaching or you are planning on leaving teaching within the next year, what was the number one reason affecting your decision to leave?

- A. Salary
- B. Lack of administrative support
- C. Time outside of the school day on preparation
- D. Lack of colleague support
- E. A feeling of a lack of effectiveness
- F. Lack of safety and security
- G. Teaching schedule
- H. High stakes testing
- I. None of these
- J. I do not plan on leaving teaching

40. [This question is optional]. What was the most valuable information or experience you received from your induction program?

41. [This question is optional]. What do you feel were the weaknesses of the induction program in which you participated?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1872 teachers rules*. Mountain View, AR: Old Time Print Shop, Ozark Folk Center.
- Altenbaugh, R., & Underwood, K. (1990). The evolution of normal schools. J. Goodlad, R. Soder, & K. Sirotnik (Eds.), *Places where teachers are taught*. (pp.136-186). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- American Association of School Administrators (1973). *Teacher tenure ain't the problem*. Arlington, VA: AASA.
- Anderson, R., & Snyder, K. (1993). *Clinical supervision: Coaching for higher performance*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing.
- Andrews, Hans (1995). *Teachers can be fired*. Chicago: Catfeet Press.
- Andrews, J.W., Blackmon, C.R., & Mackey, J.A. (1980). Pre-service performance and the national teacher exams. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 61 (5), 358-359.
- Aron, R. (1970). *Main currents in sociological thought*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Ashton, P., & Webb, R. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Ayers, J.B. (1988). Another look at the concurrent and predictive validity of the national teacher examinations. *Journal of Educational Research*, 81 (3), 133-137.
- Bailey, T., & Kennedy, D. (1994). *The American pageant*. Lexington, Massachusetts: DC Heath and Company.

- Barton, P., Coley, R., & Wenglinsky, H. (1998). *Order in the classroom: Violence, discipline, and student achievement*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Beale, H. (1972). *Are American teachers free? An analysis of restraints upon the freedom of teaching in American schools*. New York, New York: Octagon Books.
- Blair, J. (2002). Teacher-trainers fear a backfire from new ESEA. *Education Week*, 21(25), pp. 1, 38, 39. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/ewstory.cfm?slug=25teach.h21>.
- Bon Reis, S. (2000). *Teacher tenure in Pennsylvania: A re-examination of purpose*. Retrieved April 4, 2004 from <http://www.ed.psu/pepc/tenurepart2.html>
- Brichman, W., & Lehrer, S. (1962). *A century of higher education*, New York: Society for the Advancement of Education.
- Bridges, E. (1992). *The incompetent teacher: Managerial responses*. Philadelphia: Falmer.
- Byrd, D., & McIntyre, D. (1997). *Research on the education of our nation's teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Carroll, S., Reichardt, R., & Guarino, C. (2000). *The distribution of teachers among California's school districts and schools*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.
- Cardman, M. (2004). ED relaxes rules governing "highly qualified" teachers: Bar lowered for rural, science teachers in response to widespread complaints. *Education Daily*. 37 (50), p.1-2.
- Cedoline, A. (1987). *Job burnout in public education*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Chapman, D., & Lowther, M. (1982). Teacher's satisfaction with teaching. *Journal of Educational Research*, 75, 241-247.
- Cogan, M. (1973). *Clinical supervision*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Coleman, J. (1966). *Equality of educational opportunity*. Washington, U.S: Government Printing Office.
- Coleman, J. S., & Hoffer, T. (1997). *Public and private high schools: The impact of communities*. New York: Basic Books.
- Danielson, C. (1996). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.
- Danielson, C. & McGreal, T. (2000). *Teacher evaluation: To enhance professional practice*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *Doing what matters most: Investing in quality teaching*. New York: National Commission on teaching and America's future.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 8 (1). Retrieved from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v8n1>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2003). Keeping good teachers: Why it matters what leaders can do. *Educational Leadership*, 60 (8), 6-13.
- Delisio, E. (2003). Induction programs help keep better teachers. *Education World*. Retrieved from http://www.educationworld.com/a_issues/chat/chat071.shtml.
- Dorby, A., Murphy, P., & Schmidt, D. (1985). Predicting teacher competence. *Action in Teacher Education*, 7 (1-2), 69-74.
- Dworkin, G. (1987). *Teacher burnout in the public schools*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- The Education Policy and Leadership Center. (2004). Head of the class: A quality teacher in every Pennsylvania classroom. Retrieved from, <http://www.eplc.org>

- Elsbree, W. S. (1939). *The American teacher*. New York: American Book Company.
- Fayol, H. (1967). *Administration industrielle et generale. English*. London: Pittman.
- Glanz, J. (1991). *Bureaucracy and professionalism: The evolution of public school supervision*. New Jersey: Associated University Presses.
- Glasser, W. (1993). *The quality school teacher: A companion to the quality school*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Goldhammer, R. (1969). *Clinical supervision: Special methods for the supervision of teachers*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Goodlad, J. (1984). *A place called School: Prospects for the future*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Goodlad, J. (1990). *Teachers for our nation's schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gordon, S. P., & Maxey, S. (2000). *How to help beginning teachers succeed* (second edition). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Haycock, K. (1998). Good teaching matters a lot. *Thinking K-16*, 3(2), 3-14.
- Heller, D. (2004). *Teachers wanted: Attracting and retaining good teachers*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Herbst, J. (1989). Teacher preparation in the nineteenth century: Institutions and purposes. In D. Warren (Ed.), *American Teachers: Histories of a profession at work* (pp.213-236).
- Hornstein, H. A., Callahan, D.M., Fisch, E. & Benedict, B.A. (1968). Influence and satisfaction in organizations: A replication. *Sociology of Education*, 41 (4), 380-389.
- Hunter, M., & Russell, D. (1989). *Mastering coaching and supervision*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.

- Imazeki, J. (2003). Class size reduction and teacher quality: Evidence from California. In M.L. Plecki & D.H. Mond (Eds.), *School finance and teacher quality: Exploring the connections* (p. 170). Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education, Inc.
- Imber, M., & Van Geel, T. (2001). *A teacher's guide to educational law*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38 (3), 499-534.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2002a). *Out-of-field teaching, educational inequity, and the organization of schools: An exploratory analysis*. Seattle, WA: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy, University of Washington.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2002b). The teacher shortage: A Case of wrong diagnosis and wrong prescription. *National Association of secondary school principals*, 86 (631), 16-30.
- Ingersoll, R., & Smith, T. (2004). Do teacher induction and mentoring matter? *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 88 (638), 28-40.
- Jerald, C., & Ingersoll, R. M. (2002). *All talk, no action: Putting an end to out-of-field teaching*. Washington, DC: The Education Trust. Retrieved from www.edtrust.org/main/documents/AllTalk.pdf
- Johnson, J., Dupuis, V., Musial, D., Hall, G., & Gollnick, D. (1996). *Introduction to the Foundations of American education*. Needham Heights, MA; Simon & Schuster.
- Johnson, S. M. (1990). *Teachers at work: Achieving Success in our schools*, New York: Basic Books.
- Johnson, S.M., & Birkeland, S.E. (2003). The schools that teachers choose. *Educational Leadership*, 60 (8), 20-24.

- Kaplan, L., & Owings, W. (2001). Teacher Quality and student achievement: Recommendations for principals. *National Association of Secondary School Principal's Bulletin*, 85 (628), 64-73.
- Kaplan, L., & Owings, W. (2002). The politics of teacher quality: Implications for principals. *National Association of secondary school principals bulletin*, 86 (633), 22-41.
- Kershaw, J. & McKean, R. (1962). *Teacher shortages and salary schedules*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kosmoski, G. (2000). *Supervision*. Mequon, Wisconsin: Stylex Publishing.
- Laczko-Kerr, I., & Berliner, D.C. (2002). The effectiveness of "Teach for America" and other under-certified teachers on student academic achievement: A case of harmful public policy. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 19 (37). Retrieved from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v10n37/>
- Looney, S. (2004). *Education and the legal system: A guide to understanding the law*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Marzano, R., Pickering, D., Pollock, J. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M.P. (1997). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause burnout and what to do about it*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McDiarmid, G. W., & Wilson, S. (1991). An exploration of the subject matter knowledge of alternative route teachers: Can we assume they know their subjects? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 42 (3), 32-35.

- McLaughlin, M., & Pfeifer, R. (1988). *Teacher evaluation: Improvement, accountability, and effective learning*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Memory, D., Coleman, C., & Watkins, S. (2003). Possible tradeoffs in raising basic skills cutoff scores for teacher licensure: A study with implications for participation of African Americans in teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54 (3), 217-228.
- Millman, J. (1981). *Handbook of Teacher Evaluation*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Monk, D. H. (1994). Subject matter preparation of secondary mathematics and science teachers and student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 13 (2), 125-145.
- Moore, D., Schurr, K., & Henriksen, W. (1991). Correlations of national teacher examination core battery scores and college grade point average with teaching effectiveness of first year teachers. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51, 1023-1028.
- Murnane, R., & Phillips, B. (1981). What do effective teachers of inner-city children have in common? *Social Science Research*, (10), 83-100.
- Murphy, J. (1987). Teacher evaluation: A comprehensive framework for supervisors. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 1 (2) 157-180.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (1996). *An overview of the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS)*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A Nation at Risk*. Washington, D.C.: NCEE.
- National Educational Association for the Improvement of Education (2002). Using data to improve teacher induction programs. Retrieved from www.nfie.org.

National Teacher Recruiting Clearinghouse (2005). Keep successful teachers. Retrieved from <http://www.recruitingteachers.org>.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-110 [On-line] Available: <http://thomas.loc.gov/>.

Nolan, J., & Hoover, L. (2004). *Teacher supervision and evaluation*. New Jersey: Wiley.

Ornstein, A., Levine, D. (1997). *Foundations of education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Ostroff, C. (1992). The relationship between satisfaction, attitudes, and performance: An organizational level analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76: 31-39.

Pennsylvania Department of Education (2004). *Professional educator certification: Level II Certification* (Revised 2004). Retrieved March 10, 2005, from <https://www.tcs.ed.state.pa.us/forms/Instructions.asp>

Podursky, M. (2002). Let's pay teachers like professionals: Eliminate the single salary schedule. Retrieved from [http://www.excellentthought.net/reformtexas/reforms/payd\(4\).htm](http://www.excellentthought.net/reformtexas/reforms/payd(4).htm)

Pulliam, J. (1976). *History of education in America*. Columbus, OH: Bell and Howell.

Pulliam, J. (1987). *History of education in America*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Pulliam J., & Van Patten, J. (1995). *History of education in America*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Simon and Schuster.

Quirk, T.J., Witten, B. J., & Weinberg J. (1973). Review of studies of the concurrent and predictive validity of the National Teacher Examinations. *Review of Educational Research*, 43, (1), 89-113.

Renard, L (2003). Setting new teachers up for failure . . . or success. *Educational Leadership*, 60 (8), 62-64.

- Rice, J. (2003). *Teacher quality: Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes*. Washington, D.C.: Economic Policy Institute.
- Rollefson, R., & Smith, T. (1997). Do low salaries really draw the least able into the teaching profession? D. Byrd, D. J. McIntyre (Eds.), *Research on the education of our nation's teachers* (pp.43-58). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Rotherham, A., & Mead, S. (2003). Teacher quality: Beyond No Child Left Behind. A response to Kaplan and Owings (2002). *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 87 (635), 65-76.
- Sanders, W. L., & Horn, S. P. (1998). Research findings from the Tennessee value-added assessment system (TVAAS) database: Implications for educational evaluation and research. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 12 (3), 247-256.
- Sanders, W., & Rivers, J. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee, Value-Added Research and Assessment Center.
- Scherer, M. (2003). The ex-teacher. *Educational Leadership*, 60 (8), 5.
- Schugurensky, D. (2002). *Selected moments of the 20th century*. Retrieved June 6, 2004 from <http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca>
- Scott, J. (1986). *Teacher tenure*. (Eric Database No. ED282352)
- Sedlak, M. (1989). Let us go and buy a school master: Historical perspectives on the hiring of teachers in the United States, 1750-1980. D. Warren (Ed.), *American teachers: Histories of a profession at work* (pp. 257-290). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Sergiovanni T. & Starratt, R. (2002). *Supervision: A redefinition*. New York: McGrawHill.

- Spaniol, L., & S. Caputo (1979). *Professional burnout: A personal survival kit*. Lexington, MA: Human Services Associates.
- Spring, J. (1996). *The American school: 1642-1996*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Spring, J. (1976). *The American school: 1642-1985*. New York: Longman.
- Strauss, R., & Sawyer, E. (1986). Some new evidence on teacher and student competencies. *Economics of Educational Review*, 5 (1), 41-48.
- Stronge, J., & Hindman, J. (2003). Hiring the best teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 60 (8), 48-52.
- Stufflebeam, D., & Webster, W. (1989). *Handbook of research on educational administration: A project of the American educational resource association*. New York: Longman.
- Summers, A.A., & Wolfe, B.L. (1977). Do schools make a difference? *American Economic Review*, 67, 639-652.
- Tanner, L. (1997). *Dewey's laboratory school: Lessons for today*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Trahan, C. (2002). Implications of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 for teacher education. (Eric Database No. ED477723)
- Viadero, D. (2002). Researchers skewers explanations behind teacher shortage. *Education Week*, 21 (30), 7.
- U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Job satisfaction among America's teachers: Effects of workplace conditions, background characteristics, and teacher compensation*, NCES 97-471, by Marianne Perie and David P. Baker. Project officer, Summer Whitener. Washington, DC: 1997.

- U.S. Department of Education, Office of Deputy Secretary, *No Child Left Behind: A toolkit for teachers*, Washington, D. C., 2004.
- Urban, W. & Wagoner, J. (2004). *American education*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Wayne, A., & Youngs, P. (2003). Teacher characteristics and student achievement gains. *Review of Educational Research*, 73 (1), 89-122.
- Wiles, J., & Bondi, J. (2002). *Supervision: A guide to practice*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Wise, A., Darling-Hammond, L., McLaughlin, M., Bernstein, H. (1984). *Teacher Evaluation: A study of effective practices*. California: Rand.
- Wong, H. (2004). Induction programs that keep new teachers teaching and improving. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 88 (638), 41-58.