School and District Leadership and the Job Satisfaction of Novice Teachers: The Influence of Supervision and Evaluation

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BOSTON COLLEGE

Lynch School of Education

Department of
Educational Leadership and Higher Education

Professional School Administrator Program (PSAP)

SCHOOL AND DISTRICT LEADERSHIP AND THE JOB SATISFACTION
OF NOVICE TEACHERS:
THE INFLUENCE OF SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

Dissertation in Practice by

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Doctor of Education

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This qualitative case study examined the influence of the processes of supervision and evaluation on the job satisfaction of novice teachers in one suburban Massachusetts school district. The conceptual framework guiding this research was the “Three Factor Theory” developed by Dinham and Scott (1998) which emphasizes the role of school-based factors on job satisfaction. The data collection included interviews with novice teachers, school leaders and central office leaders. A document review was also conducted. The results of this study found that supervision and feedback that was specific and timely, provided from a coaching standpoint was perceived to be an important factor influencing job satisfaction. Building leaders felt that evaluation, through the self-reflection and goal setting process, also positively contributed to the job satisfaction of novice teachers, however, novice teachers did not confirm this finding.

Recommendations include additional professional development for both building leaders and novice teachers that focuses on the use of supervision and feedback to inform the evaluation process, including the self-reflection and goal setting stages.
Acknowledgements

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I am forever grateful to my family. Throughout this journey they encouraged me, pushed me, and loved me. They each served as my motivation and encouraged a belief in myself I am not sure I had before. Ed, Sally and David, you are my rocks and my foundation. You are my life and I am blessed to have you. Thank you to my mother, Ma, who has always believed in me. She instilled in me a love for learning. She is an inspiration. Finally, I am thankful to my niece Mary Beth who taught me to appreciate each and every day. I hope to carry her spirit and her love for life with me forever.
Dedication

This work is dedicated to my wonderful husband Ed. I would not have been able to survive this without your relentless belief in me. Throughout the past three years you encouraged me, prodded me, humored me, comforted me through a devastating loss, cleaned the house, cooked, shopped and literally kept our lives moving forward while I focused my time and energy on this dissertation. You were always positive and upbeat and you were as enthusiastic about my work as I was.

I love you Ed. I love you from the bottom of my heart and I now look forward to the adventures we will take together.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The high rate of novice teacher turnover is a significant problem for educational leaders (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Researchers note that, “after just five years, between 40 and 50 percent of all beginning teachers have left the profession” (p. 2). The attrition rate is substantial because it is expensive for districts to train new teachers (Wynn, Carboni, & Patall, 2007). As teaching experience is a critical factor of student success (Darling-Hammond, 2000a; Huang & Moon, 2009; Murnane & Phillips, 1981), “high levels of teacher attrition make it difficult for schools to achieve a “critical mass” of faculty who possess the skills and experience necessary to sustain educational reforms called for by policy makers” (Huling, Resta, & Yeargain, 2012, p. 14). Thus, teacher attrition has numerous ramifications for school improvement efforts, pupil achievement, and policy implementation.

Statement of Problem

Teachers frequently leave the profession as a result of job dissatisfaction and the aspiration to find a better career (Ingersoll, 2001). This combination accounts for 42% of departures from the teaching profession (Ingersoll, 2001). A closer look at these statistics reveals the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction are “low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over school-wide and classroom decision making” (p. 522). Lam and Yan (2011) define job satisfaction as . . .

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1. This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris.
derived from factors related to job nature, that is, what employees actually do . . . the job is perceived as providing positive satisfaction if it has characteristics that lead to the satisfaction of higher-order human needs, such as personal growth and recognition. (p. 336)

For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction is defined as a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience” (Hulpia, Devos & Rosseel, 2009, p. 294). The Alliance for Excellent Education in collaboration with the New Teacher Center found that about “13 percent of the nation’s 3.4 million teachers move schools or leave the profession every year, costing states up to $2 billion” (Haynes, Maddock & Goldrick, 2014, p. 1). Further, “researchers estimate that over 1 million teachers move in and out of schools annually, and between 40 and 50 percent quit within five years” (p. 1). School and district leadership may have a strong impact on novice teachers’ job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

The issue of novice teacher performance and attrition is not distributed evenly across all schools and districts, however. For instance, many urban schools have a higher percentage of novice teacher attrition and a higher rate of teacher transience compared to suburban counterparts (Jacob, 2007). Novice teachers are often placed in high poverty, racially diverse classrooms, and work with large numbers of students with learning disabilities (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2001). As a result, this places novice teachers at a disadvantage by a lack of mentoring and preparation for negotiating the political context of the school, district, and community (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

There are many variables that contribute to the composition of school and district culture. For example, in a study conducted in North Carolina, African-American students
were significantly more likely to be taught by a novice teacher than their white counterparts (Clofelter, Ladd & Vigdor, 2005). The data for this study were gathered from a comparison of racial segregation of students and the probability of having a novice teacher in 7th grade math classrooms. Similarly, a study in New York found that “nonwhite, poor, and low performing students, particularly those in urban areas, attend schools with less qualified teachers” (Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002, p. 54). Peske and Haycock (2006) found that “classes in high-poverty and high minority secondary schools are more likely to be taught by ‘out-of-field teachers’ – those without a major or minor in the subject they teach” (p. 2). While novice teacher attrition affects all schools, these studies indicate that the impact of these factors is likely greater in schools that are already struggling to reach achievement targets than more affluent schools and districts.

Ladd (2011) and Stockard and Lehman (2004) observe that school leaders influence the job satisfaction and retention of teachers. As Ladd (2011) points out, “the higher the perceived quality of school leadership, the less likely teachers are either to plan to leave or actually to leave the school” (p. 256). Research suggests that:

- school management policies influence teacher satisfaction and retention, with teachers who are employed in settings where they have greater influence over school policy, greater control over their own classroom, more effective administrators, and a mentoring system that provides support in their initial years of teaching being both more satisfied and more likely to stay in the field.

(Stockard & Lehman, 2004, p. 744)

These findings suggest educational leaders impact the job satisfaction and ultimately the retention of teachers in the profession. Given the role school leadership plays in the job
satisfaction and retention of teachers (Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Stockard & Lehman, 2004), the purpose of this study was to explore the influence of school and district leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The overarching questions for this research were:

1. How do school and district leaders perceive their role in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
2. In what way(s), if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to school and district leadership?

The literature review that follows grounds our research. Dinham and Scott’s Three-Factor Theory and other theories related to job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Sergiovanni, 1967) provide the conceptual framework. The research presents extrinsic, intrinsic, and school-based factors that may influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Literature Review**

The first section of the literature review provides a conceptual overview of Dinham and Scott’s Three-Factor Theory and other theories that inform our understanding of the presence or absence of teacher job satisfaction. The second section explores the factors that influence teacher job satisfaction: school conditions, school culture, teachers’ self-efficacy, and leadership.

**Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory**

The two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959) is commonly used to describe how employees across a variety of fields develop attitudes about their work (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Herzberg, 1968) and “has become one of the most
used, known, and widely respected theories for explaining motivation and job satisfaction” (DeShields, Kara, & Kaynak, 2005, p. 131). The theory posits that factors influencing work satisfaction are separate and unrelated to factors that may cause dissatisfaction with work. The satisfying factors, or motivators, are job-intrinsic and are internally generated, such as personal achievement, responsibility, and commitment to the work (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Stello, 2011). Motivators are highly connected to the characteristics derived from Maslow’s theory of personal growth and self-actualization (as cited in Stello, 2011). The presence of motivators contributes to job satisfaction; the absence of motivators would be neutral and would not cause dissatisfaction because the factors contributing to dissatisfaction are on a different scale (Herzberg et al., 1959).

According to this theory, a separate continuum of factors, called hygiene factors, can cause dissatisfaction with work. These factors are related to the general environment that surround the job, such as working conditions and policies that govern the way work is to be done (Herzberg et al., 1959) and are outside the employee’s control (DeShields et al., 2005). For instance, the increasing quantity of non-teaching tasks, especially in the form of paperwork, has been identified as a significant hygiene factor for classroom teachers (Spear, Gould, & Lee, 2000). In a similar way that motivators do not cause dissatisfaction, hygiene factors are not a cause of work satisfaction, but can be the source of dissatisfaction.

**Two-Factor Theory in Education**

Sergiovanni (1967) applied the two-factor theory to teachers to see if the same trend would apply in this specific job field. His research confirmed the findings of
Herzberg et al. (1959) in an educational context and added details on which satisfiers and hygiene factors had the most significant effect on teacher job satisfaction. He found that personal achievement, recognition, and responsibility were the most critical factors influencing teacher satisfaction; other satisfiers in the study, such as career advancement, did not appear to relate to teacher satisfaction (Sergiovanni, 1967). The most significant hygiene factor for teachers was interpersonal relations and this response was consistent regardless of demographic factors such as tenure status, gender, or grade level (Sergiovanni, 1967). The study also found that teachers, much like the employees in the study by Herzberg et al. (1959), were primarily motivated by intrinsic factors. Holdaway (1978) confirmed this finding, stating that:

The highest percentages “Satisfied” were obtained with interpersonal relationships, freedom in making instructional decisions, and the teaching assignment. Highest percentages “Dissatisfied” occurred with the facets of attitudes of society and parents; status of teachers . . . and staffing procedures.

(p. 45)

**School-Based Factors: The Third Domain of Teacher Satisfaction**

Because of growing concern about teacher satisfaction, Dinham & Scott (2000) initiated the Teacher 2000 Project, an international program aimed to measure teacher motivation, satisfaction, and health to inform policy and decision-making (Dinham & Scott, 1997). This research confirmed many aspects of Sergiovanni’s (1967) and Herzberg et al.’s (1959) studies, such as intrinsic factors that proved the most significant aspects in determining teacher satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997). Despite this core similarity, Dinham and Scott found altruism and personal growth to be the most
influential intrinsic factors, which varies slightly from Sergiovanni’s findings. Other research has found that “teachers in different countries generally derive job satisfaction from factors integral to the teaching job: assisting the growth of children, developing good relationships with students, and experiencing self-growth” (Lam & Yan, 2011, p. 336), which, similar to Dinham and Scott (1997), indicates slight changes over time in the specific intrinsic factors that influence teachers. The literature consistently confirms that intrinsic factors play a central role in determining teacher job satisfaction.

While hygiene factors similar to those identified in Sergiovanni’s research (1967) were found, the negative image of teachers in the media is a new finding that contributes to dissatisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997). This change may be due to shifts in the public perception of education as well as increased governmental involvement in schools that have occurred during the thirty years between the two studies. Recent studies found that significant hygiene factors for teachers include increasing workloads, the low status that teachers hold in our society, and low salaries (Lam & Yan, 2011), as well as the accountability pressures that have come from No Child Left Behind legislation (Byrd-Blake et al., 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2009) and reduced teacher autonomy (Moore, 2012; Shann, 1998).

While the similarities in these research findings are significant, one major difference emerged. Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) identified a “third factor” of variables that, unlike satisfiers and hygiene factors, may impact either teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction. They found that:

. . . there was a third broad band of factors revealed by the study which previous research had not identified, this third or middle band being comprised of
largely school-based factors. Falling between the universally perceived intrinsic rewards of teaching such as self-growth and pupil achievement (most satisfying), and the universal extrinsic hindrances to teacher satisfaction and effectiveness such as educational change, the status of teachers and increased administrative workloads (most dissatisfying), are school-based factors such as school leadership, climate and decision-making, school reputation, and school infrastructure, and it was these factors where most variation occurred from school to school and where there is thus greatest potential for change within schools. (1997, p. 16)

These school-based factors differ from satisfiers because they are not intrinsic to the teacher and differ from hygiene factors because they have the capacity to increase job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1998).

These school-based factors are of critical importance in this research as this study focused on aspects of these less explored and more recently identified elements of teacher satisfaction. Embedded in this research is the assumption that educational leaders have the greatest ability and capacity to influence a critical school-based factor that contributes to teacher satisfaction, which is primarily “a product of leadership” (Dinham & Scott, 1997, p. 16), as compared to leaders’ ability to influence intrinsic satisfiers and hygiene factors, which are primarily outside the control of leaders. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found that supervisory support contributes to teachers’ sense of belonging, which correlates with job satisfaction and a reduced motivation to leave the profession. This study aimed to investigate discrete leadership frameworks within this third factor that contribute to teacher job satisfaction (See Figure 1).
The next section of this chapter outlines the factors, identified through the literature, that have been shown to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The identified factors will be analyzed through the three-domain model of teacher satisfaction to allow for further investigation of school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Novice Teachers**

The profile of the novice teacher is no longer exclusively defined as the recent graduate from a formal teacher preparation program. Johnson (2004) describes the new wave of novice teachers as, “more homogeneous in race and gender than the retiring generation, more diverse in terms of age, prior experience, preparation, expectations regarding the workplace, and conceptions of career” (p. 7). Research conducted for the U.S. Department of Education by Goldring, Gray & Bitterman (2013) found that 82% of the current teaching force was non-Hispanic White, 7% were non-Hispanic Black, and 8% were Hispanic. While the demographics of the teaching force have not shifted dramatically, there has been a shift in the quality of the teacher preparation programs.
completed by the current population of teachers. No Child Left Behind (NCLB) “challenged the traditional concept of teaching by emphasizing content mastery and verbal ability, downplaying pedagogy as a less powerful determinant of student achievement,” which led to changes in many teacher preparation programs (Blanton, Sindelar, & Correa, 2006, p. 115). As a result, NCLB policies created an increased demand to replace underperforming teachers, which sparked the creation of non-traditional entry points into the teaching career. Addressing the shift in teacher preparation, Darling Hammond (2006) states that “teacher education as an enterprise has probably launched more new weak programs that underprepared teachers, especially for urban schools, than it has further developed the stronger models that demonstrate what intense preparation can accomplish” (p. 3).

Nearly 40% of new public school teachers enter the profession through non-traditional routes (Headden, 2014). According to Henke, Chen, and Geis, (2000) 29% of novice teachers without student-teaching experience left teaching within five years compared to 15% of those who participated in a teacher education program that required student teaching. Johnson (2004) also notes that many novice teachers are mid-career entrants. Johnson describes a novice teacher population where 28% to 47% of the teaching force has worked for a substantial amount of time in another field. Although these novice teachers bring a variety of experiences, “midcareer entrants often enter their new school expecting a workplace that was better equipped, more flexible, and more committed to their success than the one they found” (p. 25).

Novice teachers, at a unique phase in their profession, between theory and fully developed practice, are entering a profession vastly different from previous generations
Johnson, 2004). While Johnson focused on teachers in year one and two of their careers, she emphasizes the variation in workplace expectations as they enter the profession. For instance, since the 1960s, a wider range of career options has become available to women. Many of these professions provided a substantial improvement in compensation and training. This has elevated the expectations novice teachers have for support as they enter the teaching profession. This is in contrast to the increasing demands placed on new teachers. Johnson posits that novice teachers are “expected to teach all students so that they achieve high standards and to take on new functions beyond the traditional scope of school’s responsibility” (p. 7). Johnson also states “school structures and practices are no longer adequate to support either teachers’ development or students’ learning” (p. 8).

Fantilli and McDougall (2009) identify several challenges that novice teachers experience in their first few years. Significant challenges include difficult teaching assignments, limited or no school support, inadequate traditional and non-traditional preparation programs, an emphasis on student preparation to pass high-stakes assessments and limited skills in differentiating instruction for exceptional students. Johnson (2004) presents the challenge to public schools as follows:

An issue of great concern to policymakers, practitioners, and the public is the challenge of ensuring that all students, whoever they are and wherever they live, have good teachers. If schools fail to attract and retain a strong, committed cohort of new teachers in the coming years, students will be severely penalized, and those in low income communities will be likely to pay the greatest price. (p. 269)

Yet, despite the challenges new teachers face, novice teachers directly impact students, their learning, and the culture of the school. While growing a population of experienced
teachers is imperative for the teaching profession, this work must be embedded within a system of supports that recognizes and encourages and is equipped to develop teachers with the pedagogical and content skills to meet the needs of all students (Andrews, Gilbert & Martin, 2007; Brock & Grady, 1998; Hallinger, 2011).

Factors Influencing Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction

According to Shann (1998), “Teacher job satisfaction has been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contribution to school effectiveness” (p. 67). Yet, there is a range of factors related to teacher job satisfaction, and these factors may vary over time, reflecting organizational and cultural changes (Rhodes, Nevill, & Allan, 2004; Shreeve et al., 1998). According to Shreeve et al., “factors of job satisfaction shift with the times and fluctuate with the mores, in effect reflecting facets of the changing culture” (p. 182). The MetLife Survey of American Teachers (Markow, Macia & Lee, 2013) examined teacher job satisfaction and how the factors of job satisfaction change over time. Teacher job satisfaction rose from 40% in 1984 to reach a high of 62% in 2009. However, in 2012, teacher satisfaction declined to 39%, the lowest point since 1986 (Markow et al., 2013).

Based on the third domain of teacher satisfaction, the next section of the literature identifies factors that influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are specifically connected to working conditions, teacher pedagogical practice, self-efficacy, and teacher autonomy. School-based factors, school culture, as well as school and district leadership, informed this study, as it is school leadership that realizes the collective importance of all of these factors. Leadership includes aspects such as "working to procure necessary resources and materials, but even
more importantly, fostering teacher participation in decision-making and providing valuable opportunities for professional growth” (Sass, Seal, & Martin, 2011, p. 212).

**Extrinsic factors.** Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (1959) and Sergiovanni (1967) describe the extrinsic teacher dissatisfiers as conditions teachers perceive to be beyond their control. Two factors identified in the literature as contributing to novice teacher job dissatisfaction are working conditions and pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations.

**School working conditions.** School working conditions can negatively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Lam & Yan, 2011; Rhodes et al., 2004). Many novice teachers are given more challenging work assignments than their veteran colleagues (Clotfelter et al., 2005; Johnson, 2004). Kardos and Moore Johnson (2007) surveyed a random sample of 486 first- and second-year teachers in four states and found that while 23% of respondents indicated having fewer responsibilities than their more experienced colleagues, 36% indicated that their workload was too heavy, and 52% reported that they did not have enough time available for planning and preparation. The accessibility of resources may also influence job satisfaction as novice teachers often report that they teach classes in multiple rooms and have insufficient supplies or equipment (Johnson, 2004). Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2012) note an association between resource access and job satisfaction. As Lam and Yan (2011) state, “when the school environment allows for teachers to focus on the core business of teaching and allows a reasonable work-life balance, teachers are more likely to become engaged in teaching” (p. 345).
Pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations. Research indicates that a large number of novice teachers are placed in high poverty, high minority classrooms, and work with large numbers of students with learning disabilities (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2001). According to Darling-Hammond (2000b), teachers who were less prepared were less satisfied with their training and had greater difficulties identifying learning needs. She suggests, “They are less able to adapt their instruction to promote student learning and less likely to see it as their job to do so, blaming students if their teaching is not effective” (p. 167). Ladson-Billings (2001) furthers this thinking, “New teachers are often placed in the schools serving the poorest students and those who have failed to benefit from schooling, so the students with the greatest educational needs find themselves being taught by the teachers least prepared to teach them” (p. 17). Thus, an explanation as to why novice teachers leave high poverty, high minority schools may be a result of the context in which they work (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012). Due to novice teachers’ lack of experience in understanding a student’s language or culture, they may be unable to consider the “impact of their pedagogical decisions on student behavior” (Rodriguez, 2007, p. 63) or academic achievement. Bartolomé (2008) stressed the need to increase teachers’ “ideological clarity” in order to “resist deficit views on students and prevent them from hiding behind views to explain why students do not respond to their instruction” (p. xx). Instead of perpetuating a deficit perspective, teachers are able to “better understand if, when, and how their belief systems uncritically reflect those of the dominant society, and thus unknowingly serve to maintain the unequal and unacceptable conditions that so many students experience on a daily basis” (Bartolome´, 2008, p. xix).
For example, in special education, novice teachers may also struggle with students with learning disabilities. Brownell et al. (2009) conducted a study of 34 special educators who were in their first 3 years of teaching. Twenty-six of these beginning teachers held a license, “8 taught on a temporary certificate” and all participants “taught reading to third, fourth and/or fifth grade students with LD” (p. 395). It is important to note that teachers on temporary licenses have generally not completed an authentic teacher preparation program. Brownell et al. (2009) found that although the beginning special education teachers in this particular study had some knowledge related to teaching reading, they struggled with the pedagogical practice of teaching reading, such as decoding, facilitating discussion around text, and prompting students to use strategies previously taught. The research also indicated that beginning special education teachers relied more on classroom management and general instructional practice to inform student achievement. This study’s findings may not only cause a concern over the adequacy of special education teacher preparation programs, but these findings may also give us pause to think about all teacher preparations programs as they may be “broad in focus, providing effective instruction and classroom management, but unable to provide in depth instruction in content areas such as reading” (p. 408). Teachers, in general, are more satisfied in schools that provide them with tools to enhance both their content knowledge and pedagogical skills (Johnson et al., 2012; Rodriguez, 2007).

**Intrinsic motivators.** Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (1959) and Sergiovanni (1967) describe intrinsic satisfiers as most influential on the job satisfaction of teachers. Two factors identified in the literature as influencing the job satisfaction of the novice teacher are teacher self-efficacy and autonomy.
Self-efficacy. Teachers’ self-efficacy, the belief in the ability to deal with challenges, complete tasks, and impact student outcomes, not only correlates with student achievement, but by increasing early career teachers’ self-efficacy, schools have the potential to retain high quality teachers who are invested in the profession (Elliot, Isaacs, & Chugani, 2010). Early career teachers who have a significantly low sense of self-efficacy are more likely to leave the profession within their first few years often as the result of feeling overwhelmed, ineffective, and unsupported (Elliot et al., 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Professional experiences such as a positive school culture, support from school leadership, and opportunities for collegial collaboration contribute to novice teachers’ sense of self-efficacy and their desire to remain in the profession.

Teachers’ self-efficacy is a critical component in both teacher retention and job satisfaction. According to Fry (2009), “self-efficacy has been meaningfully used in educational research as a means of examining teacher success” as it “influences people’s expectations of success, how much effort they expend, and the extent to which they persist in activities” (p. 96). Teachers with high self-efficacy believe their actions contribute to student achievement while those with low self-efficacy are driven by extrinsic rewards (Yee, 1990). Those teachers who lack the confidence in their ability to teach students of different backgrounds and abilities may “blame behavior on students and parents” instead of considering “the impact of their pedagogical decisions on the student’s behavior” (Rodriguez, 2007, p. 63). Johnson, Kraft, and Papay (2012) note that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy may experience success and satisfaction in working with a diverse group of learners because of their commitment to social justice or
Autonomy. Professional autonomy is a significant factor related to teacher job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Lam & Yan, 2011; Moore, 2012; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). A study by Strong and Yoshida (2014) indicated that despite the changing educational climate, such as federal accountability policies and state mandates, “teachers still perceived their classroom as the highest area of autonomy regardless of level” (p. 139). Dinham and Scott (1997) found that a key element in the third-factor theory was the variable of control. First year teachers were more satisfied in schools where they felt they had a sense of control over their classrooms and influence over their work environment (Moore, 2012; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Moore (2012) defines teacher control as “control over teaching practices, control over grading, control over discipline, and control over homework” (p. 10). Additionally, Stockard and Lehman (2004) reported low rates of teacher job satisfaction for teachers who felt they had less influence over school policy. We move now to the school-based factors determined to also influence the job satisfaction of the novice and considered to be within the influence of school and district leadership.

School-based factors. Dinham and Scott (2000) describe the third domain of teacher satisfaction as comprised of school-based factors that are neither highly satisfying nor dissatisfying. Four factors identified as influencing the job satisfaction of the novice teacher included in this domain are collaborative school culture, mentoring, school leadership, and district leadership. These factors were of significant interest to this research because school and district leaders influence them.
Collaborative school culture. The term school culture describes the environment that affects the behavior of teachers, school leaders, and students (Angelle, 2006; Barresi & Olson, 1994; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Deal & Peterson, 1999). Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1996) and Hoy and Miskel (2005) define shared beliefs in a school culture as the values, visions, norms, individual beliefs, and the everyday experiences of the school community members. School culture has the ability to affect and inspire all members of the school community. A presence of professional learning communities and collaborative instructional and collegial practices (i.e., grade level team meetings, common teacher planning time, data meetings) are evident in a collaborative school culture (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; DuFour, 2002; DuFour, 2004; DuFour & DuFour, 2003; Hoaglund, Birkenfeld, & Box, 2014). Therefore, in this study, beliefs and collaborative practice were examined as two components of school culture.

Several researchers have found administrators to be particularly vital to the development and sustainability of culture in schools. Tantillo (2001) found that the role of the school leaders is essential in shaping school culture and that school culture and the environment in which teachers work have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Novice teachers indicated collegial support, the construct of which is impacted by the school culture, is one of the most important influences on job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Johnson et al. (2012) found that it was not the working conditions “such as well-maintained facilities or access to modern technology” (p. 2), but rather the positive social conditions such as collegial collaboration that was a predictive factor in influencing teacher job satisfaction. Beginning teachers revealed, “collaboration
without competition and the need for collective learning both tempered with a sense of mutual respect, were important for professional growth” (Brown & Wynn, 2007, p. 675).

Socialization of novice teachers into a collaborative school culture is also essential in increasing teacher retention (Angelle, 2006; Saphier, Freedman, & Aschheim, 2002). Flores (2004) states:

Schools are places where teaching occurs, but they are also places for teachers to learn and develop. Despite the widespread recognition of the importance of working conditions in fostering school and teacher development, most structural reform efforts have failed to address this issue adequately. (p. 299)

Flores (2004) further identifies that school workplace conditions have a direct impact on overall teacher development and learning. Collaboration is seen as a mitigating condition for teachers to grow in the profession and to accept and implement change effectively. Collaborative workplace relationships and cultures are associated with a supportive environment and better development opportunities for new teachers (Williams, Prestage & Bedward, 2001); thus, improving teacher morale leads to stronger commitment and better retention (Weiss, 1999).

Coleman (1988) and Lin (2002) describe the resources that are developed through professional relationships and collaboration as “social capital.” Social capital has been found to contribute to successful school reform efforts and build trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Spillane, Kim, and Frank (2012) found that formal, organizational structure has a greater influence on social capital than the individual characteristics of staff members. This research indicates that the decisions made by school administrators affect the social capital development of teachers by allowing them to make strong connections with
colleagues in teams such as grade levels pairings. The development of “social resources accessed through ties and critical for developing new knowledge” (Spillane, Kim, & Frank, 2012, p. 1135), essential for novice teachers given their relative lack of experience, are deeply influenced by how school leaders structure the collaborative teams in their school. A collaborative school culture is enhanced through the presence of professional learning communities and collaborative practices (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; DuFour, 2002; DuFour & DuFour, 2003; Hoaglund et al., 2014). This type of school culture is characterized by the presence of opportunities for shared leadership, educator ownership of school policies, the sharing of instructional and pedagogical ideas, all embedded in a climate of acceptance and support. Novice teachers benefit when feedback is received from an experienced group of educators who are able to model the positive constructs of an established collaborative environment (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Angelle (2006) introduced the concept of professional socialization as the “process whereby the novice learns about and becomes a part of the organization” as linked directly to teacher quality and longevity. Leadership is essential in matching novice teachers with supportive veteran role models to ensure that positive expectations for performance are communicated even if the school is underperforming or lacks in support (Tantillo, 2001). Formally socializing novice teachers into the school culture allows them to learn school expectations and approaches, skills and knowledge, stay current with the practices of colleagues, and seek to become a member of the larger school population (Angelle, 2006). Additionally, socialization supports teacher longevity, enhances teacher experience, and decreases teacher attrition (Angelle, 2006).
**Mentoring.** Novice teachers indicated mentoring programs were a significant influence on job satisfaction (Huisman, Singer, & Catapano, 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Rodriguez, 2007; Scherff, 2008; Yee, 1990). A recent report from the American Institutes of Research indicates that novice teachers place significant value on the support received from a mentor (Behrstock-Sherratt, Bassett, Olson, & Jacques, 2014). The same study also indicates the mentoring received must be in a similar content area or grade level and must be high quality.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011) qualify the presence of mentoring indicating that it is most effective when conducted on-site by trained mentors, with similar certification. They further state that teachers who receive such mentoring typically demonstrate greater skill in creating a positive classroom atmosphere, demonstrating solid instructional methods, and maintaining effective classroom management. As a result, the quality of mentoring is a key element in overall mentoring effectiveness. The quality of mentoring programs varies greatly from district to district. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) observe that districts “vary as how they select, prepare, assign and compensate the mentors themselves” (p. 204). For this study, the mentoring process was examined through the viewpoints of the novice teacher.

Littrell, Billingsley, and Cross assert that, “one of the most important acts schools can take is to provide support to beginning teachers” (1994, p. 36). Quality mentoring programs provide support to novice teachers as they adjust to the working environment and provide access to professional development opportunities (Huisman et al., 2010). Rodriguez (2007) revealed that novice teachers experienced increased job satisfaction when they had mentors who took time to answer questions, consistently visited their
classrooms, provided sustained support, gave constructive criticism, and developed trusting relationships. Thus, having an experienced mentor helps novice teachers acquire “contextualized knowledge and skills” (p. 65) and develop the self-confidence needed for success. While the mentor serves as a collegial support system for the novice teacher, building and district leadership are also school-based factors that influence novice teacher job satisfaction.

**School leadership.** Teachers identify leadership as a critical factor in the job satisfaction and retention of novice teachers (Blase & Blase, 2000; Hallinger, 2011; Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Deal and Peterson (1999) suggest that the lack of novice teacher job satisfaction can be attributed to the absence of support from school site leadership. Wynn et al. (2007) found clear indications that novice teachers who are satisfied with the principal leadership in their schools are more likely to stay in the profession. In two recent studies, dissatisfaction with school leadership was identified as a significant factor in teachers’ decision-making about whether to stay or leave their position (Boyd et al., 2011; Ladd, 2011). Boyd et al. (2011) surveyed first year teachers to understand factors that influence first year teacher turnover: “the dominance of dissatisfaction with administrative support is striking…Hardly any teachers cited dissatisfaction with colleagues…respect from students and/or parents…or district policies as a primary reason for leaving” (p. 327). Ladd (2011) discovered that positive perceptions of school leadership correlated with a reduced likelihood that teachers would plan to or actually leave the school. Ladd theorizes that, “the concept of leadership itself that emerges from the factor analysis…includes not only support for teachers, but also a shared vision, (and) trusting environment…” (p. 256).
Flores (2004) suggests that leadership constitutes one of the overarching influences in fostering a sense of professional community among teachers who work in collaborative ways to create shared goals, visions, and standards for their schools. She argues that developing a sense of self-efficacy and self-worth among teachers is a common trait in school leaders who support and promote the building of professional communities within schools. This contrasts with the theory that self-efficacy is an internal characteristic of the novice teacher. Job satisfaction is identified as an outcome directly connected to self-efficacy (Dinham & Scott, 2000). Brock and Grady (1998) found:

The expectations of beginning teachers illustrate that principals are central to the successful socialization and first year induction of beginning teachers. Although most of the literature on teacher induction has focused on the importance of mentors, principals are clearly key figures in the induction process. (p. 180)

While the impact of the school leader is critical in influencing the practice of all teachers, emphasis must be placed on the influence the leader specifically has on novice teachers to positively impact the attrition rate. Roberson and Roberson (2009) observe:

The principal is accountable for the success or failure of teachers to meet school and district goals and of students to reach performance goals. The principal has the power to set in motion the connections and activities that novice teachers need to be successful. (p. 118)

The influence of school leadership on novice teachers takes shape with the development of a clear mission and the creation of a trusting environment, clear school-wide standards, and shared goals (Andrews et al., 2007; Hallinger 2011; Hallinger, Wang
& Chen, 2013). Additionally, embedded within the environment of a school is a unique school culture that directly influences the novice teacher. A principal’s ability to develop and maintain a school culture that promotes collaboration and growth is vital to the success of novice teachers (Barth, 2001). Blase & Blase (2000) found, “in effective principal-teacher interaction about instruction, processes such as inquiry, reflection, exploration, and experimentation result; teachers build repertoires of flexible alternatives rather than collecting rigid teaching procedures and methods” (p. 132).

Central office. While school level leadership is important to novice teachers, district leadership is as well. According to Grossman and Thompson (2004), “little attention has been focused on the contexts in which beginning teachers function and how these contexts shape their beliefs, concerns, practice, and opportunities for learning” (p. 282). Their findings indicate that critical contexts such as state, district, school and departmental contexts, influence job satisfaction. It is in the quality of the interaction among these contexts for the novice teacher that contributes to reinforcing policies; likewise job satisfaction can be compromised when the novice teacher is presented with conflicting policies. Grossman and Thompson address the relationship between novice teachers and district level leadership:

New teachers and experienced teachers relate differently to district policies. The problem for policymakers is not how to change teacher practice but rather how to provide the kinds of supports beginning teachers need as they construct their practice. Because beginning teachers are still in the process of learning to teach, districts may have more opportunity to influence their developing practice through a variety of policies and structures. (p. 282)
Districts can construct powerful learning opportunities and supports for novice teachers. Grossman and Thompson note:

The tasks [districts] assign to new teachers, the resources they provide, the learning environments they create, the assessments they design, and the conversations they provoke have consequences for what first-year teachers come to learn about teaching. (p. 298)

Honig (2008) further develops the role of central office leadership as a learning organization. The research on learning organizations is grounded in organizational learning theory and concepts related to communities of practice. Honig suggests that, when functioning as a learning organization, central office administration becomes proficient in mining for evidence to inform teaching practices, discriminates to identify the priorities that will impact teaching and learning and serves as a “boundary spanner” to link new priorities to new action through collaboration and relationship building. Honig describes a central office as a learning organization that serves as a critical influence on student learning. The influence on student learning is realized through cohesive contextual policies implemented by central office leadership. When the central office functions as a learning organization policies will serve to illuminate and reinforce the contexts in which novice teachers work. Schools participating in assistance relationships by relying on central office to support their mission have the additional function of informing central office practices based on the high degree of two-way interactions. Engaging in these relationships transforms central office into a learning organization by informing central office practices (Honig, 2008). Furthermore:
policy initiatives demand that central office administrators work closely with each of their schools to build school-level capacity for high-quality teaching and learning and use their experience as school assistance providers and other evidence to guide central office decisions in ways that promise to seed and grow such [high quality] teaching and learning in schools district-wide. (Honig, 2008, p. 628)

For the purposes of this study, central office is defined as the superintendent, assistant superintendent, director of curriculum, instruction and assessment, and special education director.

While prior research (Boyd et al., 2011; Deal & Peterson, 1999; Ladd, 2011; Wynn et al., 2007) identifies leadership as a primary factor in novice teacher satisfaction and retention, specific leadership theories have not been studied for their connection to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. As Boyd et al. (2011) observe, “our data do not provide enough richness about the role of administration to determine how or why administrative support affects teachers” (p. 329). The authors later note that, “follow-up studies are necessary to investigate why administrative support is important to teachers and what particularly the administration does or does not do which influences a teacher to stay or leave” (p. 329).

Conclusion

A review of the literature reinforces the importance of focusing our study on how school and district leadership influence novice teachers’ job satisfaction. The research also underscores the need to examine deeply how school and district leaders contribute to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Therefore, this study examined school and district
leadership practices as well as school culture for their relationship to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. (see Figure 2).

![Figure 2. Approach of research team in analyzing school and district leadership practices in a three-domain model of teacher satisfaction.](image)

The research team examined the influence of school culture, distributed, servant, social justice, instructional, and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Definitions of the leadership lenses used in this study are briefly described below.

A collaborative school culture encompasses group norms and values that focus teachers’ attention on what is vital in the educational setting and develops a common purpose (Jerald, 2006). Socialization through school culture supports job satisfaction, teacher longevity, and teacher experience, and decreases teacher attrition (Angelle, 2006).

Distributed leadership describes practices that allow for multiple individuals to be leaders in an organization (Gronn, 2002; Hulpia et al., 2009; Spillane, 2006). A primary focus of distributed leadership is on the interactions between the individuals in leadership roles, both formal and informal, and their organizational environment (Gronn, 2002; Spillane, 2005). Comparatively, servant leadership is “an understanding and practice of
leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (Laub, 1999, p. 81). This model of leadership places a strong emphasis on humility, empowerment, ethical behavior, and valuing of others that have been shown to influence job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009).

The ever-growing diversity of public school students has given rise to social justice leadership, defined as those leaders who “actively work to improve teaching and learning, so that all students have equitable opportunities to learn and excel” (Rivera-McCutchen, 2014, p. 749). Research indicates that social justice leadership can positively impact novice teachers’ ability to effectively serve marginalized populations, which in turn, can influence job satisfaction (Ladson-Billings, 2001; Marshall & Oliva, 2010; Theoharis, 2009).

Yet over the past twenty-five years, research identifies the instructional leadership of principals as a critical component of effective schools (Babo & Ramaswami, 2011; Catano & Stronge, 2007; Glasman & Heck, 1992). Instructional leadership is commonly described as the leaders’ ability to define a clear mission, manage instructional programming and create a positive school climate (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). The instructional program, comprised of supervision and evaluation of instruction, coordination of the curriculum, and monitoring of student progress, correlate to the job satisfaction of the novice teacher (Blase & Blase, 2000).

Finally, central office, when structured as a learning organization, serves as a coach and model for the novice teacher as new initiatives, programs, and policies are implemented (Honig, 2008). Within the learning organization, communities of practice that support learners “shorten the distance between their current practice and their deeper
engagement in a particular activity” (p. 632). This supports the idea of assistance relationships between central offices and schools. Assistance relationships may play a role in supporting building-level leaders who, in turn, support novice teachers. When present, a central office learning organization can influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher by providing expertise and guidance to support their success (Honig, 2008).

The aggregate analysis of these six lenses will provide a deeper understanding of how distinct leadership styles intersect with each other to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Successful principals do not conform to one particular leadership style at the expense of all others, utilize only one methodology with novice teachers, or stay with a scripted pattern of actions regardless of the context or situation. Leadership evolves and our aggregate analysis shows patterns and themes derived from a range of leadership styles that influenced novice teacher job satisfaction in this case study. The next chapter will describe the methods employed for this study.
CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research study was to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The following research questions aimed to interrogate more deeply into how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers:

- How do school and district leaders perceive their role in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
- In what ways, if any, do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to school and district leadership and, if so, how?

This chapter focuses on the design of the study, district context and the methods used to investigate the research questions and collect and analyze data.

Design of the Study

A qualitative case study design was utilized to answer the overarching research questions, which form the foundation of this study. Merriam (2009) defines a case study as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40). This approach was most appropriate to the study because the focus was the analysis of a “bounded system,” one Massachusetts school district. It therefore had clear boundaries and a limited focus. This case study research focused on gaining an in-depth understanding of a learning environment during a specific time (Stake, 1995; Willig, 2008). We believe the case study approach best matched our research because we investigated a specific phenomenon with a certain group of people (i.e. leadership influence on novice teachers).

According to Yin (2009), a case study design is appropriate when the focus of the study

2 This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris
is to answer how and why questions and to address conditions relevant to the phenomenon under study.

Additionally, developing thick description, which is defined by Merriam (2009) as “a term from anthropology [which] means the complete, literal description of the phenomenon under study” (p. 43) was another reason for using a case study design. This aspect of case study research was critical to exploring the influence of leadership on novice teachers in a deep and insightful way.

A case study was the most appropriate method to answer the research questions because a case study involves the development of findings that “illuminate [a] reader’s understanding of [a] phenomenon” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44). Our goal was to provide an insightful and nuanced understanding of the connection between school leadership and the job satisfaction of novice teachers. A case study approach provided the opportunity to discover insights that would not otherwise be found using a quantitative approach.

This collaborative study consisted of six individual studies that utilized a common data set gathered from comprehensive interview protocols. While the individual studies include analysis unique to their research questions, findings across the studies were identified by the authors and are shared in Chapter 4.

Site selection. This study took place in a Massachusetts public school district that served K-12 students, which we refer to as the Columbia Public School District. The district was selected based on the existence of a significant population of novice teachers and the willingness of school and district leadership to participate in the study. Since the team was studying novice teachers at all grade levels and disciplines in public school districts, selecting a district that allowed for K-12 participants was essential.
Additionally, the selected site was classified by the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) as a Level 3 district to account for multiple variables highlighted in our review of literature that may impact the experience of novice teachers. The state of Massachusetts classifies all public schools on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the highest and 5 being the lowest based on a complex formula that aims to measure the progress of school districts in narrowing the proficiency gap in the areas of science, math, and English language arts. Focusing on a Level 3 district that included low-performing schools was important as they often have the highest rate of attrition (Lankford et al., 2002). Highlighting and understanding the influence of leadership in struggling districts and schools can support leaders and ultimately lead to improving novice teachers’ job satisfaction in low performing schools. Private or religious schools were not included in the study.

**District Context**

The site of this research study was a suburban community in Massachusetts, which bordered a medium-sized city and had a wide range of racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic demographics based on the different neighborhoods within the community. The parts of the school district near the border of the neighboring city tended to be less affluent and include more rental housing, whereas the sections farther from the city had higher rates of homeownership and a lower population density. The population of the school district grew rapidly in the 1950s and 1960s; since that time period, the community had experienced slow but steady growth.

**Student demographics.** Approximately 4,000 students attended the Columbia School District at the time of the study; enrollment had remained stable for the prior 10
years. The district was comprised of one early childhood center that supports preschool and kindergarten students, five elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school. The demographics of the district were roughly similar to that of the state in terms of race/ethnicity, ELL status, and special education with the exception of the population of African-American students (3.5%), which was below the state average.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>% of District</th>
<th>% of State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELL Status</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically Disadvantaged</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, there were significant variances in the student demographics by elementary school. While one elementary school was more than 85% white, 13.5% economically disadvantaged, and had no ELL students, another school was less than 65% white, with over 66% economically disadvantaged and 39% ELL students. Although the range of diversity of particular neighborhoods played a significant role in the differences between schools, a district program that bused all elementary ELL students in the community to one school for service delivery was also a contributing factor.

Accountability levels. There was also a variance in accountability levels based on state testing data. The table below shows that individual schools in the district ranged
from Level 1, the highest rank in the state accountability system, to Level 3, which involves state involvement to improve the achievement of students.

Table 2

*School Type and Accountability Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Title One Status</th>
<th>Accountability Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary 1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary 3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary 4</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary 5</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher demographics.** Compared to state averages, the district had a highly qualified teaching staff with 99.7% of teachers licensed in their teaching area, which was higher than the state average. However, the racial/ethnic diversity of the teaching staff did not match the student demographics. The racial/ethnic diversity of the teacher population in the district was also below the state average. The table below shows the comparison:

Table 3

*Teacher and Student Demographics of the District*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>% of Students</th>
<th>% of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One-third of the teachers were under the age of 40; only 6% were under the age of 26. This lack of youth in the teaching staff was likely, in part, due to the low levels of teacher turnover in the district. The teacher retention rate is over 92%, higher than the state average of 87%. Another factor that may explain the lack of young teachers is that many of the novice teachers interviewed had worked for a few years in other districts (many of them in urban centers) prior to coming to this more suburban district.

**District spending.** At the time of the study, the district spent approximately $13,000 per pupil, which is about 11% less than the state average. Beyond aggregated, per pupil spending, a closer look into how financial resources were utilized shows which aspects of the district expenditures were prioritized. For instance, per pupil spending on administration was 34% less than the state average, while per pupil spending on professional development was actually 10% above the state average. Per pupil spending on special education, both in terms of in-district and out-of-district costs, was well above the state average, while per pupil spending on instructional materials and technology was barely over half the state average.

**Leadership turnover.** The leadership team in the district had undergone a significant amount of turnover in the years prior to the research study. The superintendent was in his first year in the role after spending the previous year as the interim superintendent. Prior to this appointment, he was a principal in the district. The School Committee’s vote for him to become the permanent superintendent was by a narrow margin.

Out of the eight principals in the district, five were in their first two years in this role in their schools. While many had worked in other positions in the district prior to
entering their current role, this significant turnover undoubtedly had implications for the district leadership team. In addition, the director of teaching and learning was in his first year in the district in that role. The leadership team of principals and central office leaders whose work was connected to teaching and learning included a majority of members who were relatively new to their roles.

Also worth noting was that a district improvement plan intended to guide the next three years of work was presented and adopted by the local school committee while this research project was being conducted. The plan included six strategic objectives:

- All Individual Education Plans (IEPs) will include goals and objectives based on student data in order to address targeted student needs;
- Identify an inclusionary model for consideration in the district;
- Create and implement a curriculum review cycle for all grades/content areas;
- Establish a district-wide Professional Development (PD) Team;
- Create a long-range district-wide Professional Development plan that emphasizes peer-led opportunities;
- Address the social and emotional needs of all students.

**Participant selection.** The participants for this study included eleven novice teachers who were in their second and third year of working in the district. Participants also included seven principals and four central office administrators who support novice teachers’ development. First year teachers were not included in the study because the timing of the data collection occurred early in their initial year in the district. All participants were selected using a strategy of purposeful sampling, which Maxwell (2009) describes as “a strategy in which particular settings, persons, or events are
deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices” (p. 235).

In the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, in order to earn Professional Teacher Status a teacher must have successfully served in the same school district for three successive school years under an appropriate license. While the length of probationary periods for new teachers vary by state, in this study we focused on novice teachers in their second or third year in the Columbia Public Schools who did not have many years of teaching experience in other districts prior coming to the district. Seven principals were also included in the participant pool because they are the primary evaluators and supporters of novice teachers. Additionally, they construct the environment in which the novice works and directly influence the experiences of the novice teacher. Finally, four central office administrators were selected because they typically develop the induction processes and policies for novice teachers.

Every effort was made to select a teacher participant group that was demographically representative of the race, gender, and K-12 grade levels of novice teachers in the district. Novice teacher participants were demographically representative of the district's teachers in terms of gender and school level. 27% of subjects were male, which aligned to the district total of 20% and 5/11 teachers were secondary, while 6/11 teachers were elementary. The team conducted twenty-two interviews: eleven interviews of novice teachers in their second or third year in the district and eleven interviews of these teachers’ school principals and district leaders. The research team divided into mixed pairs of males and females to complete the interviews. The goal of selecting a target of 22 participants was to seek the point of saturation where “no new relevant data
are discovered [and] categories are well developed and validated” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 108). “Generally speaking, the longer, more detailed, and intensive the transcripts, the fewer the number of participants. In practice, this may mean specifying a range between 5 and 30 participants” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 108). As Miles and Huberman (1994) point out, a qualitative researcher must be careful to “set boundaries: to define aspects of your case that you can study within the limits of your time and means” (p. 27).

**Data Collection**

In a case study, “The researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis” (Merriam, 2009, p. 52). As the primary instrument, the research team collected data from interviews with novice teachers, principals, and central office administrators. Additionally, we utilized data collected from documents related to leadership and novice teachers. Finally, the research team collected data from field notes, which are typed or recorded reflections that captured our thoughts and feelings when we reviewed documents or visited a school to conduct an interview with a teacher or school leader.

**Interviews.** Interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, recorded, and conducted in person by one or two members of the research team (Merriam, 2009). The interviews aimed to provide “concrete,” “holistic,” and “lifelike” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44) information that can often only be gathered through case study research. The research team gathered a robust set of data to support the main research questions of the larger study as well as individual study questions. Interviews were transcribed by members of the research team and completed by an outside transcription service. The interviews were designed to learn about leadership characteristics that are perceived to have the greatest
influence on novice teacher job satisfaction. The development of interview questions was informed by the relevant literature. The team developed an interview protocol for novice teachers (see Appendix B) and building/district leadership (see Appendix C). We tested interview questions on a convenience sample of novice teachers, building leaders, and central office leaders who were not members of the study to ensure questions were clear and yielded useful data.

**Document review.** Having used purposeful sampling to select interview participants, we also used the same method to select documents for review. According to Creswell (2012), documents alongside interviews can serve as a useful source of data for qualitative studies. The standard for selecting documents was rooted in the purpose of the study. Therefore, the main criterion for document selection was the information they can provide concerning the manner in which leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers and the ways in which novice teachers perceive leadership. When analyzed in combination with participant interviews, documents assisted in triangulating data and allowed us to develop a more informed, accurate, and substantiated understanding of the job satisfaction of novice teachers and the role of leaders in this process. These documents included:

**School documents.**

- School improvement plans for alignment with district mission and school-based priorities

**Central office documents.**

- District improvement plan
- Mentor agenda
• New teacher orientation agenda and induction materials
• Negotiated teacher contract

Field notes. Field notes were also used as a data source in this study. Yin (2009) describes field notes as being used to document descriptions about what was happening at the time of the interviews and what the researcher was thinking during specific time periods or at specific locations or events.

Data Analysis

As data were collected from documents, interviews, and field notes, a number of strategies were employed for analysis. The first step in data analysis involved an examination of school and district documents related to leadership and novice teachers. This document analysis occurred prior to interviews and provided the research team an opportunity to analyze school and district documents using a set of a priori codes developed from a review of the literature. This allowed the research team to learn more about the school district prior to interviewing novice teachers, and school leaders. These codes included such items as leadership, job satisfaction, school culture, empowerment, belonging, feedback, supervision, or humility. The research team then began the data analysis process and identification of themes, document inferences, and findings in August 2015 (see study timeline in Appendix A).

The process of document analysis proceeded as follows. First, as each document was identified, we examined it using a set of a priori codes developed from the literature. For example, does the document demonstrate the importance of valuing people or humility on the part of school leaders? As Maxwell (2009) suggests, codes “may be derived from existing theory, inductively generated during the research, or drawn from
the categories of the people studied” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 237). Then, after the first document was analyzed and coded, a second document was reviewed for a similar set of codes or new ones. As additional documents were found and analyzed, we consistently compared codes found in each individual document in order to ultimately generate a common set of themes that sliced across the data. This step-by-step, real time approach to data analysis is consistent with Merriam’s (2009) recommendation that data analysis should be “conducted along with (not after) data collection” (p. 269). These codes were shared with all researchers and all research data was stored using the Dedoose software program.

After analyzing documents and developing a common set of codes, the team then conducted interviews with novice teachers, school, and district leaders. We analyzed interviews using the same set of a priori codes used for document analysis. After interviewing the first novice teacher, one member of the research team analyzed and coded the interview. Then, another member of the research team went through the same document and independently coded it. The two members of the research team then compared their analysis and any discrepancies were referred to a third team member for resolution. This process contributed to inter-rater agreement, but also opened the possibility of a new code that would be agreed upon by all three members of the research team. Then, the transcript of another interview with a different novice teacher was also analyzed in the same way for similar codes or new ones. As additional interviews with novice teachers, mentor teachers, and school/district leaders occurred, the team consistently compared codes found in each interview to generate a common set of themes and to generate new codes that emerged from the data.
After analyzing documents and interviews, we analyzed field notes developed during the process of reviewing documents and interviewing novice teachers and school and district leadership at their schools. The field notes served as a record of ideas and feelings generated during the process of visiting a school to conduct interviews or during the process of document review. The field notes included interactions between novice teachers, school, and district leadership as well as the physical environment of classrooms, offices, and buildings. These notes were analyzed and coded in the same way as the documents and interviews. Therefore, one member of the research team analyzed the first field note using a priori codes gathered from the literature. Then, another member of the research team also went through the same set of field notes and independently coded it. The two members of the research team then compared their analysis and discrepancies were referred to a third team member for resolution. After analyzing the first field note, the research team analyzed the second field note for similar codes and new ones. As more field notes were analyzed, we continually compared codes found in the separate field notes with the goal of producing a common set of themes.

Additionally, in an effort to triangulate data, themes that emerged from documents, interviews, and field notes were compared. Thus, data analysis involved a comparison of themes found between novice teachers and school leaders as well as themes found between documents, interviews, and field notes. By analyzing data in this fashion, the team was able to develop a cohesive and insightful understanding about how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers (see Figure 3).
Another technique used for the analysis of documents, interviews, and field notes was the creation of visual displays to help organize the data and make clear connections. Maxwell describes the use of visual displays as a tool to help “facilitate thinking about relationships in data and make ideas and analyses visible and retrievable” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 239). This approach to data analysis made assumptions more evident by requiring the research team to outwardly organize its thoughts and connections. The process of continuous conversation about the data and the group coding process also reduced the chances of unforeseen bias in the conclusions drawn from the research.

Finally, the research team analyzed data by asking team members to play the role of contrarian. Rudestam and Newton (2007) describe this method as one where colleagues ask “tough questions about . . . data analysis and data interpretation to keep the researcher honest” (p. 115). An important advantage of being part of a research team is the opportunity for some members to play the role of contrarian in order to challenge codes, themes, and conclusions developed from documents and interviews. While the
team approach to coding data and developing themes should assist in developing valid ideas, asking members to explicitly play the role of contrarian can be an important way to avoid groupthink and insure the development of logical and defensible conclusions.

**Authenticity and Trustworthiness of the Data**

The authenticity and trustworthiness of data collected for this study were maximized through the process of maintaining an audit trail. Rudestam and Newton (2007) describe an audit trail as “keeping a meticulous record of the process of the study so that others can recapture steps and reach the same conclusion” (p. 114). The audit included not just a list of objective steps but also encompassed “the ongoing inner thoughts, hunches, and reactions of the [team]” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 114). In doing so, the audit trail provided a strong level of transparency and credibility to the study.

**Individual Biases**

In an effort to minimize potential research biases, we preemptively disclosed any associations with the selected school district or individuals who were part of the sample prior to research in the district. The members of the research team also disclosed their current roles and school district affiliation to participants in the study. Additionally, we aimed to minimize bias by interviewing participants in pairs, coding interviews as a team, and maintaining an audit trail. The research team is composed of six current educational administrators serving in both public and private schools located in New England. The group has a range of different educational experiences ranging from work teaching in elementary, middle, and high school to serving as assistant principals, principals, and
assistant superintendents in their various schools and districts. The team is evenly divided between three men and three women.

**Ethical Treatment of Participants**

In line with the recommendations of the National Institute of Health, the relationship between researchers and participants in the study were based on “honesty, trust, and respect” (National Institute of Health, 2014). To this end, the three core principles of the Belmont Report, respect for persons, beneficence, and justice, produced by the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, served as the ethical grounding of this study (National Institute of Health, 2014).

Research participants were respected during the course of the study. They were required to provide informed consent prior to participation and at no point in time was an individual allowed to participate or continue to be a part of the study if we believed they did not fully understand all of the information communicated to them during the process of informed consent. Participation was on a volunteer basis and contributors did not receive compensation for their contribution. At any point during the interview process, participants were able withdraw from being a part of the study and were informed of this right prior to the interview. Additionally, we made every effort to explain the information shared during informed consent in a way that was easy to comprehend for all participants.

The well being of the research participants remained at the forefront of the study. We aimed to maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harms to individuals who participated in the study (National Institute of Health, 2014). While the potential harms appeared to be minor, the team strived to organize and conduct the study in a way to
minimize possible economic, social, legal or psychological harm to participants. In particular, the research team was attentive to the circumstances that could place a novice teacher at risk of losing his job or being ostracized by the school community. As relatively new members of the school district, novice teachers have reduced job security as compared to their veteran colleagues. Therefore, the research team strived to be attuned to these unique circumstances surrounding the experience of novice teachers and worked toward conducting the study and presenting the data to district leaders in a way that protected them from potential repercussions.

Finally, in line with recommendations of the Belmont Report, justice was a third core ethical guiding principle of the study. No individual who was a novice teacher, principal or central office administrator was excluded from participation in this study. In particular, no ethnic or religious minorities were excluded. The process of selecting research participants was open and transparent with a direct invitation emailed to all novice teachers employed in the school district.

Given the confidential and personal nature of gathered information, study data were protected. One method employed to strengthen the privacy of the study was to keep the identity of individuals and their schools anonymous. Each participant and school was labeled with a pseudonym and any connection between the pseudonym and identity of the individual or school was stored in a secure file. This protected participants from possible economic or social harm should anyone be dissatisfied with statements included in the study or its overall findings.

Technology, including the online software program Dedoose, was used to assist in the coding, storing, organization, management, and analysis of the data during the study.
Interview transcripts, observation field notes, and artifacts were safely examined and stored using software and Boston College-provided safe space. Predetermined pseudonyms were also developed.

Each research team member utilized these methods in similar ways in their individual study. The following chapter features the individual research questions, a literature review related to those questions, and any methods that were unique to the individual study. Additionally, the findings and recommendations sections of the individual study are included.
INTRODUCTION: PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

Novice teacher attrition rates challenge the ability of school and district leadership to address student achievement issues effectively and often have a negative impact on school culture. Ingersoll and Smith (2003) note that, “After just five years, between 40 and 50 percent of all beginning teachers have left the profession” (p. 2). The high rate of novice teacher attrition is most evident in urban districts with high poverty rates and high minority and special education student populations (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Ingersoll (2001) identifies teacher job satisfaction as one of the significant factors influencing the attrition rate of the novice teacher.

The purpose of this study is grounded in Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) of job satisfaction later developed into Dinham and Scott’s (1997) Third Domain Model of Teacher Satisfaction. Dinham and Scott’s work identify school-based factors that can influence the job satisfaction of teachers. For this study, job satisfaction is defined as a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience” (Hulpia et al., 2009, p. 294). The group dissertation explored the influence of school-based factors, identified as school and district leadership, on the job satisfaction of novice teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1997). The group research served to answer the questions:

- How do school and district leaders perceive their role in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
Do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to school and district leadership and, if so, how?

This individual study examined the influence of the instructional leader on the job satisfaction of the novice teacher through the processes of supervision and evaluation.

**Description of the Individual Research Questions**

Research over the past twenty-five years identifies the instructional leadership of principals as a critical component of effective schools (Catano & Stronge, 2007; Glasman & Heck, 1992). Historically, principals have assumed a managerial role; yet, education reform, high stakes testing, accountability policies, and newly implemented teacher evaluation systems refocus the need for principals to assume the role of instructional leader (Hallinger, 2003; Wood, 2005).

One commonly identified characteristic of an instructional leader is a demonstrated ability to manage the instructional programming which includes both the supervision and evaluation of teaching (Hallinger, 2003). Emphasis must be placed on the specific actions of the instructional leader that have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of the novice teacher (Wynn, Carboni & Patall, 2007). “Overall, our data indicate that…. instructional leadership strategies…have strong “enhancing effects” on teachers, emotionally, cognitively, and behaviorally” (Blase & Blase, 2000, p. 137).

Despite the fact that supervision and evaluation are a primary responsibility of the instructional leader, little research has been conducted on the influence it has on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The supervision and evaluation of teaching are two distinct, but inextricably connected, responsibilities of instructional leaders. Supervision is defined as the formative process in which principals attempt to maximize teacher
growth and assess the professional development needs of teachers. Supervision is used to gain information that can help teachers, even teachers who are already proficient, to improve or expand their abilities (Range, Scherz, Holt & Young, 2011). Conversely, evaluation is defined as determining the merit of individual teachers by collecting teacher and student performance data within pre-determined timeframes. As data are collected, they are examined for decisions on retention, promotion, and tenure (Range et al., 2011, p. 246).

Conley, Muncy and You (2006) validate that an effective evaluation system supports the job satisfaction of the educator. School administrators who want to maintain teachers’ commitment to their work should emphasize a teacher evaluation system that is based on concrete standards, is conducted in a consistent manner for all staff, and is supported by teacher belief that the evaluator is qualified to provide such feedback (Kimball, 2002). Blase and Blase (2000) contend the feedback provided from the building administrators can influence the job satisfaction of the teacher if “their feedback focused on observed classroom behavior, was specific, expressed caring and interest, provided praise, established a problem-solving orientation, responded to concerns about students, and stressed the principal's availability for follow-up talk” (p. 133). When these conditions are present, the job satisfaction of novice teachers is enhanced.

Wood (2005) presents the gap in the research: “Despite the evidence that principals play a vital role in novice teachers’ success, the effect of principals’ influence on novice teacher success is largely unexplored” (p. 41). Wynn et al. (2007) extend the significance of this gap, noting that, “Further research is needed in order to identify specific leadership styles and practices of principals who most effectively promote
teacher retention” (p. 224). Therefore, this study explored how the instructional leader, through the processes of supervision and evaluation, influenced novice teachers in the Columbia School District. The questions explored by this study were:

1. How do building leaders perceive the role of supervision and evaluation in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?

2. Do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to the supervision and evaluation received from the building leader, and if so, how?

The increased emphasis by school districts and policy makers on the supervision and evaluation of teachers coupled with the significant attrition rate of novice teachers provide the foothold for the importance of this study (Hallinger, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Wood, 2005). Next, the substantial body of literature that grounds the premise of this study will be presented.

**Literature Review**

The first section of the literature review delineates the challenges faced by novice teachers as they enter the teaching profession. The next section provides evidence from current research to describe the responsibilities attributed to an instructional leader and the specific role of supervision and evaluation in the job satisfaction of the novice teacher. Each section outlines the research that underpins the purpose for this study: To explore how the instructional leader, through the supervision and evaluation process, influences the job satisfaction of the novice teacher.

**Novice Teachers**

The first years of teaching can be exceptionally challenging for a novice teacher. Novice teachers must simultaneously socialize into the teaching profession and the
school environment. Novice teachers are often given the most challenging students and the same teaching load as veteran teachers; yet, there is also an expectation that they will demonstrate a level of expertise comparable to that of their veteran colleagues (Angelle, 2006; Brock & Grady, 1998; Flores, 2004). Other prevalent problems specific to the novice teacher include an underestimation of the difficulty of teaching, inadequate professional training, discipline and classroom management issues, difficulty in planning and organizing classwork, a limited range of effective teaching strategies, and an inability to motivate students (Brock & Grady, 1998; Grossman & Thompson, 2004; Johnson, 2004). While the degree of these issues varies based on the individual, novice teachers regularly experience some or all of these challenges.

Research on the challenges of novice teachers as they enter the teaching profession identifies the school principal as a critical source of guidance and support. Brock and Grady (1998) state: “Novice teachers look to the principal for guidance on the expectations for teaching and learning in the school as well as feedback and affirmation related to their performance” (p. 182). This desire by novice teachers is supported by an accepted description of the instructional leader as “deeply engaged in stimulating, supervising, and monitoring teaching and learning in the school”(Hallinger, 2005, p. 226). Hallinger notes that, “these functions demand that the principal has expertise in teaching and learning, as well as a commitment to the school’s improvement” (p. 226). Roberson and Roberson (2008) describe the relationship this way:

The challenge for administrators, particularly principals, therefore, is to address this reality—novice teachers with little or no practical experiences and limited repertoires—and induct novice teachers in ways that (a) promote high levels of
classroom practice, (b) ensure the academic success of all students, and (c) encourage new ways of being in schools for novice and veteran teachers alike. (p. 114)

The work of building administrators in supporting novice teachers becomes increasingly more important in light of the high attrition rate among novice teachers, as the percent of teachers who leave the teaching profession within the first five years varies from 30% to 50% (Andrews, Gilbert, & Martin, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2003). The literature indicates, “The principal, as the instructional leader, has the power and authority to set in motion the connections and activities that novice teachers need to be successful” (Roberson & Roberson, 2008, p. 118). The specific characteristics of an instructional leader that can influence the novice teacher are outlined in the next section.

**Instructional Leadership**

Instructional leadership is defined through a set of commonly accepted characteristics (Hallinger, 2003; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Wood 2005) that begin with the principal’s ability to define the mission of the school with clear, measurable academic goals that are widely known by the staff. The second characteristic requires the principal to manage instructional programming which includes the supervision and evaluation of instruction and the coordination of the curriculum while also monitoring student progress (Hallinger, 2003). Finally, the principal must establish and promote a positive learning climate by protecting instructional time, promoting professional development and collaboration, maintaining high visibility, and developing high standards and expectations for the continual improvement of teaching. Each of these
characteristics is important, yet there is increasing emphasis on the supervision and evaluation role of the instructional leader.

The federal Race to the Top Initiative (RTTT), along with other policy initiatives, have created increased pressure on states and school districts to develop and implement teacher evaluation systems as a lever to drive the improvement of teaching (Andrews et al. 2007; Master, 2014; Reitzug, West, & Angel, 2008). The newly implemented teacher evaluation systems refocus and reinforce the need for principals to be instructional leaders with the ability to validate effective instructional practice and provide feedback for the improvement of instructional practice (Blase & Blase, 2000; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Eady & Zepeda, 2007; Goff, Goldring & Bickman, 2014). Policy makers believe that these new systems will replace teacher evaluation tools that did not distinguish effective teachers from ineffective teachers (Hill & Grossman, 2013).

Additionally, the new evaluation systems have the potential to influence the development and retention of novice teachers. “Novice teachers see principals as knowledgeable of quality teaching not only because they originated in the classroom and have teaching experience, but also because principals are the chief appraisers and make judgments on the novice teachers’ ability to teach” (Roberson & Roberson, 2008, p. 115).

Research indicates the principal, through the processes of supervision and evaluation, can support the job satisfaction of the novice teacher (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Deneire et al. 2014, Eady & Zepeda, 2007; Hill & Grossman, 2013).

**Supervision vs. Evaluation**

While the practices of supervision and evaluation are closely linked, they serve different roles. The following describes the differences between supervision and
evaluation. The link with job satisfaction is also explored.

**Supervision.** Supervision is defined as a process to promote teacher growth and development. Zepeda (2007) states:

> Perhaps the most important work a supervisor does is to work with teachers in ways that promote lifelong learning skills; inquiry, reflection, collaboration and a dedication to professional growth and development. (p. 1)

The same study describes the supervision of teachers, as a process that is ongoing and recursive.

Supervision is a formative process focused primarily on the improvement of practice and is not associated with evaluation (Range et al., 2011). The supervision of teachers requires a variety of actions by the instructional leader, and indicates that the supervisory relationship must be grounded in trust. Once trust has been established, extended classroom observations, informal observations, instructional artifacts, teacher self-reports, and student surveys can be used as the basis for conversations and suggestions for improving teaching practice.

**Evaluation.** The evaluation of teaching is typically viewed as a summative process, focused on ensuring teachers are meeting specific, established standards of practice. Range et al. (2011) state, “Teacher evaluation has focused more on rating teacher performance based on demonstration of select instructional practices” (p. 245). The same research characterizes evaluation systems as mandated by state law and school district policy, requiring a rating system that is used for personnel decisions on retention and promotion. The rating process associated with evaluation can often create anxiety
and distrust for the teacher. However, the instructional leader can facilitate the conditions that may reduce this anxiety.

Supervision as a formative process and evaluation as a summative process are both the responsibility of the instructional leader. However, this can create conflict for the leader and the teacher. Research suggests that the principal must have a genuine concern for the teacher as well as for the improvement of teaching practices to lessen the impact of this conflict by helping teachers to develop their practice while also evaluating performance (Andrews et al, 1991; Blase & Blase, 2000). Zepeda (2007) addresses the difficulty encountered by instructional leaders who must both supervise and evaluate novice teachers. The supervisor must work to link supervision and professional development with the evaluation process to help create meaning in both processes. Furthermore, the teacher should be included in the discussion and decision-making process embedded in supervision and evaluation. As a result, novice teacher job satisfaction can be enhanced when teachers are fully included in the processes of supervision and evaluation in the context of a trusting relationship.

However, Weisberg et al. (2009) posit that many school districts engage in what they named the Widget Effect. The Widget Effect assumes that regardless of their developmental needs, all teachers are supervised the same way. The Widget Effect goes on to describe an evaluation system that rates all teachers as good or great without providing any explicit feedback related to their practice. Therefore, novice teachers may not receive the specific feedback needed to further develop promising practices and ineffective performance is potentially unaddressed. The Widget Effect assumes that the processes of supervision and evaluation do not positively or negatively influence the
practice of teachers; yet, research reflects novice teacher’s expectations regarding the supervision and evaluation process observing, “Whether from the principal’s classroom visits, feedback (formal and informal) or works of encouragement and affirmation, novice teachers want to hear what principals have to say about their performance and efforts in the classroom” (Roberson & Roberson, 2008, p. 115). Additionally, novice teachers identify principals as the chief appraiser of their teaching and they look to the principal to provide clear feedback related to the established expectations for teaching. Therefore, the processes of supervision and evaluation can be harnessed to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction**

The instructional leader can influence the practice and job satisfaction of the novice teacher (Blase & Blase, 2000; Catano & Stronge, 2007; Hallinger, 2003). Andrews et al. (1991) state, “The principal not only diagnoses good teaching but also provides the teacher with feedback that enables professional growth” (p. 98). Conley et al. (2006), in a study focused on standards-based evaluation systems and their connection to teacher job satisfaction, found the impact of the evaluation system depended on several factors. These factors included the “characteristics of the evaluation feedback, perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of evaluator qualifications” (p. 40). This study notes that an evaluation process that is perceived to be positive and supportive can enhance job satisfaction and the teachers’ commitment. In addition, this same study identified a teacher’s ability to “self select areas of emphasis” as a positive factor influencing the teacher’s well being. However, there is an underlying supposition to this
study that the leader is capable, qualified, and willing to function as an instructional leader.

This finding is further extended by Deneire et al. (2014) who identify the appraisal/feedback process as having a significant impact on the job satisfaction of teachers:

Teachers who indicate that the appraisal contained a judgment about the quality of their work, teachers who indicate the appraisal was a fair assessment of their work as a teacher, and teachers who indicate the appraisal was helpful in the development of their work as a teacher and teachers who have a clear view on the criteria that have been used in the appraisal feedback, have a significantly higher probability of experiencing an increase in job satisfaction. (p. 105)

Thus, evaluation processes presented in a developmental manner can have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of teachers. Deneire et al. (2014) describe a developmental approach to evaluation as feedback that is perceived by teachers to be helpful in the improvement of their classroom instruction. This is in contrast to the findings of the Widget Effect where the feedback provided to teachers is limited and not grounded in the instructional experience and needs of the teacher. Conley et al. (2006) identify additional characteristics of supervision and evaluation, that can influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher. These characteristics include a clear understanding of the standards and expectations for teaching, a clear link between effort, performance, and evaluation and a belief that the evaluator is competent to provide feedback on teaching.
Conclusion

A review of the research identifies the processes of supervision and evaluation as potential levers for influencing the job satisfaction of the novice teacher. The research also indicates that novice teachers, based on the variety of challenges present, require the direct support of the instructional leader to both develop their practice as well as to create conditions that will positively influence their job satisfaction. Therefore, this study focused on the influence of the processes of supervision and evaluation on the job satisfaction of the novice teacher.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore how the instructional leader, through the processes of supervision and evaluation, influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The questions addressed in this study were:

1. How do building leaders perceive the role of supervision and evaluation in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?
2. Do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to the supervision and evaluation received from the building leader, and if so, how?

Maxwell (2009) states that research questions serve two main functions: “To help focus the study (the questions’ relationship to your goals and conceptual framework) and to give you guidance for how to conduct it (their relationship to methods and validity)” (p. 229). Chapter 2 provides a detailed description of the demographics of the Columbia School District along with a comprehensive description of the methodology employed in this study, including site and participant selection, data collection and data analysis. This section will delineate specific components of the methodology that were unique to this
individual study. The areas unique to this study include the participant selection, interview questions, a key document and the codes utilized during analysis. The case study design utilized appropriately fit the needs of this research. Yin (2009) defines a representative case study as “informative about the experiences of the average person or institution” (p. 48). Therefore, the insights gained from this research may be able to inform the practice of other small suburban public school districts in Massachusetts with similar characteristics.

**Participant Selection**

**Novice Teachers.** Novice teachers were included as participants. The focus of this study was on the job satisfaction of novice teachers, thus it was imperative that they be interviewed. It was critical that their perceptions of the processes of supervision and evaluation were included in the research. Novice teachers in their second or third year in the profession were the target population for this study. More specific participant selection parameters are included in Chapter 2.

**Principals and District Leaders.** Principals were included as participants. Since principals are typically the primary supervisor and evaluator of teachers, this was a critical requirement for this study. A high level of involvement in supervision and evaluation processes ensured the principal’s ability to thoroughly and completely answer the questions included in the interview protocol. Interviews included 7 building leaders. Five district level leaders were also interviewed to examine the district perspective on the supervision and evaluation of novice teachers.
Data Analysis

**Interviews.** Interview questions were crafted based on the literature to gather specific information related to job satisfaction and the processes of supervision and evaluation. The questions presented to the novice teacher and the principal were similar in content and structure to allow for the comparability of responses. The interview protocol for novice teachers and the interview protocol for administrators were informed by the research questions for this study (see Appendix D).

**Document Review.** A document review, in concert with other sources of data collection such as interviews, can be useful in qualitative case studies (Creswell, 2012). Emphasis must be placed on the purposeful selection of the documents to be used in the study (Maxwell, 2009). There were limited purposeful documents related to the supervision and evaluation processes. However, a separate article of the teacher’s contract provided insight that will be reflected in the findings of this study. This 46-page document served as a memorandum of understanding between the district and the local education association delineating the specific requirements of the evaluation process.

**Codes Used for Data Analysis**

Several strategies were utilized for the data analysis process. First, the document review was conducted prior to the interview process. Using a set of a priori codes, the identified document was reviewed and coded. Maxwell (2009) stated, codes “may be derived from existing theory, inductively generated during the research, or drawn from the categories of the people studied” (p. 237). Therefore, a priori codes included: feedback, written feedback, oral feedback, trust, job satisfaction, supervision, student
achievement, use of data and classroom practice. The coding process was utilized to generate common themes from the document review and interview process.

In summary, this study utilized a qualitative case design to explore a bounded system identified as a suburban public school district in Massachusetts. Data analysis included a targeted document review, interviews of novice teachers, principals and district administrators along with field notes to inform the analysis. The emphasis of this study was to explore how the instructional leader, through the supervision and evaluation processes, influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Findings**

The larger study drew upon interviews conducted with district administrators, school leaders, and novice teachers to investigate school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This study focused on the processes of supervision and evaluation provided by the instructional leader. First, a description of the Massachusetts Framework for Educator Evaluation is presented to provide context for the findings that follow. Second, the findings will describe how leaders believe supervision and evaluation influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Next, the findings presented will provide data related to novice teacher’s perceptions of the influence of supervision and evaluation on their job satisfaction. Finally, the specific connections between supervision and evaluation and the job satisfaction of novice teachers will be summarized.

**The Massachusetts Framework for Educator Evaluation**

In 2011, the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education adopted new regulations for the evaluation of educators. Based on the regulations, a five-
step reiterative cycle of educator evaluation was developed and designed to encourage the continuous professional growth of educators. The five-step cycle begins with self-assessment intended for teachers to reflect on their practice and to identify opportunities for improvement. The teacher is required to rate themselves on 33 indicators of practice found in the performance rubric. The ratings utilized are exemplary, proficient, needs improvement or unsatisfactory. The teacher is to use information from the self-reflection to develop measurable goals for student performance and personal professional practice. The third step is the implementation of action steps developed to help meet the goals that are established. Step four is the formative assessment phase where the supervisor, usually a building leader, completes walk through observations and provides the teacher with both oral and written feedback. The final step is the summative assessment, at which point the teacher is rated by the building leader as exemplary, proficient, needs improvement or unsatisfactory based on the comprehensive rubric covering four standards. The four standards are: Curriculum, Planning and Assessment, Teaching All Students, Family and Community Engagement, and Professional Culture. Novice teachers have two additional steps that they must complete in this evaluation cycle. In their first year, their building leader must observe a complete lesson and provide feedback on the observation. Additionally, novice teachers must complete this cycle every year for the first three years of their employment. The Columbia Public School District adopted this model for educator evaluation in 2013. Therefore, throughout the findings and discussion noted below, it is important to remember that at the time of this research, the district was beginning the third year of implementation of this complex evaluation framework.
Building Leaders’ Influence on Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction

The first research question examined the building leaders’ perceptions of the influence of the supervision and evaluation processes on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Three findings emerged in the analysis of building leader interviews. The specific findings focused on: the evaluation process; feedback provided through supervision; and the presence of trust in the feedback process. Interestingly, the same themes emerged in the interviews with novice teachers.

The Evaluation Process. School leaders emphasized the importance of the evaluation process for the experience and growth of novice teachers. While there was not specific evidence connected to novice teacher job satisfaction, leaders recognized evaluation as critical to the experience of novice teachers. The memorandum of understanding describing the evaluation process for all teachers delineates the extensive responsibilities of building leaders in relation to the evaluation process. Additionally, since the evaluation process is connected directly to both district and state policy, it can play an influential role in the experience of the novice teacher. In several interviews, building leaders identified how novice teachers were introduced to the district evaluation process. One administrator noted:

Once the evaluation process starts, I sit down individually with each non-professional status teacher so that we can work through the self-reflection, the goal setting and make sure there’s some cohesion between district improvement, school improvement, my professional practice and student learning goals and the teacher’s professional practice, and student learning goals.
Another principal observed other requirements: “The contract has a minimum number of times we need to be in and observe. Our goal as a team is to double the minimum.” Other information shared with novice teachers include “a beginning of the year meeting with them, we have a middle of the year meeting with them, and an end of the year meeting with them, and we survey how they’re doing.” School leaders emphasized the support provided to novice teachers on the procedural requirements of the evaluation process.

District leadership provided evidence consistent with that of school leadership:

The leadership team had a series of meetings with the cohorts of teachers with whom we’d be working in the educator evaluation and we tried to outline the process for the year, the timelines, tried to share the documents with them that they would be working with, make sure they understand the platform that we’d be working with.

The only components of the evaluation process noted by building level leaders as important to supporting novice teachers were self-reflection and goal setting. While self-reflection is often considered part of the supervision cycle, newly developed evaluation processes in Massachusetts include self-reflection as a formal component of the evaluation cycle.

Goal setting and self-reflection were identified as important components of the evaluation process by four out of seven building level leaders interviewed. One building leader stated, “reflecting before they set their goals is very helpful and that is something that I need to go through with them.” However, the data did not provide a clear description of how building leaders developed the process of self-reflection for novice teachers. Another building leader commented, “The whole precursor to the evaluation
process is finding what you want to set your goals to.” The same building leader added, “Make sure they understand what their goals are about and then you make a list of things that will help them get to that goal and I think that empowers them.” While this school leader identified this as empowering novice teachers, empowerment is typically linked to autonomy, not to a directed process such as described here. In contrast, evidence from Blase and Blase (2000) found that teachers were more satisfied with their jobs when they felt empowered to influence their own work. Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) agree that autonomy is another influential factor on teacher job satisfaction. While building leaders reported their evaluation efforts as empowering to teachers, none of the novice teachers interviewed noted that they felt empowered by the evaluation process.

Interviews with building leaders connected evaluation to the possibility of retention or dismissal. Two building leaders placed evaluation in a larger context, by connecting to the retention of novice teachers. One stated, “My overall goal is not to renew you at the end or have you leave. My goal is for you to stay and be a really good teacher.” Another building leader added, “The whole idea is to keep teachers because they’re leaving and to promote strong learning, as opposed to fixing everything. You know, keep that confidence level up if she's a good teacher…help to retain them.” Evaluation, when emphasized as the lever for retention or dismissal, may contribute to a building leaders’ struggle to coach and supervise novice teachers. Yet the same building leaders recognized that a trusting relationship must be present for both evaluation and supervision to impact job satisfaction.

**Supervision and Feedback.** There is evidence from the building level leaders that formative feedback provided in a supervisory manner can influence the job
satisfaction of novice teachers. The support provided helps to build the confidence and comfort of the novice teacher, which in turn, may improve teaching practice. The direct support of novice teachers can result in increased job satisfaction. All seven building level leaders and one district level leader cited this as important for the validation of good practice. “The district embraced the idea that we should always be telling people when they do things well.” Another building leader stated, “I really try and focus a lot on the positive things that I see.” Yet more strikingly, the building leaders recognized supervisory feedback as a tool to facilitate improvement of practice.

Every building level leader offered evidence of how they provided novice teachers with feedback designed to improve practice. One building leader described how the process often begins with a question. “What worked? Celebrate that and then you use that, use that to get better. That’s what you do. That’s what we should all do.” This leader went on to add, “Let’s think about this together and try to brainstorm and see what happens. Sometimes, it opens up some really interesting conversations.” One leader asked, “So what is the next step for this group of students? How will you push them forward?” This process of questioning the novice teachers’ approach to instruction, could contribute to the process of self-reflection and in turn to a sense of empowerment and control over their classroom practice. Another building leader stated, “I feel that sitting down on the reflective piece is much more important, and I think we need to stress that more than we need to stress the written evaluation.” One building leader described the feedback process as “holding up a mirror” for the novice teacher. This “reflection” should be used as the basis of the conversation about becoming a better teacher. The conversation should help teachers to examine their practice for both areas of strength and
areas that would benefit from improvement. Additionally, the teachers will come to feel
empowered if they are encouraged to participate in the decision making process related to
the feedback received. Novice teachers who are included in the decision making process
related to student performance and instructional strategies feel empowered and, as a
result, are more satisfied with their job. When these conversations happen routinely, it
may contribute to the creation of an ongoing climate of reflection and continuous
improvement (Hallinger, 2003).

Building leaders also described several concrete examples of the feedback
provided which should be afforded to novice teachers. The building leaders indicated
that feedback provided in this manner impacted the job satisfaction of novice teachers.
For example, one building leader said, “We have a personal conversation about [the
observation] in the location where the instruction took place so we can reference things
we see around and talk about them.” Another building leader described the feedback as,
“Personal. I mean face to face, and I mean strategy specific.” A third leader added, “it
needs to be timely, it needs to be specific, it needs to be supportive.” While not described
in detail, leaders indicated that they had provided feedback to novice teachers focused on
content, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Leaders noted the use of
questioning strategies to push teacher thinking, recommendations of specific instructional
strategies, opportunities for novice teachers to observe peers and the coordination of
support from content-based specialists.

Feedback and Trust. A majority of building leaders, five out of seven
interviewed, provided specific data noting the importance of trust in influencing the job
satisfaction of novice teachers. One building leader tells new teachers, “If you ever need
me for anything, please know that my door is open.” Another leader describes the relationship with teachers this way, “It's really important that the leader is seen as somebody that is approachable and somebody that really is leading but not dictating.” Other building leaders described the importance of making staff feel “comfortable and part of the school.” Several went on to describe the importance of “modeling” openness, honesty and a willingness to have conversations about practice. District leadership noted “trust” must be present when you have conversations about improving practice. Building leaders did not differentiate between supervision and evaluation when discussing the presence of trust. This may be due to a belief that trust was viewed as important in both cases. However, it seems apparent that when trust is present in the relationship, the instructional leader can influence the job satisfaction of the novice teacher.

Novice Teachers’ Perceived Influence of Supervision and Evaluation on Job Satisfaction

The second research question analyzed novice teachers’ perceptions of the role of supervision and evaluation on their job satisfaction. Consistent with building leaders, three findings emerged in the analysis of novice teacher interviews. The specific findings focused on: the evaluation process; feedback provided through supervision; and the presence of trust in the feedback process.

The Evaluation Process. None of the novice teachers interviewed connected evaluation to their job satisfaction. Teachers connected evaluation to written feedback and not to the district-described process or a summative rating. When asked about evaluation feedback, seven out of the eleven teachers interviewed cited a preference for oral feedback in contrast to written feedback. One teacher noted, “I do like to have the
written feedback but I do want to have it with an appointment with my evaluator because I like them to explain, why did you say this? Why didn't you say this?” Another teacher noted a preference for oral feedback this way, “[I like] verbal more because then you can elaborate and you can ask, "If this is what I did wrong, then, how can I change it?" Whereas in evaluating you don't.” However, another teacher described it this way, “I have found that some people come in to do an evaluation looking to help you develop your practice of teaching. Sometimes that's not always the case and they're looking for more gotcha moments.” Novice teachers preferred to receive oral feedback from their building leader. Likewise, novice teachers did not have a positive perception about written feedback, which was associated with evaluation. This may be attributed to several factors and will be further developed in the discussion section of this chapter.

Noticeably absent from the teachers’ responses related to evaluation, was any emphasis on the evaluation process itself. This stands in contrast to the evidence provided by district and building leaders. While building leaders found value in the self-reflection and goal setting components of the evaluation process, none of novice teachers cited the same. This may suggest divergent perceptions between building leaders’ and novice teachers’ understanding of the purpose of the evaluation process. In response to the role of teacher evaluation, one building leader noted, “We are in a leadership role and we need to promote strong learning as opposed to fixing everything.” This leader described providing both oral and written feedback on an ongoing basis. This is in contrast to data gathered from novice teachers who described evaluation as “nerve wracking” and absent of “useful feedback.”
Novice teachers seemed to connect oral feedback with supervision in contrast to the connection of written feedback to evaluation. Novice teachers often referred to the importance of the “conversation” related to supervisory feedback. Evaluation feedback seemed to be described more frequently as written feedback. It is possible that the perceived lack of a corresponding conversation may minimize the value placed on evaluation by the novice teachers.

Supervision and Feedback. Teachers presented interview data indicating they welcomed feedback provided to them through the supervisory process and that this feedback contributed to their job satisfaction. All of the eleven teachers cited that receiving and applying feedback from their building leader provided the opportunity to improve their practice. One teacher described needing feedback “that will help [my teaching practices] grow.” Another teacher stated that the building principal “does a really good job of giving specific things for us to work on.” Another teacher summarized the feedback process this way, “I like direct feedback. As soon after the incident as possible because that's how I think, and evidence kind of supports, that's how we can make change; right there in the moment.”

Teachers also reflected on the specific characteristics of feedback they found to be beneficial. Three of the teachers interviewed appreciated the leaders’ use of questioning strategies to initiate a conversation or reflection on classroom practice. Some of the questions posed by leaders included, “Well, how can you prove that you did the accountable talk? And how did the students show growth during the class, were they involved in the class with the accountable talk?” “What's going to happen as a result of that?” “You did this lesson, how has that affected your work with kids?”
Teachers also provided some general descriptions of the feedback they received and found useful. Teachers appreciated feedback that was provided soon after the observation, focused on improvement, included a conversation, and offered concrete suggestions for use in the classroom. Teachers also noted that feedback should be directly connected to classroom observations. However, one teacher also described the feedback received from the building leader on an examination of student work. The teacher noted:

We submit a weekly work folder, so we have a folder and all the work the kids do we have evidence of guided practice, guided reading, we put books that we are reading in it. He’ll constantly give us feedback or say, “I saw you reading this book. I think this would be a really good writing activity for it,” and he’ll give that to us. He’s constantly supporting us and giving us what we need as teachers.

It appears that teachers were receptive to feedback that included specifics and was presented via conversation. Additionally, teachers at each level appreciated feedback conversations related to “the examination of student work,” and “formative student data.” Thus, supervision and the associated conversations appeared to influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Feedback and Trust.** All of the eleven teachers interviewed provided interview data indicating they trusted their building leader: “[The principal] is an open book.” Another teacher noted, “I think they trust us to do our jobs. If there's ever an issue, they always can come to us and we know we can go to them.” Another teacher stated, “They're [building leader] always willing to have the opportunity to talk and work something out if you need it.” Teachers described schools with an “open forum for
conversations,” building leaders who were always “accessible,” and building leaders who were willing to “help when I have questions.”

**The Influence of Evaluation, Supervision, Feedback and Trust on Job Satisfaction**

Many novice teachers interviewed in this district seemed to be satisfied with their jobs. Data detail that nine out of the eleven novice teachers interviewed connected building leadership, at least in part, to their job satisfaction. While they noted other factors as well, each of the nine teachers made at least one connection to specific school leadership supervision practices as having a direct connection to their job satisfaction. For example, one teacher noted the connection to job satisfaction this way, “This new administration is very supportive; very understanding.” My relationship with leadership is very much “a partnership.” The same teacher noted, “they hear me out, and help me, to coach me in how to go about doing it if I hadn't done it before. It's empowering to know that I can.” Finally, one teacher noted, “It's as it should be, and it really is nice to see, and it's that community…it takes a village, …I just love this job.”

Overall, the data gathered relative to the influence of the evaluation process on the job satisfaction of novice teachers are inconsistent. Building leaders and novice teachers do not place similar emphasis on the evaluation process and its influence on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Yet there is clearly an alignment of perceptions related to the impact of supervision, feedback, and trust in influencing the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Discussion**

This study found evidence that instructional leadership, through the process of supervision, can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Blase and Blase (2000)
argue that the instructional leader is a powerful influence on the practice and professional development of teachers. The findings presented earlier include substantial evidence from interview data that the building leaders in this district are largely instructional leaders. The building leaders interviewed provided supervision to novice teachers that included commendations for effective classroom practice as well as recommendations for improvement. These building leaders also recognized the importance of trust, visibility, and a collaborative school climate. For example, building leaders recognized the importance of “face to face conversations” about practice and student progress while also working to ensure that novice teachers “felt supported and accepted as part of the school community.” However, there is also evidence that while the building leaders function in large part as instructional leaders, they have not used the supervision and feedback provided to novice teachers to influence the evaluation experience of novice teachers. It seems that building leaders view supervision and evaluation as separate, but the supervision of teachers is the foundation of evaluation. Supervision should serve to guide the practice of the teachers in a way that contributes to their understanding of evaluation. The feedback received through supervision should be the foundation upon which decisions related to retention, summative ratings, and future goal setting are based. In addition, teachers should enter the evaluation cycle with a clear understanding of the connection between the feedback they receive during supervision and evaluation including the goal setting process. Building leaders and novice teachers did not agree on the influence evaluation had on job satisfaction. It may be that both building leaders and novice teachers need guidance and support to connect feedback received during supervision to evaluation. Perhaps as the Massachusetts Educator Evaluation Framework
becomes more familiar to all members of the district, building leaders will be better able to connect feedback provided during supervision to evaluation.

Blase and Blase (2000), along with other researchers (Hallinger, 2011; Stockard & Lehman, 2004), cite a lack of research that clearly delineates the specific qualities of instructional leadership that can influence novice teacher improvement. The gap widens in the research related to novice teachers and job satisfaction. This gap can be attributed to several factors. The evaluation process uniquely impacts novice teachers, as it is typically more intense in the first years of teaching. Yet while novice teachers may have anxiety related to teacher evaluation or may not clearly understand the district philosophy toward the evaluation process, the interview data showed they appreciated the supervision and feedback received from building leaders. It is incumbent upon building leaders to work with novice teachers to link the processes of supervision and evaluation. Supervision, the process of providing formative feedback to novice teachers, is inextricably linked to evaluation. Supervision and feedback should be clearly associated with subsequent commendations and recommendations received during evaluation. The following discussion provides commendations for continued practice associated with supervision and feedback and recommendations to bolster communication and the impact of evaluation on the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Supervision and Feedback**

The novice teachers interviewed recognized that specific feedback connected to the observation of teaching practice contributed to their job satisfaction (Deneire et al. 2014; Roberson & Roberson, 2008). Likewise, building leaders described the supervision of teachers and the accompanying feedback provided as a powerful tool in
the improvement of teaching (Catano & Stronge, 2007; Hallinger 2003). A building leader stated, “It is exciting to me when I have a conversation with a teacher about a lesson. We talk about next steps. Then to help them see later on that their students are in a better place because of what they did. That is exciting for me.” Interestingly, both novice teachers and building leaders identified the value of this cycle when it is implemented from a coaching standpoint, not from an evaluative standpoint. Both building leaders and novice teachers described the improvement of teaching practice as a “shared responsibility,” noting that it is conversations about teaching and learning that facilitate growth. Novice teachers also seemed to view oral feedback as non-evaluative which may explain why they described the “conversations” with building leaders about teaching and learning as positive.

**Evaluation**

The findings from this study have identified the presence of a supervision and feedback cycle that is powerful and positive for building leaders and novice teachers. Yet, novice teachers recognize that building leaders will evaluate their practice. However, it seems novice teachers do not connect evaluation to the highly valued supervision and feedback received from building leaders. One teacher described a positive supervisory experience with their building leader, yet identified the process of evaluation as “a gotcha moment.” This teacher seemed to associate negative feedback with evaluation. Perhaps, written feedback received during evaluation creates anxiety for the novice teacher. This anxiety may be due to a belief that written feedback creates a written record of classroom practice that could be used to rate their performance. However, the evaluation process should be seen as a cycle of continuous improvement
where self reflection, goal setting, feedback, coaching, open conversation, questioning and collaborating are all included as contributing factors to the evaluation cycle (Andrews et al. 1991; Blase & Blase, 2000; Conley et al. 2006; Deneire et al. 2014).

Building leaders describe “leading teachers through the goal setting process” and then “guiding teachers to develop a plan to meet their goals.” Goal setting, related to student performance and professional practice, has been identified as a critical component of recently adopted educator evaluation programs. Guiding teachers in establishing meaningful goals is a responsibility of the building leader and novice teachers are ultimately held responsible for meeting the established goals; yet, none of the novice teachers cited this as important to their job satisfaction. Clear communication related to teacher evaluation as a growth process could be helpful. Teacher evaluation should move away from the summative rating system to a system that values growth over time, continuous improvement and encourages the development and support of novice teachers. Doing so may enable more novice teachers to develop into successful veteran teachers. However, embedded in this system of support for novice teachers, there must also be an avenue for the release of ineffective teachers.

Supervision is a formative feedback cycle intended to provide novice teachers with questions to encourage self-reflection, recommendations for improvement of practice and commendations for effective instructional strategies. When provided in a climate of trust, as in many of the schools that were visited, supervision contributes to creating an environment that values ongoing improvement. The building leaders in this district should be commended for this practice. Additionally, supervision should lay the groundwork for teacher evaluation. This is an area in which school leaders and novice
teachers would benefit from professional development and guidance. Novice teachers, through the supervision process, should be keenly aware of their strengths and areas in need of further development. Supervision should also encourage novice teachers to reflect on their own practice to develop the practice of continuous improvement. Then, both the building leader and the novice teacher should utilize supervision to directly inform evaluation. Evaluation should reflect the information shared, learned and discussed during supervision and likewise, supervision and feedback should inform self-reflection and goal setting related to student performance and professional practice.

**Supervision to Inform Evaluation**

The evidence provided by this study illuminated divergent perceptions between building leaders and novice teachers regarding the role of the evaluation process in influencing teacher job satisfaction. Novice teachers provided no evidence in the interview data connecting evaluation to job satisfaction. This may be attributed to previous negative experiences with evaluation, anxiety related to performance ratings, or building leaders who do not explicitly utilize supervision in the evaluation process. Yet, numerous studies validate the increasing influence of the teacher evaluation process on the overall experience of teachers and note that the evaluation process can be positive for some, and negative for others (Andrews et al., 2007; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Reitzug, West & Angel, 2008). The divergent perceptions found between novice teachers and building leaders is particularly troublesome based on the increased emphasis by districts, states and educational policy makers on the evaluation of teachers (Goff et al., 2014; Hill & Grossman, 2013). The implementation of teacher evaluation has been identified as a lever for the improvement of teaching; yet, novice teachers do not seem to place value on
the evaluation process. Additionally, novice teachers often connected evaluation with written feedback, not with the process of self-reflection, goal setting, and continuous improvement. Novice teachers did not describe written feedback as influential on their practice or job satisfaction. The perception by novice teachers that evaluation is strictly connected to written feedback may be one source contributing to the inconsistent understanding of the role of evaluation. Building leaders and novice teachers would benefit from training to clarify how the supervision process, where oral feedback dominates, can be meaningfully connected to written feedback provided through the evaluation process. To do this, written feedback provided during evaluation should be reflective of previously provided oral feedback. Perhaps building leaders, by continuing to provide influential supervision, could then encourage novice teachers to use the supervision information to guide their self-reflection and goal setting. Consistency in this area would lessen the anxiety of the novice teacher.

Throughout the interviews, building leaders identified two components of the evaluation process that contributed to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. These components were self-reflection and goal setting. One leader noted, that when the novice teacher is guided through the goal setting process, the teacher feels “empowered.” The building leader connected this feeling of empowerment to job satisfaction. However, empowerment is not typically associated with “being led through a process.” Instead, empowerment is associated with situations considered to be within the control of the individual. The inconsistency in perceptions becomes increasingly apparent in the interviews with novice teachers. Novice teachers did not reference either of these areas of the evaluation process as contributing to their job satisfaction. However, supervision
and feedback, a practice embedded in evaluation, was highly valued by the novice teachers. Therefore, if novice teachers were more able to clearly understand the connection between supervision, feedback and evaluation, a climate of continuous improvement may be cultivated. However, building leaders may also need training and support in how to make this connection for teachers. Building leaders, who presented as instructional leaders, did not explicitly connect supervision and feedback to the evaluation process. It seemed that these processes were independent of one another. Yet the evaluation process is grounded in ongoing conversations related to teaching and learning, with (supervision) intended to influence teacher self-reflection and goal setting (evaluation). This may again be due to the recent implementation of the Massachusetts Framework for Educator Evaluation along with the need for additional training to enable building leaders and novice teachers to effectively utilize feedback from supervision to inform evaluation.

**Communication and Professional Development**

In the case of this district, central office and building leaders should work to bridge the divide between evaluation and supervision. This reinforces Honig’s (2008) research where central office serves as a “boundary spanner.” In practice, central office should construct cohesive, inclusive and specific direction and training to all staff members on the evaluation process to make it meaningful to novice teachers. Central office could serve as the connection between teachers, building leaders, and new knowledge related to evaluation.

The lack of cohesion and consistency related to the evaluation process may be indicative of a need to enhance communication and training within the district. First,
school and district leaders could work together to craft a cohesive objective for the
teacher evaluation process that is grounded in a philosophy focused on the improvement
of teaching as recursive, reflective and ongoing (Zepeda, 2007). Once the objective has
been constructed, the district could create a plan that presents this objective to building
leaders and teachers in a way that ensures everyone understands evaluation as a process
focused on the improvement of student outcomes through the improvement of teaching
practice. The findings in this study are reinforced by Honig’s (2008) work, where
districts are described as learning organizations. Honig (2008) outlines the importance of
creating interpersonal relationships and learning opportunities to formally support the
implementation of new initiatives. Additionally, the evaluation process itself should
include a clear articulation of the objective of evaluation that emphasizes an ongoing
improvement cycle inclusive of the necessary guidance and support that may be needed
by a population of teachers with diverse levels of experience (Andrews et al, 1991; Blase
& Blase, 2000). District and building leaders noted training was provided to novice
teachers on the process of evaluation but it seems that more extensive training might be
beneficial to both building leaders and novice teachers.

For instance, building leaders should assist novice teachers in connecting
feedback received through supervision to subsequent self-reflection and ultimately to
goal setting. Doing so would harness the supervision cycle that is already in place to
elevate the importance and influence of the evaluation process. Platt and Tripp (2014)
encourage school leaders to place greater emphasis on the analysis of student learning in
contrast to an emphasis on the actions of the teacher. This type of analysis, when in done
in collaboration with the novice teacher, can lead to conversations that have a direct
impact on teaching. They found that when the teacher is included in the decision-making process related to the outcomes of students and the accompanying teaching practices, the influence of the evaluation process is enhanced. Conley et al. (2006) emphasize the importance of including novice teachers in the decision making process identifying this as a contributing factor to teacher autonomy which has been shown to influence job satisfaction.

A more in-depth review of the 46-page contractual addendum focused on teacher evaluation may be helpful. The complexity of this document may be a contributing factor to the lack of clarity related to evaluation. A simplified guide that highlights the connection between feedback received through supervision and the evaluation components, may help to emphasize the objective of evaluation for both building leaders and teachers.

**Implications for Consideration**

The evidence in this study raises concerns related to evaluation not only for novice teachers but for veteran teachers as well. Novice teachers clearly do not identify the evaluation process as a factor contributing to their job satisfaction. In addition, the role of evaluation as supportive to the improvement of teaching, the elevation of confidence in one’s ability and overall satisfaction with the work environment may not be present for veteran teachers as well. Therefore, professional development focused on the evaluation process, should be provided not only to novice teachers and building leaders, but also to veteran teachers. As noted earlier, professional development should capitalize on the culture of supervision and feedback that is already present in the district. The connection of supervision and feedback to self-reflection and goal setting could be
beneficial to all teachers in the district. The Columbia School District has a solid foundation of supervision and feedback in place. There is great potential for the district to leverage teacher supervision to enhance the evaluation process in a way that could further the job satisfaction of all teachers.

The next chapter presents a synthesis of findings from the six studies outlined in Chapter 1. The findings look across the studies that examined the influence of school culture, distributed, servant, social justice, instructional, and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers, to identify common themes that emerged from the research. The themes are organized to provide both commendations and recommendations to enable Columbia Public School District to further influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.
CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this case study was to explore how leadership and school culture influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. We grounded our research in the work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) who described the factors integral to job satisfaction. In line with Dinham and Scott, our research shows that school-based factors can and do influence the job satisfaction of teachers. Chapter 1 provides a detailed description of the conceptual framework of this study.

School leadership was the primary, school-based factor studied in this research. This is reflected both in the findings and recommendations outlined below. An additional factor that surfaced during the study was the way the work of central office also influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers, notably in the discussion of the induction program. These results support the primary findings of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000), but also provide more elaboration as to the influence of specific school-based factors on novice teacher job satisfaction.

This chapter synthesizes the findings from six separate research studies that examined the influence of school culture and distributed, servant, social justice, instructional, and central office leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In this synthesis, we connect the research on job satisfaction to our research in this district. First, we briefly detail leadership changes and contextual factors that may have influenced the findings. Next, we describe findings related to the impact of interpersonal relations between school leaders and novice teachers that influence novice teacher job

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4 This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach of this project: Kori Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, Mark McManmon, and Michael Morris
satisfaction. Then, we describe findings related to the areas where novice teachers and school leaders possess divergent perceptions on factors influential to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Finally, the chapter provides recommendations for areas of improvement that may influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**District Context**

The Columbia School District has recently undergone a significant transition in both school and district leadership. A majority of central office and building level leaders are either new to the district or new to their leadership role. Research indicates that organizational change often takes three to five years to occur, especially with a new administrative team and the implementation of associated initiatives (Russell, 2003; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007). While adjusting to transitions in leadership the district is also working to meet the needs of a diverse population of students. Additionally, like many districts across the state, the Columbia School District is responding to accountability measures related to state-mandated standardized assessment outcomes. Student performance on these assessments has resulted in a Level 3 rating of the district. Therefore, the district is under increased pressure to improve student performance. Finally, it is important to note that data gathered during this research reflect both the presence of a collaborative school culture, as well as opportunities for the district to further develop initiatives that may support the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Interpersonal Relationships**

One primary theme identified across the findings of our research is the importance of positive interpersonal relationships. These relationships are often associated with a pattern of supportive and caring peer relationships in an educational setting (Wubbels &
Levy, 1993) such as sharing expectations for teachers’ success, listening to colleagues willingly, administrators reaching out to know teachers on an individual basis to build professional relationships and ensure ongoing support, and demonstrating concern for colleagues’ personal issues. Our data show that interpersonal relationships played an important role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The data illustrate the significant role school leaders and their relationships with novice teachers play in contributing to job satisfaction. Several attributes appear to contribute to positive interpersonal relationships. They include such practices as open communication, school culture, supervision and feedback, leadership visibility and accessibility, selfless leadership, valuing novice teachers, and collegial collaboration. School leaders and novice teachers found these interpersonal factors influenced novice teacher job satisfaction. Novice teachers identified interpersonal relationships with building leaders as a critical influence on their job satisfaction.

**Communication**

A study conducted by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) found that principals who establish strong lines of two-way communication throughout the school community support teachers more successfully. Our study found a connection between the communication of teachers and administration and the job satisfaction of novice teachers. One teacher said “my [principal and vice principal] are communicating one hundred percent of the time by speaking and listening to us.” An additional study identified that effective school principals allow teachers to play a role in decision-making and building productive relationships with colleagues (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). On the whole, principals in the Columbia School District pay attention to the culture of the
school and focus on creating a collaborative work environment. The school sites in which participants were interviewed fostered high levels of communication that seemed to enhance job satisfaction.

**School Culture**

Novice teachers found that positive collaborative relationships enhanced their communication with colleagues and increased job satisfaction, thus contributing to a positive school culture. Principals interviewed spoke very proudly about ensuring that novice teachers had essential human and material supports, to begin their careers at the school successfully. One principal was very clear that her first supportive step is to ensure new teachers could communicate with colleagues and administrations and “felt a part of the school.” Another principal noted the importance of creating a culture with high levels of communication because, “It is very hard for a new teacher to ask for help because they think you’re going to look down on them or look that they are less because of it.”

**Supervision and Feedback**

Another major finding across our studies was the value both school leaders and novice teachers placed on supervision and feedback. School leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia School District perceived supervision and feedback to be connected to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In line with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959), Sergiovanni (1967), and Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000), supervision and feedback may be connected to intrinsic motivators such as personal achievement and growth, which are important elements of job satisfaction. One novice teacher observed, “From the times [the principal] has been in the classroom, there’s not a single person that has made me think
about my learning process and my methodology more than her. Not a single person . . . ”
He went on to point out, “[The principal’s] work with me made all the difference in those first few months.”

Likewise, school leaders also perceived the supervision and feedback process to be positively connected to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. One school leader noted:

I do a ton of walk throughs, so I’m in classrooms pretty frequently and giving [novice teachers] feedback. I meet with my new faculty probably once a month just to check in. How are things going? What do you need? Is there anything I can get for you? If I see something in their classroom that I would like them to improve on, I might talk about that, but I also will give them suggestions to go observe in another classroom.

Thus, school leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia School District perceive supervision and feedback to be positively associated with novice teacher job satisfaction.

Leadership Visibility and Accessibility

Another main finding connected to interpersonal relationships was the importance of school leadership visibility and accessibility. School leaders and novice teachers associated the visibility and accessibility of school leadership with the job satisfaction of novice teachers. All novice teachers interviewed enjoyed seeing the principal around the school, walking through classrooms, and socializing in the lobby. Visibility and accessibility may breed comfort and familiarity, and in the process potentially increase the satisfaction of novice teachers. One teacher affirmed that “I like knowing that I will see my principal at some point during the day either in the hall, lunchroom, or in my
classroom.” Being visible and accessible may reduce divisions between administrators and teachers and build a more collaborative approach.

Our study found that maintaining an open office door policy, establishing regular meeting times with each novice teacher or simply visiting a teacher’s classroom during the course of the school day to check in, were seen as behaviors associated with visibility, accessibility, and novice teacher job satisfaction. One elementary teacher noted, “[The principal] frequently stops into our grade level meeting and casually asks how it is going.” This is also an opportunity for novice teachers to connect with the principal in order to ask questions that may be important to the novice teachers. One school leader shared his approach to making himself and other members of the administration available to support teachers: “it is important that at least one administrator is available to talk throughout the day” to make school leadership accessible to teachers at all times and address questions or concerns in a timely way.

While school leaders felt visibility and accessibility were important, our research found novice teachers also found the visibility and accessibility of school leadership to be important as well. Many novice teachers pointed out the positive influence accessibility to school leadership had on their experience as a novice teacher. Whether it entailed a spur of the moment decision to stop in the hallway to spend time with a novice teacher or a more systematic practice of checking in with novice teachers each day, the findings of our study suggest visibility and accessibility positively influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

Selfless Leadership

A fourth major finding related to interpersonal relationships was the significance
of selfless leadership. School leaders and novice teachers perceived the selfless behavior of school leaders to be associated with the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This finding is consistent with work of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) that highlights the importance of school-based factors in increasing the job satisfaction of teachers. In particular, both novice teachers and school leaders associated the willingness of school leaders to place the good of followers ahead of their own needs, whether it be helping to clean up in the cafeteria, shifting money in the budget, or serving as a substitute paraprofessional teacher, to be connected to novice teacher job satisfaction. As one school leader observed, “There’s not a hierarchy or anything [at the school]. There’s no job that I don’t do, that I wouldn’t do. If somebody got sick, I’ll clean it up. I mean that’s the reality of the job.” He goes on further to note, “If I was a teacher, I would want to know that anything I was asked to do, [school leaders] would be willing to do . . . ”

A different school leader also discussed the importance of selfless leadership as it applied to the school district budget. She pointed out:

I’ll never ask for something if I know that somebody else needs something ahead of me. If someone says, ‘I really want to participate in this opportunity,’ we will shift money around appropriately to make sure that person can take advantage of it.

Novice teachers also perceived the influence of selfless leadership on job satisfaction. For example, one novice teacher observed how school leaders improved his school day by helping him at lunchtime with students with special needs. From his perspective, the selflessness of school leadership positively influenced his experience as a teacher. He noted:
[The principal and vice principal] are technically supposed to have administrative responsibilities during lunch and recess but they help us out. They come here and they work with her so we can have lunch. They are taking time to step out of their administrative roles and really essentially work as a one-to-one with this girl . . . [It] has been huge.

Thus, our findings suggest that school leaders and novice teachers perceive the willingness of school leaders to place the needs of others first and accept tasks that might normally be considered beneath their role to positively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers.

**Valuing Novice Teachers**

A final finding noted across our studies was the importance of valuing novice teachers, another factor of servant leadership. School leaders and novice teachers perceived being valued as important to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This finding is not only consistent with the research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) who found that school-based factors such as school leadership and school climate play an important role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers, but it is also consistent with the research supporting servant leadership. Building on the work of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959), Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) found that teachers’ job satisfaction is not solely based on intrinsic motivators and hygiene factors. Instead, they found school-based factors such as “school leadership, climate and decision making, school reputation, and school infrastructure” (2000, p. 16) to be a third set of factors that can contribute to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The findings of our research support the conclusions of Dinham and Scott and highlight the importance of
school leadership in making novice teachers feel valued in their schools. While other intrinsic motivators or hygiene factors may play a role in the job satisfaction of novice teachers, our findings suggest feeling valued by school leadership to be an important contributing factor to novice teacher job satisfaction.

School leaders made novice teachers feel valued by making a deliberate effort to get to know them. Novice teachers consistently discussed the significance of being recognized. Surprisingly, novice teachers connected being known by their first names to their job satisfaction. For example, one novice teacher noted:

“I’ve had [members of the central office] in my room and I’ve always gotten positive feedback. What I like is [they] know my name. And it sounds weird but they know your name, and it’s like “Okay, they know me. They at least care to know my name.”

This account highlights how a simple action like knowing a teacher’s name can have a positive influence on the experience of a novice teacher. While it may appear to be a small gesture, it was perceived to be an important action by this novice teacher. This data would also indicate that at least some central office administrators have relationships with some novice teachers.

A different novice teacher highlighted a similar sentiment with regard to the importance of feeling valued by school leadership. He observed:

“I feel [school leaders] have gone out of their way to just personalize it with me, check in, or come down to my office like, ‘What’s going on? How is everything going?’ . . . It means a lot to me if someone comes to my office and says, ‘Hey, can we eat lunch together today? I just want to hear how it’s going for you.’
In the view of this novice teacher, school leadership was able to enhance his experience at the school by taking the time to make him feel valued. Like the previous novice teacher, this novice teacher perceived this minor gesture of school leadership to play an important role in making him feel like a valued member of the school community. These novice teachers’ accounts highlight how school leadership can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers by helping them feel valued. Whether it is knowing a teacher’s name or setting aside time to check in, novice teachers perceived being valued to be positively associated with job satisfaction.

**Collegial Collaboration**

In addition to the positive influence of formal leaders, novice teachers identified collegial collaborations that included strategy-specific learning and sharing, increased their knowledge about students and enhanced their professional growth. Frequent and consistent collegial collaboration within the schools of the Columbia School District was identified as an important factor in novice teacher job satisfaction. This collaboration may be borne out of the challenges that come with being a novice teacher; as one stated, “You can’t just do everything on your own.” Hence, this concept stresses the importance of having multiple avenues of collegial collaboration, with both novice and veteran teachers, in order to provide access to information, knowledge and expertise and build a positive school culture. Building leaders noted they work to ensure time for collegial collaboration by adjusting schedules, changing meeting times if necessary, and/or coordinating common daily responsibilities to allow for maximum colleague collaboration. In addition, the mentor program provided positive collegial relationships among staff. Research by Rodriguez (2007) identified the components of an effective
mentoring program. Several of these components were reflected in the Columbia Public School District where mentors took time to answer questions, consistently visited the mentees’ classrooms, and also provided sustained support. As one novice teacher noted,

She . . . would come in and observe me [in my first year]. I would go into her room and observe her. That first year, we were meeting on a daily basis writing curriculum, doing our plans together, really trying to get on the same page. That was very, very helpful.

Novice teachers indicated a high level of support through the mentor program, which ultimately led to increased job satisfaction.

**Divergent Perceptions**

As our study indicates, the extent to which school leaders provide useful supervision and feedback, are visible and accessible, exercise selfless leadership, and value people can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Although these factors were clearly evident in the district, there were several discrepancies between the perceptions of leaders and novice teachers on other school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. These discrepant school-based factors included the induction program, teaching grounded in social justice, educator evaluation and teacher leadership opportunities. In each of these areas, the perceptions of school and district leadership were inconsistent with that of novice teachers.

**Induction**

Leaders and novice teachers held differing views of the district’s induction program. All district leaders reflected positively about the program and stated that it was the primary support provided to novice teachers. One central office administrator
indicated that, “The greatest support that we offer is the new teacher induction program.” District leaders also noted the induction program empowered novice teachers. However, the majority of novice teachers either felt neutral about the induction program or stated that the program did little to empower them. Seven out of eleven novice teachers indicated there was a lack of application to classroom practice. Novice teachers also felt this training had a one-size-fits-all focus and lacked differentiation related to the diverse experiences and needs of novice teachers and their classrooms. For example, one novice teacher noted, “I personally did not find it beneficial. It was very off topic. There were too many grade levels in there to make it specific to each. It was just all over the place.” As a result, the current induction program, as described by novice teachers, may not have a positive influence on their job satisfaction.

**Social Justice**

The research indicated a discrepancy in the perceptions between school leaders and novice teachers with regard to professional development focused on social justice. While the majority of leaders stated they provided opportunities for novice teachers to reflect on their understanding and knowledge of diverse populations, less than half of novice teachers indicated that they actually engaged in critical self-reflection about diversity and issues of social justice. Similarly, although leaders stated they provided professional development to novice teachers designed to meet the needs of diverse learners, novice teachers did not perceive receiving this type of support. As a result, many novice teachers voiced a need for culturally relevant pedagogy in order to practice culturally responsive teaching. One teacher commented, “I’m not getting as much help as I could . . . look at it as, how am I going to figure this out? I like the diversity, but
sometimes I feel like I need a bit more support in some areas.” Another teacher recognized that leaders offered professional development to assist with teaching ELLs and provided feedback on student learning needs. Although she received this support, this novice teacher conveyed her first experience working in a diverse classroom:

I came in and had no idea what to expect. I didn’t know what cultures I had . . . what languages I had. You kind of take the bull by the horn and you have to learn. This was my first experience being completely thrown into kids who don’t speak English, the different cultures, the different traditions. I’m learning.

While leaders acknowledged providing supports for novice teachers, they also recognized the importance of additional training and continued dialogue about social justice. Without the appropriate training, novice teachers may not feel equipped to meet the needs of their students, which may impact their job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1997, 2000). It is also critical that novice teachers identify their own biases and beliefs about diversity.

**Educator Evaluation**

Despite the positive influence of supervision on novice educators, school leaders and novice teachers did not have consistent perceptions of the evaluation process. In general, evaluation was typically viewed as a summative feedback process designed to rate the performance of a teacher. Recent state and district mandates have precipitated the implementation of evaluation systems in all school districts comprised of a cycle that includes self reflection, goal setting, analysis of student progress and ongoing observations by building leaders. School leaders in the Columbia School District described the self-reflection and goal setting process as critical to the development and
job satisfaction of novice teachers. The leaders described this process as “empowering” for the novice teachers and thus, as described by Blase (2001), teachers who feel empowered are more likely to be satisfied with their job.

In contrast, none of the eleven novice teachers interviewed connected the evaluation process to job satisfaction. Novice teachers did not provide any connections between goal setting and self-reflection to job satisfaction. Novice teachers described evaluation as “written feedback and lacking a conversation” or as an opportunity for a “gotcha moment” where the building leader provides negative feedback. This may indicate that novice teachers perceive written feedback as negative because it can be used to rate their performance. Noticeably absent from the interview data with novice teachers is any reference to receiving guidance on the evaluation process. As a result, the evaluation process does not seem to have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of novice teachers. This is problematic, as the evaluation process will determine the retention or dismissal of the novice teacher.

Teacher Leadership Opportunities

This research discovered inconsistent availability of leadership opportunities for novice teachers. While district administrators and supporting district documents illustrated a commitment to teacher leadership opportunities, this research found disparities between how this was enacted in the schools. Some building leaders acted with intentionality in communicating teacher leadership opportunities to novice teachers to encourage their participation. Several leaders initiated conversations with novice teachers, encouraging them to take on leadership roles. Teachers in these schools stated that this experience had a positive impact on their job satisfaction. Leaders also
recognized that a leadership role could overburden a novice teacher. Therefore, these opportunities were individualized to those novice teachers who expressed interest. Novice teachers provided interview data demonstrating the value they placed on leadership opportunities. One novice teacher noted the satisfaction she gained serving as a member of her school’s Outreach Committee designed to support students at risk in her school. She pointed out:

I think it makes [my job] even more worthwhile because a lot of the [students] are from refugee families who [are] learning what the culture is like here . . . They want what is best or their kids . . . They just [need] a little more support.

However, other school leaders appeared more passive in their approach toward novice teachers in leadership roles. In these schools, leaders did not report providing direct encouragement to teachers. As a result, all teachers in the district did not receive the same opportunities to participate in teacher leadership roles. This disparity may have impacted their job satisfaction based on the positive response by novice teachers to participation in leadership roles, even if the commitment was relatively minor. Having cited the areas in which the perception of leaders was inconsistent with that of novice teachers, the chapter now turns to a discussion of recommendations that will help strengthen practices supporting novice teachers in the district.

**Recommendations**

Research states that a learning organization is a place where all the members of the organization, as individual persons, are continually learning, and the organization itself is highly adaptable. The organization is able to routinely modify its shared knowledge and practices in accord with experience and need. Honig (2008) posits that,
when functioning as a learning organization, central office administration becomes proficient in mining for evidence to inform teaching practices, discriminates to identify the priorities that will impact teaching and learning, and serves as a “boundary spanner” to link new priorities to new action through collaboration and relationship building. This is consistent with findings from Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) where they note the important influence of leadership, communication, and decision-making on the job satisfaction of teachers. Based on our findings, it would be beneficial for this district to continue to develop itself as a learning organization to support the job satisfaction of novice teachers and potentially create a more fruitful learning environment for all staff members.

In line with Honig’s research (2008) where the district serves as a “boundary spanner” there is evidence that this district would benefit from enhancing the link between district policy and practice regarding teacher evaluation. For instance, the negotiated teacher contract provides a detailed description of the educator evaluation process. However, discrepancies related to the implementation and understanding of the teacher evaluation process exist between novice teachers and building leaders. District and school leaders should provide clear direction and guidance on the application of policies such as educator evaluation to school-based practice. Additionally, a method for monitoring the implementation of such initiatives would allow leadership to be responsive to questions and concerns related to the initiative. Doing so may enhance the consistency and coherence of practices within and between each school in the district.

**Induction**

One recommendation serves to suggest promising improvements to the induction
Most districts struggle to create and implement induction programs that are tailored to novice teachers each year. This is due in part to the ever-changing professional needs and roles of the novice teachers who are hired. However, some of these suggestions may serve to guide the future thinking of the district as they develop their induction programming. First, the induction program for teachers should be designed to meet the needs for each teacher learner. Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) note that job satisfaction can be negatively impacted when teachers feel overwhelmed or underprepared in their role. This means that the instruction provided during the initial induction session should include only what they need to start the year. The information presented during this initial session may include overall information needed by all staff members and should be carefully selected to ensure that teachers are not overwhelmed with new learning. Subsequent induction sessions should be constructed in a similar manner ensuring that the content presented is tailored to the needs of the novice teachers. Many induction programs try to deliver too much information at once (Sweeny, 2008). Pacing and volume of content must be carefully considered.

The induction program should be designed to reflect the same approach to teaching that is applied in the teaching of diverse learners in the classroom. It should meet the needs of novice teachers from a variety of educational levels, types of experiences and content knowledge (Sweeny, 2008). Whole group activities should be utilized for concepts clearly connected to all members of the group. These activities should be followed by small group work that is tailored to the needs of the learner. For instance, induction should address culturally responsive teaching tailored to the diverse needs of each school. Novice teachers should continually be surveyed for needs that
extend beyond the planned induction activities as well to evaluate the induction program itself. Inclusion of principals in the planning and implementation of the induction program would ensure the integration of induction concepts at the school level. Finally, consideration should be given to the creation of an induction program that extends beyond the common practice of one year. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) note that induction programs that are longer than one year and provide a greater depth of instruction can positively impact the experience of the novice teacher. In this way, the district will demonstrate that they are responsive to the needs of novice teachers while also taking a proactive stance toward professional development needs.

**Professional Development**

The district has a diverse student population. Research indicates that whether or not novice teachers feel they can meet student needs plays a major role in job satisfaction and their attrition rate (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). The research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) further supports that teachers who feel prepared and able to meet the needs of their students are more satisfied with their job. The data gathered from this district reflects similar results. Professional development needs were identified both for novice teachers and for the administrators who support development. The following paragraphs include the recommendations related to professional development in this district.

**District-wide planning.** In order for a learning organization to be effective, a cohesive communication strategy is essential (Honig, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 1997, 2000). It is important for the communication strategy to be structured in a way that allows central office, building leaders and novice teachers to consistently collaborate about supervision, evaluation, leadership opportunities, and meeting the needs of diverse
populations. The district should determine an effective method for the dissemination of information to ensure consistency and the cohesive implementation of new initiatives within the district. The district might consider the development of a teacher and building leader survey to determine professional development needs. Looking forward, central office, along with the district-wide professional development team, could create a plan to be proactive in seeking out promising professional development activities to further enhance the instructional skills of novice teachers. Finally, central office and the professional development team, including novice teachers, could establish processes for sustainability of professional development initiatives in response to future staffing changes in schools and in central office. Efforts related to our recommendations for professional development are already underway in the district. The Superintendent’s District Improvement Plan that was approved by the School Committee at the time of this research emphasizes professional development initiatives. The first improvement plan objective notes the need for a district-wide professional development team. The second objective is the development of a district-wide professional development plan. Therefore, while it is evident that the district has already identified some of the recommendations noted in this research, our findings may also serve as a tool to further develop the professional development agenda already in progress.

**Self-Reflection.** Professional development should guide teachers and administrators through the self-reflection process to examine personal practices and beliefs that may impact the learning opportunities they present to students. The first step in developing culturally responsive teaching is to help all teachers and leaders develop ideological clarity. The professional development should be designed to help teachers
explore their own ideas and attitudes about diversity, identify the learning needs of a diverse population and be coupled with specific tools and strategies targeted to those needs. As with the induction program, building leaders and teachers should be regularly surveyed for professional development needs beyond what was planned. The district should also be prepared to provide support to teachers of students who arrive after the start of the school year who present with needs or challenges outside of those for which training had been provided.

Additionally, there is evidence from the district that there are pockets of highly effective practice related to students with diverse learning needs. This is most evident in those schools with highly diverse student populations. In those schools, novice teachers stated that their ability to meet the needs of their students contributed to their job satisfaction. The district should utilize the expertise of teachers and principals from these schools to share best practices across the district. Since there is district-based expertise, opportunities for peer observation could be very powerful.

**Evaluation.** State, local and district policy has elevated the emphasis placed on educator evaluation. This emphasis requires that building leaders and novice teachers become intimately aware of the usefulness of the evaluation process to develop and refine novice teachers’ skills and understandings. This is grounded in the collaborative, trusting, coaching relationships that are present in the district between building leaders and novice teachers discussed earlier. The research of Dinham and Scott (1997, 2000) clearly supports that these characteristics each contribute to the job satisfaction of teachers. These characteristics are the foundation upon which a powerful evaluation process can be built. Targeted, timely and appropriately paced professional development should be
provided for new teachers and building administrators on the district objectives and processes around educator evaluation. This professional development should be timed throughout the school year so that novice teachers are not overwhelmed by the many requirements of the process. A brief reference document could be created from the 46-page contract addendum to make the process easily understood by novice teachers.

Principals and teachers should receive training that connects classroom supervision and feedback to the evaluation process. Engaging in this work will connect the already strong supervision and feedback cycle to the overall evaluation process given that there are clear professional communities of inquiry and practice present in the district. The connection between supervision and evaluation is most easily accomplished when emphasis is placed on student outcomes in contrast to teaching practices. The teachers should be included in the conversation about student outcomes and subsequent plans to improve student performance. Platt and Tripp (2000) found that when the teacher is included in the decision making process related to the outcomes of students and the accompanying teaching practices, the evaluation process is enhanced. Conley et al. (2006) further the importance of including novice teachers in the decision-making process identifying this as a contributing factor to teacher autonomy, which has been shown to influence job satisfaction and higher levels of reflective judgment. As a result, a process of constant improvement embedded in a climate of trust, feedback and self-reflection will become common practice and teacher job satisfaction will be enhanced.

**Teacher Leadership**

There is a significant body of research that shows distributed leadership opportunities can positively influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers (Angelle,
2006; Hulpia et al., 2009). Novice teachers are often overwhelmed by the preparation time required during the first years of teaching. It is helpful to find leadership opportunities that require a limited time commitment for novice teachers and connect them to other teachers, such as serving on committees that inform school policy, like one on parent outreach. The principal must play an active role in the cultivation of teacher leaders. Given a leadership role, novice teachers should be guided throughout the leadership process to avoid ineffectiveness. Novice teachers should be viewed as an untapped resource of enthusiasm, engagement and knowledge that can be harnessed to influence the culture and abilities of the school. However, the work of teacher leaders must be connected to school and district goals. If the leader ensures a connection to school and district goals while providing guidance and supervision of the leadership process, there is great potential in the leadership capabilities of novice teachers. As a result, the job satisfaction of novice teachers may be enhanced.

**Implications for Future Practice**

Finally, while our research focused on the job satisfaction of novice teacher, there may be implications beyond this particular population of teachers. Each of the areas discussed above may have implications for veteran staff as well. Our research raises questions for district consideration:

- Would veteran teachers benefit from additional professional development on social justice?
- Would veteran teachers benefit from additional professional development on the process and objective of the process of evaluation?
• Would veteran teachers benefit from the inclusion of novice teachers in building-based leadership opportunities?

District consideration to each of these questions could potentially serve to improve the job satisfaction of all staff members.

**Limitations**

Although there are many strengths of case study research, there are also weaknesses. One limit to a case study is that it relies on the “researcher [as] the primary instrument of data collection and analysis” (Merriam, 2009, p. 52). Therefore, if a researcher felt unsupported during his first years as a novice teacher then he/she may have a bias in favor of the novice teachers participating in the study. On the other hand, a researcher with a background in administration may have a bias in favor of other administrators being interviewed in the study. This potential bias was addressed by the research team through group conversations about data and team coding.

A second limitation is the reliability of the data collected from novice teachers. Given they have yet to complete the probationary period of employment, novice teachers may not share their complete or honest opinions about their job satisfaction. If some participants are unsatisfied with their jobs, they may be reluctant to attribute their dissatisfaction to school and district leadership for fear of repercussions, which might include the possibility of losing employment.

The third limitation is the use of self-reported data. School leaders and novice teachers shared with the research team their perceptions. Therefore, novice teachers’ lack of experience and high stress levels may influence how they perceive the school and district. They may lack an understanding of the history and scope of school and district
work. They are also novice teachers, so perhaps they are concerned with their job security and therefore tend to paint a rosier picture. The school leaders may perceive an incentive in positively reporting their work and the work in their school.

While the study provided a cross section of leaders and novice teachers from different schools and central office settings, one school in the district, which contained a large number of low-income students and had a low accountability rating from the state, did not participate in the study. This may have been due to the leader’s availability or the possibility that there were not any novice teachers at this particular school. Nevertheless, comparing interview responses from this school with the data from other schools with greater student diversity may have increased the study’s generalizability.

The time frame of this study was another limitation. Several leaders were new to the district and although they may have prioritized several aspects of school and district leadership, effective change usually occurs within three to five years. The sample of novice teachers for this study ranged in years taught in the district and educational background. Although we did not report on teacher preparation programs, a few novice teachers self reported these data. One novice teacher was in the first year in the district with previous experience while all other novice teachers were in the second or third year in the district with a total ranging from two to six years in the profession. As a result, their responses may not have reflected current practice provided to novice teachers within the school district, especially given the leadership transitions in the previous few years at both the school and district level. Revisiting novice teachers and leaders near the end of the school year and then again at the end of a three-year period would have increased the validity and reliability of this study.
The final limitation of this study is the generalizability of the findings. Since case study research focuses on a single unit of analysis, which in this case is one suburban Massachusetts school district, the results of the study may be limited to other school systems in Massachusetts or the United States with similar characteristics and may not be applicable to school districts with different demographics, achievement levels, and geographic contexts. Therefore, this may limit the generalizability of the study but does not mean a research study focused on one district cannot provide insight or a better understanding of how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In fact, Merriam (2009) points out that “It is the reader, not the researcher, who determines what can apply to his or her context” (p. 51). Related to sample size, however, one has to be careful about extrapolating the findings to other novice teachers and school leaders. In a different school or district, we could find school leaders and novice teachers had different experiences. We also cannot make causal connections as there may be other explanations or factors involved. Future research could further illuminate the school-based factors that influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. In conclusion, although this research has some limitations, this research accomplished its goal.

**Conclusion**

There is broad consensus that having talented and skilled teachers in our nation’s classrooms is of critical importance to the educational attainment of students (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Retaining teachers in schools has long been a priority because experienced teachers tend to contribute to student achievement at a higher level than their novice counterparts (Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2008). Teacher quality and retention issues are not equally distributed across schools; as
Johnson (2004) writes, “If schools fail to attract and retain a strong, committed cohort of new teachers in the coming years, students will be severely penalized, and those in low income communities will be likely to pay the greatest price” (p. 329).

Furthermore, the importance of novice teacher retention has grown increasingly more important in recent years as the pool of teachers entering teacher preparation programs and teachers entering the job market has diminished (Sawchuk, 2014; Westervelt, 2015). As Mary Vixie Sandy, the executive director of the California Commission on Teaching Credentials, states, “We are going to see it play out in this year and in the coming year with an increase in demand, and a not very deep pool of teachers to fulfill that demand” (Sawchuk, 2014, p. 1). Furthermore, this trend of a reduction in the number of applications received by teacher preparation programs does not appear to be a fad; Bill McDiarmid, the dean of the University of North Carolina School of Education, recently stated that, "The erosion is steady. That's a steady downward line on a graph. And there's no sign that it's being turned around” (Westervelt, 2015, p. 1). Given these trends, retaining and developing novice teachers should be a high priority for schools and districts to ensure there are enough high quality teachers to fill their classrooms.

Job satisfaction is a primary factor in the retention of novice teachers (Boyd et al., 2011; Ladd, 2011). Our research confirms the findings of Dinham and Scott (1998): leadership can influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. The leaders and novice teachers in the Columbia Public School District value interpersonal relationships, and as a result, this has contributed to the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Looking forward, the district could continue to enhance the experience of novice teachers. An ongoing
commitment by school and district leadership to enhance professional development in the areas of induction, self reflection, evaluation, and teacher leadership, will allow school and district leadership to further elevate the job satisfaction of novice teachers. Furthermore, the many strengths already present within the district coupled with a commitment to ongoing growth in these areas, could serve to benefit the practice and job satisfaction of all teachers.
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## Appendix A

### Study Timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Start Date</th>
<th>End Date</th>
<th>Research Task</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March 2015</td>
<td>May 2015</td>
<td>Begin researching districts that fit the profile of participants needed to complete a robust study of novice teachers. Sample size must have 20 novice teachers, 10 teacher mentors, 10 building based administrators, and a central office cabinet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 2015</td>
<td>June 2015</td>
<td>Select district and contact district leadership to make initial introductions and presentation of proposed study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 2015</td>
<td>August 2015</td>
<td>Complete initial study of research group's individual district profile.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2015</td>
<td>October 2015</td>
<td>Begin data analysis process and identification of themes, document inferences, and findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 2015</td>
<td></td>
<td>Schedule perspective interviews with available personnel. Complete initial interviews and collect initial data and artifacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 2015</td>
<td>January 2016</td>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 2015</td>
<td>January 2016</td>
<td>Continue with data analysis and identification of themes, document inferences and findings to write up findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 2016</td>
<td></td>
<td>Defend Dissertation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 1, 2016</td>
<td></td>
<td>Submit Dissertation in Practice</td>
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Appendix B

Novice Teacher Interview

Introduction

- Greet and introduce yourself and your role and explain to the teacher the purpose of the study - to gather data and to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers
- Go over the disclosure statement and highlight the informed consent and confidentiality. Remind the participant that they are not required to participate in the interview. They may choose not to answer a certain question or all questions. They may stop the interview at any time
- State that the interview will begin with an inquiry into their educational history

Leadership

1. What has the principal directly or indirectly done to impact your initial years in the profession?
2. How does your principal influence you as a novice teacher?

Job Satisfaction

3. Describe the factors of your school that influence your job satisfaction.
4. Describe the aspects of your teaching position you find to be rewarding and frustrating.

School Culture

5. How do you differentiate between your role in a school’s culture and that of the administration? Detail each role.
6. Do you feel you get support/assistance in your teaching when you have a problem? If so, from who and what does that support/assistance look like?

7. Are there structures within the school day that help foster collaboration between you and your colleagues? Explain your answer.

Distributed Leadership

8. In what ways do teachers have opportunities to take on leadership roles in the school? How does seeing other teachers in leadership roles influence your experience?

9. Have you been involved in any teacher leadership activities? How has that affected your experience at the school?

Servant Leadership

10. Do school and district leaders empower novice teachers? Can you offer some specific examples?

11. Do you feel valued by school and district leadership? Can you provide some specific examples?

12. How does school leadership respond to feedback from teachers? Is leadership open to different views? Can you provide some specific examples?

Central Office

13. How does central office support you as a novice teacher? Please identify the direct or indirect support provided by central office.

14. Describe your mentoring and induction experience?

15. In what ways does policy affect you as a novice educator?

Social Justice Leadership
16. Describe your experiences teaching a diverse population of students (special education, ELL, low-income, ethnicity)

17. What district or building supports are available to help you meet the needs of all students?

18. Have you been encouraged to reflect on your understanding and ability to teach diverse student populations? If so, how?

Instructional Leadership

19. What evaluation feedback do you find most helpful to you as a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s) to me.

20. Does your principal connect feedback to student achievement and if so, how?

21. Does your principal provide supervision that influences your practice and if so, how?
Appendix C

School and District Leader Interview

Introduction

- Greet and introduce yourself and your role and explain to the teacher the purpose of the study - to gather data and to explore how leadership influences the job satisfaction of novice teachers
- Go over the disclosure statement and highlight the informed consent and confidentiality. Remind the participant that they are not required to participate in the interview. They may choose not to answer a certain question or all questions. They may stop the interview at any time
- State that the interview will begin with an inquiry into their educational history

Job Satisfaction

1. Do you believe novice teachers are satisfied with their jobs? How do you know?
2. What elements of the school or district do you believe influence the job satisfaction of your novice teachers?

School Culture

3. How do you differentiate between your role in a school’s culture and that of the teacher? Detail each role.
4. How do you feel you give support/assistance to your novice teachers when they have a problem? If so, what does that support/assistance look like?
5. Are there structures within the school day that help foster collaboration between you and the novice teachers? Explain your answer.
6. What words do you immediately associate with school culture?
Distributive Leadership

7. In what ways do teachers have opportunities to take on leadership roles in the school? How do you let go of your authority to promote this practice?

8. Are novice teachers able to take on leadership roles? How do you promote those with less experience being connected to leadership opportunities?

Servant Leadership

9. How do you empower novice teachers? Can you offer some specific examples?

10. How do you make novice teachers feel valued? Can you provide some specific examples?

11. How do you respond to feedback from teachers? Are you open to different views? Can you provide some specific examples?

Central Office

12. What district supports are provided to novice teachers?

13. Is there a direct impact from central office to novice teachers? How do you measure that?

Social Justice Leadership

14. What district or building supports are available for novice teachers to meet the needs of all students?

15. How have you provided opportunities for teachers to reflect on their understanding and knowledge of diverse populations?

16. Is there a cultural mismatch between novice teachers and student populations? If so, how do you address this?

Instructional Leadership
17. What evaluation feedback do you believe is most helpful to a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s) to me.

18. Do you provide feedback to the novice teacher that connects to student achievement and if so, how?

19. Do you provide supervision to the novice teacher that influences their practice? If so, can you provide examples?
Appendix D

Alignment of Research Questions with Interview Protocol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Interview Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How do building leaders perceive the role of supervision and evaluation in the development of novice teacher job satisfaction?</td>
<td>How would you evaluate novice teachers’ satisfaction with their jobs in your district/school? How do you know?</td>
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<tr>
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<td>What elements of the school or district do you believe influence the job satisfaction of your novice teachers?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>What evaluation feedback do you believe is most helpful to a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>What kind of feedback, if any, do you provide to the novice teacher that relates to student achievement? Share examples?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What kind of supervision, if any, do you provide to novice teachers, that influences their practice? If so, provide examples?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Do novice teachers attribute job satisfaction to the supervision and evaluation received from the building leader, and if so, how?</td>
<td>How has the principal directly or indirectly impacted your initial years in the profession? Please provide specific examples/illustrations.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>How does your principal influence you as a novice teacher? Describe the factors of your school that influence your job satisfaction.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Describe the aspects of your teaching position you find to be rewarding and frustrating.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What evaluation feedback do you find most helpful as a novice teacher? Please explain your choice(s) as well as reasons for your choices.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>How, if at all, does your principal connect feedback to student achievement? Please explain.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>How does your principal provide supervision that influences your practice? Elaborate.</td>
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