Secondary-School Principals' Perceptions of their Role in the Retention of the Novice Teacher

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SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ROLE IN THE RETENTION
OF NOVICE TEACHERS
A QUALITATIVE STUDY USING SEMI-STRUCTURED, IN DEPTH INTERVIEWS

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SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ROLE IN THE RETENTION OF NOVICE TEACHERS

Theresa J. Coker

Secondary schools in the U.S. face instructional challenges due in part to novice teacher turnover. Research indicates that new teachers remain in the profession due to: supportive principal leadership, an orderly school environment, classroom autonomy, and significant professional development (Grissom, 2008). The purpose of this study was to understand how secondary-school principals perceived their role in novice teachers’ professional development and retention. Qualitative research using in-depth, semi-structured interviews included 15 secondary-school administrators from an urban district in the southeast United States. Data analysis used Eisner’s (1998) four-part approach to educational criticism—description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics—supported by Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis. Four typologies organized description and interpretation: principals’ early experiences as educators; principals’ perceptions of the recruitment process; principals’ view of the process of professional development; and life and duties of principals.

The thematics dimension of educational criticism indicated that principals’ lack of time led to their delegating leadership tasks to other staff regarding novice teachers’ professional development. Their descriptions of their interactions with novice teachers reflected a transactional leadership style and an approach of “leading from the middle” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011) to respond to both demands from above and needs at the school level. Further, these principals perceived all teachers new to their schools as novice, whether experienced or inexperienced.
Implications include considering transformational leadership when working with novice teachers and clarifying hiring and retention responsibilities regarding novice teachers. Such communication among all parties would support novice teachers’ development and commitment to the profession. Further research might focus on observing the interactions of both administrators and faculty with novice teachers to understand the complexity of the process of their professional development.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

One of education’s ever-present problems is the need for quality teachers in the classroom. Teachers are important to the lives of individual students and critical to their academic achievement (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). Yet, no matter how vital the teacher is, the contemporary educational profession reflects an on-going inability to adequately staff classrooms due in part to new teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2003). Continuing high rates of novice teacher turnover mean greater school instability, disruption of curricular cohesiveness, and a continual need to hire inexperienced teachers, who typically are less effective (Grissom, 2011). Therefore, keeping new teachers in schools and districts is an important and powerful force in the betterment of schools, students, and education as a whole (Gurule-Gonzales, 1995; King, 2004).

New teachers leave a particular school for several reasons, such as family relocation, transfer to another school, employment outside of the school system, or family responsibilities. In addition, novice teacher turnover is often due to dissatisfaction with the profession (Ingersoll, 2003). Research findings reveal several elements that influence beginning teachers’ decisions to remain in teaching: supportive principal leadership, an orderly school environment, classroom autonomy, and significant professional development (Grissom, 2008). Some researchers reference these elements as school culture, the aggregate of a school’s characteristics that also include relationships among parents, teachers, administrators, the community, and students—characteristics which are usually principal-led (Adeogun & Olisaemeka, 2011).
Researchers often credit the principal’s leadership with establishment of the school culture (Adeogun & Olisaemeka, 2011). Furthermore, a good school culture affects teachers’ productivity, which in turn influences students’ academic performance due to open communication and common goals. An effective school culture values many professional principles, which are usually directed by the principal: collaboration among teachers, administrators, and parents; transparency in decision-making processes; equity without favoritism among all staff; collaboration among faculty; and decisions reflecting the efforts of leaders to do what is in the best interest of the children as a mechanism to further good education (Wiggins, 2011). In addition, an organization with a stronger culture is more adaptable to change. It also has higher membership motivation and commitment. Further, the strength of the culture affects the level of cooperation throughout and among organizational levels (Adeogun & Olisaemeka, 2011).

A strong culture assists new teachers in the process of becoming part of the culture (Grissom, 2008; Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, & Wahstrom, 2004). These cultural characteristics make educators better able to resolve conflicts and initiate greater capacity for innovation so that goals are more efficiently, effectively, and frequently met (Louis & Wahstrom, 2011). A strong culture, therefore, nurtures involvement, dedication, and commitment from educators in order to create an environment where they want to stay and remain committed to performing at a high level.

Hence, the principal’s influence on school culture affects teacher retention through the relationships with school staff and through honoring staff involvement in decisions about school structure and operation (Grissom, 2008; Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood, et al., 2004). In contrast, without a school culture that invites involvement, support, and commitment, teachers, especially
novice teachers, are likely to leave, due to their vulnerability and need for support and guidance (Adeogun & Olisaemeka, 2011; Boyd et al., 2011; McNulty & Fox, 2010). The needed support for these novice teachers can come from colleagues or administrators who are willing to share wisdom, time, and encouragement.

The perspective of novice teachers begins to form immediately when entering a new educational environment and includes how they perceive those in authority and those who nurture and direct them through their initial experiences, as well as how they perceive the school culture (Ladd, 2009; Nias, 1989). Specifically, principals are not just supervisors within the school, but are also the leaders looked to by new faculty to listen to them, assist them, and value them (Jiang & Chan, 2007; Ladd, 2009). The principal of the novice teacher is the central leader who sets the tone and culture of the school, serves as a role model to the new teacher, and shapes the professional image of the future for the beginning professional (Ladd, 2009). Principals’ involvement with new teachers, therefore, can be a significant factor in retaining new teachers and in inspiring the passion that keeps beginning teachers from dropping out (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

**Educational Leadership and Novice Teacher Retention**

Educational leadership philosophies vary. Burns (1978) distinguished between two leadership philosophies: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership creates clear structures supporting what is expected of followers and establishes a system of rewards or punishments. Transformational leadership works with the followers’ values and emotions in order to encourage the growth of individuals, thus facilitating the growth of the organization (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005). Another leadership approach is situational leadership, which includes both a directive dimension and a supportive dimension (Northouse, 2004). As leadership
decisions are made, both dimensions are considered appropriately. The result of this approach is that effective leaders recognize what employees need and adapt their own styles to meet their needs.

Principals’ leadership styles determine the values modeled within the school and influence how they support novice teachers (Jiang & Chan, 2007; Ladd, 2009). Their leadership styles shape how novice teachers view their professional future in a particular school setting and their decision regarding whether to remain in teaching or change their career (Jiang & Chan, 2007; Ladd, 2009). The importance of principals’ influence on the retention of novice teachers is reflected in the following quotation: “Great school leaders create nurturing school environments in which accomplished teaching can flourish and grow” (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003, p. 13).

Not only do principals have a significant impact on students, teachers, and the community as a whole, but they also affect the retention of novice teachers through fostering communication, allocating resources, and supporting instruction (Knapp, Copland, Plecki & Portin, 2006; Lee, Bryk & Smith, 1993; Leithwood, et al., 2004). Researchers such as Ingersoll (2003) and others discussed in Chapter 2 have studied how principals influence school culture, student achievement, and teacher retention. However, less is known about how principals themselves view their influence, particularly with regard to their role in teacher retention. The insider views of these professionals regarding their role in novice teacher retention can contribute to the profession’s understanding of how principals can support the growth of novice teachers and, hence, increase the likelihood of their remaining in the profession.
**Research Question**

Although retention of new teachers is a challenge facing all levels of schooling, the present study focused on new teacher retention in secondary schools and principals’ perceptions of their role in that process. The general research question was: “What are principals’ perceptions of their role in novice teacher retention?”

Several factors influenced the decision to focus on secondary-school principals’ perceptions regarding the retention of novice teachers. First, secondary-school principals’ efforts in recruiting teachers must recognize the content-area expertise required for secondary teachers, which is more subject-specific than the expertise required for elementary teachers. Secondly, due to the complexity of the developmental stages of secondary-school students, teachers must be able to shape a curriculum which responds to these multifaceted developmental needs (Caskey & Anfara, 2007). Thus, administrators must be cognizant of the views of both potential recruits and novice teachers regarding the developmental needs of secondary students. Finally, because secondary teachers, more often than elementary teachers, reported that administrators’ lack of support influenced them to leave the profession (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2007-2008), the perceptions of secondary-school administrators’ regarding their support of novice teachers would provide additional insight into the dynamics underlying the retention of novice secondary teachers.

Focusing on the perceptions of secondary-school principals regarding the retention of novice teachers also recognizes how the organization of the secondary school places demands on the recruiting process and the subsequent need to retain secondary-school teachers. Secondary-school organizations differ from elementary-school organizations. In contrast to elementary
schools which are organized primarily by grade level, secondary schools are organized by subject areas and then by grade level. As a result, secondary-school teacher shortages are reported according to content-area expertise rather than by grade level. For example, the Florida Department of Education’s *Critical Teacher Shortage Areas* report for 2011-2012 (2010) listed the critical teacher shortage areas as: “middle and high school level mathematics, science, English/language arts, reading, exceptional student education programs, English for speakers of other languages, foreign languages and technology education/industrial arts” (p. 9). According to the report, recruiting in these critical teacher shortage areas is more difficult than recruiting teachers for the elementary school because teachers certified in Elementary Education are “typically easier to find than teachers certified in critical teacher shortage areas” (p. 3). Further, elementary-school teacher certification, which requires a level of competence in all subject areas taught in the elementary school, permits the hiring of individuals who may fill positions at different elementary-school grade levels. In contrast, secondary-school teachers are hired for a narrower set of responsibilities, requiring specific knowledge and expertise. Principals’ staffing decisions can, therefore, be more challenging and retention more necessary.

**Site Selection and Specific Research Question**

The specific site for this study was the Duval County Public School District, located in Jacksonville, Florida. Duval County was a large urban school district witnessing high teacher turnover (Brooks, 2013) and containing a diverse culture, similar to the characteristics of other urban school districts in the United States. Therefore, the specific research question guiding this study was: “What are the perceptions of secondary-school principals in the Duval County Public School District regarding their role in retaining novice teachers?” How secondary-school principals in Duval County perceived their role in novice teacher retention may contribute to
understanding the perceptions of principals in other urban locations as they support the growth and development of beginning teachers in order to increase the likelihood that the latter will remain in teaching.

The knowledge sought in this study was how principals themselves perceived their role. As such, the purpose was to understand their views. Seeking such understanding is a process that values complexity and the voices of the participants. Therefore, a qualitative research approach was necessary (Eisner, 1998; Patton, 2002). Semi-structured, in-depth interviewing was appropriate as the research design for “we interview to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind, to gather their stories (Patton, 2002, p. 341). Interviewing participants revealed the details and particulars that reflected how principals perceived their role in retaining novice teachers. Thus, the research design for the present qualitative study was that of semi-structured, in-depth interviews.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies first in its focus on the need to retain novice teachers. In Florida, four out of 10 new teachers have been leaving their jobs within the first five years in the profession (Soergel, 2013). Duval County’s statistics have been higher, with five out of 10 new teachers leaving the classroom within the first five years of teaching (Soergel, 2013). This turnover or lack of retention can cause a “revolving door,” with large numbers of qualified teachers entering the classroom and then departing for reasons other than retirement (Ingersoll, 2003, p. 11; McNulty & Fox, 2010; Tye & O’Brien, 2002). Chronic attrition can create financial hardships for a school district when scarce resources must be diverted to recruiting, hiring, and training new hires (Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer (2007). Community costs are reflected in the schools when
beginning teachers leave the profession prior to reaching full development of their skills, which can result in the school staff not having the expertise that is necessary for supporting student learning over time (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Such attrition thus negatively influences student achievement, sometimes with long-term consequences in terms of fewer employment opportunities.

Secondly, the study’s focus on the role of secondary-school principals in teacher retention is significant because school leadership influences beginning teachers’ decision-making processes (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Schools’ stability is also affected when teachers leave because others with similar expertise must assume their responsibilities. In the present study, secondary-school principals offered insight into how they perceived their role in shaping the school environment and culture and how they perceived their relationships with novice teachers. Specifically, these principals’ perceptions contributed to understanding how they endeavor to support the professional growth of novice teachers and therefore their commitment to teaching as a career so the overall school culture would be enhanced. The perceptions of secondary-school principals in Duval County regarding their role in novice teacher retention, therefore, could likely relate to those of principals in other urban school districts.

**Theoretical Framework**

Several premises from the literature guided the identification of the research problem and the research question posed in the present study. As such, they formed the theoretical framework for the study. First, teachers, and, hence, teacher retention influence student achievement. In addition, both student achievement and teacher growth are long-term and complex processes. Thus, the elements of the framework upon which the study was based (see
Figure 2.1) include: the importance of teachers to student achievement, the theory proposed by Mead and Morris (1934) that the development of self is a long-term process, the research supporting how novice teachers grow professionally, and Ingersoll’s (2003) explanations regarding the conditions affecting teacher retention.

The first element of the theoretical framework is the premise that teachers are important to student achievement. Research has connected the quality of teachers to student success (e.g., Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). The second element is a theory regarding the development of the self (Mead & Morris, 1934) in which the self is viewed as “something which has a development; it is not initially there at birth but arises in the process of social experience and activity” (p. 135). Such a view regarding the development of the self can be applied to the process of novice teachers developing a sense of their identity as teachers. It is a process that takes place within the school culture which either encourages professional commitment to teaching as a career or discourages professional development. A third element emphasizes that one’s identity as a teacher and one’s commitment to teaching influence each other and take time to develop (Hong, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Nias, 1989). Ingersoll’s view (2003) of the revolving door with regard to teacher recruitment, teacher retention, and teacher attrition forms a fourth element in the theoretical framework. His study of the teacher shortage concluded that a scarcity within the supply and demand of professional teachers did not exist; rather, the failure to properly staff classrooms was due to the “revolving door” of teacher turnover (p. 11).
Theoretical Framework

Role of Principal in Teacher Retention (e.g., Clandinin, & Connelly; Fox, Deane, & Wilson)

Leadership Theories

- Role Theory, (e.g., Biddle)
- Transformational Theory, (e.g., Burns)
- Transactional Theory, (e.g., Burns)
- Situational Theory, (e.g., Northouse)
- Vision & Leadership, (e.g., Covey)

Contribute to Leadership Supporting

Teacher Growth

- Mead's Theory of Self

Teacher Retention

- Professional Growth Initiatives Indicates Value to Teacher (e.g., Masuda, Ebersole, & Barnett)
- (e.g., Ingersoll)

Teacher Influence on Student Achievement

(e.g., Darling-Hammond; Kennedy)
The Research Design and Methodology for the Study

School leadership influences beginning teachers’ decision-making processes (Grissom & Loeb, 2011), including their developing view of themselves as professionals and their commitment to the profession. Therefore, the focus of the present study was on understanding how secondary-school principals see their role in retaining novice teachers. In order to access their views, these principals must have an opportunity to share their perceptions. The in-depth, semi-structured interview process allowed the researcher to hear the personal stories of leadership affecting the principals’ interactions with novice teachers (Patton, 2002). This research approach offered the researcher the opportunity to “understand the world as seen by the respondents” (Patton, 2002, p. 21). When participants spoke freely regarding their perceptions of their efforts to retain novice teachers, they provided the rich data required for data analysis (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Data analysis then proceeded using Eisner’s educational criticism (1998), supported by Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis.

Limitations

Qualitative research, by definition, focuses on a particular setting and a particular context (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Hence, the present study focused on the perceptions of secondary-school principals in one school district, the Duval County Public School system. However, what was learned within this educational environment can be heuristic regarding the role of the secondary-school principal in retaining novice teachers. That is, in spite of the focus on one group of secondary-school leaders, the study may offer principals in other educational settings insight regarding how principals perceive their role in supporting novice teachers.
A second limitation recognizes that only those principals who volunteered participated in the interviews and thus shared their perceptions. However, their perceptions can inform the profession and contribute to the development of increased understanding regarding how secondary principals perceive their central role in retaining novice teachers.

**Summary**

This chapter has introduced the present study regarding the role of secondary-school principals in novice teacher retention by reviewing the ramifications of new teacher turnover and the importance of supportive leadership by the principal in the development of the novice educator as he or she makes the transition into the professional environment. In addition, the chapter offered justification for focusing on secondary-school principals’ perceptions of their role in supporting novice teachers. The research study provided insight into the field of teacher retention that may inform others who face similar challenges. The chapter also introduced the research design and methodology, along with a discussion of the limitations of the study.

The next chapter offers a review of the literature relevant to teacher retention: costs of teacher turnover, the importance of teachers to student success, the significance of professional development for teacher retention, the role of school culture in teacher retention, and the principal’s role in teacher retention. The next chapter also includes a discussion of the conceptual framework which guided the present study. Chapter 3 includes a description of the study’s research design, data collection procedures, and the approach used for data analysis. Chapter 4 explains the processes used in the analysis of the interview data collected from 15 secondary-level administrators, along with the results of such data analysis. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the present study, limitations of the present study, implications for educational
leadership drawn from data analysis, recommendations for future research, and conclusions regarding the role of secondary-school principals in retaining novice teachers.
Definitions of Terms

Several key terms are relevant to understanding the conduct of the present study. The following definitions provide readers with a frame of reference regarding how the terms were used in this context.

**Beginning or Novice Teacher:** a teacher entering teaching for the first time or a teacher with less than three (3) years of experience (20US§7801(3).

**Early Career Teacher Resilience:** a characteristic which enables teachers to persist in the face of challenges during their first five (5) years of teaching (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998).

**Leadership:** a process involving an individual influencing a group of individuals to accomplish a common goal (Northouse, 2004).

**Perception:** a process that “is more than seeing. Human perception derives not only from the evidence of the senses but also from the mental apparatus that serves to organize the incoming sense impressions” (Hamilton, 1994, p.63)

**Principal:** an educator who has the executive authority for a school.

**Professional Development:** a comprehensive, substantial and intensive approach to improving teachers’ and principals’ effectiveness in raising student achievement (Duval County Public Schools, 2015).

**Role:** the set of those behaviors characteristic of one or more persons in a context (Biddle, 1979).

**Role Ambiguity:** lack of a clear definition regarding role or position and expectations by those in authority (Grodzki, 2011).

**Role Conflict:** the difficulty of reconciling the expectations of a professional position and the realities of the job (Biddle, 1979).
Secondary School: the intermediate level between elementary school and college that usually offers general, technical, vocational or college preparatory curricula (U.S. Legal.com).

School climate or culture: the values, beliefs, norms, assumptions, behaviors, and relationships that characterize the daily rituals of school life (Johnson et al., 2012).

Teacher: a person who has been hired to instruct assigned students for educational purposes and who typically holds a bachelor’s degree and certification in an instructional area.

Teacher Induction Program: a program for new teachers to assist them in developing an understanding of their new schools, communities, and cultures (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

Teacher retention: the condition in which educators stay in their positions rather than leave.

Teacher retention rate: the rate at which personnel whose primary function is classroom teaching leave or separate from the district or change from their classroom teaching to another position from one school year to another, expressed as a percentage. This rate is determined by comparing the list of classroom teachers reported in the current year against the list of those reported in the previous year (Colorado Department of Education, 2014).
CHAPTER 2:

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

American education has touched the lives of the majority of citizens living in the United States. Most former students have good memories of a teacher who influenced their lives, learning, and dreams. Empowering students with skills and knowledge to assist them in their daily lives is part of the education necessary within our secondary-schools and is usually within the reach of each student, if offered by a teacher with whom they can communicate and a school culture which supports a sense of belonging (Johnson et al., 2012). Developing, nurturing and retaining teachers who inspire students and are within a culture which empowers both teachers and students are often the result of the framework set out by secondary-school principals (Johnson et al., 2012).

Thus, the purpose of this review of related literature is to explore the relationship between principals’ roles and teacher retention. In order to do so, the first topic in understanding the problem of teacher retention is to describe the importance of the teacher, coupled with describing the challenge of keeping quality educators in the schools and the many costs of teacher turnover. The literature review seeks to establish the importance of teachers’ growth within the educational profession and how professional development and workplace support enable novice teachers to mature and develop professionally; thereby enabling them to stay within the career they have chosen. Additionally, the literature review references the role of culture and the principal in teacher retention. Finally, this review examines theories that may
offer professional development opportunities within the educational system to strengthen the commitment of teachers to their profession.

Why is Retention a Problem?

American public schooling has continuously had the mission of excellent education. The success or failure of this mission can influence a community’s economic and social life, as well as the lives of individuals within that community. Quality teachers are essential to meeting the goals set for schooling in the United States. Indeed, both rhetoric and policy reference the importance of teachers in student learning. However, educational practice is not always matching rhetoric and policy.

Furthermore, developing and keeping quality teachers are not easy tasks. Even novice teachers who have completed teacher-education programs find the transition into teaching challenging (Day, Sammonds, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007). The challenges are likely greater when novice teachers have had less pre-service preparation than those who have completed formal programs, because classroom experiences are often a new professional experience (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Without developing classroom practice which includes the experience of building a relationship with the students, teaching can become difficult and even overwhelming. Therefore, part of the challenge of becoming a career teacher is developing a commitment to teaching and identifying oneself as a teacher. This view of self as an educational professional in meeting the needs of students enables the novice teacher to transition into professionalism when the interplay of daily challenges and inexperience becomes overpowering (Tigchelaar, Brouwer, & Korthagen, 2008). This emerging sense of being a teacher influences the choice of staying within the teaching profession (Chong, 2011).
Developing a commitment to education at the same time the teacher’s professional identification matures relates to the confidence which experience provides (Nias, 1989). This incorporation of being a teacher into one’s self-image may assist the novice educator in addressing the fears and uncertainty a new career offers (Nias, 1989). Although it is unclear whether one precedes the other, it is clear that identification of oneself as a teacher and commitment to teaching influence each other and take time in the profession to develop (Hong, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Nias, 1989). Additionally, researcher findings confirm that if novice teachers, who are just beginning in their profession, are not supported in their practice, they are more likely to leave the profession rather than continue their personal investment of time, emotion, and physical activity (Darling-Hammond, 2010; McNulty & Fox, 2010; Nias, 1989).

Such support must begin as soon as the novice teacher has entered the classroom (Boyd et al., 2011). However, teachers need support throughout their careers in order to grow in their practice and to maintain their commitment to the profession (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998; Fox, Deaney & Wilson, 2010). Nias’ qualitative study, involving interviews with teachers over several years, indicated that most teachers—novice, struggling, and expert—needed support in order to become and to remain highly qualified teachers (Nias, 1989). With the development and retention of highly qualified teachers, the goal of excellent education for all students is more likely to be reached.
**Importance of Teachers to Student Success**

Barnes, Crowe, and Schaefer (2007) studied the costs of teacher turnover and determined that teachers play a central role within the educational system and that teacher turnover has negative consequences with regard to student learning. Other research supports the conclusion that teachers are important to the lives of individual students and critical to their academic achievement (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003).

Not only does research support the importance of teachers for students’ academic achievement, but policy underscores the importance of qualified teachers in fostering student learning. A provision with the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) stated that in order to “ensure that all children have fair, equal and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education, and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments” (p. 2), children need to be taught by highly qualified teachers (p. 81). Because of such policy supporting the need for qualified teachers, researchers have focused on the characteristics of qualified teachers, such as age, personality, and education (Kennedy, 2010). From a research perspective, however, the quest to identify characteristics needed for a teacher to be considered highly qualified has been complex with mixed results (Klassen & Tze, 2014; Perry & Wise, 1990). Therefore, the task may not be one of finding highly qualified teachers, but rather the development of strong teachers within an infrastructure that can prepare teachers effectively and can support them long enough to master the knowledge and skills needed for quality teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2010).
Qualified Teachers and Career Retention

One approach to the challenge of providing highly qualified teachers for all students is retaining qualified teachers in the field so that their expertise will continue to be available and that they will continue to develop in the profession. Many researchers argue that the shortage of quality teachers is due in part to turnover or lack of retention that has caused a “revolving door” of large numbers of qualified teachers entering the classroom and then departing for reasons other than retirement (Ingersoll, 2003, p. 11). Teachers’ professional commitment contributes to their remaining in the profession. Consequently, the shaping of an individual’s personal and professional identification as a teacher is an important and crucial part of teacher retention research (Hong, 2010, Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Nias, 1989). The qualitative research of Britzman (1991) and Danielwicz (2011) that followed the early professional development of novice teachers supported the connection between the development of the self and the construction of one’s self-image as an educator.

This interaction of the development of the self and one’s professional identity occurs within a social environment. As early as 1934, Mead and Morris observed that “the self is something which has a development; it is not initially there at birth but arises in the process of social experience and activity” (p. 135). Therefore, the notion of commitment involves a teacher’s continuing professional evolution within a supportive environment and the resulting image of oneself as a teacher that enables the novice teacher to commit to teaching as a career (Lee, Zhang, & Yin, 2011). “Self” is crucial in constructing the way teachers interact with the environment and make judgments in a given context (Hong, 2010). Thus, as the self requires development over time, so does the professional development of the teacher. The process of
“becoming a teacher” can be described as a “vehicle,” which moves from initial appointment down the road of “acquiring skills and knowledge” to “performing teacher functions” (Ferguson & Johnson, 2010, p. 302). Through this entire journey, teachers develop their sense of self-identification and purpose (Mayer, 1999). The growth required in the process of becoming a teacher begins when new teachers explore innovative methods and materials, build relationships, and hone their teaching skills under careful supervision (Ferguson & Johnson, 2010; Wilson & Deaney, 2010). During this time of supervision, transformation, and individual definition, the educator’s self-image often reflects the views others have of him or her as a teacher, including the view the principal may have of the teacher (Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Danielwicz, 2011).

The image others have of the teacher results in the educator’s self-analysis or personal identification (Hong, 2010). When the teacher considers others’ views of himself or herself, their negative or positive insights often result in affecting his or her professional decision-making and job satisfaction. In other words, the way the educator perceives himself or herself as a professional influences his or her choice of action and judgment. Additional review of research indicates that teacher resilience was a product of individual attributes such as altruistic motives and high self-efficacy, along with protective factors from school administration (Beltman, Mansfield & Price, 2011).

One of the most important factors in teacher retention is administrative support, particularly as represented by principals’ ideas, ideals, and guidance. Principals’ advice is important to beginning teachers as they start their teaching career with the goal of becoming successful in their profession (Jiang & Chan, 2007). Ingersoll’s (2003) review of research regarding new teachers’ departure from education indicated that the principals’ involvement in
working, advising, and supporting new teachers was a significant factor in retaining new teachers and inspiring the passion that kept teachers from dropping out. The review also indicated that mentoring from fellow professionals was a significant factor in teacher retention. Seeing oneself through someone else’s eyes is also a major part of the novice teacher’s sense of self-worth and commitment (Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Johnson et al., 2012). Such commitment is evident in Hansen’s (2001) exploration of the “moral heart of teaching”; in his view, a teacher is a richer professional after realizing that emotions, imagination, and memories are not experienced in a vacuum and that a teacher’s thoughts, perceptions, feelings, and fears depend on social conditions.

In a study of the relationship between the novice teacher’s stress and identity, Burke (1991) reported that the process of self-verification and identity change occurred through a continuously operating and self-adjusting feedback loop, prompting continual behavior adjustment. Changes in professional identification often occurred as a result of supervisory evaluative judgments during observation. For example, classroom observations were required for novice teachers. Such observations reviewed the educators’ skills relating to classroom teaching, based on one classroom observation. The feedback given to the novice teacher influenced the novice educator’s view of self. Further, the comments of colleagues who provided input that were not congruent with the self-identification standard held by the teacher further influenced the educator’s view of self. As the self-adjusting feedback loop process continued, it guided the teacher in decision making regarding whether he or she could become a great, experienced, and competent educator or whether he or she should leave the profession.

Nias’ qualitative research (1989) regarding the influence of co-workers’ views on the novice teacher concluded that, as commitment and self-verification take place, the beginning
teacher determines whether to work closely with other professionals whose educational goals or views differ from the views he or she holds or decides to leave the profession due to the differences in views. A contradiction between colleagues’ actions and the beginning teacher’s self-image creates an uncomfortable dissonance, making the novice teacher acutely aware of the significance of his or her professional climate. This dissonance affects the teacher’s level of professional satisfaction, as is seen in a qualitative study by McNulty and Fox (2010). They observed and interviewed a novice teacher through her first professional year in education and concluded that the novice teacher’s self-identification, formed within the professional climate, was important to the novice educator during contemplation of whether or not to continue teaching.

The interrelationship between commitment and identification as a teacher can be seen in the widely accepted belief that self-concept is formed and articulated through both personal and social identification (Howard, 2000; Leary & Tagney 2003; Oyserman, 2001). Indeed, during the first professional years, teachers are learning skills and growing within their professional experience; this process then leads to becoming a more mature and more competent teacher (Nias, 1989). In their study of novice teachers in North Carolina public schools, researchers found that across grade levels, teachers’ effectiveness increased significantly by their second year of teaching (Henry, Bastian, & Fortner, 2011). Yet, during the first year of teaching, a high rate of teacher turnover can become evident (Ingersoll, 2003).

Therefore, during this important time that new teachers are developing and improving, they leave (Ingersoll, 2003). This process results in fewer teachers having the time to develop the quality skills which then leads to fewer students having the opportunity to learn from an experienced, highly qualified educator (Ferguson & Johnson, 2010). High rates of teacher
turnover likely mean greater school instability, disruption of curricular cohesiveness, and a continued need to hire inexperienced teachers, who are less effective (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

**Reasons for Studying Teacher Retention**

The loss of good teachers affects the school and the community in many ways. With budget and taxes a concern for every taxpayer, financial costs are important to consider. In their analysis of school data regarding teacher attrition and teacher recruitment, Barnes, Crowe and Schaefer (2007) estimated the cost to a school district of the loss of one teacher as “$8,000 to $13,650 per leaver” (p. 89). Chronic attrition created financial hardships because scarce financial resources were diverted to recruiting, hiring, and training new hires (Barnes, Crowe & Schaefer (2007). However, the financial costs did not end with the employer; there were also long-term financial costs within the community (Amos, 2013). Such as the student achievement costs.

Given that one of the most dominant factors affecting student achievement is the effect of the teacher (Sanders & Rivers, 1996), the ultimate consequence of novice teachers leaving schools is the lack of development in teachers’ competence and thus students’ lack of educational engagement, which, in turn, would influence students’ decision to discontinue educational experience prior to graduation (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2010). Analysis of student scores on state-level achievement tests have also indicated that teachers leaving the profession prior to reaching full development of their skills resulted in professional performance that was less mature, resulting in students’ instructional losses (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). The National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (2002) explained: “The most serious long-term consequence of high teacher turnover is the erosion of teaching quality and student achievement” (p. 13). The long-term consequence of teacher turnover could thus
be compromises in the quality of instruction in our nation’s schools (Education Commission of the States, 2005, p. 42).

Further, the connection between continuing teacher turnover and student drop-out rates was supported by a survey of high school dropouts (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006). High-school students reported that they felt that no one even noticed if they were there, a perspective that underscores the importance of the relationship between student and teacher and the potential impact of the loss of that rapport on their decision to drop out of school. Thus, when teachers leave prematurely, their connections with students are lost, and their students may be vulnerable to dropping out of school. Subsequently, that decision also can financially affect the community in which the drop-out lives.

As a case in point, the Alliance for Excellent Education (2010) estimated the costs of 600,000 high-school students dropping out of the 2008 graduating class. Costs to the community were connected to the costs of dropping out of school experienced by individual students. Expenses associated with dropping out of school included limited job prospects for the students and, thus, lower incomes which, in turn, contributed less to the community in terms of the amount of taxes they paid and their purchasing power. The Alliance estimated that the combined economic effect on communities was in the billions of dollars.

Teacher turnover affects other staff members as well as students. Working with others and establishing relationships with other teachers as well as with students build strength within the profession (Shernoff et al., 2011). When a teacher leaves, the loss of these emotional ties is felt throughout the school and the profession (Louis & Wahstrom, 2011).

The need for teacher retention thus parallels concerns in private business and in the public sector where retention of employees is critical to the success of any entity’s mission.
(Stillman, 1996). Indeed, the Society of Human Resources argued that keeping good employees is essential to organizational success in order to keep company history and vision within ranks (Bruce & Pepitone, 1999).

**Professional Development**

Because the impact of teacher turnover is a major concern, many initiatives have been developed that may positively influence novice teachers to remain in teaching. In a qualitative interview study regarding teachers’ attitudes toward professional development, teachers described the importance of professional growth to support their development and considered institutional efforts to invest resources in their professional growth as an indication of their value to the organization (Masuda, Ebersole, & Barrett, 2012). Professional development was so important that the 1995 *School Community Professional Development Act* (Section 1, chapter 95-236 *Laws of Florida, 1995*) required school districts to develop a professional development process in conjunction with teachers, state universities, community college faculty, business representatives, and the community. The Duval County School District focused on professional development by establishing a comprehensive plan, including both induction and mentoring programs for novice teachers (Duval County Public Schools, 2014, 2015). The decision to clarify the necessity and authority of professional development is important in the public school system for consistency of learning matter (Marion, 2002; Weber, 1964). The literature included discussion of three types of professional development provided for the novice teacher: induction, mentoring, and professional learning communities.

**Induction and Professional Development Programs**

For novice teachers to develop a professional self-image, an essential factor in retention, they need a positive comfort level within the school culture (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002).
One of the efforts made to encourage new teachers to feel comfortable in their new professional environment is the induction program. The purpose of induction programs has been to offer support, guidance, and orientation for new teachers in an effort to increase the probability that teachers will remain in the profession and, thereby, to support learning and achievement (Hoover, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

The goal of induction programs is to create self-confidence and satisfaction within the novice teacher through the teamwork and assistance of fellow teachers. This effort to strengthen the beginning teacher’s link to his or her school, administration, and staff is designed to increase job satisfaction in support of the retention of new teachers (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Ingersoll and Smith (2004) studied the relationship between novice teachers receiving the support of induction and mentoring and their decision to leave. Regression analysis indicated that the teachers receiving these supports in their first year were less likely to leave the profession.

States, counties, and municipalities have developed multiple forms of induction programs. Variation among these programs may depend on many components such as budgetary constraints, commitment of the leaders to the importance of the program, and availability of the necessary facilities (Wilkins & Clift, 2006). Induction programs are an effort to help new teachers feel at home in their new role and to assist them in developing a positive professional self-image, but they are as varied as school districts (Ingersoll & Smith 2004). However, many programs focus on informing new teachers about policies, fulfilling legal notifications required of administration, and completing mandatory paperwork.

Beyond induction programs are other professional development programs. Qualitative research including interviews with 16 educators (Masuda, Ebersole, & Barrett, 2012) indicated
that professional development is particularly important to new hires because such experiences can expand horizons, build confidence, and promote a sense of inclusiveness. Consequently, in an effort to keep teachers’ energies channeled, mentally stimulated, and engaged, many school leaders offer teachers opportunities to attend workshops, seminars, and college classes to enhance knowledge, confidence, and competencies (Doan & Peters, 2009). As teachers become more experienced, in-service opportunities allow them to periodically upgrade skills and knowledge and expand educational development during employment (Masuda, Ebersole, & Barrett, 2012). Thus, professional development programs are often conceived as bridges, enabling the novice teacher who has been a “student of teaching” to become a “teacher of students” (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004, p. 29).

**Mentoring**

One of the most common ways to retain teachers is through mentoring programs. Mentoring, a form of sharing power and responsibility, can provide support for new teachers (Angelle, 2009). Ingersoll and Smith (2004) studied the data from the National Center for Education Statistics’ Schools and Staffing Survey and found that those new teachers who received support and guidance through mentors from the same field, coupled with receipt of multiple induction components, were less likely to leave teaching or to change schools.

The mentoring programs studied were diverse in their procedures, but most included the assignment of an experienced teacher to guide the novice teacher throughout either a portion or all of his or her first school year (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). The mentor provided support, advice, and technical assistance to the beginning educator. Many programs also expanded the assignment of a mentor to also include team support such as an assessment team made up of the
principal and a designee. Each team member visited the teacher’s classroom to collect data for recommendations for improvement of the novice teacher’s performance.

Other mentoring approaches described in the literature include regular meetings with teachers in the same subject area and instructional feedback from the mentor or mentors (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Darling-Hammond and Sykes (2003) studied the need for quality teachers required by the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) in terms of the supply of qualified teachers which, in turn, requires retention of novice teachers. Among their findings was that well-designed mentoring programs raised retention rates for new teachers. The assignment of a teacher or administrator to assist a new teacher helped novice educators remain satisfied in their profession through the building of a relationship or friendship which, in turn, gave them support, improved attitudes, feelings of efficacy, and improved instructional skills (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Vanderslice, 2010). Therefore, when teachers support each other through collaboration, professional growth of the novice teacher results (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, Powers, & Killion, 2010).

The use of mentoring programs is supported by motivational theories. Veenman (1984) defined this practice as a socialization approach focused on the interplay between individuals’ needs, capabilities, and intentions. The enhancement of relationships between the early career teachers and colleagues promotes a sense of belonging, acceptance, and well-being which encourages resilience (Johnson et al., 2012). The mentoring program, which encourages teachers to work together rather than in isolation, can allow analysis of professional actions with the effort to improve teachers’ knowledge, classroom skills, and confidence, which, in turn, can improve professional longevity (Lunenburg, 2011). As a result, social and professional support can help novice teachers feel respected, can help them acquire new skills,
can assist them in finding new resources, and can provide opportunities for new perspectives on work-related issues (Cohen & Willis, 1985; Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006).

Team efforts toward the development of the novice professional promote relationships within a larger group who share responsibilities for helping the novice teacher and offer that teacher several individuals from whom to seek help (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Johnson, et al, 2012). These mentors assist the novice educator in understanding the importance of mutual respect and trust in facing challenges and conflicts. The establishment of a team to assist the new teacher through a mentoring program provides a connection within the working environment. The more connected teachers are to their schools, the more satisfied they tend to be. Satisfied teachers lead to greater job satisfaction and less teacher turnover (Darling-Hammond, 2003). And, teamwork promotes growth in the higher order need of self-fulfillment (Johnson et al., 2012).

In summary, the successful mentoring program is individualized in order to meet the needs of the teacher, the needs of the classroom, and the requirements for teaching a particular subject at a particular level. It provides ongoing assistance and guidance from an expert or experts in the field or fields in which the novice educator teaches. The program must provide support for the development of knowledge and skills, opportunities for reflection, and acculturation or socialization of the new teacher into the profession and school (Fidelar & Haselkorn, 1999). Having a mentor in the same field, having common planning time with other teachers in the same subject, having regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers, and being part of an external network of teachers are the types of support that have the strongest positive association with retention in the teaching profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).
Professional Learning Communities (PLCs)

In addition to mentorship, professional learning communities can assist the new teacher in learning from colleagues (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Research has provided evidence that collaboration, when associated with a professional community of teachers, is a key element of successful schools (Little, 1982). The PLC is an ongoing process which enables educators to work collaboratively to assist in improving student achievement; it can include collective inquiry and research regarding actions taken or actions planned (DuFour, R., DuFour, R. B., Eaker, & Many, 2010). Collaboration among members of the PLC includes a process of working together to analyze interdependently the impact of professional practices so that student learning can be improved. In so doing, teachers assume roles in leading their peers and in providing both skill development and discussion opportunities, which in turn develop professional confidence (Wilhelm, 2010).

The Principal’s Role in Teacher Retention

The “revolving door” (Ingersoll, 2003, p. 11) of new teachers entering the profession and then leaving within the first five years of their careers, is influenced by many factors, including the role of principals in the school (Connolly, 2000; Danielson, 2002; National Commission on Teaching and America’s future, 2003). Specifically, several qualitative studies including interviews with educators regarding teacher retention have provided evidence that new teachers perceive inadequate support from the principal. These perceptions indicated the importance of the principal in retaining teachers (Brown & Wynn, 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 1998; Fox, Deaney, & Wilson, 2010).

Many researchers have concluded that the principal is a key player in school effectiveness and school improvement (Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson & Wahstrom, 2004).
Even though teacher retention is important to the principal, it is not all he or she has to handle. The complex work of the school principal has been described as overwhelming. Kise and Russell (2009) researched the principal’s roles and reported 26 separate leadership roles which had an impact on student achievement. The demands on school principals include: the development of school climate (Hall & Mani, 1989); general management related to the school (Chance & Lingren, 1989); budgetary and finance duties (Creighton, 1997); board and community public relations (Stronge & Tucker, 1995); curriculum and instructional leadership (Couch, 1991); staff evaluation, hiring, and personnel issues (Stronge, 1995); monitoring student discipline (Casey, 1992); and overseeing the use of technology (Cordeiro & Campbell, 1996). Ediger (2009) summarized the challenges facing today’s school principals when he noted that they face a “plethora” of duties and responsibilities (p. 574).

In addition, current federal, state, and local school accountability measures have placed increasing demands on principals (Grubb & Flessa, 2006). These demands place principals between the organizational needs that come from above and below, resulting in “leading from the middle” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). For instance, the involuntary transfer of teachers implemented at the district level may be contrary to the needs of the school (Hannay & Chism, 1988).

As a result, the changing roles of the principal have resulted in a conflict between the historical focus of the principal on instructional leadership and the administration of the functional, programmatic, interpersonal, and contextual aspects of school operations (Cordeiro & Campbell, 1996). One recommendation is for principals to delegate duties to others at the school in an effort to relieve themselves of some responsibilities (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).
Nevertheless, study of the principal’s leadership within the school community, as well as with the broader community, revealed an impact on the academic outcomes of students because of the views others had of the principal’s role (Khalifa, 2012). An empirical study (Brown & Wynn, 2007) of the principal’s role through semi-structured interviews with principals, as well as through focus group interviews at 12 schools, indicated that one of the most important factors to teachers was the leadership and guidance of the principal. Additionally, researchers who studied North Carolina schools found that teachers’ perceptions of school leadership, as measured through school-level averages of responses to school climate surveys, were predictive of teachers’ intentions to remain in the school or to find alternative jobs (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2004). Promoting the learning and success of all students through leadership, which focuses on the learning and development of teachers, reflects an important and major responsibility of principals and should be a major priority among his or her many roles (Khalifa, 2012; Lunenburg, 2011; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

**Instructional Leadership**

Historically, the principal was seen as the “principal teacher” (Hoerr, 2008, pp. 84-85). The assumption behind the title was that the principal had more skill and knowledge than anyone in the building and would guide others regarding how to teach. The current expectation for the principal is that of the “Chief Learning Officer,” an individual who is responsible for developing and supporting a school culture focused on teaching and learning (Green, 2010). Instructional leaders, therefore, must be prepared to focus time, attention, and effort on changing what students are taught, how they are taught, and what they are learning (Bottoms & O’Neil, 2001).
The National Association of Elementary School Principals has stated that principals can no longer simply be administrators and managers. They must be instructional leaders focused on improving student achievement (Florida Department of Education, 2011, p.2). The 2011 Principal Leadership Standards issued by the Florida Department of Education focus on instructional leadership, with expectations of continuous school improvement and student achievement. Numerous professional organizations stress the importance of instructional leadership; the Educational Leadership Constituents Council, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, and the National Association of Elementary School Principals all specify a standard for principals with regard to instructional leadership (Florida Department of Education, 2011). The U.S. Department of Education also recognized the importance of the principal as instructional leader in a National Principals’ Leadership Summit in Washington, DC (Chang, 2000).

**The Principal’s Role in Building Relationships**

The school is a “place of relationships” (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998 p. 161). In addition, as an organization, it is “nothing more or less than a relationship with a purpose” (Covey, 2004, p. 99). This perspective emphasizes the need for communication between teachers and administrators, as well as between teachers and other teachers (Orions & Bergerson, 2014). Lack of communication, competition, and fear can also be found within schools that can create an “un-team” (Dolan, 1994, p. 34). Therefore, good principals are important to building relationships among good teachers and students (Samuels, 2011).

A large research base has documented the influence of principals on motivating teachers and students, on identifying and articulating vision and goals, on sharing high performance expectations, on fostering communication, on allocating resources, and on developing
organizational structures to support instruction and learning (Knapp, Copland, Plecki, & Portin, 2006; Lee, Bryk, & Smith, 1993; Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, & Wahstrom, 2004). Researchers have also found a significant relationship between working conditions and teacher morale and retention decisions by teachers, even after controlling for teacher demographics, the academic backgrounds of teachers, teachers’ financial backgrounds, and class size (Boyd et al., 2011; Ingersoll, 2003).

In summary, the principal’s guidance, support, and leadership are important in the development and retention of teachers in the profession (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998; Fox, Deaney, & Wilson, 2010). The principal’s role is vital as the teachers form their perceptions regarding faculty’s influence on school policy, the effectiveness of the school administration, staff relations, student behavior, facilities, and safety. How teachers influence the decision-making process directly communicates to them whether the principal considers their input as important in the school culture. As an example, Liu and Johnson (2002), recommended the inclusion of teachers within the hiring process of new teachers. This involvement indicates their value within the school organization, as well as begins to establish an association between experienced teachers and novice teachers (Spillane & Camburn, 2006). Thus, the educator’s role in the system can shape teacher decisions to remain in teaching (Boyd et al., 2011).

**The Principal and Culture**

School culture matters to students, teachers, administrators, and the community. School culture can be defined as the aggregate of a school’s characteristics, such as relationships among parents, teachers, administrators, and students (Adeogun & Olisaemeka, 2011). Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) defined culture as “a set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people . . . defined by their centers of shared values . . . which are deeply held
and elicit strong feelings of loyalty and affection” (p. 342). A direct relationship exists between the school climate or culture and students’ academic performance, according to research done by Wiggins (2011) which included observation and interviews with teachers.

A good school culture focuses on open communication and common goals that affect teachers’ abilities to teach their students, that encourage parental involvement, that support school-home relationships, and that keep students’ best academic performance in the forefront (Adeogun, Olisaemeka, & McCollough, 2011). Further, an effective school culture exhibits key values: collaboration among teachers, administrators, and parents; transparency of decision making; equity without favoritism among staff; distributive leadership; respectful problem solving; and focus on teaching and learning (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, Powers, & Killion, 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Wiggins, 2011). These features result in teachers rarely working in isolation, thereby sharing knowledge in an commitment to the “fullest and clearest understanding of what he or she is studying” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 75) and furthering the effort to do what is in the best educational interests of the children (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

School culture values faculty knowledge and passion. Organizations with stronger cultures are also more adaptable, have higher membership motivation and commitment, and, thus, result in a more cooperative organization (Louis & Walstrom, 2011). Because these cultural characteristics make educational professionals better able to resolve conflicts and develop capacity for innovation, they are more effective in achieving their goals (Louis & Wahstrom, 2011).

Although school culture affects all who operate within the school, it is particularly important to novice teachers and their enculturation into the profession. School culture
influences the novice teacher’s professional commitment and professional growth, which ease
the new professional’s transition into the educational setting (Boms, 2010; Kardos, Johnson,
Peske, Kauffman, & Liu, 2001; Reeves, Emerick, & Hirsch, 2007). As part of the instructional
staff, new teachers are part of the school’s heart and soul because they realize the vision of the
school every day with their students (Kahrs, 2011).

Because new teachers become part of the school’s culture, their possible early departure
can affect the school’s culture and educational process (Louis & Wahstrom, 2011). When a
teacher decides to leave the profession after collaborating with colleagues and connecting with
the community and school, they leave a hole in the culture. Consequently, the school’s culture
and instructional effectiveness are damaged with the loss of each teacher and his or her
interaction within the school and with the community. The damage from the loss of a new
teacher underscores the importance of the principal’s role as culture creator, because a strong
school culture must be initiated, led, and daily supported by the principal (Brinson & Steiner,
2007).

**Conceptual Framework**

Elements from the review of literature shaped the conceptual framework for this study
which is reflected in Figure 1 (see figure). The relationships found among these components
shaped the research design for this study.

Essential to the study of the principal’s role in teacher retention is the importance of
teachers in fostering student achievement, supported by evidence from the literature review. The
literature reflected teachers’ connection to their faculty and to the school culture and thus
teachers’ influence on student achievement. Because of the teacher’s importance, teacher
retention is also important. The need for teacher retention is supported by the literature which
describes the costs and benefits associated with attrition. The costs from teacher attrition include financial costs and the outlay of additional employee time due to additional teacher recruitment. Negative effects include faculty instability and lower faculty and student morale, with impact on school culture. Further, the biggest cost is that student achievement also suffers.

Although these costs can be mitigated by out-of-school initiatives to address attrition, such as targeted recruitment initiatives and specialized benefits programs, the principal is in a position to influence those factors that contribute to teacher retention that, in turn, benefit school culture and, ultimately, student achievement. The principal influences all efforts within the school to support teacher retention, particularly the school culture that shapes the conditions.

Yet, often principals have little time to accommodate new teacher’s needs because most of their time is focused on immediate school problems that must be addressed quickly. The realities of everyday life for most principals mean that crisis management leaves little, if any, time for mentoring novice teachers. But, the principal is in a position to improve the professional growth of the novice teacher, even if his or her duties are overwhelming.
Figure 1- Conceptual Framework

Importance of the Teacher

Need for Teacher Retention

Benefits of Teacher Retention
- Curricular Cohesiveness
- Stability of Faculty
- Professional Development of Faculty
- Support of Student Achievement

Costs Due to Teacher Attrition
- Additional Teacher Recruitment
- Faculty Instability
- Lower Student Achievement

Out of School Initiatives to Address Attrition
- Programs and Initiatives
- Prevention of Turnover

Program Initiatives
- Mentoring
- Professional Development
- PLCs

Principal Roles to Address Retention

School Culture
- Teachers
- Community
- Students
affecting teacher retention. Program initiatives within the school and under the influence of the principal include mentoring, professional development, and professional learning communities, all of which are likely to contribute to teacher retention.

Benefits of teacher retention include four components: curricular cohesiveness, stability of faculty, continued professional development of teachers, and increased support of student achievement. The advantages of teacher retention involve increased opportunity for collaboration among faculty members, which results in teamwork focused on instructional planning, the development of faculty expertise, and commitment to the profession, which all support student learning.

The principals’ perceptions revealed in the present study acknowledged efforts to retain teachers such as mentoring and professional learning communities. However, these principals saw their role in teacher retention as delegating to staff the responsibility of overseeing novice teachers’ professional development through employing a transactional leadership style. Although this approach is commensurate with district procedures established for novice teacher development, it does not provide the principal support needed by novice teachers for them to develop a commitment to stay in the teaching profession.

**Chapter Summary**

New teachers face many challenges during their beginning years in the profession. First, they must adjust to a new work environment, familiarize themselves with new people, interact with new students and parents, resolve a variety of conflicts, and design intellectually engaging curricula, often with very few resources. These tasks can be overwhelming, confusing, and discouraging. Without the assistance of colleagues and the principal, the likelihood of new teachers leaving the profession is high (Cross, 2011).
The professional development of the novice educator and the choice to stay or leave the teaching profession are often related to the principal’s involvement (Colley, 2002). Indeed, many novice teachers look to the principal to identify their strengths and areas for improvement and to provide support to address those needs (Connolly, 2000).

Chapter 3 focuses on the qualitative research design for this study regarding principals’ perceptions of their role in teacher retention and the rationale for using such a research design. It also includes description of the selection of the research site and the participants, the role of the researcher as tool in the research process, the methodology for data collection, the overall approach to data analysis used in the present study, and the strategies used to support the credibility of the study.
CHAPTER 3: STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The review of the literature in Chapter 2 indicated that teachers are important to student success and that teacher turnover involves financial costs to school districts, as well as costs in terms of student achievement. Additionally, turnover also impacts the development of quality teachers within a school culture of support and professional growth (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2010; Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; Education Commission of the States, 2005). Although research has explored teacher turnover with regard to costs, reasons for teachers leaving, and statistics concerning teachers’ personality traits and school location, additional knowledge was needed regarding the principals’ view of their role in teacher retention in order to understand the importance of their actions in support of novice teachers. This chapter includes a description of the research design and methodology followed in order to answer the research question: What are the perceptions of secondary-school principals in the Duval County Public School District regarding their role in retaining novice teachers?

Research Design

The choice of using qualitative research to address the research question for the present study was based on characteristics of the knowledge sought: the focus on understanding the phenomenon of interest, the need for specifics regarding the knowledge sought, the importance of the voice of the participants, and the complexity inherent in people’s perceptions of their worlds (Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002). Qualitative research enabled the researcher both to seek the knowledge of understanding regarding participants’ perceptions of their world and how situations occurred (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002) and to
concentrate on in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of interest as it had occurred within a natural setting embodying complexity (Merriam, 1998). The research approach to gain the insight desired was the semi-structured interview, which gave the principals an opportunity to describe their experiences with novice teachers, both the cognitive and affective aspects of their human and professional interactions, and to share how they viewed their impact on teacher turnover (Coulter & Smith, 2009; Merriam, 1998). Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were appropriate because we cannot “observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions” (Patton, 2002, p. 341); therefore, we must ask people questions. Thus, the semi-structured interview allowed the perspective of the principals to be the phenomenon under study.

The interview questions served as the means to open up “conversations with a purpose” (Patton, 2002, p. 149), that is, to provide the starting points for examining the phenomenon of interest. The development of interview questions began with the content generated from Chapter 2. For example, questions focused directly on specific ways principals interact and support novice teachers. Further, principals were asked to describe programs and approaches within the district that were designed to support and thus retain novice teachers. In addition, development of the interview questions included principals’ descriptions of their own professional backgrounds, their leadership styles, and how they viewed their professional responsibilities regarding the professional development of novice teachers. Further, recommendations of Patton (2002) and Kvale (1996) regarding types of questions for the semi-structured, in-depth interview influenced the development of the interview protocol.

The interview questions were sequenced in order to facilitate the interview process as a whole. The first group of questions introduced the reflective process by having the principals recount their own initial teaching experiences. The second group of questions focused on how
principals saw their role in general. The responses here established a framework for the third group of questions that explicitly focused on how the principals perceived their role in novice teacher retention.

**Researcher as Tool**

The research described was carried out through the filter of the researcher (Eisner, 1998; Summers, 2008). Therefore, my knowledge and experience as a teacher, former manager, and human resource professional influenced this research project. This influence occurred first in the identification of the research question. Indeed, good research questions come from a researcher’s values, passions, and preoccupations (Russell & Kelly, 2002). Further, my experience as a teacher, human resource professional, and a manager influenced the design of the study, data collection, and data analysis.

As a human resource professional, I often saw and experienced first-hand the effect on staff when knowledgeable professionals left, and those left behind had to realign responsibilities and perspectives, both professionally and emotionally. These experiences provided motivation for this research study because stakeholders were often unclear about how to help develop individual morale as well as how to assist the organization in keeping good people. Additionally, as a teacher, my experience in education increased my awareness of the challenges teachers, students, and administrators face as they conduct their professional responsibilities. Remembering my first years as a teacher and a potential candidate for leaving the profession also provided understanding of the importance of a colleague who mentored, guided, and encouraged me and the effect she had on my professional life.

This motivation provoked contemplation regarding what school leaders do to foster the professional development and commitment of novice teachers and, thereby, to ensure their
retention. Marshall and Rossman (2011) described the importance of the researcher’s engagement in a topic as the “want-to-do-ability” (p. 11) of a research project. In addition, my experiences as a novice teacher and later as a more experienced educator provided “ability to make fine-grained discriminations among complex and subtle qualities,” a “connoisseurship” (Eisner, 1998, pp. 63-64) with regard to the need for teacher retention. Connoisseurship was also a tool the researcher used when assigning meaning to perspectives and situations revealed in the data. Indeed, given that qualitative research is interpretative in nature (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), connoisseurship facilitated better understanding of complex phenomena because it used both the researcher’s own experiences and knowledge (Eisner, 1998). At the same time, awareness of these professional experiences enabled me to seek neutrality within the research process, but without detachment, which is also characteristic of qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002).

**Site Selection and Participant Selection**

First, key criteria for site selection relevant to this study were established (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002). One requirement for site selection was to identify a school district which faced the challenges of retaining new teachers. The Duval County School District in Jacksonville, Florida, is a large urban district witnessing high turnover of novice teachers (Brooks, 2013) and containing a population which reflects racial, cultural, and income diversity. According to the literature, such locations face some of the highest challenges in teacher retention (Freedman & Appleman, 2008).

Nationally, Duval County was the 17th largest school district (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Further, Jacksonville was the largest city geographically by area in the contiguous United States. Due to the population size of Jacksonville and the presence of two
military bases, the district enrolled a large and diverse population of approximately 125,000 students and employed 8,284 teachers (http://www.duvalschools.org, February 28, 2017). As a large, urban school district, the district operated with a budget of over a billion dollars. The district included 19 high schools, with approximately 30,455 students, and 24 middle schools with approximately 21,138 students. According to the district’s website, The Washington Post has reported that Duval County was home to 8 of the nation’s top 300 high schools, and Newsweek has named 3 of the high schools as best in the nation.

However, the Florida Times Union newspaper reported: “About half of the first-year teachers that Duval County Public Schools recruits are gone within five years” (Brooks, 2013, pp. B1, B3). Thus, the Duval County School District satisfied the criterion for selecting a large urban school district that faced a high attrition rate among its novice teachers.

Principals face the challenges of retaining new teachers at the school level. Although the job description for a principal in Duval County listed many responsibilities (G. Collins, personal communication, January 28, 2015), the first duty listed was: “leads, directs, and manages school operations: recruits, selects, orients, trains, coaches, counsels, and disciplines staff” (p. 1). This task thus was a high priority among the principal’s many tasks. Therefore, Duval County was an appropriate site for data collection, not only due to its size, diversity, and turnover rates but also because the principal was seen as important in the tasks of recruiting new teachers, facilitating teachers’ professional development, and thereby retaining teachers.

In order to hear principals’ perceptions regarding their role in novice teacher retention, semi-structured interviews were conducted with all secondary-school principals who volunteered to participate. Recruiting participants began upon receiving approval to conduct the study from both the Assistant Superintendent of Accountability and Assessment for the Duval County Public
Schools and the Institutional Review Board at the University of North Florida (see Appendix A for copies of these approvals). In June, 2015, an email was sent to all secondary-school principals in Duval County to invite them to participate in the study (see Appendix B for a copy of the invitation), followed by telephone calls to individual principals. Even though assistant principals were not directly invited to participate, two principals referred their invitations to assistant principals who agreed to participate. Recruiting resulted in the inclusion of 15 participants, 13 principals and 2 assistant principals. The participants included 6 males and 9 females. The racial composition included 3 African Americans, 11 Whites, and 1 of unknown racial identity.¹

The Informed Consent document was sent to potential participants along with the invitation to participate in the study (see Appendix C for a copy of the Informed Consent document). The educational researcher has a responsibility to make sure no participant is harmed through the researcher’s actions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This document assured participants that participation in the study was voluntary, that they were able to withdraw from the study at any time, that their identities would remain confidential, that data would be stored on a password-protected secure server, that no risks were foreseen for participation, that only the researcher and the research advisor would have access to the data, and that the profession would benefit from their participation in increasing knowledge about secondary-school principals’ role in novice teacher retention. In addition, both the researcher’s contact information and that of the research advisor were provided so that potential participants were able to obtain additional information.

¹ Specific demographic information was not formally collected from the participants.
**Data Collection**

The interview process is by design, a planned questioning and listening encounter intended to enable interviewees to share their experiences, understanding, and viewpoints. In the present study, it provided valuable information that reflected the perceptions of principals through responses to specific interview questions (Kvale, 1996; Patton, 2002). The data collected for this qualitative study were the in-depth responses to open-ended questions eliciting principals’ opinions and values, experiences, feelings, knowledge, and assessments (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Patton, 2002) during the interview process.

The most important part of the interviewing process concerns the interviewer listening, respecting, and valuing the views of participants in order to encourage the sharing of data within the context of conversations, revealing what is in and on their minds (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002). Indeed, the structure of the semi-structured interviews enabled participants to respond with an expression of their own personal views that captured the complexities of their individual perspectives and experiences, as well as their terminology and judgments (Patton, 2002).

Data were collected during June, July, and August of 2015, when the work load of school administrators was less demanding. When an administrator volunteered to participate, I scheduled a time for an interview at his or her earliest convenience and at an appropriate location, which was usually his or her office during the workday. At the beginning of each interview session, I reviewed the Informed Consent Document which they had received, responded to any questions the participant might have, and obtained written consent to conduct the interview. At the close of the each interview, I offered each participant an opportunity to
review and edit the interview transcript. All of the participants declined the opportunity due to their professional time constraints.

Most interviews took place with few interruptions. All but two of the interviews were audiotaped in digital format using two recorders. The interviews lasted at least an hour and a half each, except for two briefer interviews which were not audiotaped. These two participants did not wish to be tape-recorded, but they were willing to have their responses recorded via shorthand.² The verbatim shorthand notes from the two interviews were recorded and later transcribed accordingly. Additional informal observational notes recorded using shorthand during all of the interviews described gestures or other body language and aided the researcher during the transcription process to recall specific language used by the participants. These notes were enhanced after the interviews to describe nonverbal behaviors during the interviews or specific conditions within the interview settings. The informal notes provided context for the major data source of the interview transcripts. The audiotapes of the interviews were uploaded to a password-protected, secure server following the completion of the interviews.

Prior to the verbatim transcription of each interview, I listened to the audiotape and reviewed the informal notes associated with the interview in an effort to clarify any questions I might have had and to familiarize myself with what was shared during the interview. During the transcription process, the informal notes were used again to confirm participant statements. After the transcription of an interview, I listened to the audiotape two more times while reading the transcript in order to make corrections if necessary. The accuracy of the transcription of the interviews recorded using shorthand proceeded similarly through two reviews comparing the

² The researcher was skilled in taking ABC Shorthand, formally acquired through a college course and then used professionally for many years.
transcripts to the original shorthand in order to make corrections if necessary. For all participants, instead of using the actual names of the participants to identify the transcripts, pseudonyms\(^3\) were used in order to preserve confidentiality. Once transcribed, the transcripts were uploaded to a password-protected, secure server in order to preserve the integrity and confidentiality of the data. Following the transcription of all of the interviews audiotaped and review of the transcripts for accuracy, the audio recordings were destroyed.

**Data Analysis**

Because interviewing’s purpose is “to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind” (Patton, 2002, p. 341), these interviews provided data for interpreting how administrators perceived a portion of their professional duties in their work with novice teachers. Naturalistic qualitative research is described by researchers as taking place in real-world environments in order to understand how participants view their world (Patton, 2002). In the present study, the interview data collected represent how the participants perceived their efforts to retain novice teachers. The purpose for data analysis was, therefore, to seek order and structure in the “mass of collected data” order to construct meaning regarding these perceptions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 207).

This effort also inevitably involved the “self-as-an-instrument” (Eisner, 1998, p. 33) in the process of connecting the researcher to the qualitative research challenge of interpretation. As described earlier, educational connoisseurship is the recognition of the self in research through using what one knows and what one has experienced in order to make sense of data (Eisner). It manifests itself in “the ability to make fine-grained discriminations among complex and subtle qualities” (p. 63). When educational connoisseurship is shared with others, it

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\(^{3}\) Pseudonyms using Biblical names were assigned because of their frequent use within our culture.
becomes educational criticism, the effort to make public what the researcher has analyzed, based on the careful use of evidence and rigorous argument.

Educational criticism, according to Eisner (1998), includes four dimensions: description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics. In the present study, description was the effort of the researcher to share with others what the participants actually said about how they perceived their role as secondary-school principals in supporting and retaining novice teachers. Interpretation placed such description into context to provide meaning; that is, interpretation was “accounting for” what was described, or the “account of” (p. 95). Evaluation considered the educational value within what was described and interpreted, that is, how these efforts of principals contributed to the professional development and retention of novice teachers who, in turn, would be able to contribute to student learning. Thematics, the fourth dimension of educational criticism, focused on what was learned in the present study, expressed as themes which may be relevant to other situations through the process of naturalistic generalization. Thus, what these secondary-school principals perceived about their role in novice teacher retention may inform educators in other environments as they consider how secondary-school principals in those settings might also perceive their role.

The initial section of Chapter 4 presents a detailed description of how data analysis proceeded in the present study. Here the role of educational criticism (Eisner, 1998) and the use of Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis are discussed, along with how the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 also contributed to the processes of making meaning of the data collected.
Credibility

Credibility for this study rests upon adhering to research standards. For example, Howe and Eisenhart (1990) offered five standards for both qualitative and quantitative research: the fit between the research question and the methods for data collection and data analysis, the rigorous use of those methods, appropriate recognition of the relevant existing literature throughout the study, attention to warrant in data analysis, and both external and internal “value constraints” (p. 7).

Chapter 1 justified the research question by describing the problem faced in large urban school districts regarding the retention of novice teachers at the secondary level. Because the literature emphasized that the principal is important in the efforts to retain teachers, the research question focused on how secondary-school principals in one large urban school district perceived their role in retaining novice teachers. Chapter 2 reviewed the relevant literature in order to ground the study in the knowledge base and “background assumptions” of the field (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990, p. 7). This foundation in the extant literature formed the basis for the conceptual framework which guided the study.

Chapter 3 has argued how the research design of semi-structured, in-depth interviewing fit the research question and the knowledge it sought. It has also described in detail the specific methods used in data collection and the literature in research methods (e.g., Kvale, 1996; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002) used to support such decisions—a process that can provide the reader with transparency regarding the rigor with which the procedures were selected and then carried out. In addition, Chapter 3 has provided an overview of the methods used in data analysis, with Chapter 4 expanding on those methods in order to provide the reader with the
transparency necessary for supporting the credibility of both the data analysis approach selected and for arguing that the results of using such an approach are warranted. The description of data analysis in Chapter 4 provides evidence that Eisner’s (1998) focus on “referential adequacy” (p. 113) was supported through the use of verbatim participant data, accompanied by thorough explanation of how those data were connected to the interpretations offered. In addition, Eisner’s requirement of “structural corroboration” (p. 110) was evident through the use of multiple participant data sources to support the analytic claims put forward and the construction of themes that represented the pervasive messages evident in the data as a whole. The rigor evident in both data collection and data analysis contributes to the argument that the results from data analysis are warranted.

Value constraints (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990) were recognized throughout the study. The role of the researcher in all aspects of the research process was described in order to acknowledge that the researcher was a tool in that process. Although the role of educational connoisseur was assumed, the requirements of making that role both transparent and well-informed were emphasized throughout the study. Internal value constraints (Howe & Eisenhart) were evident in the provisions for informed consent that supported ethical conduct throughout the study, especially with regard to confidentiality and the use of verbatim transcriptions of the interviews in data analysis. Conscientious efforts by the researcher kept in mind the focus of the study on honoring and understanding the perceptions of the principals themselves in order to avoid any undue influence from researcher subjectivity.
Chapter Summary

This chapter described the qualitative research design followed in order to pursue the research question which focused on the perceptions of secondary-school principals in a large urban school district regarding their role in the retention of novice teachers. Because qualitative research recognizes that the researcher is a tool in the research process, the chapter included a section that described how the researcher became interested in the study and how her professional experiences and knowledge contributed to the research process. The design using in-depth, semi-structured interviews enabled participants to share their views. Detailed description of site selection, recruitment of participants, and specific data-collection procedures provided justification for these efforts and transparency about how they were carried out. Procedures for protecting participants through informed consent were also described. In addition, the chapter provided an overview of the data-analysis procedures followed that included educational criticism (Eisner, 1998), supported by Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis and the use of relevant literature, to interpret the data collected. The chapter closed with a discussion of how the present study endeavored to meet the standards of credibility within qualitative research.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed discussion of the data-analysis approach used in the present study, including educational criticism, typological analysis, and the use of relevant literature. The four dimensions of educational criticism—description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics—organize the discussion of data analysis.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

Previous chapters of the present study have argued that teachers are an important factor in influencing student success. Yet, as reflected in the literature, teacher turnover occurs frequently with financial costs to school districts, as well as costs in terms of student achievement. Additionally, teacher turnover also impacts the development of quality teachers within a school culture of support and professional growth (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2010; Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; Education Commission of the States, 2005). Although research has explored teacher turnover with regard to costs, reasons for leaving, and statistics concerning teacher personality traits and school location, the present study sought additional knowledge regarding principals’ perceptions of their role in teacher retention in order to understand the importance of their actions in support of novice teachers.

Data collection involved semi-structured, in-depth interviews with 13 principals and 2 assistant principals, in 15 secondary schools in one Southeastern urban school district. Data were collected from secondary-school administrators for several reasons. First, their efforts in recruiting teachers must recognize the content-area expertise required for secondary teachers, which is more subject-specific than the expertise required for elementary teachers. Secondly, due to the complexity of the developmental stages of secondary-school students, teachers must be able to shape a curriculum which is responsive to these multifaceted developmental needs (Caskey & Anfara, 2007). Thus, administrators must be cognizant of the views of both potential recruits and novice teachers regarding students. Finally, because secondary teachers have reported that administrators’ lack of support influenced them to leave the profession more often than did elementary teachers (U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics, 2007-2008), secondary-school administrators’ perceptions of their support of novice
teachers were necessary. Their perceptions provided insight into the dynamics underlying the retention of novice secondary teachers.

The function of this chapter is to describe the analysis of the data collected so that “what has been learned can be communicated to others” (Hatch, 2002, p. 148). Several data-analysis approaches guided this process. Eisner’s (1998) approach to educational criticism served as the overall framework for data analysis. In addition, Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis and interpretive analysis facilitated the first two stages of Eisner’s four-part process of educational criticism—description and interpretation.
The following diagram illustrates how the methods of both Eisner and Hatch contributed to the development and progression of the data-analysis process in the present study (See figure 4.1 below).

**Figure 4.1 Data-analysis Processes**

Eisner’s Model of Educational Criticism (1998)

Begins with

Connoisseurship of Researcher (e.g., professional experience and knowledge of the literature) and leads to four dimensions

The dimensions of Description and Interpretation (combined in the present study)

Facilitated by:

Hatch’s typological analysis

and

Hatch’s interpretive analysis (2002)

The dimension of Evaluation

The dimension of Thematics
Incorporating the data-analysis processes of Eisner and Hatch assisted in “making vivid” what was shared by the participants, as well as “explaining its meeting” (Eisner, 1989, p. 95).

Educational criticism begins with educational connoisseurship. In describing and analyzing the data, the researcher brought into the processes her connoisseurship of both her own experiences as a former novice teacher and knowledge obtained through the review of the literature described in Chapter 2. Although connoisseurship is a private process, in contrast, educational criticism is the process of making one’s connoisseurship public (Eisner, 1998).

Educational criticism (Eisner, 1998) involves four dimensions: description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics. The description dimension enables the reader to visualize what the data represent, thereby enabling the reader to connect with what the participants shared regarding their experiences. Interpretation gives the description of the data meaning, with provision of consequences and reasons or rationality for what has been described. Interpretation “accounts for” (p. 95) and places the description in context to explain or “to unwrap” (p. 97) the description of the data. The third dimension of educational criticism is evaluation or appraisal of the educational value evident within the description and interpretation of the data. Finally, thematics, or the fourth dimension of educational criticism, identifies recurring messages embedded within the data.

The description phase of Eisner’s educational criticism in the present study used several of the steps Hatch recommended in typological analysis. Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis involved reading the data several times in order to identify typologies within the data, followed by identifying within the data specifically where those typologies were evident. Further, Hatch’s steps in interpretive analysis also assisted in data analysis by supporting the need for reading and rereading the data to record initial impressions and then identifying data excerpts to support
those initial interpretations. These stages in data analysis involved establishing tentative categories for data analysis, coding the transcripts according to those categories, and generating Excel spreadsheets that displayed key excerpts from the data according to each category. Subsequently, the tentative categories were revised as typologies which then organized the description and interpretation dimensions of educational criticism.

**Description and Interpretation**

The description and interpretation processes of Eisner’s educational criticism (1998) were combined because the two processes are complementary. Eisner (1998) explained that description is almost “never adequate without interpretation” (p. 97). Further, “description of experience and interpretations are so intertwined that they often become one” (Patton, 2002, p. 106). Hatch’s (2002) process of typological analysis yielded four typologies evident in the data which serve to organize the description and interpretation dimensions of data analysis which follow. A fifth section follows these descriptions and interpretations in order to connect what has been discussed to perspectives from the literature in educational leadership.

**The Principals’ Early Experiences as Educators**

Not only do early career experiences have an impact “on characteristics and competencies of leaders,” they also “influence their knowledge and skills to solve complex problems” (Northouse, 2004, p. 47). Participating principals and assistant principals shared their own experiences regarding their early years as novice teachers. Remembering these early years within their profession implied a relationship between their own experiences and how these experiences contributed to their perceptions regarding novice teachers’ needs.

Rachel recalled her early experiences as a teacher and described her first year as “frustrating.”
I was just thrown in there; I remember thinking to myself, “I can’t believe they are trusting me with a classroom full of kids; I know nothing.” . . . I just put my head down and cried, thinking that I just couldn’t do it.

Rachel acknowledged that she had shared that story, as an administrator, with new teachers: “Even with the support and the mentoring program [we have now], it [teaching] is [still] hard and a lot to get used to.” In sharing her story, Rachel provided novice teachers with reassurance regarding the challenges they faced and, in so doing, communicated that they were not alone.

Many of these secondary-school administrators began their careers in public schools with little or no sources of help. Even though some participants acknowledged that these times were spent alone, some described that the isolation made them feel stronger. David stated:

Back then, we worked in isolation. We stayed in our classrooms. We did our planning, and, if you asked another teacher about something, the feeling that I got back then was that I had to learn it on my own. And, you would be stronger for learning on your own.

Similarly, Sharon used whatever resources she had, even though no formal help was offered. “I had no one to talk to. You are autonomous. I looked at the test and backwards planned from there.” Here, the lack of guidance from someone in leadership left her with an opportunity to develop her own strategies regarding what should be done to educate students as best as she could.

These administrators’ stories reflected early professional experiences which resulted in growth as they found their professional identities on their own. Leiberman and Miller (1984) found that novice teachers were lonely as they began teaching and felt that they must survive by their own efforts. Rachel, David, and Sharon were thus reflecting this earlier research.
When the first days of teaching became difficult and confusing, some of the principals and assistant principals reported that they found their own sources of help. In his early days of teaching, John depended on an old friend. “I taught at the high school from which I had graduated. I still had a relationship with my former teachers. So I relied on them for a lot of advice.” Margaret worked across the street from one of her professors. “If I needed help, I would walk over and talk to my professor.” Rebecca described her early experiences when she began teaching and was part of a team: “The team teacher I taught with was experienced, supportive, and helpful.” James sought help by connecting with “individuals that had been in education for a while, those on the same [grade] level as me, to see if they were having the same struggles and could help me be better in my field.” Mary reported that she had a mentor in math who helped her: “She gave me lesson plans,” and, though “there was no scheduled time for us to meet, if I needed help, I had to ask for it [from the mentor].” These principals decided on their own to seek help from experienced colleagues on a personal and informal level.

Elizabeth represented a different approach to seek help in her early days of teaching. She found peers with whom she could learn.

I wound up tending to group myself with other new teachers. We kinda formed a life-raft together and tried to not sink [chuckle]. This other teacher—we were the same age, same situation, were not “college of education.” We were both teaching English for the first time, and we would bounce ideas off of each other at the end of the day. We ended up doing lesson plans together and tried to figure out how we could make this happen for our kids.
Elizabeth’s seeking out a friend with whom she could learn and work enabled her to develop and grow within her profession. They both acquired ideas, knowledge, and experience to make them better teachers.

Additionally, James acknowledged the importance of assistance from experienced teachers during his first years in teaching.

As a new young teacher, getting around individuals that could help me be successful in teaching [was important and necessary], so I connected with colleagues that had been in the field of education for a while [and asked them] to be my mentors. To guide, to provide me the things that I did not know or I wasn’t sure of. . . . We are not perfect; we all make mistakes. But, if you have . . . a positive role model in your life or someone that can bring you back on track, then you can say, “Okay.”

Knowing that you have someone to go to with a question, doubt, or confusing experience provides the support needed when new in any profession, especially education (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, Powers, & Killion, 2010).

As educators, principals learned professional lessons in their first days of teaching. Some learned on their own, others found wisdom in comradery, still others found assistance by consulting old friends. In addition, many acquired strength and expertise from their first years of teaching, whether they were alone or received help. The participants’ descriptions of their own experiences as novice teachers indicated that they were aware of how more experienced educators and leaders related to them. Some valued the positive support they received. Others considered their struggle alone to become teachers as a professional rite of passage that “made them stronger” (David). Thus, how these leaders experienced their years as novice teachers indirectly influenced their approaches to meeting the needs of novice teachers in their schools.
These professional “lived experiences” (Van Manen, 1990) played important roles, for better or worse, in such relationships.

Some principals saw early negative experiences as opportunities to grow “stronger,” although others empathized with novice teachers as they face difficulties. However, at least one principal recalled a third approach. Jason stated: “I got little to no help, . . . worked in an urban school with 50% turnover of the faculty every year.” Yet, by this principal’s second year, he was assisting the professional development facilitator in helping newly hired teachers become acclimated. Therefore, he became proactive in improving the experiences of novice colleagues, an approach likely relevant later in his time as principal.

Unevenness in the assistance offered novice teachers was evident in the recollections of the principals and assistant principals regarding their beginning days in education. Early experiences in teaching may influence subsequent experiences of educators and leaders, such as Rachel. Indeed, previous experiences influence people’s view of themselves (Mead & Morris, 1934). “The self is something which has a development; it is not initially there at birth but arises in the process of social experience and activity” (p. 135). The experiences as new teachers described by the principals likely influenced their understanding of what novice educators in their schools face.

The Principals’ Perceptions of the Recruitment Processes

When principals discussed the retention of novice teachers, they also shared their views regarding the recruitment processes within their school district. The participating principals, employed in an urban district with high teacher turnover, considered teacher recruitment as a central role in their duties. Anna explained: “I see hiring and retention of good teachers as the most important thing a principal does.” Not only was the recruitment process important, but, due
to fact that the district’s turnover statistic was considered higher at 50% than the state’s turnover at 40% (Soergel, 2013), teacher recruitment also made significant demands on participants’ time. Elizabeth explained:

    Our interviews often don’t give us a first-draft pick, and we must do a second interview, then score the answers, discuss our findings, and still are not sure whether to offer the job. I know that is a lengthy process, taking several people’s time. But, we have over 50% new teachers this year, so it is an ongoing process, important process that must be done.

The demands of the recruitment process affected all of those in the school, teachers and administrators alike.

    In this district, several types of teachers could be recruited into a particular school. First, the teacher may be a new teacher who is just starting a career in education. Or, the new hire could be a teacher involuntarily transferred from another school because of declining enrollments. Finally, the new member of the faculty could be an experienced teacher who moved to this district from another district or state. The recruitment process differed in each case.

    The processes. Becoming a new teacher at a school could include a positive decision by the school’s administrator and other teachers. This decision may be a choice of an educator just beginning his or her career, or the teacher may be an experienced instructor who just moved into the district. Additionally, a teacher may join a school due to an assignment made by district officials due to budget or enrollment changes. Indeed, involuntarily transferring teachers, who have been sent to another school, reflects a district-level decision which usually did not include
input from the new school’s leadership. Principals’ perceptions regarding these hiring processes differed depending on the different hiring processes followed.

**Selecting their own.** Principals considered their role in hiring teachers for their schools as significant. Therefore, principals wanted the opportunity to make these decisions. Often, much time and effort were required. When describing his recruiting processes as a principal, David spoke with enthusiasm: “We go to recruitment fairs . . . so we see the best and the brightest coming out of the universities.” Other principals found other means of locating new educators. For instance, another process used by principals when recruiting was the help of other educators in the school. Jason explained his process: “Well, to recruit, I get resumes in; then I forward all of them to whatever people are going to be on the interview committee. We try to interview [all of them] the same day.” James wanted input from others: “I never hire alone. I bring in my assistant principal, my dean of students, and the department chair. Sometimes, I will ask my staff if they know a good teacher that is interested in filling the position.” These approaches acknowledge the importance of other teachers on the staff in the recruitment process.

The principals acknowledged the importance of their teachers’ expertise and brought these colleagues into the hiring process. Rebecca stated, “Usually in interviews, I have a content expert or department chair with me.” Margaret also called on her colleagues:

I am not an expert. There are so many varied classes. There is no way I can know everything I need to know. I can’t sit in a French class or physics. I mean I can understand the words and what is being said, but not the application. So, I need experts.

The importance of including other staff in the interview process is also supported by the literature (Liu & Johnson, 2006). Spillane and Camburn (2006) supported principals sharing
leadership tasks which require specialized knowledge or when leadership tasks emphasize instruction.

**The district’s involuntary transfer process.** Schools in the district also received new teachers through the process of involuntary transfer. Transferring teachers from one school to another was a method to accommodate budgetary shortfalls and enrollment changes. The process of transferring teachers is described by Hannay and Chism (1988) as “a cold, impersonal mechanism for resolving problems such as enrollment decline, poor performance, budget cuts, and staffing problems, often with little regard for the teachers” (p. 122). The decisions of whether to move a teacher, where to move the teacher, and who would be moved were made by district leadership within this school system. The decisions of involuntary transfers were also governed by provisions in the district’s union contract with teachers. Therefore, this process often removed teacher selection from those in the school.

Consequently, teacher transfers were a major concern of principals, due to the effect the transfers had on their schools. These administrators viewed involuntary transfers as having a negative impact. Anna commented: “I have gotten some that are not so . . . [shrugs her shoulders]. It was very much a challenge for my seasoned teachers.” Even though principals were aware of the complexities of the transfer process, they perceived that these transferred teachers could complicate finding the right candidates for their school cultures. Sharon commented: “Oh, there has to be a better way to do it.”

The district’s transfer process begins in April or May of each academic year after initial budget decisions have been made for the following school year. The district makes decisions regarding who will be placed on the list of surplus teachers to be moved to another school. “The surplus process begins, and principals cannot hire [new recruits outside of the district] until
teachers within the surplus pool have been placed” (T. Abraham, Supervisor of Staffing, personal communication, August 8, 2016). Hope stated: “During the surplus process, you get new teachers sent to you. . . . You have to treat them just like any other new teacher to your school.” Deborah agreed: “Well, when you get the ones the district sends you, you have to send them to a PDF just like the others.” For a transferred teacher going into a new culture, the transition can be difficult (Hannay & Chism, 1988).

Because the district reassigned teachers from other schools, the principals had concerns about the fit with their schools. Sharon commented that district involuntary transfers “did not give total say on who was going to teach in my school.” Anna also commented:

With the system we have, you do sometimes get teachers through the district procedure, like surplus teachers and so forth or teachers that are just put over here. . . . Many of them should have been out of the classroom years ago.

Therefore, the involuntarily transferred teacher impacts the culture of the school, as well as the culture of the school impacting the teacher. As a result, teachers may arrive at a school where they may not be able to fit in and, thus, could be perceived as less successful. In such situations, both teacher development and student learning suffer.

Indeed, one case study (Hannay & Chism, 1988), which reviewed the issues of both teacher quality and school culture, indicated that the effects of transfers included: teacher distrust, increased preparation time for teachers, increased travel time for teachers, and mutual adjustment difficulties between teachers and community members due to the fact that more teachers were not community residents. Comments from teachers interviewed reflected a “pervasive fear of transfer” (p. 134). The data also reflected several negative comments by participants regarding how the involuntarily transferred teachers were received by the school.
In the present study, Mary reflected some of those school perceptions regarding transferred teachers: “I have gotten some [teachers] that were not good . . . because they were young, the last one hired.” Both researchers and educators have noted that the involuntary transfer of teachers is difficult for teachers who are joining the school culture and for school staff who are receiving them. Anna reported on involuntary transfers by saying, “Putting together a culture piece, which is the retention part, where people feel they belonged, is very challenging.” Indeed, the procedures of involuntarily transferring teachers present challenges at the school level.

Additionally, principals and assistant principals perceived a complexity within the process, because of the “district procedures of having to hire,” as Rachel put it: “certain teachers in the pool.” Sharon stated: “Getting the right teachers, given the narrow parameters, . . . has been extremely challenging.” John commented: “It makes it difficult to have the best teacher in front of the students.” Additionally, research references that the teacher transfer process delays hiring of new teachers. Due to transfer requirements, set by teachers’ unions, new recruits cannot be hired until the transferred teachers are placed, resulting in the former being hired later (Levin & Quinn, 2003).

In summary, the principals and assistant principals contrasted two hiring processes, one determined by the district and the other developed by individual principals and their staffs. Jason described the process of hiring by school leadership as more successful in “staffing the school with the right people.” The principals indicated that the culture and teamwork at their schools were the reasons the method of involuntary transfers did not work as well. Principals knew their teams and the work of their teachers. Indeed, they perceived that their selection process would allow them to choose someone who would strengthen their team and reflect the attitude and
vision embraced by their schools. Indeed, if the hiring process worked well, the retention of novice teachers would be more likely (Samuels, 2011).

The Principals’ View of the Process of Professional Development.

The participants in the present study identified three processes helpful in the professional growth of novice teachers: the district’s centralized professional development opportunities, the support received from instructional coaches and specialists, and the support received from mentors assigned to the novice teachers. These approaches to the professional development of novice teachers were district provisions in response to state-level requirements for the professional development of teachers, both novice and experienced. Specifically, the 1995 School Community Professional Development Act (Section 1, Chapter 95-236, Laws of Florida, 1995) required school districts to develop a professional development process in conjunction with teachers, state universities, community college faculty, business representatives, and the community. In addition, the 2011 Florida Principal Leadership Standards included Faculty Development as Standard 4, which described effective school leaders as recruiting, retaining, and developing a competent and diverse faculty and staff (p. 2), along with identifying faculty needs and providing resources and time for faculty to engage in professional learning (p. 3).

Although state-level legislation framed professional-development provisions in the districts, variation existed in how a given district viewed its professional-development responsibilities. For example, the Duval County Public Schools 5-Year Comprehensive Professional Development Plan, 2010-2015 (Duval County Public Schools, 2015) focused professional development on: “a comprehensive, substantiated, and intensive approach to improving teachers’ and principals’ effectiveness in raising student achievement” (p. 11). The district also developed a mentoring and induction program for all teachers, experienced and
novice, new to the district (Duval County Public Schools, 2014). This program included “mentor support, coaching, and guidance for professional learning” (p. 6). The school-based framework for assisting novice teachers included the principal, assistant principal, mentor, and the professional development facilitator (p. 15). Both the mentor and the professional development facilitator were also teachers. Within this backdrop, principals shared their perceptions regarding the professional development of novice teachers.

The views of the principals varied regarding the effectiveness of the district’s approaches to professional development. Principals’ views of how to facilitate novice teachers’ professional development often emphasized the role of the professional development facilitator. Elizabeth explained: “In this district, there is a professional development facilitator [in each school] who really does most of the work with the new teachers.” James emphasized the importance of the professional development facilitator: “If you see a new teacher struggling, you go to the professional development facilitator [PDF]. Then, the PDF sends the new teacher to observe other teachers; they model lessons for them and come up with a plan of action.” According to these principals, the PDF was the guide or leader for novice teachers’ development.

On the other hand, Martha commented: “As a school district, we are just dragging the horse to water. We give them ideas, but we are not really helping them, nor are we readying them for a life-long-learning or even for the job field.” Jason clarified the importance of the district’s fulfilment of new teacher development:

I had one teacher that I sent to several district trainings. When she came to me for help, I told her that there was nothing else I could do for her. She had to implement the things she was told to do in her training.
This principal viewed assisting novice teachers in their professional growth as fulfilled by their attendance at the district’s designated training, according to state and district rules. However, some novice teachers may need more assistance.

Even though new teachers were required to attend district classes, the school district also provided a mentoring program. Jason explained his view of this program for novice teachers: “We are going through the new teacher program. The mentor goes in and gives feedback, and we strive to get those teachers into other people’s classrooms where they can see someone else teaching.” They are also observed and counseled regarding what they can do to improve their performances. Rachel commented: “We pair them up with the mentors. We observe some and help determine their action program.” This program, therefore, could provide novice teachers with much support as they developed their practice.

However, even with the assistance of a mentor, one of the principals viewed the novice teacher as in charge of his or her own future. From Jason’s perspective, “the burden is on the teacher to get things done. If they don’t, they don’t have a job at the end of the year.” Indeed, there is a contrast in the views of Jason and Rachel, as to what should be done to assist novice teachers through their first years.

The data indicate differing administrative views of what is necessary to develop a novice teacher to the point of professional quality teaching. Admittedly, these varied administrative expectations may be confusing to the novice teacher as the first years unravel. As mentioned in Chapter 2, guidance and support from those within the school become significant in novice teachers’ decisions regarding whether or not to continue their personal investment of time, emotion, and activities to become highly professional teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2010;
McNulty & Fox, 2010; Nias, 1989). Therefore, if the needs of the novice teachers are important to teacher retention, support from administrators at the school level becomes important.

Principals saw the district’s professional development’s success as varying according to the individual. David described his philosophy: “Teachers are like students; some will go in and try and succeed. Some will try very little with great success, while others don’t try at all. It is the human mindset. The calendar will fix the problem.” This principal saw the “calendar” as the solution; that is, if the novice teacher still had difficulty at the end of the school year, his or her contract would not be renewed. However, Elizabeth cautioned: “I remember having my first evaluation, and I didn’t know what it entailed or what I was supposed to do.” This principal’s memories of her own experience were very real to her. Thus, any formal evaluations of novice teachers need to include clear guidelines to help the novice teacher perform well.

Other principals added additional opportunities for assistance and instruction in an effort to improve the novice teacher’s knowledge and confidence. Anna stated, “We have beginning teachers’ meetings every two weeks and common planning periods according to subject areas. This is super helpful to teach them [new teachers] how to relate.” Paul recalled his own professional development: “I got to observe four teachers my first years. I tried to take things I learned from them and implement them. I think that helped my confidence and kinda gave me a unique perspective, as a young person.” Such opportunities assist the novice teacher in developing professional confidence when teaching challenges become overpowering (Tigchelaar, Brouwer & Korthagen, 2008).

Still others saw the mentoring program as also important in the novice teachers’ professional development, but expanded that process. Peter remembered the important impact his mentor had on his professional development during his difficult first years of teaching: “I
stayed because of one of my mentors. . . . I always wanted to make sure that he felt I was doing a good job. . . . I paid a lot of attention to what he said.” Peter’s mentor not only assisted and educated him as he was beginning his career, but he also supported him enough to teach him about commitment. Peter’s experience reflects what Ingersoll and Smith (2004) found—that new teachers who received support and guidance through mentors, coupled with receiving multiple induction components, were less likely to leave teaching or change schools.

The principals’ perceptions differed regarding the amount of principal involvement needed for novice teachers’ professional development. The participants often saw the professional development facilitator (PDF) as the coordinator, who deliberately attended to how the professional development components fit together. The PDF met with the mentors to counsel the novice teachers’ development and progress. Some principals then met with the PDFs. Rachel reviewed her schedule: “On Monday mornings, the PDF and administration—all of us—talk at Monday morning’s design meetings.” This choice by the principal to review novice teachers’ professional growth kept her informed so that she could assist with the professional development of a beginning teacher, if necessary.

In contrast, other principals noted the limitations of professional development being solely dependent on district instruction. Anna commented: “I feel like I know what I am doing, and sometimes I think that some of the cookie-cutter things offered don’t necessarily fit for what I feel like in my school.” She then described her own efforts to educate the new teacher: “It is very difficult for me in my school to make things meaningful here, . . . So what I do is a growth plan, with the true intent to improve the teacher’s practice.” This principal’s attention to each novice teacher’s professional needs reflected guidance and caring for the individual involved.
Many principals instructed the PDF and mentors to expand their counselling to specific areas of need. David explained: “My PDF meets with teachers weekly and talks to them about all the expectations, about ethics, professional standards.” Paul assisted novice teachers through an informal process, which he called “West Wing conversations.” He described these conversations: “We are walking through the hallway, . . . we are discussing ideas. . . . Some people see asking for help as a weakness, . . . so I come by the classroom without asking and later try to keep them on track . . . which can eliminate some of the stress.” Whether with formal or informal additional education, all principals used the district’s instructional programs and included the district’s mentoring program in their efforts to help novice teachers.

Despite these opportunities for professional development, the principals noted that some novice teachers might require more assistance. Rebecca mentioned, “The most difficult part of my job is working with teachers who are not working for the children. . . . [For them,] it is just a job.” Rachel continued describing some teachers in her school: “It is not always unsatisfactory. Sometimes, you just have teachers that are not willing to give it their all.” This principal recognized that the profession of teaching involves a great deal more than a degree and a job. Growth in teaching requires commitment (Nias, 1989). Such professional commitment accompanies the development of one’s identity as a teacher (Nias, 1989). Teacher development includes the shaping of teachers’ personal and professional identities that influence their decision to remain in an educational career (Hong, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Nias, 1989). Therefore, development by the novice teacher influences the educator’s dedication to the profession. In Nias’ study (1989), mentors and “professional parents” (p. 204) allowed the novice teacher to “draw upon the support and companionship” (p. 204) of those within the school, which in turn affected the individual teacher’s self-image. Therefore, professional
development and self-image affected the novice teacher’s decision to stay or leave the profession.

During these first teaching experiences, when counseled, mentored, and educated, the novice educator’s self-image often reflects the views others have of him or her as a teacher, including the principal’s views (Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; Danielwics, 2001). Sharon explained that novice teachers need the support of those surrounding them: “The first-year teacher needs to be welcomed and supported by the team of adults around him/her. It is critical.” Peter shared that his growth was the result of his mentor: “[My] mentor, he spent a lot of time with me, and I listened. Whatever he said resonated a lot with me—and I grew and learned and matured.” Colleagues in these first professional years can encourage teachers to develop skills and grow within their professional experience; this process then leads to becoming a more mature and competent teacher (Nias, 1989). Such support of novice teachers from other educators adds to their knowledge and encourages their commitment to teaching, which in turn leads to their development as teachers.

As novice teachers’ self-image changes, transferring into professionalism, so does their vision, enlarging from just teaching to involvement in the school. Indeed, commitment and dedication by educators involve seeing teaching as more than a job and more than teaching. Elizabeth focused on encouraging such development: “We are bent on making sure that every teacher is involved in something [besides teaching in the classroom]. I think that improves the culture. . . . Once they have a sense of belonging, everything improves.” Novice teacher retention thus includes a focus not only on teaching within the classroom but also professional commitment within the functioning of the entire school.
John saw his role and support as the principal as a form of inspiration. “One thing I think is important is for me to serve as some sort of inspiration to all those in the building. . . . You have to keep people motivated.” This principal saw himself and his views as important to the welcoming of the novice teacher.

Peter recalled the importance of his principal’s support by stating: “She pushed me. She encouraged for me to further my education and involved me in administration. That did it. If it were not for her, I would not still be teaching [and not be a principal].” David also recalled the importance of administrative support: “I think I bonded and networked best with the administrators. That is one of the reasons I went into administration. Because, one of the assistant principals even became a friend of mine.” Paul recalled the administrative support he received: “I had a principal that was invested in me. He saw something in me—even as a first-year teacher—so, he would follow up on me, to see how things were going and give me his perspective on it.” Administrative attention and support certainly assisted some of the participants in their professional development and commitment.

**Life and Duties of a Principal**

The interviews with the principals provided data regarding how the duties of the principal and district procedures affected their work with novice teachers. Specifically, because duties were too abundant and time too scarce, many principals delegated duties pertaining to new teachers.

**Duties and time.** The principals frequently cited the many responsibilities of their positions, and the limited time available to address the tasks required of them. Anna stated: “Sometimes just balancing the time and priorities is the most difficult aspect of my role as principal.” To some leaders, such as Rachel, it seemed close to impossible: “Time management
is the most difficult; there are 80 things to do a day, and generally you can’t do them in a day.” Her solution was to take work home: “There are certain things you can do at home later. Generally, I will get requests all day, and I give responses—but it will be at 8:00 at night.” Paul remembered his first months as a principal: “From the first day of preplanning, when the teachers came back, I didn’t get a chance to breathe until December.” Peter commented: “Finding the time to spend with your teachers and recruiting the right people to join your teaching staff is limited.” And, “investing time in relationships with novice teachers” was difficult, as Rachel noted. Peter further explained: “I need to let them know what their role is. Also, I need to know what kind of teacher I have. But, it is tough. It isn’t done quickly.” The many responsibilities of the principals presented challenges and, to many of them, were overwhelming.

Mary described her situation: “Everything is my responsibility. . . . Everything falls on my shoulders.” Principals face many duties, many of which require immediate solutions; therefore, problems often set the priorities. As Rachel stated: “The climate and priorities are constantly changing.” Ediger (2009) noted that they face a “plethora” of duties and responsibilities (p. 574). Kise and Russell described the complex work of the school principal as overwhelming; they documented at least 26 separate leadership roles. With the multitude of duties, according to Paul, “comes the responsibility and sometimes mistakes. It is okay to make mistakes, but you are going to have to own them all—even if you are not actually the one that made the mistake.” In the context of pressing responsibilities, little time, and needing to own all decisions, supporting the development and retention of novice teachers may not be a high priority.
Loss of authority. As the principals spoke about their duties and responsibilities, they often verbalized concerns regarding the demands they faced in order to lead their schools effectively. Peter described his role as a leader:

My job is to get the right person in front of the students, tell them my expectations, and then visit them to ensure they are on the same page. But, if they came from the pool [surplus], then I am just a visitor in the room. They are not there because of me.

Peter described his lack of involvement in the hiring of surplus teachers, an example of limiting the principal’s authority. Anna also spoke of her concern regarding her inability to remove an unsuccessful teacher: “It really takes a lot now, with the evaluation program, to get rid of someone that should not be in the classroom. The principal’s hands are tied.” Both Peter and Anna valued the role of the principal in deciding who would teach their students, but they recognized that their involvement was limited.

Mary offered another example of limited authority in decision-making when she described district-designated staff cuts. “I had two ESE [Exceptional Student Education] people last year, which we spent a great deal of time mentoring; and then they cut them.” Peter also reported: “I hire or take the teacher; the district cuts them at budget time. Nothing I can do about it. They don’t give me a voice.” The loss of Mary’s ESE people may have been difficult for the school, but the professional development and experiences they received may be an asset to the next school where they might serve. Nonetheless, the investment made by these principals and their faculty into the professional development of these teachers was lost when district-level decision-making did not take into account how they were developing into valued members of the school faculties.
In addition, principals felt they were being held responsible for all decisions. For instance, Jason stated:

It is always hard to staff the school with the right people, but it is your responsibility to achieve; otherwise, they will find someone else. . . . I just want people to be professional and do their job. . . . I have enough issues. . . . I do what the district wants. This is what we must do.

State-level and district-level procedures, which can override principals’ decision-making, were noted in Chapter 2 as part of the teacher retention problem. These clearly defined rules and procedures (Marion, 2002) within the organizational structure of the school district influenced processes governing involuntary transfers and professional development duties. Yet, other principals honored the rules and procedures, but they added their own duties to what was required in order to ensure they were doing all they could to support the development and retention of novice teachers.

**Teacher retention.** Promoting the learning and success of all students also focuses on the learning and development of teachers, an important and major responsibility of principals and a major priority among his or her many roles (Khalifa, 2012; Lunenburg, 2011; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). John described the challenge of having and keeping capable teachers as “plate spinning. Once you get the plates in the air, they begin to wobble, and you have to go back.” Peter shared his concern: “So, sometimes it is tough to get to all the new teachers’ needs. You could have someone floundering and not really getting the support they need, and we are not even feeling it.” In spite of recognizing their importance in developing and retaining novice teachers, principals also acknowledged their inability to meet novice teachers’ needs in the context of their other duties.
The importance of principals in teacher retention is evident in the literature. Brown and Wynn (2007) examined the principal’s role through an empirical study using semi-structured interviews with principals, along with focus-group interviews at 12 schools. They concluded that one of the most important factors in teacher retention was the leadership and guidance of the principal. Additionally, researchers studied schools in North Carolina where teachers’ perceptions of school leadership—measured through school-level averages of responses to school climate surveys—were predictive of teachers’ intentions to remain in the school or to find alternative jobs (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2004). More positive perceptions of school leadership by teachers related to greater likelihood of their intending to remain in the school.

**Perspectives on Educational Leadership**

The literature in educational leadership can provide additional perspectives on what has been described and interpreted in the previous sections of this chapter. Various educational leadership philosophies are evident in public schools. Burns (1978) identified two central philosophical positions regarding leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership creates clear structures supporting what is expected of followers and establishes a system of rewards or punishments (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership appeals to and works with the followers’ values and emotions in order to encourage their growth and, as a result, to facilitate the growth of the organization (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005). Further, transformational leadership “is a process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower” (Northouse, 2013, p. 186). Therefore, transformational leadership is “positively associated with group ethical climate, decision making, and moral action” (Northouse, 2013, p. 187).
Consequently, transformational leadership has the potential to support the greater good of the organization.

Transformational leadership enables the principal to spend more time leading faculty, rather than managing responsibilities (Conley, 1991; Prestine, 1991). This approach reflects Covey’s (2004) definition of leadership as “communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves” (p. 98). Some principals spoke of their efforts to communicate worth to their teachers. For instance, James asked his teachers for their views: “I take things to the faculty and say, ‘Think about it and give me your feedback.’ Some will and some won’t; with those that do, I get buy in. Thank goodness, because I can’t do this job by myself.” In addition, some principals in the present study requested input from their teachers when recruiting new teachers, a process that revealed the value they had for their teachers.

Along with communication as an integral part of leadership is the use of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence includes empathy, along with the use of social and communication skills. This approach allows leaders to value their faculty, while acknowledging and understanding failures as well as successes. This embracing of humanness by school leaders can positively affect novice teachers’ confidence and commitment.

**Evaluation**

Evaluation is the third dimension of Eisner’s process of educational criticism (1998), the primary data analysis strategy used in the present study. The first and second dimensions of educational criticism—description and interpretation—have been combined to describe and explain the data shared by the study’s participants. Beyond description and interpretation, Eisner argued that the educational critic is obligated to appraise that which is being described and interpreted because “education is a normative enterprise” (p. 98) where any attempt at being
value-free “is an oxymoron” (p. 100). Therefore, research efforts in education must recognize how the data collected and the subsequent data analysis connect to the educational enterprise as a whole, that is, how what is studied relates to the education of students within a democratic society. Therefore, the task facing the critic is to consider how the data connect to efforts that are “educative, non-educative, or miseducative” (Dewey, 1938) with regard to student learning. In the case of the present study, data with regard to principals’ efforts to retain novice teachers do relate to the central purpose of schools to educate students.

The principals described their roles by noting the many duties for which they were responsible and the little time they had available to accomplish them. Rachel explained the difficulty she had with time management: “There are 80 things to do, and, generally, you can’t do all of them in a day. Prioritizing what needs to be done, there are certain things you can do at home later.” Rachel reflected what Ediger (2009) described as a “plethora” of duties faced by the principal, including general school management (Chance & Lingren, 1989), board and community public relations (Strong & Tucker, 1995), along with attending to the instructional needs of faculty and students (Casey, 1992; Couch, 1991).

The principals also described their work as influenced by both district-level requirements and the daily demands at the school level. Jason commented that “when the district comes out with new requirements, I am the interface between what the district wants teachers to do and what the teachers are doing.” Such an approach to educational leadership reflects a process of “leading from the middle” (Orians & Bergerson, 2014). The organizational demands that come from both above and below result in a situation where the leader must find a balance (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Principals in the present study seemed aware of the challenges of such a position. Indeed, the principals worked within a framework which placed them in the middle of competing
demands and contrasting authorities. Delegating responsibilities to other members of the professional staff is one way they used to address unmet school-level needs (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).

In the context of facing many demands and not enough time, principals delegated involvement with the novice teacher to other people. Therefore, they acknowledged the professional development which took place through district workshops and with the help of school staff such as mentors and professional development facilitators (PDFs). John explained: “We have a monthly new teachers’ meeting; we have a session during preplanning; we do a walking tour; we assign them a mentor who tells them when things are due and when you should be at meetings.” When asked what his role was in the process, he answered: “To make sure they know what is important to me.” Although these meetings fulfilled the requirements of district procedures, it did not establish a relationship that would create the support needed by novice teachers. The enhancement of relationships between the early career teachers and colleagues promotes a sense of belonging, acceptance, and well-being, which encourages resilience (Johnson et al., 2012).

The principals also described their work as managing a school community with many demands. Jason commented: My focus is . . . on the physical side of things, . . . constantly being updated, constant purchases, trying to make sure that in running the school, I leave it better off than I found it.” In focusing on the school building, purchasing improvements, or overseeing repairs, this principal demonstrated an approach to leadership which may be described as transactional. “Transactional leadership focused on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers” (Burns, 1978, p. 186). In this case, the transaction occurs between the principal who manages tasks and the staff who carry out those tasks. However, as described in
the previous section of this chapter focused on educational leadership, the complexity of teaching and learning often requires more than just an exchange between the principal and a staff member to accomplish a given task, as with the principal’s delegation of novice teacher professional development to particular individuals who carry out the task. The needs of the novice teacher for professional development and support are complex and individualistic. Professional development cannot be reduced to attendance at district-level workshops. Rather, individualized support might include regular observations, feedback, and on-going consultation based on what the novice teacher needs.

In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership involves a type of leader who is “attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential” (Northouse, 2004, p. 186). Transformational leadership can offer novice teachers the individual administrative assistance to support the professional growth necessary for remaining in teaching. Development of novice teachers also requires sponsorship by their fellow professionals that supports growth in their practice and establishes a connection and commitment to the profession (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998; Fox, Deaney & Wilson, 2010).

In summary, the evaluation dimension of educational criticism has provided an additional perspective within data analysis. The participants described their duties as numerous and time-consuming. Due to the “plethora” of duties and responsibilities (Ediger, 2009, p. 574), little time was available for them to interact directly with novice teachers. Further, the principals also found themselves in the middle, between the organizational demands coming from the district above them and the demands within their schools. However, the transactional leadership style that can occur when responding to such demands may not meet the complex professional needs of novice teachers. The needs of novice teachers may require a transformational leadership style
which acknowledges the complexities of teaching and people and recognizes multiple authorities and responsibilities. The process of transformational leadership would include being concerned with improving the performance of followers and developing them to their fullest potential (Northouse, 2004).

**Thematics**

The fourth dimension of Eisner’s (1998) process of educational criticism is thematics, that is, a focus on identifying the “recurring messages” evident within the data (Eisner, 1998, p. 104). Because the identification of themes builds upon the dimensions of description, interpretation, and evaluation, that process reflects what has been previously discussed in this chapter. Data analysis in the present study led to the development of four main themes: (a) principals’ lack of time influenced their distributing leadership tasks to other staff members regarding the professional development of novice teachers; (b) principals’ interaction with novice teachers reflected “leading from the middle”; (c) principals enacted a transactional leadership style with novice teachers; and (d) principals viewed new teachers arriving at their schools as novice, whether they were experienced or inexperienced. The sections which follow describe each theme in detail.

**Theme 1: Principals’ lack of time as a result of numerous tasks led to their distributing leadership tasks to other staff members regarding the professional development of novice teachers.**

The principals’ perceptions of their work revealed a lack of time and the need to delegate responsibilities. Researchers have found that principals confront overwhelming responsibilities throughout the educational system. “Our research of literature on essential leadership responsibilities . . . revealed 26 roles for school principals. . . . If you try to fill all 26 roles, you
are headed straight for burnout.” One recommendation is to “distribute leadership roles” (Kise & Russell, 2009, p. 2).

The professional development of novice teachers became one of the roles participants in the present study delegated to their staff members. Several participants referenced the district’s professional development activities and its designation of “professional development facilitators” and mentors in schools who more directly focused on the professional development of novice teachers. Elizabeth acknowledged: “In this district, there is a Professional Development Facilitator (PDF) who really does most of the work with the new teachers.” Novice teachers’ professional development then became the responsibility of someone else rather than the principal, mainly the PDF and mentor, although other faculty could support the novice teacher, as well. Further, one of the participants even noted that novice teachers were in charge of their own future: “The burden is on the teacher to get things done. If they don’t, they don’t have a job at the end of the year” (Jason). When principals delegate the professional development of novice teachers, they play a less than central role in the professional development of novice teachers and, hence, may reduce the likelihood of their remaining in teaching.

**Theme 2: Principals’ interaction with novice teachers reflected “leading from the middle.”**

The second theme reflected a process of principals “leading from the middle,” that is, being in a position where they must respond to organizational demands from above and below them (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). The principal thus becomes, as Jason described the situation, “the interface between the district” [and the local staff]. For example, the district required the principal to assign “support team members” to help the novice teacher ([http://www.duvalschools.org](http://www.duvalschools.org), February 28, 2017). However, guidelines for the mentoring and induction of novice teachers revealed several levels of responsibility for the guidance of the
novice teacher. Anna commented: “I know what I am doing, and, sometimes, I think that some of the cookie-cutter things [offered by the district] don’t necessarily fit. . . . It is very difficult for me to make those things meaningful here.” However, Ingersoll’s (2003) review of research indicated that the involvement of the principal in working, advising, and supporting new teachers was a significant factor in retaining new teachers. Although some principals followed only the guidelines for assisting novice teachers given to them by the district, novice teachers need more connection with their principals (Connolly, 2000; Danielson, 2002) if they are to develop professionally and, then, be more likely to remain in teaching.

**Theme 3: Principals enacted a transactional leadership style with novice teachers.**

The principals’ perceptions revealed a leadership style that was transactional regarding their role in novice teachers’ retention. For example, the delegation of duties to staff members to provide the professional development for novice teachers became the main strategy for meeting their needs, whether or not such professional development was sufficient. The principals’ role in novice teachers’ professional development was transferred to others in a transaction. However, a leadership style recognizing the complexity of professional learning could more likely facilitate novice teachers’ growth through the contributions from all on the staff within a professional learning community (Darling-Hammond, 2010) where leadership is “relational” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 159).

**Theme 4: Principals viewed new teachers arriving at their schools as novice, whether they were experienced or inexperienced.**

The perceptions of these principals was that new teachers arriving at their schools were novice, whether they were inexperienced and new to the profession, experienced but involuntarily transferred due to district policies, or experienced but seeking positions in a new
location. These perceptions could lead to undervaluing the experience and expertise of experienced teachers who may be new to the school. Additionally, once again, this concept does not incorporate the view that novice teachers are unique and, therefore, their professional development needs are not uniform. Professional development needs are individualistic. Involvement and support from the principal in the professional development of novice teachers enhances the likelihood of the new educator committing to the profession. For experienced teachers who have been transferred, individualized professional development and support from the principals may be tailored primarily to their need to acclimate to new settings, thereby fostering their commitment to their schools.

As “recurring messages” (Eisner, 1998, p. 104), themes are powerful representations of the results of data analysis, even as they may remain “inadequate” (Van Manen, 1990, p. 87) in capturing completely the full meaning of a given study. Nonetheless, the themes developed during data analysis in the present study may be relevant with regard to “other situations through a process known as naturalistic generalization” (Eisner, 1998, p.103). Stake (2000) described naturalistic generalization as: “includ[ing] the kind of learning that readers take from their encounters with specific studies” (p. 442). This process allows the reader to know things “as though he or she had experienced it” (Patton, 2002, p. 583). Thus, readers of the present study can apply the themes regarding principals’ perceptions of their role in novice teacher retention to other schools, districts, and educational programs with high turnover rates among novice teachers. They then might be better able to assist novice teachers in growing professionally, thereby committing to the profession.

The first theme relating to time constraints referenced in the interviews and the pressure of “leading from the middle” reflect the reasons that principals delegate responsibilities to other
professional staff and enact transactional leadership style. In the case of novice teachers, principals delegate responsibilities for their professional development to those who offer district-wide workshops, to mentors assigned to novice teachers, and to the professional development facilitators within their school. However, as has been referenced previously, novice teachers have reported a need to be supported directly by their administrator in order to grow in their practice and to maintain commitment to their profession (Nias, 1989). Without such support, commitment to the profession and school during the early years of teaching may not occur and may lead to the departure of the novice from teaching (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented the analysis of data gathered from 15 semi-structured, in-depth interviews with secondary-school principals and assistant principals. The chapter first explained the processes used in data analysis which employed Eisner’s (1998) educational criticism as the overarching approach, supported by Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis. Data analysis was organized using the four dimensions of educational criticism: description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics (Eisner, 1998). Description and interpretation were combined for clearer understanding, supported by Hatch’s (2002) interpretive and typological analysis. The following categories served to organize the description and interpretation dimensions of educational criticism.

- The principals’ early experiences as educators,
- The principals’ perceptions of recruitment processes,
- The principals’ view of the process of professional development,
- Life and duties of a principal, and
The evaluation dimension of Eisner’s process of educational criticism (1998) addressed how the description and interpretation of principals’ perceptions of their role in retaining novice teachers related to whether their efforts facilitated novice teachers’ retention and thus the central purpose of schools to educate students. Time constraints and the reality of leading from the middle influenced some principals to follow a transactional leadership style in lieu of transformational leadership. In so doing, they delegated much of the responsibility for novice teachers’ professional development to those staff members assigned the responsibility as mentors or professional development facilitators.

All of those interviewed used the district’s professional development instructional classes as part of the requirements for novice teachers. Some of the principals offered additional instruction, formally or informally, to assist the novice teacher with professional growth.

Data analysis concluded with the development of key themes:

- The principals’ lack of time resulting from numerous tasks led to their distributing leadership tasks to other staff members regarding novice teachers’ professional development;
- The principals’ interaction with novice teachers reflected “leading from the middle”;
- Principals enacted a transactional leadership style with novice teachers;
- The principals viewed new teachers arriving at their school as novice teachers, whether they were beginning their teaching careers or were experienced educators.

The themes developed from this study reflect how this group of secondary-school principals perceived their role in the retention of novice teachers. Through naturalistic generalization, these
themes and the data analysis supporting them may be relevant in other educational settings as secondary principals consider their role in retaining novice teachers.

The next chapter contains a summary of the present study, limitations of the present study, implications for educational leadership drawn from data analysis, recommendations for future research, and conclusions regarding the role of secondary-school principals in retaining novice teachers.
CHAPTER 5:

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Teachers are important to the development of students and to their academic achievement (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). However, the education profession faces consistently high turnover rates among teachers, particularly among novice teachers within the first years of a novice teacher’s career (Ingersoll, 2003). The effect of this on-going problem includes school instability, escalating recruitment costs, disruption of curricular cohesiveness, and the necessity to hire inexperienced teachers, who are less effective than more experienced teachers (Grissom, 2011).

Research has documented several reasons for teachers leaving the education profession, including family relocation and family responsibilities (Ingersoll, 2003). Research has also documented several factors that influence novice teachers’ decision to leave or remain in teaching within their first years in the profession: supportive principal leadership, an orderly school environment, classroom autonomy, and significant professional development (Grissom, 2008). Therefore, the influence of principals affects teacher retention through their relationships with school staff, through honoring staff involvement in decisions about school structure and operation, and through meaningful professional development (Grissom, 2008; Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, & Wahstrom, 2004).

Even though the literature references the principals’ effect on novice teachers’ development as professionals and their decisions about remaining in teaching, analysis of interview data from the present study revealed varying degrees of involvement by the principals with regard to the professional development of novice teachers. Further, differing
philosophies existed among the participants regarding who was responsible for the professional development of new teachers.

The present study addressed the following research question: What are secondary-school principals’ perceptions of their role in the retention of novice teachers? The duties of a principal are numerous, some clearly designated by the state and the school district and others arising from the needs of the specific school environment. Principals thus must prioritize responsibilities including how they define their role in novice teacher retention.

The present study thus focused on understanding how the principals in one urban school district interpreted their role in supporting novice teachers’ development and retention. Their perceptions can inform school-based leaders as they support novice teachers in their professional growth and thereby address the problem of teacher turnover.

The theoretical framework guiding the study included several premises relevant to educational leadership as it relates to the retention of novice teachers:

- The role of the principal contributes to teachers’ growth and decision-making regarding staying in the profession or leaving teaching (Ingersoll, 2003).
- Both student achievement and teacher growth are long-term, complex processes (Mead & Morris, 1934; Ingersoll, 2003).
- Identification of oneself as a teacher and commitment to teaching influence each other and take time to develop (Hong, 2010; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Nias, 1989).
- Role theory reflects the philosophy that human behavior is guided by the concepts held by affected leaders, employees, and stakeholders regarding their roles, expectations, and experiences (Biddle, 1979). For example, Biddle (1979) argued that people enter a profession with role expectations and then may experience “role strain”
(Biddle, 1979, p. 325) when they experience stress associated with the role. This stress may lead individuals to either restructure expectations or resign. This process can be applied to the experiences of novice teachers during their first years of teaching.

- Leadership involves two styles: transactional and transformational (Burns, 1978).
- Communicating to employees their worth and potential facilitates their view of their own personal significance and demonstrates leaders’ emotional intelligence (Covey, 2004).

The theoretical framework assisted in establishing the focus for the study and the relevant literature that supported the research design. This chapter includes the following sections: a summary of the literature review and the resulting conceptual framework, a summary of the research design and the data-collection methodology, a summary the methodology for data analysis and the key points and themes resulting from the data analysis, the limitations of the study, implications for educational leadership and policy, recommendations for further research, and conclusions relevant to the study.
Summary of Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

Education in America strives to empower students to address everyday problems, to prepare for the future, and to understand themselves and the world they live in. Quality teachers are critical to student success (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Johnson et al., 2012). However, staffing classrooms with quality teachers has been difficult, due in part to new teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2003). Because of the teacher’s importance, teacher retention is also important. Even though there are many reasons for novice teachers to leave a particular school, many are leaving the profession due to dissatisfaction (Ingersoll, 2003). Research has documented that one of the reasons for teachers leaving the profession is the lack of supportive principal leadership (Grissom, 2008). Principals’ leadership styles reflect their support of novice educators and determine the values modeled in the school (Jiang & Chan, 2007; Ladd, 2009). The importance of the principal to novice teachers is not only as a supervisor, but also as a leader and as someone to listen to them and value them (Jiang & Chan, 2007; Ladd, 2009). Further, Ingersoll (2003) noted that principals were not only significant in working, advising, and supporting novice teachers, but also significant in inspiring a passion that would keep the educator from leaving teaching.

The literature also reflects the interrelationship between commitment and self-identification as a teacher (Howard, 2000; Leary & Tagney, 2003; Oyserman, 2001). During the first years of teaching, novice educators are developing the skills that lead to more effective teaching and to growth in their identification as teachers (Henry, Bastian & Fortner, 2011; Nias, 1989). However, during this important time of professional development, the novice teacher often leaves the profession (Ingersoll, 2003). Such departures result in fewer teachers who are developing toward being highly qualified, more recruiting costs, disruption of curricular
cohesiveness, lower student achievement, faculty instability, and emotional consequences among those left behind (Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Louis & Wahstrom, 2011).

The principal influences efforts within the school to support teacher retention, particularly the development of a school culture that shapes the conditions affecting teacher retention. Program initiatives within the school and under the influence of the principal include mentoring, professional development classes through dedicated workshops, and the development of professional learning communities, all of which are likely to contribute to teacher retention (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

Key elements from the literature review that contributed to the conceptual framework include: the costs of additional teacher recruitment (Barnes, Crowe & Schaefer, 2007), faculty instability (Shernoff et al., 2011), and lower student achievement (Bridgeland, Dilulio & Morison, 2006; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Attrition’s price also includes lower faculty and student morale (Louis & Wahstrom, 2011) and outlay of additional employee time and salary for recruitment.

Key elements from the literature review also focus on four benefits of teacher retention: curricular cohesiveness, stability of faculty, continued professional development of teachers, and increased support of student achievement (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). The advantages of teacher retention involve increased opportunity for collaboration among faculty members, which results in teamwork focused on instructional planning, the development of faculty expertise (Berliner & Scherer, 2001), and commitment to the profession, all of which support student learning. These elements contributed to the development of the conceptual framework that guided this study.
This section has summarized the literature review and the conceptual framework which guided this study. The next section describes the research design and data collection methodology.

**Summary of Research Design and Data-Collection Methodology**

The decision to use qualitative research to address the research question for the present study was based on characteristics evident in the research question: the focus on understanding the phenomenon of interest, the importance of the voice of the participants, the focus on the particular, and the complexity of the topic (Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002). Qualitative research methodologies were appropriate to understanding how the principals perceived their world and how situations occurred (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002) within natural settings (Merriam, 1998). The use of semi-structured, in-depth interviewing was necessary if principals were to have the opportunity to describe their experiences with novice teachers—both the cognitive and affective aspects of their human and professional interactions—and how they viewed their impact on teacher turnover (Coulter & Smith, 2009; Merriam, 1998). In addition, because we cannot “observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions, we need to ask people questions” (Patton, 2002, p. 341).

The questions used during the interview were developed with several purposes in mind. “Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. We interview to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind, to gather their stories” (Patton, 2002, p. 341). The participants’ accounts began with their first days teaching. Therefore, the first group of questions introduced the reflective process by having the principals recall aspects of their own initial teaching experiences, which Patton described as an “experience question” (Patton, 2002, pp. 349-350).
The second group of questions focused on how principals saw their role in general, which reflected opinions and values (Patton, 2002, p. 350) and established a framework for the third group of questions. The third group of questions was explicitly focused on how the principals perceived their role in novice teacher retention. These questions served as the means to open up “conversations with a purpose” (Patton, 2002, p. 149), that is, to provide the starting points for principals to share their perspectives. The open-ended interview questions formed the interview protocol for the purpose of collecting data in the participants’ own words which reflected their thoughts and insights.

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from both the University of North Florida Institutional Review Board and the Duval County Public School District School. Initial recruitment began via an email to all secondary-school principals in the school district which invited them to participate in the study. Follow-up telephone calls resulted in the identification of the participant pool. During June, July, and August of 2015, interviews took place at the participants’ schools during the workday, usually in their private offices. All participants signed an informed consent form prior to their interviews.

Participants included 13 principals and 2 assistant principals of secondary schools in a large urban school district. The district represented diversity regarding race, culture and income (dcpsduvalschools.org/domain5268; http://www.coj.net/). Further, the school district was witnessing a 10% higher teacher turnover rate than the state average (Brooks, 2013). Both high-school and middle school administrators were interviewed—5 middle-school participants and 10 high-school participants. Audio data were uploaded to a password-protected, secure server. All interviews were transcribed—13 were transcribed verbatim from the audio recordings and 2 were transcribed from shorthand notes recorded to accommodate the wishes of the participants who
did not wish to be audiotaped. Although the researcher offered to send each participant a copy of the transcript for review and editing, all administrators declined. Further, several procedures were employed to contribute to the credibility of the study: transparency with regard to the development of the interview protocol, and verbatim transcription of the interviews. Such procedures contributed to the credibility of the study.

This section briefly described the research design and data-collection methodology for the present study. The next section includes a summary of both the process used in data analysis and the results of the data analysis.

**Summary of Data Analysis**

This section provides a description of the data analysis processes followed and the results of these processes. Eisner’s process of educational criticism (1998) served as the main approach to data analysis, with Hatch’s (2002) typological analysis and interpretive analysis supporting Eisner’s first two dimensions of educational criticism, description and interpretation. The analysis began with the combination of the first two dimensions of educational criticism: description and interpretation. This decision recognized that “description of experience and interpretations are so intertwined that they often become one” (Patton, 2002, p. 106). Hatch’s (2002) process of typological analysis yielded four typologies evident in the data which served to organize the description and interpretation dimensions of data analysis: the principals’ early experiences as educators; the principals’ perceptions of the recruitment processes; the principals’ view of the process of professional development; and life and duties of a principal.

The third dimension of educational criticism is evaluation. The evaluation dimension of educational criticism provided an additional perspective within data analysis. The participants stated that, because of the numerous duties for which they were responsible, there was little time
left for them to interact directly with novice teachers; the result was the use of a transactional leadership style, evident when they delegated professional-development responsibilities for novice teachers to other staff members. Their time constraints required the principals to delegate many of their duties in order to handle the multiple responsibilities they experienced. This style of leadership can be helpful and appropriate for many tasks which do not demand the personal attention of the principal. However, the literature has documented that novice teachers need and desire interaction with the principals of their schools.

The principals also found themselves “leading from the middle” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 153), that is, they shaped their approach to leadership in order to respond to demands from the district level as well as to demands evident in their schools. Here again, principals found themselves using a transactional leadership style. However, the complex professional needs of novice teachers may require a transformational leadership style, which acknowledges the complexities of teaching and people and recognizes multiple authorities and responsibilities; in so doing, transformational leaders motivate their followers to reach their “fullest potential” (Northouse, 2004, p. 186). Focusing on the development of the potential of the novice teacher would include maturity toward becoming a quality teacher with a commitment to the profession and school (Northouse, 2004).

The final dimension of educational criticism is thematics. Themes are “recurring messages” (Eisner, 1989, p. 104) developed in the process of data analysis. In the present study, the themes included the following points: (a) principals’ lack of time led to their delegating leadership tasks to other staff members regarding novice teachers’ professional development; (b) principals’ interaction with novice teachers reflected “leading from the middle”; (c) principals enacted a transactional leadership style with novice teachers; and (d) principals viewed new
teachers arriving at their schools as novice, whether they were experienced or inexperienced. These themes provide a means for “naturalistic generalization” (Kvale, 1996, p. 232); that is, they provide material which can inform the reader’s understanding of the perceptions of other secondary-school principals in other settings with regard to their role in novice teacher retention.

The next section describes implications for leadership and policy with regard to novice teacher retention in secondary schools that are suggested by the study.

**Implications for Leadership and Policy in Secondary Schools**

**to Support Novice Teacher Retention**

Teachers are critical to efforts in the United States to offer all children a “fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education” (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001, p. 2). Supporting beginning teachers so that they may become highly qualified educational professionals contributes to these efforts and encourages them to commit to the profession and to remain in teaching. However, novice teacher development takes time (Darling-Hammond, 2010), and the highest teacher turnover rate occurs in the first years of teaching (Ingersoll, 2003). In addition, novice teachers have reported that supportive principals are important in their decision-making about whether to remain in teaching. Implications for leadership arise from the results of the present study and suggest how the needs of novice teachers might be met.

The principals described how their many roles and duties led them to delegate the responsibility for novice teachers’ professional development to other educators in the school. In so doing, they demonstrated characteristics of a transactional leadership style which focused on task accomplishment. Because the literature has documented that the principal is an important part of novice teachers’ decisions to leave or remain in the profession, transactional leadership when interacting with novice teachers may not provide them with the sense of being nurtured
and valued that is necessary for them to become committed to the profession. In contrast, transformational leadership engages the leader with others so as to motivate them and assist them in reaching their full potential (Northouse, 2004). Thus, principals at the secondary-school level might consider the benefits of transformational leadership when interacting with novice teachers so as to encourage their professional development and their long-term commitment to teaching.

Another implication for secondary-school leadership in support of novice teacher development might include an analysis of principals’ administrative duties. Such an activity could clarify which responsibilities could be delegated and which responsibilities the principals might emphasize in their practice. The principals’ descriptions reflected a process of “lead[ing] from the middle” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 153) as they responded to demands from the district and those within their individual schools; clarification of responsibilities related to novice teacher retention might enable principals to identify key opportunities for them to engage with novice teachers, even in the context of their numerous responsibilities.

Because principals perceived their responsibilities as “lead[ing] from the middle,” they sought a balance between demands from the district and those at the school level. This need for balance in leadership was evident in the data where principals noted the different hiring processes followed for teachers who were new to the profession and those for teachers who needed to be reassigned to other schools due to demographic changes within the district or due to budgetary constraints. That is, authority to hire “surplussed” teachers was limited, especially later in the district’s reassignment process after an initial period of time when the pool had been identified and school-level interviews could be scheduled. District-level publicizing of this opportunity to interview surplussed teachers may provide principals with the influence they desire in hiring and, hence, increased commitment to facilitating these teachers’ success in their
schools. Additionally, this opportunity may also allow for the recruitment process to include the contributions of experts within the school to assist in the interview process and permit the school staff to develop interview guidelines designed to identify who might best fit within the school culture.

Further, given the importance of communication in effective leadership (Covey, 2004), all parties responsible for supporting the development of novice teachers might benefit from a clearer articulation of their respective responsibilities in supporting the professional growth of novice teachers. With clearer articulation of responsibilities, principals might be better able to provide specific support for novice teachers in their schools, while facilitating their growth through district-level programs.

**Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research**

The present study examined the question of how one group of secondary-school principals in one large urban, southeastern school district perceived their role in novice teacher retention. The data collected in the present study reflected principals’ perceptions, not their actions. Although one’s perceptions do influence one’s actions, perceptions and actions are different (Patton, 2002). Further research might focus on observing the interaction of principals and other educators with novice teachers to understand the complexity of the process of professional experiences in supporting novice teachers as they become committed members of the faculty.

Another limitation in the present study is its focus on the perceptions of principals or assistant principals in secondary schools within only one school district, in one county, in one state in the southeast of the United States. Investigating the perceptions of secondary-school
principals in other locations might enhance the profession’s understanding of the complexity inherent in supporting novice teacher development in a variety of environments.

A further limitation is that only secondary-school principals participated in the study. Research regarding how elementary principals support and develop their novice teachers might also enhance understanding of how the problem of novice teacher attrition might be addressed.

**Conclusion**

Principals face numerous responsibilities. Certainly, directing or delegating some of those duties to those working at the school is understandable and assists in the school’s functioning to be more efficient. However, novice educators in the school need attention, guidance, and support from the principal in order to commit to the profession and to the school. Therefore, a transactional leadership is limited in meeting the needs of novice teachers to grow professionally and to develop commitment to the profession in order to remain in teaching. Adding opportunities for the principal to interact with novice teachers using a transformational leadership style may be more productive in encouraging their professional development and, thereby, their commitment to remain in teaching. Additionally allowing the principal a chance to view the needs of each individual novice teacher, thereby, allowing for specific needs of each teacher to be fulfilled through specific learning opportunities, rather than only those designed for all novice teachers.

**Chapter Summary**

The final chapter summarized the background for posing the research question. Further summaries included discussion of: the literature review and the development of the conceptual framework; the research design and data-collection methodology used in the study; and the data-analysis procedures followed, the results of data analysis, along with the themes developed
within the process of data analysis. Finally, the chapter noted implications for leadership and policy, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.
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Dear:

My name is Theresa Coker, a retired faculty member from the Duval County Public School and a doctoral student enrolled in the Educational Leadership program at the University of North Florida. As part of the requirements for the doctoral degree, I am conducting a research study on the perceptions of secondary-school principals regarding their role in teacher retention and development.

You are invited to participate in this study. Data are being collected from approximately 10-15 Duval County principals through qualitative, in-depth semi-structured interviews. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete an interview that will last about 1 hour. In particular, you will be asked questions about your role as principal, as well as teacher recruitment and retention in your school. The interview will be audio-taped so that I can accurately reflect on what is discussed. But, your name and the name of the school is confidential, by use of pseudonyms.

Your experience will be valuable in this study, so I look forward to hearing from you soon, so we may establish a time for the interview. Thank you for your consideration. If you would like to participate, please email me stating your interest and I will email you further instructions regarding the completion of an informed consent form.

If you have any questions, you may talk to me at [redacted] or e-mail me at [redacted] at any time. Further, you may also contact Dr. Scheire at the University of North Florida ([redacted] or email her at [redacted]) for further information.

Thank you very much for consideration of this matter.

Sincerely,

Theresa J. Coker
APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

Background Information:
1. How would you describe your career in education?
2. How did you relate to your colleagues when you first began teaching?
3. Why did you stay?
4. What kind of help did you get during your first years in teaching?

Role of the Principal
5. Why did you decide to become a principal/assistant principal?
6. What expectations did you have about your role as a Principal/Asst. Principal?
7. What do you see as the main roles and responsibilities of the principal?
8. Among all the things you have to do, what are your priorities?
9. What is the most difficult aspect of your role as principal?
10. What do you enjoy the most?

Leadership Style
11. How do you describe your school’s climate?
12. How do you involve teachers in your decision-making process

Teacher Recruitment and Retention
13. How do you define quality teaching?
14. How do you go about hiring new teachers?
15. How does the subject area of a faculty opening affect your hiring of a teacher?
16. How do you help new teachers make the transition into the faculty?
17. What does the new teacher orientation/induction process at your school look like?
18. How does mentoring fit into the process of including new teachers into the school culture?
19. What is your role in this process?
20. How do you interact with novice teachers?
21. Describe interactions you have had with novice teachers.
22. How do you create a good, supportive working environment for your new teachers?
23. How do you know if your new teachers are being successful?
24. How do you help new teachers when they face challenges?
25. When you think someone may be contemplating leaving teaching, what do you do?
26. What else would you like to add to our conversation that you haven’t had a chance to share?
APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Document

I am a doctoral student at the University of North Florida. As a part of the fulfillment of requirements for the degree in Educational Leadership, I am conducting research regarding principals’ perspectives relating to teacher retention in secondary-schools.

I am inviting you to participate in this study because of your leadership position and experience in the Duval County Florida School District. If you agree to participate in the study, please sign and return this document.

Participation in this study includes an in-depth, semi-structured interview predicted to last approximately an hour. The interview will be scheduled at your convenience. Your responses will be confidential. To prevent individual identification, your name will not be associated with the audio recording of the interview; a pseudonym will be used for the transcription of the interview and in all written reports of the study. There are no foreseeable risks for participation in this study. Participation is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw from this study at any time. The benefits from your participation will be your contribution to knowledge in the field.

Even though this interview will be audio-taped, only the researcher, transcriber, and my dissertation chair, Dr. Elinor Scheirer will have access to the audio-taped interview. The data will be uploaded to a secure server within 48 hours of the interview and destroyed upon completion of the requirements for the doctoral degree. You may access the transcription or participate in the analysis of data to ensure accurate and fair reporting of data. Data may be used for future research publications.

You may talk to my dissertation chair, Dr. Elinor A. Scheirer, at any time about questions and concerns you may have about this study. You may contact Dr. Scheirer at the University of North Florida ( or email her at . You may also obtain further information about UNF policies, the content of this study, the rights of research subjects, or, if you suffer injury related to your participation in this research project from the Institution Review Board, at

Thank you,

Theresa J. Coker

Phone:

E-mail:
I, __________________________ (print name) attest that I am at least 18 years of age and agree to take part in this study. A copy of this form was given to me to keep for myself.

___________________________________________________________
Printed name of Participant

___________________________________________________________
Signature of Participant
VITA

Theresa J. Coker

SUMMARY OF QUALIFICATIONS:

- Secondary School Teacher of Social Sciences
- Human Resource Professional
- Manager and Leader
- Business Owner
- State and Local government experience

EDUCATION:

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA, Jacksonville, Florida
Doctorate of Education
- Degree conferred Spring of 2017
- Dissertation study titled “Secondary-School Principals’ Perceptions of their Role in the Retention of the Novice Teacher,” advised by Dr. Elinor Scheirer.

FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY, Tallahassee, Florida
Master of Social Science with emphasis in Executive Management
December, 2001

Bachelor of Science in Social Sciences with emphasis in Political Science
April, 1998

WORK EXPERIENCE:


Human Relations Administrator, Florida Department of Insurance, 2001-2002.

Deputy Director of Administration, Florida Department of Corrections, 1999-2001

Executive Director, National Organ Transplant Foundation, 1993-1994

Owner and Chief Executive Officer, Executive Board Room, dba MaxiSuites, 1987-1992


Administrative Aide, Board of County Commissioners, 1978-1987.

LEADERSHIP ROLES & HONORS

Appointed to the Florida Advisory Council on Intergovernmental Affairs

Served on transition team for Governor Jeb Bush, 1998


CERTIFICATION

Teacher Professional Certification, grades 6-12, Social Sciences, 2008-2018.
Teacher Professional Certification, K-6, 2008-2018
Teacher Professional Certification, grades 6-12, English, 2008-2018.