

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

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

Dissertation in Practice by

Michael Evan Morris

with Kori Alice Becht, Elizabeth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, and Mark
McManmon,

submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

May 2016

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by

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Abstract

This qualitative case study examined the perceived influence of distributed leadership on the job satisfaction of novice teachers in one Massachusetts school district. Dinham and Scott's "Three Factor Theory" (1998), which emphasizes the role of school-based factors on job satisfaction, was utilized as a conceptual framework to guide the study. Data were gathered from interviews with novice teachers, school leaders, and district leaders and document review. The results of the study found that novice teachers involved in leadership activities via a distributed model perceived increased job satisfaction. Novice teachers who did not participate in leadership activities expressed a neutral or negative feeling towards their lack of involvement. A key determining factor in whether novice teachers participated in leadership activities was having a principal who encouraged this practice. However, all novice teachers interviewed reported that collegial staff relationships, regardless of their direct participation in leadership activities, positively influenced their job satisfaction. This study confirmed many of Dinham and Scott's findings about the influence of school-based factors on job satisfaction; however, a conflicting finding about the relationship between school-based factors and intrinsic factors was identified. Recommendations include aligning school leaders' practices in supporting the participation of

novice teachers in leadership activities and mapping distributed leadership structures using a tool such as social network analysis.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the many individuals who contributed to the successful completion of my dissertation. First of all, thank you to my dissertation committee, Dr. Lauri Johnson, Dr. Audrey Friedman, and Dr. Erin Nosek, for your encouragement, feedback, and support throughout this process. I wish to give special thanks to Dr. Lauri Johnson, Committee Chair, for her leadership of both our capstone group and our doctoral program. I also wish to express my deep appreciation to the other faculty in the Boston College PSAP/LLPS program, who created the conditions for deep learning in both the academic and practical domains.

I offer my sincerest thanks to the superintendent, central office administrators, principals, and teachers of the Columbia Public Schools, who gave generously of their time and offered insightful and candid reflections on their experiences.

I also would like to thank the Superintendent of the Amherst Public Schools, Maria Geryk, and many other colleagues in my district for their support.

In addition, every member of the PSAP III cohort contributed to my learning throughout the past three years and I am a better administrator every day because of my contact with this dedicated and talented group. My capstone group partners have been incredible teammates, collaborative colleagues, and close friends; I feel a deep sense of gratitude to have shared this journey with Kori Becht, Beth Chamberland, Bridget Gough, Matthew Joseph, and Mark McManmon. The experience of working with you over the past two years has enriched my experience immeasurably.

Finally, thank you to my immediate and extended family members who have dealt with my frequent travels in various ways over the past three years. The best part of the completion of this degree is the knowledge that we will be together more often.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Melany Burgos-Morris, who supported my work at Boston College in countless ways. Without her patience and support, I would not have completed this dissertation nor the intense learning that led to the culmination of my doctoral studies. I share this accomplishment equally with you. I hope this project stands as an example to my children, Maya and Isaac, that education can be both challenging and joyful, that learning is a lifelong pursuit, and that inquiry and curiosity remain essential to maintain well beyond your youth.

Table of Contents

Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	v
Dedication	vi
Table of Contents	vii
List of Figures	xii
List of Tables	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Problem and Research Questions	1
Literature Review	4
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	4
Two-Factor Theory in Education	5
School-Based Factors: Third Domain of Teacher Satisfaction	6
Novice Teachers	9
Factors Influencing Novice Teacher Job Satisfaction	11
Extrinsic factors	12
School working conditions	12
Pedagogical practices related to diverse student populations	13
Intrinsic motivators	14
Self-efficacy	15
Autonomy	16
School-based factors	16
Collaborative school culture	16

Mentoring	19
School leadership	21
Central office	23
Conclusion	25
CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGY	28
Design of the Study	28
Site selection	29
District context.....	30
Student demographics.....	30
Accountability levels	31
Teacher demographics	32
District spending.....	33
Leadership turnover	33
Participant selection	34
Data Collection	36
Interviews	36
Document review	37
School documents	37
District documents	37
Field notes	37
Data Analysis	38
Authenticity and Trustworthiness of the Data	41
Individual Bias	42

Ethical Treatment of Participants	42
CHAPTER 3: INDIVIDUAL STUDY: THE INFLUENCE OF DISTRIBUTED	
LEADERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION.....	
LEADERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION.....	45
Literature Review.....	46
Origins of Distributed Leadership	47
Characteristics of Distributed Leadership.....	48
Conceptions of Distributed Leadership	50
Influence of Distributed Leadership	51
Influence of distributed leadership on administrators.....	51
Influence of distributed leadership on teachers	52
Distributed leadership and job satisfaction	53
Distributed leadership, job satisfaction, and novice teachers	54
Methodology	55
Study Design.....	55
Data Collection	56
Interviews.....	56
Document review	56
Data Analysis	57
Results.....	58
Novice Teacher Participation and Experience in Distributed Leadership Models	59
Novice teachers who participated in distributed leadership activities	59
Novice teachers who did not participate in distributed leadership activities.....	60
The Influence of Veteran Teacher-Leaders on Novice Teachers	62

Leaders' Role in Enacting Distributed Leadership Models	64
Leaders' active support of novice teacher involvement in distributed leadership roles.....	66
Leaders' roles within distributed leadership models	67
Discussion	68
Summary of Findings.....	68
Influence of Novice Teacher Leadership Involvement on Job Satisfaction	69
Administrative Influence on Encouraging Novice Teacher Leadership Involvement.....	70
Administrative Involvement in Distributing Leadership	71
CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	73
District Context	74
Interpersonal Relationships.....	74
Communication.....	75
School Culture	75
Supervision and Feedback	76
Leadership Visibility and Accessibility	77
Selfless Leadership	78
Valuing Novice Teachers.....	79
Collegial Collaboration.....	81
Divergent Perceptions	82
Induction	83
Social Justice	83
Educator Evaluation	84

Teacher Leadership Opportunities	85
Recommendations	86
Induction	87
Professional Development	89
District-wide planning	89
Self-reflection	90
Evaluation	91
Teacher Leadership.....	92
Implications for Future Practice.....	93
Limitations	93
Conclusion	96
References	98
Appendices.....	117
Appendix A: Study Timeline	117
Appendix B: Novice Teacher Interview Protocol.....	118
Appendix C: School and District Leader Interview Protocol.....	121

List of Figures

Figure 1. A three-domain model of teacher satisfaction	8
Figure 2. Approach of research team in analyzing school and district leadership practices in a three-domain model of teacher satisfaction	25
Figure 3. Diagram of data analysis	40

List of Tables

Table 1. Student Demographics of the District and State	31
Table 2. School Type and Accountability Levels	32
Table 3. Teacher and Student Demographics of the District	32

CHAPTER 1¹

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...

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

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

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, & Rossell, 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; US 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).

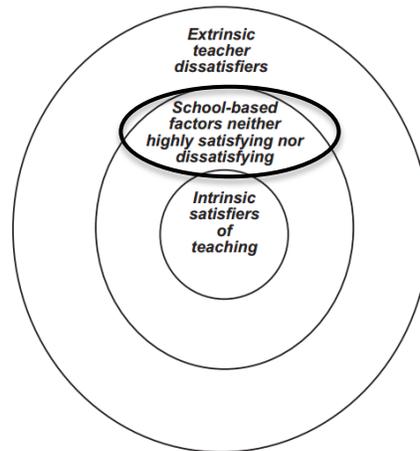


Figure 1. A three-domain model of teacher satisfaction. Reprinted from Dinham & Scott (2000, p. 393).

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., 1988). 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” (Bartolomé, 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 to the common good "while others avoid working with the same students because they lack the confidence or doubt that they can be successful in teaching them" (p. 27).

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, 2003; DuFour, 2004; 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, 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. (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).

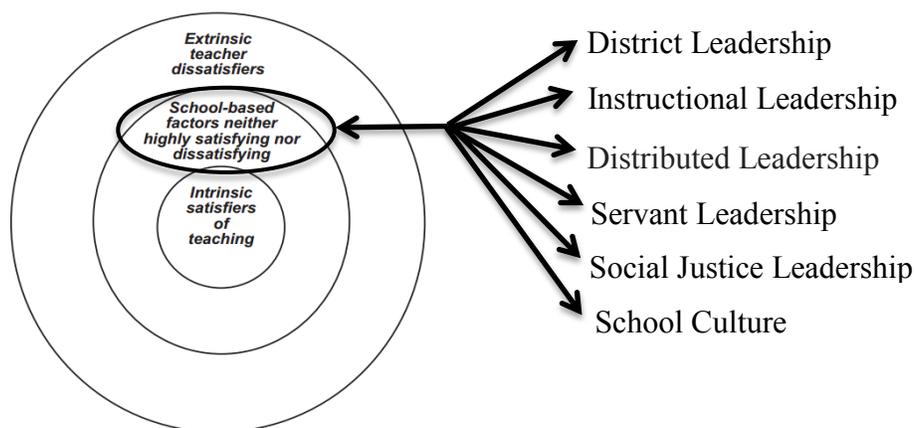


Figure 2. Approach of research team in analyzing school and district leadership practices in a three-domain model of teacher satisfaction

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 2²

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

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

the study 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 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 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

Student Demographics of the District and State

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

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

Type	Title One Status	Accountability Level
Early Childhood	Yes	N/A
Elementary 1	No	Level 1
Elementary 2	Yes	Level 1
Elementary 3	Yes	Level 2
Elementary 4	No	Level 1
Elementary 5	Yes	Level 3
Middle	Yes	Level 2
High	No	Level 3

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

Category	% of Students	% of Teachers
African-American	3.5	1
Asian	6.5	0
Hispanic	16.4	2
White	70.8	96
Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic	2.7	1

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 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).

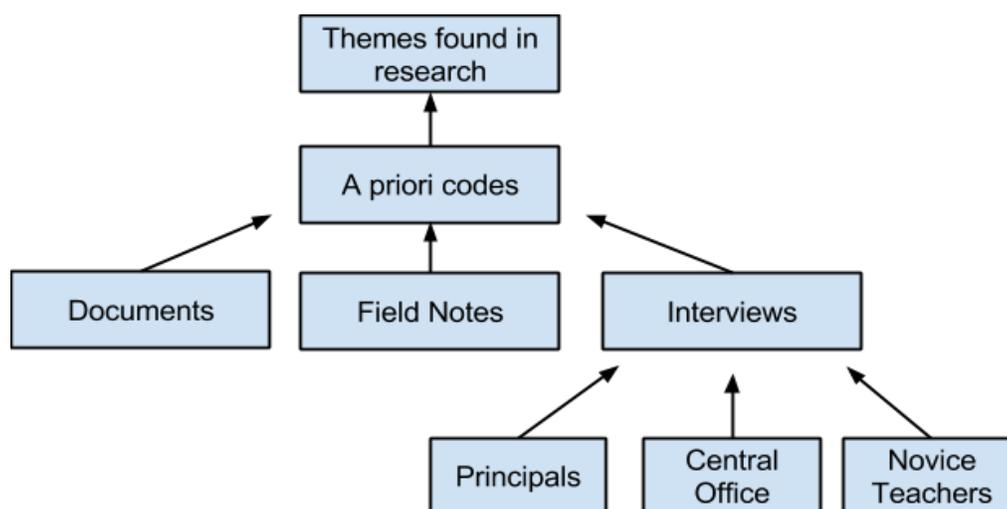


Figure 3. Diagram of data analysis. This figure illustrates the sources and process of data analysis.

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 to 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 discussion sections of the individual study are included.

CHAPTER 3³**Individual Study: The Influence of Distributed Leadership on Job Satisfaction**

Over the past 20 years, distributed leadership has become a popular theory in the field of education (Goldstein, 2004; Mayrowetz, 2008; Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006; Spillane, 2005). While consensus on the specific definition of distributed leadership is elusive (Mayrowetz, 2008; Woods, Bennett, Harvey, & Wise, 2004), two commonly shared aspects are that “task responsibilities are shared across traditionally defined organizational boundaries” (Timperley, 2005, p. 396) and that the dynamic interactions between the multiple followers and leaders connect to instructional leadership. Evidence shows that this leadership style successfully addresses the increasing complexity of the role of 21st century educational leaders (Harris, 2013; Wallace Foundation, 2003) and increases the academic capacity of teachers to improve student outcomes (Heck & Hallinger, 2009). Due to these findings, “many in the education field use the term ‘distributed leadership’ reverentially” (Leithwood, Seashore Lewis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004, p. 7).

However, research also finds that leaders often struggle with implementing a distributed leadership model. As opposed to more traditional, hierarchical leadership models, distributed leadership “clearly implies an ability to relinquish one’s role as ultimate decision-maker, trusting others to make the right decision” (MacBeath, 2005, p. 355). In the current educational climate, where increased school accountability influences the experiences and perceived individual responsibilities of school leaders for student achievement gains (Powell, Higgins, Aram, & Freed, 2009; West, 2010), sharing aspects of school leadership creates a “real tension and dilemma for those leaders who feel the weight of responsibility squarely on their shoulders” (Harris, 2013, p. 551).

³ Author: Michael Morris

Research identifies many positive influences of distributed leadership on teachers' work experience, such as improved self-efficacy and morale (Harris, 2005). In two studies that analyzed the influence of this model on teacher job satisfaction, a statistically significant positive correlation was found (Angelle, 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009). However, these studies focused on the broader population of teachers, not on novice teachers. While veteran teachers tend to be those who take on additional leadership tasks in distributed leadership models (York-Barr & Duke, 2004), novice teachers tend to be greatly affected by the relationships with formal and informal leaders in their schools (Day & Gu, 2007; Hopkins & Spillane, 2014).

Given the job dissatisfaction that many new teachers experience and its correlation with high teacher attrition rates (Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011), examining how a distributed leadership model influences novice teachers' experience in their schools is an unexplored area of research. This study seeks to identify to what degree support received from a distributed leadership model influences novice teacher job satisfaction.

The two research questions are:

1. Do novice teachers associate their job satisfaction with their perception of a school-wide distributed leadership model and, if so, how?
2. How do school leaders perceive their role in distributing leadership that influences the experience of novice teachers?

Literature Review

This literature provides a brief overview of the origins of distributed leadership theory and then examines the definitions and conceptions of distributed leadership that has evolved in the literature, particularly in recent years. The next section examines the influence that distributed leadership models have on the experience of principals and teachers. The review

concludes by exploring the relationship between distributed leadership, job satisfaction, and novice teachers.

Origins of Distributed Leadership

Although researchers began exploring distributed leadership over 60 years ago (Gronn, 2008; Harris, 2008), the concept has received increased attention during the past two decades (Mayrowetz, 2008; Mehra et al., 2006; Spillane, 2005). The expanded interest in distributed leadership originates from critiques of the transformational and charismatic leadership theories that dominated the 1980s and 1990s (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor, 2003; Gronn, 2002; Yukl, 1999). These theories focused on leaders' individual behaviors, ignoring the importance of how leaders structured an organization to function in an interdependent manner. Critics also identified a conceptual weakness of these theories in that the process by which followers were influenced by leaders lacked definition. As Yukl (1999) notes,

The inherent assumption of heroic leadership biases the theories toward explaining effectiveness in terms of the skills and actions of the leader. The theories should place greater emphasis on reciprocal influence processes and deal more explicitly with issues of shared and distributed leadership. (p. 301)

While the recent literature on distributed leadership spans an array of fields, schools have emerged as the primary research focus of this leadership style (Harris, 2012). Some authors theorize that this is due to the mismatch between traditional, person-specific visions of leadership and the reality of working in dynamic organizations such as schools (Gronn, 2002; Mayrowetz, 2008). Given the number of changes in the educational field during the past 15 years, and the increasing demands of accountability that principals face (Combs, Edmonson, Jackson, & Greenville, 2009; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009), some educational scholars have found that

previous forms of leadership that emphasize the actions of the individual leader are not well-suited to respond to the evolving context of schools (Bush, 2013; Harris, 2013).

One thing is clear; formal leaders acting alone will not achieve school and system transformation. Meeting the educational needs of the 21st century will require greater leadership capability and capacity than ever before . . . [and] will demand that formal leaders concentrate their efforts on developing the leadership capability and capacity of others. (Harris, 2013, p. 551)

Characteristics of Distributed Leadership

Although more recent research focuses on the concept of distributed leadership, there is a well-documented lack of clarity in defining the term (Heikka, Waniganayake, & Hujala, 2013; Hulpia et al., 2009; Mayrowetz, 2008; Woods et al., 2004). However, common agreement on the theory's core principles has been established in recent years. Spillane (2005) observes, "Distributed leadership is first and foremost about leadership practice rather than leaders or their roles, functions, routines, and structures" (p. 144). The leadership practice within a school is focused on the interactions between a principal and teachers, along with the context in which they operate. Distributed leadership distinguishes formal roles and titles from leadership activities and influence in significant ways (Ritchie & Woods, 2007; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). This leadership theory,

is grounded in activity rather than in position or role . . . school improvement literature identifies several functions that are thought essential for instructional leadership . . . approaching an analysis of school leadership practice through these leadership functions rather than the work of formal . . . leaders is essential when one adopts a distributed leadership perspective. (Spillane et al., 2001, p. 24)

Gronn (2002) found that the interdependence between roles is a central element of distributed leadership. He describes a key characteristic as “conjoint agency,” when people in different roles “synchronize their actions by having regard to their own plans, those of their peers, and their sense of unit membership” (p. 428). This synergy of work among a network of individuals in diverse roles is theorized to be “greater than the sum of their individual actions” (Woods et al., 2004, p. 441). Distributed leadership theory posits that individuals will struggle to lead independently if they intend to be successful in complex organizations. As Woods et al. write,

It [distributed leadership] gives recognition to a fact of life apparent to the many working at the sharp end of organizations—namely, that leaders at the organizational apex are not unique sources of change and vision; nor do they act necessarily as single figures coaxing, persuading, inspiring, or directing followers to the ‘sunny uplands’ of organizational success. (p. 454)

Despite the primary focus on interactions between and among individuals, distributed leadership depends on the context of an organization (Spillane, 2005). As Woods et al. (2004) state, “distributed leadership does not provide a model for how to share leadership, but requires choices to be made concerning matters of educational value and perceived rights to participation” (p. 453). Ritchie and Woods (2007) found that a challenge in the description and analysis of distributed leadership is that context and structure have a significant influence on how interactions occur within organizations. Despite the primary focus on the individuals in an organization, contextual factors must be considered when studying distributed leadership. Factors such as district governance structures, grade level configuration, and the qualifications of staff members influence how distributed leadership is enacted in schools (Heikka et al., 2013).

Conceptions of Distributed Leadership

Robinson (2008) identifies two primary conceptions of distributed leadership. She terms the first conception “distributed leadership as task distribution” and describes the logic behind it as the manifestation of “leadership . . . in the performance of certain functions or tasks. Some patterns of distribution of the leadership of these have more powerful effects on student outcomes than other patterns” (p. 244). As examples of this conception, she cites studies that focus on electronic logs that document and assess who completes which tasks and/or the priority or time spent on a variety of leadership tasks by people with different roles in the organization. Such studies aim to understand and assess distributed leadership by analyzing the matching of individuals to the varied roles needed to promote school improvement.

Robinson (2008) terms the second conception as “distributed leadership as distributed influence processes” (p. 246). She describes the logic behind this concept:

Track those influence attempts that cause changes in the thoughts and or actions of followers. Distinguish those that are based on the influence processes associated with leadership rather than with manipulation, coercion, or force. Track the impact of the change in followers. (p. 247)

Robinson identifies studies that focus on the influence on followers, as opposed to task distribution and coordination, as being consistent with this conception of distributed leadership.

This study primarily utilizes Robinson’s second conception of distributed leadership to analyze the influence processes on key stakeholders in schools. An advantage of this conceptualization is that it focuses “greater attention to the influence processes that lie at the heart of leadership. These processes . . . change how others think and act” (Robinson, 2008, p. 254). This conception offers a clear framework for this study to analyze the influence of the

distributed leadership models on novice teacher job satisfaction, which is a concept closely tied to how teachers think about their job (Harris, 2005) and their actions of staying with the position or leaving (Angelle, 2010; Boyd et al., 2011).

Influence of Distributed Leadership

While there is a recent increase in empirical research on distributed leadership, a robust base of literature on the topic is still developing (Harris, 2012; Heikka et al., 2013; Mayrowetz, 2008; Robinson, 2008). Researchers, however, have identified multiple ways that distributed leadership models influence administrators and teachers.

Influence of distributed leadership on administrators. While distributed leadership maintains a focus on the multiple participants involved in leadership activities, many who are not formal leaders, principals play a central role in the success of these efforts (Harris, 2012; Leithwood et al., 2007). Without a formal leader supporting and coordinating the collective work of multiple teachers, the results of this work will likely be incoherent and ineffective (Ritchie & Woods, 2007). Leithwood et al., found that,

The most noteworthy detail to emerge from the first stage of our study was the critical part played by formal school . . . leaders in helping foster apparently productive forms of distributed leadership. . . . The structures, cultural norms, and opportunities for staffs to build their leadership capacities depended heavily on the intentional work of principals.
(p. 62)

Interestingly, distributed leadership has been seen as a way of both matching teachers with tasks that they may be better positioned to perform than their principal as well as making the job of being a school leader more manageable in the rapidly changing 21st century educational climate (Mayrowetz, 2008). In Kentucky, a statewide initiative on leadership

identified that a significant accomplishment was successfully developing “distributed leadership models to make the job of principal more do-able” (Wallace Foundation, 2003, p. 17). Gronn (2002) cited similar findings from the healthcare industry as a model for educational leaders whose “selective attention” (p. 436) is based in the overload of work assignments and responsibilities.

Despite these findings, the shift to a distributed leadership model challenges school leaders in many ways (MacBeath, 2005). MacBeath notes that, “Distribution clearly implies an ability to relinquish one’s role as ultimate decision-maker, trusting others to make the right decisions” (p. 355). Accepting changes in authority and power is challenging for school leaders (Harris & Lambert, 2003) and involves embracing a significant shift in how they view themselves. Leithwood et al. (2007) found that “in order to participate in distributed leadership . . . administrators need to recognize and accept new professional roles” (p. 50). This shift may be complicated by the misalignment of sharing control and responsibility with others with state and national administrative leadership standards that identify best leadership practices (Gronn, 2002) and the related accountability structures for administrators (Goldring et al., 2009). These challenges can complicate principals’ implementation of distributed leadership practices.

Influence of distributed leadership on teachers. In addition to affecting the experience of administrators, distributed leadership models have a direct influence on teachers. A goal of implementing distributed leadership models is “to create forms of collaborative work that would make the most of staff members’ collective capabilities, encourage the development of new capabilities, and reduce unproductive knowledge hoarding and competition practices that [are] common” (Leithwood et al., 2007). Mascal et al. (2008) observe that the academic optimism of teachers, an aggregated variable of trust, collective efficacy, and academic emphasis, are

significantly associated with structured distributed leadership models because of how decisions are perceived as transparent when this model is in operation. Distributed leadership models also improve the academic capacity of teachers (Heck & Hallinger, 2009) and the effectiveness of teachers' collaboration with colleagues (Mehra et al., 2006).

In addition, distributed leadership has been linked to positive affective outcomes for teachers. Hulpia, Devos, and Van Keer (2011) found that distributed leadership improved the organizational commitment of teachers. Harris (2008) proposes that "distributed leadership...has the potential to increase on-the-job leadership development experiences, and increased self-determination on the part of those to whom leadership is distributed is thought to improve their experience of work, a form of 'job enrichment'" (p. 177). Sheppard, Hurley, and Dibbon (2010) found that distributed leadership models positively affected teacher morale and enthusiasm due to the shared process of decision-making and the collaborative development of a school vision. Day et al. (2011) confirmed these findings and further observed improved organizational outcomes due to the increased morale associated with distributed leadership. While many of these studies focused on the experience on the teacher-leaders, the influence of distributed leadership models has been found to be positive for teachers who are not themselves directly involved in leadership models but still benefit from the approach. Hulpia et al. (2011) found that:

teachers who believe that their school is run by a cooperative leadership team [even if they are not part of that team] feel committed to the school. This implies that it is important for teachers that their school is not led by a solo leader working on an island. (p. 754)

Distributed leadership and job satisfaction. While organizational commitment and teacher morale have been linked to distributed leadership models (Day et al., 2011; Hulpia et al.,

2011; Sheppard et al., 2010), “there has been a lack of empirical research on distributed leadership and its relation with . . . [the] job satisfaction of teachers” (Hulpia et al., 2009, p. 306). In a case study of a middle school, Angelle (2010) found that a distributed leadership model led to higher teacher job satisfaction among middle school teachers, and, relatedly, lower interest in leaving the school. Hulpia et al. (2009) studied the same concept with a large sample size of schools in Belgium. A significant correlation between distributed leadership and job satisfaction was identified [Adjusted $R^2 = .117$, $F(11,1693) = 21.500^{***}$, $p < .001$], and a greater indirect relationship between the two variables was found, mediated by increased organizational commitment.

Distributed leadership, job satisfaction, and novice teachers. Teachers who are likely to be heavily involved in leadership activities within a distributed leadership model typically have taught for many years (Sherril, 1999; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Therefore, novice teachers are unlikely to be tasked with responsibilities stemming from a distributed leadership model. Neither of the two studies analyzing the relationship between distributed leadership and job satisfaction (Angelle, 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009) focused on novice teachers. However, Hopkins and Spillane (2014) found that a critical factor in novice teachers’ learning about curriculum and instruction was the “brokering [of] relationships between beginning teachers and other [non-administrative] formal leaders, such as instructional coaches” (p. 337). Day and Gu (2007) found that in the first professional life phase of teachers, identified as their first three years, support from colleagues in the form of professional learning activities played a critical role in how teachers experienced these initial years in their schools. Given the job dissatisfaction that many new teachers experience, and the correlation with high teacher attrition rates (Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011), examining how a distributed leadership model influences novice teachers’

experience in their schools is an unexplored topic that could inform the future work of both researchers and practitioners.

Methodology

This purpose of this individual study is to explore how distributed leadership models influence the job satisfaction of novice teachers. To achieve this purpose, a single case study was conducted to analyze the relationship between the leadership style of principals and the experience of novice teachers. The two research questions are:

1. Do novice teachers associate their job satisfaction with their perception of a school-wide distributed leadership model and, if so, how?
2. How do school leaders perceive their role in distributing leadership that influences the experience of novice teachers?

Study Design

To answer each individual research question, a qualitative case study design was utilized. Since one Massachusetts district was the focus of the study, this created a bounded system, making a case study approach an appropriate methodology (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2013). Given that this study investigated the specific phenomenon of the influence of distributed leadership on novice teachers, a case study approach was best able to respond to the research questions.

Through Robinson's (2008) second conception of distributed leadership, this study explored how distributed leadership functions as a process that influences novice teachers' job satisfaction. This process was analyzed from multiple perspectives. The perceptions of both school leaders and novice teachers were considered to best understand the phenomenon.

Analyzing the data from central office leaders, building-based leaders, and novice teachers

offered a complex data set that was used to identify similarities and differences from the three distinct vantage points in one district.

Data Collection

Data were collected from two distinct sources: interviews and a document review. The sources were selected because of their ability to contribute to the understanding of the influence of distributed leadership on novice job satisfaction.

Interviews. Twenty-two interviews were completed, transcribed, and uploaded to the software program Dedoose. Of the 11 administrator interviews, 7 were conducted with building-based administrators, and 4 were with central office administrators. Additionally, 11 novice educators were interviewed. For this study, novice teachers were defined to be in their first three years in the district and having worked for six or fewer years in education. Both groups of participants were relatively balanced between the elementary and secondary level.

Interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, recorded, and conducted in person. Such data provide “concrete,” “holistic,” and “lifelike” (Merriam, 2009, p. 44) information that can often only be gathered through case study research. The interview protocol (see Appendix A) was linked to the research questions, which are based on the conceptual framework of teacher job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000) and the conception of distributed leadership as an influence process (Robinson, 2008). Two research team members conducted each 45-60 minute interview with each participant.

Document review. Creswell (2012) notes that in qualitative studies, data derived from documents can serve as a meaningful complement to interview data. The documents in this study were analyzed in combination with participant interviews to offer a deeper understanding of the research questions and to provide information about how leadership is distributed in the district’s

schools. Key sources for the document review included notes from School Committee meetings where distributed leadership was on the agenda and a District Improvement Plan that identified the priorities of the Columbia Public Schools. The District Improvement Plan was presented by the Superintendent and approved by the School Committee during the same time period in which the interviews took place. Additionally, demographics of the students and faculty, mobility of the staff, and background information about the district context were gathered from public information available on the state website and local newspaper articles.

Data Analysis

The first step in the data analysis was the examination of school documents related to job satisfaction and distributed leadership style. As recommended by Maxwell (2009), the document analysis utilized a priori codes (see Appendix B) drawing from the literature related to these two topics (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Herzberg et al., 1959; Robinson, 2008; Timperley, 2005). This initial coding sorted data into categories that informed the data analysis.

After completing the document review, interviews were conducted with novice teachers and school leaders. The same a priori code list that was revised in the document review process was utilized.

Finally, field notes developed during the interview process became an additional data source. The field notes captured information and the researcher's feelings about the interactions between the researcher and participants, documents related to the research questions, and the physical spaces of the district. Of particular note were the different physical environments of the schools.

This methodology utilized three of the four types of triangulation identified by Patton (2005). The data were also triangulated by analyses completed by different evaluators; multiple

researchers on the interview team also independently checked coding on each interview. Finally, each of the different leadership theories under study was analyzed individually and then collectively, offering an additional layer of triangulation that permitted identification of connections between these theories.

Limitations of this study include an interview protocol that is reduced in length as compared to others that are investigating job satisfaction or distributed leadership. Because of the group nature of the study, the interview protocols for each researcher had to be shortened to maintain a reasonable interview length for participants, which prevented the researcher from asking additional questions about distributed leadership that might have yielded additional data for analysis. In addition, data analysis does not consider how distributed leadership or job satisfaction of novice teachers might be influenced by the context of being in an elementary, middle, and high school environment (Heikka et al., 2013) or based on the size of the school (Hulpia et al., 2009). However, this case study approach does offer a unique look inside one K-12 district with schools that are diverse in size and age level that share a context in a single community, as opposed to looking at similarly-sized or level schools in multiple districts in quite different contexts.

Results

Several themes emerged from the collected data. One key finding was the influence that participating in leadership opportunities had on novice teacher job satisfaction. Another finding was the influence of veteran teacher-leaders on novice teachers via distributed leadership models that promoted peers to support novice teachers in ways that may have traditionally be done by principals. The results stressed the importance of the role of administrators in actively promoting models that include novice teachers in the work of educational change. Another finding was the

variability in administrator involvement in implementing distributed leadership models that may influence their success.

Novice Teacher Participation and Experience in Distributed Leadership Models

In the Columbia Public Schools, roughly 20% of staff members are in their first three years in the district, which is slightly lower than the state average. Research indicates that these novice educators are less likely to be involved in leadership activities than their veteran colleagues (Sherril, 1999; York-Barr & Duke, 2004), despite the fact that they may be more connected to current pedagogical practices and they comprise a significant portion of the staff.

Novice teachers who participated in distributed leadership activities. In contrast to what might be predicted by the current literature, 7 of the 11 novice teachers interviewed described involvement in leadership activities. These activities ranged from running a student club, being a School Council member, leading professional development for colleagues, or serving on committees that informed school policy.

Each teacher who was involved in leadership groups found that such experiences positively influenced their job experience despite the challenges of being a novice educator and managing this additional responsibility. However, there was significant variance in how the teachers conceptualized the benefits that came from their involvement. Two teachers described the experience as “empowering” in terms of being supported by the administration to take on a broader role in the school. Two teachers commented about the benefits of making connections with colleagues beyond who they typically work with; one stated a benefit of participating that, “I kind of know what’s going on all over rather just in our . . . little bubble.” Another teacher shared that the leadership experience increased her confidence, which is consistent with prior research (Harris, 2005). One teacher cited that being involved in leadership activities with

students beyond the school day improved the teacher-student relationships in her courses. Finally, one teacher cited getting in the “administration’s good graces” as a benefit of being involved in teacher leadership activities. All seven of the novice teachers spoke positively of their role in leadership activities and the influence of this experience on their satisfaction in their jobs.

Novice teachers who did not participate in distributed leadership activities.

Structural barriers may have prevented more novice teachers from being involved in leadership activities, regardless of readiness or interest. Some of those barriers were formal, such as union contracts. One principal shared that:

The contract stipulates, the teachers' union has stipulated there are limits to who can take on those roles, both team leaders and department chairs . . . my hands are tied. I do have some novice teachers that are ready for leadership that would be tremendous department chairs and would be tremendous team leaders.

Another administrator offered similarly, “We try to push peer to peer [observations]. We've run into some contract issues there [when we have tried to] flip the idea of mentor.” Another administrator noted that novice teachers’ involvement in leadership activities cannot contribute to the formal evaluation system based on contract language. She described the limitations that this contract language creates, “Again, you can only suggest. It's not something that's evaluative like, ‘You didn't serve on a committee, [therefore you are] under-performing . . . needs improvement.’”

Other barriers were less formal, but similarly limited novice teacher involvement in leadership activities. Seniority was frequently cited as influencing access to leadership opportunities in the district. For instance, multiple subjects described “unwritten rules” that

promote those in teacher leadership roles to stay in them regardless of performance. An administrator commented that, “So far, what I've seen is that the folks that are in those [leadership] roles go unopposed for many years.” A teacher commented that, “I would say as a first year, it [an opportunity to be involved in leadership] is not readily available . . . the leadership roles are already established. They just carry over from year to year.” An administrator offered that, “Sometimes new teachers feel like they can't say anything or they don't have a place, a forum to say things they defer to those who have been here longer.” Given the formal and informal barriers discussed by both teachers and administrators, it is likely that active encouragement would be needed to overcome these structural barriers.

The four novice teachers who were not involved in leadership activities offered mixed reactions to their lack of involvement. For two of the novice teachers, the lack of opportunities appeared to negatively impact their experience in their jobs. When asked about the how the lack of leadership opportunities affected job satisfaction, one teacher stated that:

It's a little discouraging. I feel like since I'm a newer . . . I've gone through the same training everybody else has, they just have the experience on me, and I feel like sometimes what I have to say doesn't really matter to them. Just because I'm newer, oh, she doesn't know what she's talking about, and I've gotten that quite a bit, that feeling, and it's not just me.

Another teacher commented that:

I think it [having leadership opportunities] might help. It might be beneficial just to see something that I could look forward to, see some kind of future as a leader in our community even. It's frustrating when you don't see that as an opportunity.

However, two other novice teachers discussed a lack of interest in joining leadership teams given their newness in the building, with one stating that, “I am fine where I am.” The data indicate that a lack of involvement in leadership activities negatively influenced some staff members’ experiences while having a neutral influence on others. No novice teacher cited their lack of involvement as a positive factor, despite the high level of stress that each novice teacher described in their jobs.

The Influence of Veteran Teacher-Leaders on Novice Teachers

Another theme that emerged relevant to the first research question was the significant influence that veteran colleagues in leadership roles had on novice teachers’ job satisfaction. Many of these veteran colleagues played roles that have been traditionally performed by administrators, such as orienting novice teachers to the school culture and supporting them in the area of curriculum and instruction, but have been distributed to teachers via being a mentor or in the role of a curriculum leader.

Consistent with state regulations, a mentor is assigned to each teacher new to the district for support in their first year. Eight of the eleven novice teachers described how the mentoring program positively supported their entry into the district. Having a non-administrator assist in getting generally acclimated to the job and the school seemed particularly valued, and the teacher-leaders appeared to have significant autonomy in supporting their new colleagues. One teacher stated that, “Mentor teachers come in, which is really nice because there are all those crazy questions that you don’t want to ask the principal . . . but you still need to find out all those answers.” Another stated that, “Like I have a pinpoint person, then if I have a question about pretty much anything, I know I can go to her as far as school-wide concerns.”

Some novice teachers also described the assistance of mentors in the area of curriculum and instruction. One commented that:

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.

An elementary teacher stated that, “We [mentor and I] collaborated on everything. We would switch kids based on levels for different groupings.” Two teachers and one administrator described how the mentoring relationships in their schools typically extend beyond the formal period of one year because of the supportive environment and close relationships that are created in this model.

The three novice teachers who did not find the mentoring program helpful cited the poor individual match of the assigned mentor as the primary issue, not the structure of the program itself. One novice teacher found that her grade level team was challenging to work with, and her mentor, a member of that team, was unable to provide the support that she needed in her first year. One special educator found that the program was not successful due to the lack of a match given their specialized role; he stated that, “No one here knows what I do.” This teacher spoke of being somewhat isolated in his current role, a feeling that the mentor program is aimed to prevent.

In addition to mentoring, several novice teachers cited other teacher-leaders that influenced their work in the areas of curriculum and instruction. One stated that:

We have a math coach, and it's incredible. It's really, really incredible. We have a PLC where we meet every other day and talk about what's working in the class, what's not, what do we want to have for a goal for the year.

Another teacher cited a literacy coach as being a primary support regarding teaching methodologies and pedagogy. Similarly, a principal noted how much teacher curriculum leaders are able to support novice teachers in ways that she cannot given her role, “It is very, very hard for a new teacher to ask for help [from a principal] because they think you’re going to look down on them.”

At the secondary level, a number of novice teachers identified department heads as contributors to their professional growth and learning. Every novice teacher interviewed discussed how their veteran colleagues influenced their experience at work. The vast majority of roles that the veteran teachers played in positively influencing the experience of novice teachers, whether mentors, coaches, or department heads, originated out of formal structures developed by administrators in the district.

Leaders’ Role in Enacting Distributed Leadership Models

Relevant to the second research question, administrators and their teams took significant steps towards enacting distributed leadership models. Each administrator interviewed described how they are attempting to implement aspects of distributed leadership in their schools or across the district. The data also indicated that an intentional effort, both at school and district levels, was being made to have teachers more involved in decision-making roles. One principal commented that, “I’m still a piece of it [leadership], but for the past couple of years, I really do the lead from behind thing more in all facets, really because there are some great teachers.” Another offered that, “We have to give people opportunities to take leadership where it is in the building . . . I think that we owe it to them to give them opportunities to be a part of decision making . . . [and] leadership in the building.”

In addition, a central office administrator described a grant that was being used to support teachers to become leaders in peer-led professional development. All teachers were informed of this opportunity via an all-staff email, intended to solicit participants and inform the faculty of this shift in leadership style. Teachers' taking on leadership roles is also a key aspect of the new District Improvement Plan. One of the six Strategic Objectives is to "create a long-range district-wide Professional Development Plan that emphasizes peer-led opportunities." In addition, distributed leadership was discussed at a recent School Committee meeting in a session led by one of the administrators, who authored a recent publication on the topic.

Several administrators described how this model, while beneficial to the staff, is also a necessity of being a leader in the 21st century given the increasing demands of school leaders, consistent with existing literature on the topic (Bush, 2013; Harris, 2013). One stated that, "You can't do it by yourself. There are so many students and staff in the building." Another shared that:

I think it is good to . . . delegate, because there are so many aspects of being a principal.

You're being kind of bombarded at all angles, that to take on everything all by yourself is a huge task, and you want to develop school leadership within your school.

All administrators in this district described the administrative role as highly demanding; releasing some of the myriad leadership responsibilities to teachers appears to be almost a necessity for many of the building-based administrators to achieve the goals of the school and district. The workload of being an administrator in this district may be even more challenging than typically observed due to significantly lower spending on administration than other districts in the state. An approach that included developing and utilizing teacher-leaders appeared to be an

intentional shift in district and school philosophy to promote systems change, but it also may have been a necessity given the district context.

Leaders' active support of novice teacher involvement in distributed leadership roles. Despite this pervasive focus on distributed leadership, how actively administrators included novice teachers in leadership activities varied. Given their inexperience and previously discussed barriers, it seemed that novice teachers might need some encouragement to be involved in leadership activities, but some administrators' and novice teachers' responses did not indicate that this was occurring. Examples of passive support were seen in administrators' comments such as, "You ask for people to take part and encourage all teachers to take part. I haven't said this is just for non-professional status teachers"; "it's not exclusive to veterans certainly. I think a lot of it depends on the personality of that novice teacher"; and, "novice teachers [involvement in leadership roles], not so much . . . more . . . once they get professional status . . . it's not set in stone, like if we had a teacher that was really, like, gung-ho, they certainly could lead a PD." These comments indicated passive support for novice teachers' inclusion in leadership activities, which, given the formal and informal barriers that exist in the district, would not likely promote their involvement. Novice teachers do not necessarily have the standing nor experience in the school to jump into leadership roles without more differentiated support and encouragement.

However, several administrators discussed playing an active role in encouraging novice teachers to be involved in leadership activities. A common strategy from these administrators was having individual conversations with novice teachers to promote their involvement in school-wide activities. One administrator who spoke at length about developing and retaining novice teachers described their actions:

We look at each individual and identify their strengths . . . [then] have individual conversations and say, ‘Have you thought about this [a leadership opportunity]? I think this is a really good fit for you . . . you should give it a shot.’”

Another stated a similar strategy:

As I meet with teachers that are under three years, I always [ask] . . . "How are you getting involved in the district? What are you involved in? Are you on any committees?" If they're a little bit hesitant, then might suggest, "Hey, why don't you start out with PBIS?"

Something that's very easy.

Three of the four administrators who shared active strategies to encourage novice teacher participation in leadership activities worked in two of schools in the district. Not surprisingly, six out of the seven teachers interviewed at those schools cited their involvement in leadership activities and the positive influence it had on their job experience, whereas only one of the four teachers at schools whose leaders shared more passive approaches indicated being involved in teacher leadership activities. This active support and encouragement to be involved beyond the walls of an individual classroom appeared to be linked with novice teachers’ involvement in leadership activities; those who participated in these activities cited their experience as positively influencing their job experience and satisfaction.

Leaders’ roles within distributed leadership models. Despite the evidence of general support of a distributed leadership model, only 3 of the 11 administrators interviewed discussed their direct connection to guiding or monitoring teacher-leaders in their work with novice educators. These leaders made comments describing their own role in distributed leadership teams such as, “Overall, I think it's really important that I'm part of those teams” or “I'll look over everything, like ‘That sounds like a great idea. What about this? Can you explain that?”

Because I'm not really clear on what that is. Is that too difficult for that grade level?"” However, statements like these were seldom found in the 11 administrator interviews. Many administrators cited aspects of distributed leadership that were external to their direct involvement as critical factors in the success of distributed leadership model, such as having teachers “own” aspects of the leadership work in their schools, for teachers to be empowered to make decisions, and to relieve the overwhelming workload of being an administrator by having others take on leadership roles. The majority of administrators did not discuss their role in facilitating, structuring, or monitoring these teacher leadership groups, as a critical aspect of their involvement in and benefit from distributed leadership models; the focus was decidedly on transferring leadership authority to teachers as opposed to sharing responsibility or structuring these groups.

Discussion

Summary of Findings

This research study contains multiple findings about how distributed leadership is tied to novice teacher job satisfaction. In this case study, a higher percentage of novice teachers participated in leadership activities than was expected based on prior research. These teachers were likely to work for principals who actively and individually encouraged their participation. That encouragement helped these teachers overcome barriers to participation, such as their lack of experience or lack of standing in their schools. While these teachers indicated that their experiences positively influenced their job satisfaction, novice teachers who did not participate in leadership activities stated either a neutral or negative influence on their job satisfaction. Novice teachers were also influenced by veteran teacher-leaders in a wide variety of areas. Although school and district leaders created these formal mentoring or leadership roles,

administrators reported that they did not maintain strong connections and involvement in the distribution of these leadership functions, likely due to a lack of time.

Influence of Novice Teacher Leadership Involvement on Job Satisfaction

Dinham and Scott (1998) identified the third domain of teacher satisfaction comprised of school-based factors — such as school leadership, climate, and decision-making — as having a significant influence on teachers and being more malleable than the other two domains first identified by Herzberg et al. (1959) — intrinsic and hygiene. Previous research tied distributed leadership models to teacher job satisfaction without focusing or disaggregating their results in reference to novice teachers (Angelle, 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009).

While all seven of this study's novice teachers who were involved in leadership activities stated that the experience positively influenced their job satisfaction, their reasons differed. Four cited their involvement in distributed leadership activities as contributing to their own personal growth and empowerment in the position. Interestingly, this indicates that distributed leadership, which clearly resides in the third domain, can influence the intrinsic factors related to job satisfaction, which, according to Dinham and Scott's model, is in a different domain. Therefore, this study's finding may conflict with the findings of these authors, who wrote that:

An important implication of this “three domain theory” of teacher . . . satisfaction, is that if attention is focused on any of the three domains alone, this will not guarantee improvement in the others, given that the factors giving rise to each are largely mutually exclusive. Attention thus needs to be given to the particular circumstances and contexts of all three levels. (p. 376)

In this study, it appears that there is a connection between domains, as distributed leadership may influence novice teachers' sense of personal growth. Furthermore, since personal

growth was identified as the most significant predictor of teacher job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1998), analyzing the relationship between this particular style of school leadership and the intrinsic factor of self-growth merits further research.

Three novice teachers in the study said their job satisfaction is positively influenced by the learning they are exposed to through enhanced collaboration with colleagues, as well as by a broader connection to school-wide personnel and topics. Feeling connected to colleagues and the community helps a teacher feel connected to his or her school and may increase organizational commitment, which has been found to correlate with improved teacher job satisfaction (Hulpia et al., 2009). These factors may also contribute to a novice teacher's sense of efficacy, an intrinsic factor, as stated by Brown & Wynn (2009):

School leaders play an important role in shaping building-level factors that can affect new teachers' attitudes toward the profession and their sense of efficacy as educators . . . Effective leaders foster collaboration and create opportunities for teachers to learn from one another throughout their careers. (p. 43)

Administrative Influence on Encouraging Novice Teacher Leadership Involvement

Novice teachers working with leaders who actively encouraged their involvement in a leadership activity were more likely to be involved in the distributed leadership model at their schools. This finding is consistent with a recent study on novice teacher retention, which found that "principals with a proactive approach in supporting new teachers" helps improve those teachers' experiences, retaining them at a higher rate than do schools that do not take this approach (Brown & Wynn, 2009, p. 37). As one principal in this study noted, novice teacher evaluations do not assess their involvement in leadership activities. However, the principals in the study who proactively encouraged this involvement emphasized the benefits for the

participating novice teachers in terms of growth and development, not simply to fill a vacant spot on a leadership team or to reduce their own workload. While all administrators in the study generally encouraged novice teachers to be involved in leadership activities, the individual conversations between principals and novice teachers appeared to be the deciding factor.

Administrative Involvement in Distributing Leadership

Research on distributed leadership (Gronn, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2007) cautions that for these models to be successful, the leaders need to be directly involved with the teacher-leaders. Leithwood et al. found that:

Some of our evidence also suggested that distributing leadership to teams of teachers in a planfully aligned structure, if it is to be effective, still depends on the regular monitoring of progress by the principal and sometimes a quite active form of intervention to move the agenda forward if it is stalled. By themselves, for example, a group of teachers working together as a leadership team can find themselves going in circles with little benefit to their colleagues or students. (p. 55)

While distributed leadership depends upon trust in teacher leaders (MacBeath, 2005), this district may benefit from administrators taking a more active role in supporting and aligning the critical work of these informal school leaders. In fact, expressing to teacher-leaders the goals of the recently identified focus on distributing leadership might have helped all stakeholders better understand how this model was to be enacted in the district.

An initial recommendation for district administrators is to create a map of all teacher teams who are doing collaborative work in the school. This process will accomplish multiple goals related to planful alignment, such as identifying whether the work of teacher teams is connected to key school goals, identifying the range of participants on each team and if those

teams include novice educators, identifying those staff members on multiple teams as well as those on no teams, and helping leadership groups create goals and benchmarks of success that will focus each group's work while providing clarity for administrators on each group's goals. In addition, mapping their own leadership team involvement can help school leaders find the ideal level in a distributed leadership model given the local context of the school.

Next, if time and resources allow, a second recommendation is to complete a social network analysis of the staff, thereby yielding meaningful data describing administrator perceptions of involvement level in teacher leadership teams. Given that distributed leadership models hinge on the relationships between administrators and teachers — and between teachers and their colleagues — using “a method for capturing the complexity of social relationships” (Hawe & Ghali, 2008, p. 62) is an appropriate way to gather critical information that can inform leaders' work in this area. While social network analysis is more commonly considered for teacher collaboration than for leadership analysis, “scholars have advocated looking at teacher collaboration as a form of distributed leadership within school, mediated by artifacts and routines for discussing and sharing problems of practice” (Penuel, Riel, Krause, & Frank, 2009, p. 125), with recent research indicating that social network analysis data can assist in team performance in distributed leadership models (Mehra et al., 2006). Therefore, assessing the involvement of both formal and informal leaders in a distributed leadership model could enhance the work in the Columbia Public Schools.

CHAPTER 4⁴

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 satisfaction. Then, we describe findings related to the areas where novice teachers and school leaders possess divergent perceptions on factors influential to the job

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 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. These data 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 . . . I 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 & Blasé (2000), 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 for 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 suggests promising improvements to the induction program. 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, volume and quality 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 (2014) 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 teachers, 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.

The research team through group conversations about data and team coding addressed this potential bias.

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 are 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 applicants entering teacher preparation programs and teachers entering the job market have 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

Start Date	End Date	Research Task
March 2015	May 2015	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.
May 2015	May 2015	Defend group research study proposal.
May 2015	June 2015	Select district and contact district leadership to make initial introductions and presentation of proposed study.
June 2015	August 2015	Complete initial study of research group's individual district profile.
August 2015	October 2015	Begin data analysis process and identification of themes, document inferences, and findings.
September 2015		Schedule perspective interviews with available personnel. Complete initial interviews and collect initial data and artifacts.
November 2015	January 2016	Data Analysis
December 2015	January 2016	Continue with data analysis and identification of themes, document inferences and findings to write up findings.
March 2016		Defend Dissertation
April 1, 2016		Submit Dissertation in Practice

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?

Distributed 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?