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RURAL TEACHER SATISFACTION: AN ANALYSIS OF BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES OF RURAL TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Research, Technology and Leadership
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to understand the beliefs and attitudes of teachers that affect their perceptions of job satisfaction in one small rural Florida school district. Data collected included a self-administered survey of Likert-type items measuring 20 factors for job satisfaction (96% response rate), individual semi-structured interviews, and focus groups. Analysis of the data confirmed prior research suggesting that multiple factors influence job satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction factors were the best predictors of overall job satisfaction: security, activity, social service, variety, and ability utilization. Extrinsic factors were most likely to predict overall dissatisfaction: recognition, company policies, opportunities for advancement, co-workers, and compensation. Interviews and focus groups further confirmed how participants projected personal significance onto these factors and how they interacted. The complexity of these interactions stemmed from personal perceptions and values participants placed on individual extrinsic factors and linked those values to other extrinsic factors. Consequently, other extrinsic factors took on perceptions of dissatisfaction based on the original factor.

In addition, this research revealed several issues not previously reported in studies of rural teaching. First, "role confusion" emerged as a major source of job dissatisfaction for teachers who were either raised in the community or who had spent a considerable number of years in the community. These teachers often found themselves frustrated at work because of conflicting expectations and perceptions between their professional roles

as teachers and their social roles in the community. Second, a high majority of teachers interviewed expressed dissatisfaction because they believed other teachers to have undue influence and power. However, interview data suggested that power was distributed properly but pervasive informal decision making processes led to the widespread perception of favoritism. In addition, teachers often exercised influence because no one opposed them.

This study suggests that research to gain a better understanding of the sociology of rural communities needs to be conducted in rural education generally and specifically in rural teacher job satisfaction. Rural teachers' job satisfaction is complexly intertwined with a wide range of factors.

Suggested uses for this study include an invitation for rural administrators and teachers to incorporate issues related to job satisfaction into their school improvement and professional development strategies. Addressing the factors influencing rural teacher job satisfaction, which have been previously overlooked, affords rural administrators a new opportunity to positively influence teacher retention, teacher quality, student achievement, and school climate.

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Introduction

Rural schools face the same issues as other schools across the country in reference to the recruitment and retention of quality teachers, but, there are a small number of researchers who have suggested that rural schools encounter different issues than those of larger schools and school districts. Existing literature also assumes that there is no difference in the factors that influence job satisfaction between those in business and industry and those in the teaching profession.

This study is about rural teacher job satisfaction. It is a mixed study that was conducted to gain a better understanding of the beliefs and attitudes of rural teachers concerning job satisfaction from the viewpoint of rural teachers. It is a study that attempts to understand more clearly the factors and reciprocal influences that affect rural teacher job satisfaction, particularly in the context of the operation of rural schools, faculty stability, homegrown and transplanted teachers, teacher quality, and the maintenance of a collegial working environment.

There is general consensus that rural schools exist in a unique environment as compared to the balance of other types of schools in public education (Anschutz, 1987, Arnold, 2005, Belsie, 2003). Rural schools operate working under the same laws and with comparable expectations and goals as their urban and suburban counterparts, but

absent of the same quantity or quality of support and resources available from the school's central organization or the local community. Ultimately, it remains a rural school district's responsibility to provide a quality and appropriate education to the youth of their community. To accomplish this, teachers are the main vehicles that set the climate, offer encouragement, and deliver the curricula that students require, in pursuit of successfully meeting the expectations set by state and federal legislation, as well as the local administration, regardless of the functioning condition of the district.

Consistently, the most valuable and accessible resources located within a rural school district are the teaching staff. Despite having teachers as an easily available resource, schools often do not include teachers as a resource at the levels desired or expected by the teachers themselves. Most teachers are interested in being active participants in the processes of significant school based decisions, such as those dealing with professional development, curriculum, and the general procedures associated with schooling. Commitment and enthusiasm, both of which are fundamental components of job satisfaction, are compromised when teachers perceive that their experience, talents, and expertise are either untapped or underutilized.

Several published studies have indicated that motivation and job satisfaction have been accepted as bonafied conditions that affect one's performance on the job. Cano and Miller (1992) recognized that there is a strong relationship between commitment and job satisfaction. They observed that employees' feelings of job satisfaction directly affected the effort they put into their work and their decisions of whether they would attend or

ditch their scheduled shifts or quit their jobs. Although job satisfaction has been extensively studied in business and industry, little research has focused on attitudes and beliefs related to job satisfaction and teachers (Quaglia & Marion, 1991, Brunetti, 2001). Collins (1999) and Jimerson (2003) each confirmed through their writings on rural education that not only was research on job satisfaction incomplete within the education profession, it was noticeably absent in the area of rural schools.

More than two decades have passed since the release of *A Nation at Risk*, a report presented to the nation as evidence of the poor performance of schools in educating the nation's youth in comparison to other industrialized nations. From the time this report was published, rhetoric has continued regarding educational reform, accountability, and also the topic of attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers. This rhetoric has moved from the political podium and eventually through the Congress, culminating with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) federal legislation of 2001. The expansion of federal legislative influence in education has created new challenges for our nation's schools and teachers. Belsie (2003) suggested that because of the limited resources available to rural schools NCLB has created a greater challenge for rural schools stating that rural schools face a "bumpy and uncertain ride into the future of education reform" (p. 18).

Wu and Short (1996) observed that as new challenges have been placed on teachers through a changing educational environment, it has caused educators to question the motives, goals, and authority of political leaders, generating a situation that has contributed to a limiting of teacher commitment in the classroom and consequently

resulted in a lowering of personal performance standards by the teacher. They also noted that when a teacher's commitment was limited, their expectations of student performance also decreased.

Teachers must maintain an acceptable level of job satisfaction to sustain their enthusiasm and commitment for not only the teaching profession but also for their students. Experiencing enthusiasm and commitment encourages teachers to adequately prepare themselves to impart information and skills, and supplements their capacity to create a quality learning environment essential for students to achieve. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (as cited in Hutchinson & Sundin, 1999) discovered that students' achievement was more positively affected by the quality of teaching than any other school related factor, virtually as much as their home and family environment. Mertler (1992) indicated that varying levels of job satisfaction among public school teachers categorically had effects on their students. Mertler continued by noting that high levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of dissatisfaction had positive implications for improving student achievement.

Bingham (1996) suggested that teachers' satisfaction, as well as perceptions of the work environment and peer attitudes, could potentially affect the health of the teacher. It also could have negative effects on teacher performance, eventually affecting the performance levels of their students. Milanowski (2000) proposed that teacher satisfaction, student achievement, and school quality all have the potential to improve if job dissatisfaction was reduced.

Compounding the issue concerning rural teacher job satisfaction is the burden rural schools face in placing highly qualified teachers in each of their classrooms in the midst of a national teacher shortage. Tompkins (2003) and Buchanan (2002) noted that the current crisis of teacher shortages has a disproportionate effect on rural schools. They pointed out that even with positive, concerted efforts by schools to attract new teachers to rural schools, accepting teaching positions in a rural school was not the first choice of new teachers. Harris (2001) found that many teachers who had accepted rural teaching jobs indicated that if they had been aware of the lack of the financial stability of rural schools, they would not have sought out or accepted those positions. Effects of the teacher shortage incorporated with the geographical, cultural, and educational isolation of rural schools makes recruiting and retaining teachers in rural schools difficult, at best, especially when it is coupled with negative anecdotal overtones that are associated with rural areas (Voke, 2002).

In an effort to diminish consequences of the teacher shortage, many rural school districts have embraced the concept of "growing your own" (Hutchinson & Sundin, 1999). Homegrown teachers return to rural schools with a connection to the school, an existing place in the community, and with the basic awareness of the rural community's prevailing values and idiosyncrasies. Although the grow your own strategy has been perceived to be a program that places teachers in the rural classroom with inherent motivation and job satisfaction, research is essentially nonexistent regarding the actual affects of implementation.

Kim and Loadman (1994) proposed that by becoming more aware of their teachers' expectations and perceptions of their job and work environment, administrators can gain important and valuable information. They continued by stating that " if administrators can in fact identify the reported level job satisfaction of a teacher, then there may be an opportunity to intervene in those cases where job satisfaction is marginal or low, or where it is high, this may be a way to maintain it at a high level" (p. 10).

The data from this study have the potential to uncover the factors perceived by rural teachers that influence their job satisfaction. By recognizing the factors that have an effect on teacher job satisfaction, rural school administrators have the opportunity to view school improvement from a different perspective. A new perspective may offer rural administrators a new appreciation of the role that teacher job satisfaction plays in teacher retention, school climate, and student achievement. Considering the 20 components of job satisfaction as identified within workforce and vocational research (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1997), all but compensation can be addressed with minimal or no financial collateral. Within this paradigminic shift from being unaware or unconcerned to a deliberate concentration regarding the implications of teacher job satisfaction, positive results may emerge influencing teacher and student performance and school climate as a result of the enhanced levels of teacher job satisfaction.

Statement of the Problem

The problem this study addressed was to determine the beliefs and attitudes of rural school teachers concerning job satisfaction and identify those elements of the work and community environments that influence job satisfaction, and additionally, examine those elements as they relate to homegrown and transplanted teachers.

Data Collection Components

This research consisted of a mixed study beginning with a quantitative instrument presented as a self administered survey and the qualitative measures consisted of focus groups and personal interviews. The survey instrument was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form designed by David Weiss, Rene Dawis, George England, and Lloyd Lofquist. This instrument was developed and copyrighted in 1963 and revised in 1997. The MSQ was designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his/her job. The MSQ short form provided information of the respondent's intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction levels.

Participation in the survey questionnaire, focus groups, or personal interviews were completed on a voluntary basis. Participants were recruited by invitations extended by the researcher during scheduled teacher meetings at each of the three school sites and via the First Class email system which was available and utilized by all teachers in the school district. Teachers that were interested in taking part in the focus groups or

personal interviews were able to identify themselves as willing participants in the last section of the informed consent letter.

Prior to the administration of each focus group and personal interview, permission was requested from each participant to allow the session to be audio taped. At the conclusion of each session the audio tapes were transcribed onto a template containing the series of questions posed to all participants. The transcriptions were utilized to provide a narrative text and a verbatim record of each participant's responses. Transcriptions also permitted word usage frequencies that assisted in identifying recurring topics introduced by the participants.

Instruments and Analysis Packages

The survey analyses of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) were conducted by utilizing the statistical analysis software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), for Windows version 11.5. The survey responses were tabulated and analyzed using Descriptive Statistics, Frequencies, Factor Analysis, and Pearson and Spearman Correlations. Subsequent to the initial use of SPSS the data were exported to Microsoft Excel and the tab delimited data were then exported to MathCAD for additional analyses.

Research Questions

This study was conducted to determine answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the factors that contribute to rural teacher job satisfaction?
2. How do the factors of rural teacher job satisfaction influence teachers' decisions to remain teaching in a rural school district?
3. What are the differences, if any, of homegrown and transplanted teachers' attitudes concerning job satisfaction?

Population

This study was conducted in a rural Florida school district that operates all three of the public schools located in the county. The criterion for eligibility to participate in this study included any member of the teaching staff possessing a valid teaching certificate and currently working under the district's negotiated teaching contract. Teachers invited to participate in this study included all classroom teachers, media specialists, guidance counselors, curriculum specialists, and ESE or Title I resource personnel who worked in any of the three schools. There were 89 teachers meeting these criteria and 85 chose to take part in the study resulting in a 95.5% response rate. This rural teaching population was selected due to this researcher's interest in the changing

dynamics in rural education, the teacher shortage and the rural resolution of growing your own teachers, how these circumstances influence small and isolated rural schools, and how they shape rural teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction. Additionally, this population was selected after taking into consideration the accessibility to a rural teacher population located exclusively within an entire school district and of which all schools were considered rural. This accessibility permitted data collection from not only an entire school district working under the same union contract and central administration it mitigated the financial considerations of conducting the study.

Assumptions

This research study was conducted based on the assumption that all subjects responding to the survey and the respondents participating in the voluntary focus groups or personal interviews would do so with honesty, integrity, and with a professional demeanor. It was also assumed that the contributors to the variables associated with job satisfaction would be recognized through the research instrument, focus groups, and through personal interviews. The final assumption is that when teacher job satisfaction issues were identified and administratively supported, teacher job satisfaction levels would rise and in turn have a positive impact on not only the teacher, but their students as well.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to subjects who were employed as teachers by the Countywide School District during the 2004 – 2005 school year.

Limitations

The subjects of this study were drawn from an entire rural Florida school district that operated three public schools countywide. Therefore, the quantitative and qualitative data that were collected from the survey respondents, via focus groups, and through the personal interview responses were limited to teachers employed by this individual school district. Careful consideration was given with regard to any inferences that were made with the understanding that this research project was conducted using only this selected school district. It should be noted that the principal investigator was employed by the school district at the time of the study and to relieve concern over bias and to enhance the credibility of the research, journals and memos were prepared and kept during the course of the research study. The journals were used by the principal investigator to make note of prior and existing personal observations, assumptions, and relationships, and used for reference and comparison during review and analysis of the data from the study's personal interviews and focus groups. Similarly, the memos were used as a bank for making personal notes of observations, points of discussion, encountered during the course of the research and used for the evaluation of data collected.

Rationale for this Study

Rural schools play a significant role in the United States. Nearly two-thirds of American school districts are located in rural areas (Harmon, 2001) and according to the National Education Association (1998) almost 40% of America's public school teachers work in rural schools. Rural schools and rural school teachers are held to the same standards and measures of accountability as urban and suburban schools. Notably, the standard of having a "highly qualified" teacher in every classroom as required by the No Child Left Behind Legislation (U. S. Department of Education, August, 2006) means little if those credentials are brought into classrooms by teachers who are unhappy and dissatisfied with their jobs.

Teacher job satisfaction, combined with the criteria of being highly qualified, promotes positive effects on student learning and behavior, making teaching an enjoyable event for teachers and students (Lumsden, 1998). Conversely, teacher job dissatisfaction can advance an atmosphere that leads to lower teacher productivity and quality of teaching. Collectively, job satisfaction can have far reaching implications concerning the benefit of the school, student achievement, and the health of the teacher.

Research in rural schools is limited even though there are substantial numbers of rural schools in the educational system. The bulk of educational research has focused on urban and suburban schools that inherently possess readily accessible and congregated populations. Parallel to this notion, legislative actions have centered on the concerns of

these larger schools, primarily due to their communities' powerful voting voice and economic influence, each of which are inadequate in rural situations. Often, the research findings conducted in these larger schools is inappropriately applied to rural situations. Despite the fact that many of the factors that contribute to teacher job satisfaction may be considered universal, rural school teachers are exposed to an additional set of challenges primarily due to their geographic isolation (Arnold, Newman, Gaddy, & Dean, 2005; Horn, Davis, & Hilt, 1985). The limited interest in conducting education research for rural schools is due mostly to the availability of funding. Arnold (2003) contends that "without a research base to build upon" there is essentially no way to efficiently identify strategies to address distinctive rural issues.

The data from the study have the potential to uncover and discover the issues presently perceived by rural teachers as promoting, limiting, or having no effect on their job satisfaction. It will also put forward a unique opportunity for rural administrations to capture data and utilize the determining factors and contributors to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction extracted from both homegrown and transplanted teachers, thus enabling them to improve the methods of recruiting and retaining highly qualified homegrown and transplanted teachers. It will not only mitigate the stressful issue of the teacher shortage it may also improve the overall working the climate of schools and facilitate an increase student achievement.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is based on the theoretical notion of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Herzberg's theory (1966) describes two separate factors, one of motivating factors (satisfiers) and the second of hygiene or maintenance factors (dissatisfiers). Maslow's theory posits that individuals' satisfaction is motivated by their needs beginning with the basic biological and physiological needs progressing through safety, belongingness and affection, esteem, and culminates with self-actualization. To advance through the hierarchy the lower order of needs must be met for the individual to go on to the next level of motivation.

Application of Herzberg and Maslow's theories in relationship to teacher satisfaction presents a new frame to view, understand, and recognize the components of teacher job satisfaction in individual situations. With this new frame of reference, administrators will be able to abandon the previously relied upon hit or miss tactics of implementing policy that yielded unsustainable measures in the maintenance and improvement of job satisfaction or the reduction in job dissatisfaction.

Examples of conditions that support satisfaction are: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement, and professional development, all of which are motivators. Owens (2001) lists examples of maintenance factors that contribute to dissatisfaction that include working conditions and environment, type of supervision, job security, administrative policies, and status. Until administrators

can specifically identify these contributors to satisfaction as existing or non-existing, trying to make changes to improve satisfaction will occur only by chance.

Bingham (1996) suggested that teachers' satisfaction, as well as perceptions of the work environment and attitudes, could potentially affect their well being. It also could have negative effects on teacher performance that could ultimately affect students, the quality of education, and the performance levels of the students under their charge. Czubaj (1996) stated, "When a teacher remains motivated, loving the profession, the students not only learn the content by the teacher, the students are also motivated to learning" (p. 372). Conversely, if a teacher is dissatisfied with teaching, it is apparent to their students and they exit the class with a dislike for education.

If rural school administrators can acquire an understanding what motivates the teachers in their schools, they can potentially ease the problems they have with staffing their schools, retaining highly qualified teachers, and improving the overall work environment. Latham (1998) suggested that when schools provided opportunities to enhance the satisfaction of their teachers, not only would it be positive for the current faculty, it would also encourage young prospects to enter the profession, while persuading veteran teachers to remain.

Definition of Terms

This definition of terms is for the purpose of clarification of terms that are used throughout this study.

Coalitions: groups of family, friends, or associates employed in the school district including the teacher's union, teams, or committees appointed by local school or district administration, acting independently of assigned responsibilities.

Growing your own: a method employed for the recruitment and retention of teachers in rural schools by providing opportunities for local graduates or citizens to become teachers in an effort to reduce the negative effects of the teacher shortage.

Highly qualified teachers: public elementary and secondary school teachers who have obtained full state certification or passed the state teacher licensing examination; hold a current license to teach in the state; and not have had a certificate or license requirement waived under emergency, temporary, or provisional conditions.

Homegrown teacher: a teacher employed by a school district who received his/her secondary education within the same school district or same school.

Household income: the sum of money income received in calendar year by all household members 15 years old and over, including household members not related to the householder and other nonfamily household members (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004).

Job satisfaction: the sense of contentment and happiness of individuals in their current teaching position.

Per capita income: the mean income computed for every man, woman, and child in a geographic area. It is derived by dividing the total income of all people 15 years old and over in a geographic area by the total population in that area (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004).

Retention: public school teachers (K-12) who begin public school teaching in one year and return to the same school in subsequent years.

Reciprocal influences: the emotional and social reactions to actions stimulated by administrative decisions, colleagues, or any other entities that influence any perceived change (positive or negative) in the function of the school.

Role confusion: the lack of clarity of a rural teacher's role where social connections are present in the workplace creating difficulty for the teacher to separate professional from social interactions, confusing the expectations from those relationships.

RTSS: Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey, a modified version of the demographic section of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Rural school: a school located in a designated area that has a population density of less than 1,000 per square mile (National Center for Educational Statistics, Common Core of Data, 1996-2001).

Transplanted teacher: a teacher working within a school that did not attend secondary school in that school or district.

Summary

Chapter 1 of this study has revealed the problem of this study and has attempted to clarify the components that directly or indirectly effect the recruitment and retention of teachers in rural schools and the issues and circumstances that influence rural teacher job

satisfaction. Chapter 1 also presented the disparity in the assumption that studies concerning job satisfaction from the business and industry sector are applicable to education. Finally, Chapter 1 contains a brief explanation of the study's methodology, research questions, study population, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, conceptual framework, and concludes with a definition of terms.

Chapter 2 offers a review of literature that reflected a relevancy to teacher job satisfaction, the contemporary challenges rural schools are experiencing, and the challenges rural teachers face, overtly or covertly, that play a role in their job satisfaction. This chapter also discusses the implications of job satisfaction and its effects on teacher recruitment, retention, quality, student achievement, and the recommendations presented to school districts to ease the teacher shortage. In addition, Chapter 2 discusses the need for increased attention in the area of rural education, rural teacher job satisfaction, and the basic tenants of job satisfaction as it applies specifically to education separate of business and industry.

Chapter 3 will discuss the methods and procedures used in this research, study site demographics, sample size, data collection procedures and additional comments offered by respondents. Chapter 4 will present the analyses of the demographic data and a ranked hierarchy of the survey responses of the 20 dimensions of job satisfaction. This dissertation will close with Chapter 5 and a summary of the research, a presentation of conclusions and recommendations for the study rural district, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Existing literature assumes that there is no difference in the factors related to the job satisfaction of teachers than that of workers in business or industry. Although there are similarities in the basic tenants of job satisfaction, a small number of researchers suggest that schools present a different dynamic than that of business or industry, and the course of that dynamic plays a role in the job satisfaction levels of their teachers. These varying levels of job satisfaction impact the retention, recruitment, and the quality of the teachers schools employ.

Teacher job satisfaction has not received the same attention that business and industry has given to employee productivity and job motivation. Even less attention has been given to the implications related to job satisfaction of rural teachers. Shann (1998) observed that teacher satisfaction was a pivotal link in executing reform and that teacher satisfaction not only influenced job performance but also student performance.

Frederick Taylor made the connection between motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity (Owens, 2001); however, Bracey (2003) that it would be "disastrous" (p. 36) if scientific management was applied to education. Education's complexities do not translate smoothly to an industrial or business model. The complications associated in managing rural schools come in the form of the availability and quality of resources

whether those resources are considered to be financial, physical, or human. Comparatively, with any combination of shortcomings of resources, businesses would shut down, but schools would be expected to continue.

Collins (1999) noted that research on recruiting and retaining rural teachers "appears thin"(p. 2) and expressed that the teacher shortage has had a greater impact on rural schools in their search for quality teachers. The National Center of Educational Statistics (2002) (NCES) reported that over 30% of new teachers are predicted to leave the teaching profession sometime during their first three years of teaching and more than 10% of new teachers leave before completing their first year of service. The NCES and Frontline Education (2002) noted that these numbers are predictably higher in rural areas.

These data indicate the impending difficulties rural schools encounter in attracting and retaining teachers. The geographical, cultural, and educational isolation of rural schools makes recruiting and retaining teachers in rural schools difficult, especially when it is coupled with other negative characteristics that are associated with rural areas (Buchanan, 2002; Voke, 2002). As new and beginning teachers seek teaching positions, rural schools are not their first choice.

During the last decade, the strategy of "growing your own" teachers has been examined as a solution to assist in alleviating the effects of the teacher shortage particularly in rural areas. Hutchison and Sundin (1999) and Lemke (1994) expressed the notion that recruiting homegrown people would take advantage of people already members of the rural community and are more likely to remain teaching in a rural school.

Homegrown teachers come to rural schools with an existing connection and awareness of the community which helps reduce the effects of the teacher shortage for the rural school while allowing the focus on new teachers to be centered on their professional development rather than attempting to acclimate them to the intricacies of survival in an isolated rural area.

Researchers such as Lemke (1994), Collins (1999) Hutchison and Sundin (1999), and Darling-Hammond (2003) all considered "grow your own" programs as a valid interventions to help ease teacher shortages in rural schools. However, research is essentially nonexistent regarding the implementation of the grow your own policy and how that policy influences the attitude and climate of the school in conjunction with the job satisfaction of all teachers, whether they are part of the homegrown program or whether they arrived to the teaching profession as a second career or through alternative certification.

It is central for rural school administrators to become more familiar with the issues that surround teacher job satisfaction. By understanding those factors that contribute to job satisfaction and accurately addressing and supporting contributors to teacher job satisfaction, rural schools will be better able to satisfy the professional and extrinsic needs of their teachers.

This chapter will review three related research literatures: teacher satisfaction, teacher quality, and rural schools. Within each literature review the main findings and

weaknesses of the research methods used and its implications in understanding rural teacher satisfaction will be synthesized.

Teacher Satisfaction

Teacher job satisfaction was described by Dinham and Scott (1997) as an indicator of the degree of need fulfillment or positive connection experienced by an individual to an institution. They continued by noting that job satisfaction was a "dynamic construct" (p. 363) which basically paralleled to how a person felt about their job. Batten (2002) indicated that teachers' job satisfaction was a potential gauge of "whether individuals were affectively connected to an institution, compliant with directives, or choose to leave the work environment" (p. 106).

Quaglia and Marion (1991) and Brunetti (2001) observed that employee productivity, attitudes, and job motivation have been extensively researched in business and industry, but with regards to educational settings, little research has focused on attitudes related to satisfied teachers. Jimerson (2003) indicated that there were very few studies conducted about the specific needs and challenges of teachers in rural schools, including teacher job satisfaction.

Woods and Weasmer (2002) suggested, as did Colbert and Wolff (1992), that the issue of teacher's satisfaction was an extremely relevant issue as recent information has revealed that up to one half of new teachers are leaving the profession within their first

five years of employment. Strong leadership support, professional autonomy, empowerment, student and colleague interactions, recognition for achievements, and opportunities for advancement are only a few of the main areas identified as being associated with teacher job satisfaction. Burrows, Munday, and Tunnell (1996) concluded that it is important for administrators to become aware of these factors that influence commitment and teacher job satisfaction and to recognize any other factors that may encourage job satisfaction and teacher motivation. They continued by stating that "teachers consider themselves to be professionals, and their organizational commitment is conditional and depends upon many variables" (p. 8). Shann (1998) indicated that administrators who become aware of motivating factors that influence their teachers' job satisfaction may gain insight and, therefore, be able to maintain or enhance existing job satisfiers. Additionally, they must also become more cognizant of the factors influencing teacher dissatisfaction. Shann continued by noting that principals should "act on issues that erode teacher satisfaction" (p. 67) and encourage an atmosphere in the school where the intrinsic motivating factors may blossom and flourish.

Wu and Short (1996) emphasized that, "creating school environments where teachers gain competence, expand their professional stature, and grow to believe that they have the capacity to act in ways to bring about student learning, ultimately may impact teacher job satisfaction and commitment" (p. 89). By approaching the issue of teacher job satisfaction concentrating on the vision of addressing and aiding teacher's

satisfaction, a reduction in number of those teachers who are dissatisfied may result in the retention of teachers who were considering quitting the teaching profession.

Mertler (1992, as cited by Castillo & Cano, 1999) observed that varying levels of job satisfaction among school teachers had an impact on their students. Mertler continued by noting that the level of job satisfaction was influenced by motivation among teachers and had positive implications for students with regard to improving their achievement levels. "Motivated teachers ultimately motivated their students more and produced greater student achievement" (p. 309). Hunter-Boykin and Evans (1995) and Quaglia and Marion (1991) determined that educators and educational researchers must look differently at the issue of job satisfaction than their business and industrial counterparts and try to better understand the complexity that teachers specifically encounter in obtaining job satisfaction.

Student success and achievement are the ultimate educational goals, and students must be provided with passionate, caring, and knowledgeable teachers who are motivated and excited about their students and the teaching profession. In Brunetti's (2001) study, *Why do they teach? A study of long-term high school teachers*, he quoted an anonymous subject who compared teaching to her summer job in industry saying that " you don't get teary eyed about your job in industry… that's the first time I found out what a difference passion makes… and in industry they don't have passion about what they're doing" (p. 56).

Chittom and Sistrunk (1990) observed that there was a significant relationship between teacher perceptions of the school climate and job satisfaction. When there was a favorable perception of a principal's leadership and behavior, there was a corresponding perception of a positive school climate. If leadership behaviors were perceived negatively, school climate was perceived as being poor and the overall levels of teacher satisfaction were lower. Teacher job satisfaction has an impact on student achievement, if only from the view that dissatisfied teachers are the teachers to leave the profession and then are replaced by inexperienced or unqualified people. Quaglia and Marion (1991) reported that teachers who are dissatisfied identified themselves as having low expectations from their students and as a result of these lower expectations they concluded that there was a negative impact on students and learning.

Bingham (1996) made a similar observation and suggested that teachers' satisfaction, perceptions of their work environment, and their attitudes could potentially affect teachers' personal well being. These conditions could also have negative effects on teacher performance which could eventually affect the quality of education and the performance levels of students. Czubaj (1999) noted that if a teacher dislikes teaching, it was evident to their students and as a result, students could exit a class with a dislike for education.

Shann (1998) maintained that teacher satisfaction was "a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and, in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness" (p. 67). Conversely, Hunter-Boykin and Evans (1995) cautioned that

although it had been that job satisfaction had a positive influence on the performance of an employee, a high level of satisfaction did not equate to high productivity. They continued by indicating that teachers who identified themselves as being happy were not necessarily the teachers who had higher levels of productivity.

Teacher commitment or professionalism has also been described as a factor influencing teacher job satisfaction. In a study by Cheng (1996) it was noted that a teacher's work performance was indeed affected by a teacher's job satisfaction and motivation. Cheng also conveyed the notion that teacher professionalism at the school level was positively related to student educational outcomes. The more teachers practiced and exhibited professional behaviors, the greater the tendency for their students to have more positive self concepts, positive attitudes toward their classmates and other teachers, loyalty to their school, and increased learning. At the same time, that positive example practiced by teachers reduced the number of students who were harboring intentions to drop out of school as the environment became what could be described as synergistic. Czubaj (1996) stated that, "when a teacher remains motivated, loving the teaching profession, the students not only learn the content taught by the teacher, but the students are also motivated to learning" (p. 372).

As positive student relationships were formed, these positive relationships promoted productive attitudes and feelings, improved an encouraging work environment, and increased collegial and cooperative interactions between students and faculty. Professionalism and commitment supported a more satisfied teacher with intrinsic and

extrinsic rewards, autonomy, and increased opportunities for participation and personal advancement. It enhanced a feeling of confidence and acceptance that the teachers' roles in the school were important and fair, their responsibilities were clear, and there was meaning in their jobs (Cheng, 1996).

Burrows, Munday, and Tunnell (1996) identified that the two most important factors that impacted the effectiveness of schools were teachers' organizational commitment and general job satisfaction. Ma and McMillan (1999) supported the assumption that commitment was important to teacher satisfaction, and identified three main aspects of teacher job satisfaction. These three areas included a teacher's feeling of competence, administrative control, and organizational culture. Rural teachers have been faced with high student absenteeism, low graduation rates, students with limited educational and cultural opportunities outside of school, a low socioeconomic population, and other baggage that affects students and their daily educational activities. Teacher related concerns, including annual evaluations, limited department collaboration, isolation within classrooms, and the pressure and stress associated with the high stakes testing of students, have advanced negative feelings toward administration. As the questioning of authority, motives, and goals of administrators has grown in the educational environment, a change in teachers' commitment and classrooms has changed, as evidenced by a lowering of personal performance standards and decreased student performance expectations. Cano and Miller (1992) that there was a strong significance regarding commitment. They proposed that research showed that the daily decisions of

employees on whether or not they would go to work or whether they would quit their jobs was affected by their feelings of job satisfaction.

Quaglia and Marion (1991) and Brunetti (2001) noted that intrinsic rewards such as collegiality, interactions with students, and professional autonomy were sources of satisfaction for teachers. They also pointed out that extrinsic rewards such as salary and advancement opportunities had little to do with job satisfaction, and that teachers needed to have the opportunity to demonstrate their professional competency. They emphasized that professional autonomy was the greatest source of satisfaction for those teachers who planned to teach their entire career.

Dinham and Scott (1997) observed that many of the satisfiers teachers experience transcend gender, years of experience, school location, type of school, or the teaching position held. The satisfiers that Dinham and Scott recognized were assisting in student achievement, facilitating positive changes in student attitudes and behavior, the forming and maintaining of positive relationships between students and colleagues, recognition of accomplishments from others, and continued "self growth" and mastery of skills.

Davis and Wilson (2000) that school leaders also had an effect on teacher satisfaction and stated that "if leaders are to create an empowering organization, they need to establish positive relationships within the work setting, develop work groups that work collaboratively in making decisions, inspire and guide the organization, and put into place the process of renewal for the organization" (p. 350). Subsequently, assuming that student achievement was directly affected by teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction, it

would stand to reason that it would be of great importance to understand the connection between teacher job satisfaction and student achievement and to identify and implement strategies to strengthen the teaching profession, while at the same time, making it a more satisfying career.

With the high turnover rate and increasing numbers of teachers leaving the profession, making teaching a career with high levels of satisfaction could possibly encourage indecisive students to choose the path of teaching. The retention of quality teachers requires a commitment from the educational institutions to enhance professional growth of its teachers, and increase job satisfaction in order for teachers to have the ability "to move through more mature career stages" (Danielson 2002, p. 189). Latham (1998) concurred and postulated that by making teaching a more attractive and satisfying career, "not only would this encourage bright young prospects to become teachers, it would also encourage experienced teachers to stay in the profession" (p. 82). Job satisfaction could improve teaching, increase the retention of quality teachers, and reduce stress levels of teachers. Latham continued by posing the question "who would you rather have teaching your child – someone who finds teaching challenging and rewarding or someone who dreads entering the classroom every day?" (p. 82).

Teacher Dissatisfaction

Popham (2004) remarked that many teachers in the United States have contemplated their function in the school and "whether they're teachers or targets" (p. 86). Popham suggested that these feelings of vulnerability were a result of the No Child Left Behind legislation and the ever present reminders of possible personal or school sanctions for failing to meet state accountability measures. Wu and Short (1996) indicated that when teachers became increasingly dissatisfied with their working conditions and as commitment to their institution decreased, this growth of dissatisfaction caused the teachers to suffer and, equally important, their students to also suffer. Spears, Gould, and Lee (2000) agreed and indicated that teachers who were planning to exit the teaching profession disclosed that increased stress, excessive bureaucracy, heavy workloads, poor pay, and low morale were the combination of factors that led to their decision to leave.

Keeping quality teachers is hindered by the increased pressures of schools' accountability regarding the No Child Left Behind legislation and the accompanying high-stakes testing and mandated curricula standards (Johnson, et al, 2001) They continued by suggesting that as schools were continually working with diligence in response to new mandates with initiatives and reforms, it left new teachers with little time to keep up when they were already struggling to learn the teaching craft without the additional burden of working in a chaotic and dynamic work environment.

In rural schools, where teacher satisfaction was waning due to professional, social, geographic, or cultural isolation, teachers were more likely to leave the profession (Voke, 2002). Consequently, teachers who were unhappy enough to quit teaching, or teachers with high levels of dissatisfaction, could not perform with the intensity and enthusiasm vital for today's classrooms.

With relationship to educational and professional development, teachers were generally of the opinion that they were consciously ignored and omitted from the training scheduling and the topic selection process, especially those teachers teaching in the non-tested curriculum areas. Rural schools experienced increased difficulty with continuing education and professional development due to the unavailability of quality programs, the expense, and also the distances from regional colleges or universities. Connolly (2000) noted that teacher job dissatisfaction increased when teachers realized that they had limited input in making suggestions or decision-making in school issues, as well as restricted autonomy within their classrooms. Connolly continued by saying that teachers began to feel isolated, angry, and formed feelings of disrespect for the administration as the realization of limited autonomy surfaced. When this occurred, teachers began to feel unchallenged, frustrations grew, and there was boredom, an unusual depletion of energy, and a continued fear of losing the requisite energy needed to teach. Danielson (2002) found that when teachers became isolated within their classroom, their levels of satisfaction and commitment to the teaching profession was jeopardized. When teaching became only a job, instead of a profession that was loved, and when issues caused

teachers to see teaching as no longer making them happy, the consequence was job dissatisfaction.

Dinham and Scott (1997) described teacher job dissatisfaction as resulting from any circumstances that contributed to the perceived detraction from the primary objective of educating their students. This extrinsic phenomenon included the impact of changing educational policies or procedures, the increased expectations of schools to cure social ills, the decline in status of teachers in communities, and increased expectations of administrative responsibilities and workloads not associated with teaching.

According to Milanowski (2000) high stakes accountability created unnecessary divisions, undermined morale, and inhibited leadership in ways that worked against school reforms. Milanowski also observed that reward dollars awarded to schools might actually have caused divisions, undermined morale, and promoted teacher dissatisfaction within many schools that received those awards.

Many times, schools were able to attract teachers to their schools by promoting their induction and mentoring programs as a benefit to the development of new teachers. Remarkably, at the same time, administrators and mentor teachers quite often expected these new and inexperienced teachers to assume all of the same responsibilities and duties as veteran teachers (Renard, 2003). Along with these expectations came the accountability of performing to the expected levels of "expertise" that most new teachers could not furnish and, therefore, they became the targets of unneeded pressure and criticism that could provoke discouragement and dissatisfaction.

Voke (2002) and Danielson (2002) communicated the downside of the practice of rural schools assigning new teachers the most challenging students, appointing them to supervise or coach extracurricular activities, clubs, or athletic teams, and expecting them to teach multiple subjects, some for which they might not be certified. This situation could lead to increased stress levels for new teachers and could place them in a situation with overwhelming responsibilities, which could result in immediate job dissatisfaction. When new teachers experienced an overwhelming workload they were unable to achieve their full potential, self efficacy, and there was fertile ground for growing dissatisfaction. Spears, Gould, and Lee (2000) agreed and identified that teacher' perceptions of overwhelming workloads, their viewpoint of not having influence in school policies or curriculum decisions, and the questioning of how they were viewed in the community, all contributed to teacher dissatisfaction.

Halford (as cited by Renard, 2003) stated that "teaching remains the profession that eats its young" (p. 63). Although veteran teachers were aware of what new teachers were experiencing, many of these veterans often selfishly practiced the belief that "they have paid their dues and that new teachers must do the same" (p. 63). Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) observed this same attitude and pointed out that education has been criticized for a long time as an occupation that "cannibalizes its young". New teachers often found themselves in informal hazing situations as they were initiated into the teaching profession with what Ingersoll and Kralik and Weiss and Weiss (1999) all

described as survival experiences. New teachers summed up their self evaluations as either sinking or swimming, or unwittingly participating in a daily ritual of trial by fire.

Teacher Quality

Teacher quality is an issue that deserves consideration in rural schools' efforts to recruit and retain teachers. Darling-Hammond (2003) pointed out that as inner city and rural schools were already experiencing the annual challenge of finding enough teachers to meet their needs, the No Child Left Behind mandate of providing every student with a highly qualified teacher in each of their classrooms has compounded the difficulties these schools encounter in hiring and retaining a high quality teacher workforce. Baker and Smith (1997) proposed that out of all the issues facing education today, including the teacher shortage, the concerns regarding teacher quality should receive increased focus.

In Ingersoll and Smith's, *The Wrong Solution to the Teacher Shortage* (2003), they postulated that due to the teacher shortage and a limited hiring pool of available candidates, many rural schools were unavoidably forced to lower their standards on the teachers they employed which inherently reduced the quality of teachers hired into the system. Howley and Howley (2004) and Swift (1984, 1985) reported that administrators in small and rural schools indicated that one of the most pressing problems within their schools and school districts was finding and employing qualified teachers. Recruiting and retaining competent teachers in rural schools remained an ongoing problem often caused

by a rural teacher's social and intellectual isolation, the lack of school and personal resources, and the physical location of the school community. Reed and Busby (1985) that for rural schools to be successful in attracting and retaining quality teachers they must adequately meet the expectations of teachers from what they called the three C's: characteristics, conditions, and compensation.

States experiencing the teacher shortage have made various changes in the requirements for obtaining teacher certification in an effort to alleviate the teacher shortage problem, only to realize that it has led to situations where new teachers are entering schools with varying degrees and types of preparation (Johnson & Kardos, 2002). This preparation ranges from the conventional educational programs which include traditional education coursework and opportunities for student teaching and monitored internships to alternative certification programs that allow the use of a non-education bachelors or masters' degree with professional or business experience. The latter allowed for a mid-career change in order to begin a career in education and enter the classroom.

Johnson and Kardos continued by noting that some teachers who access the classroom from the alternative certification route found themselves feeling that they were not prepared to teach and that they needed ongoing professional development in the areas of classroom management and subject area content. They also realized the need for an ongoing induction program or an appointed mentor so that they would have someone to

ask the questions that they needed answered in order to give them an opportunity to improve the quality of their classroom instruction.

Mantle-Bromley, Gould, and McWhorter (2000) indicated that only four of ten qualified teaching candidates from traditional teacher education programs actually held teaching positions in the classrooms. The other classrooms were occupied by teachers who lacked the qualifications and skills that actually made a difference in student achievement. Therefore, well planned and executed professional development programs were necessary for new teachers so that they could become more prepared and competent in their teaching experience. These programs helped develop the skills, abilities, and an understanding of the educational process and the daily circumstances that surround the school, rather than receiving that often "What you need to do is…" advice from veteran teachers on how to run a classroom which often proves inadequate or inappropriate.

Developing supportive relationships through professional development programs increased the quality of teaching by reducing the in school isolation that inhibits teacher development, thereby creating an atmosphere that promotes confidence in the teacher's ability to teach as they became more knowledgeable about the school and its culture. Darling-Hammond (as cited by Mantle-Bromley, Gould, & McWhorter, 2000) said "if the achievement level of our nation's students is to increase, the students must have highly qualified teachers" (p. 14).

Davis and Doig (2004) surveyed schools in Southwest Florida and reported that many principals in inner-city and rural schools complained that they are forced to hire

novice teachers who do not have the experience or the training to deal with children in lower socioeconomic situations. They also explained that principals and school administrators in minority and rural communities were very aware of, and have experienced, how the current system favored wealthy schools as they compete in recruiting quality teachers. These administrators have long since realized that they get more first year teachers, more uncertified teachers, and more teachers who lack the expertise in their subject areas. The shortage of top quality teachers in rural schools was so prevalent that most principals reluctantly accepted the fact that filling their vacated positions with lower qualified teachers had become just part of their job (Davis & Doig, 2004). Pesek (1993) noted that although rural school administrators sincerely believed that they were finding and hiring top teacher candidates by means of certain sources, in truth those sources could be associated with high turnover or individuals who were poor performers in their previous positions.

Many of the teachers who were employed by rural schools accepted their positions reluctantly and looked to leave the rural situation as soon as possible. Swift (1985) indicated four main reasons for this phenomenon. First, new teachers received inadequate or inappropriate pre-service preparation for the issues, situations, and circumstances they would face in a rural school. Secondly, new teachers failed to understand and recognize that experience in small rural schools could advance their personal career plans and goals. Thirdly, teachers were not emotionally prepared for the limitations and demands of rural communities. Finally, a personal clash emerged

between teachers' personal value systems and rural lifestyles, their expectations of themselves, the school and community, and what Swift (1984) called "the harsh realities of rural living" (p.2).

Teacher quality has remained a secondary question when teacher supply and demand was the topic of educational discussions (Baker & Smith, 1997). Baker and Smith went on to say that teacher quality is a topic often included within discussions on the teacher shortage and teacher supply and demand and that "imbalances within supply and demand are often resolved through adjustments in teacher qualifications" (p. 33). When the supply of available teachers is plentiful, school administrators can set their standards higher for the teachers they select, as well as being able to offer lower salaries to the candidates with little or no effect on the quality of the teachers employed. Conversely, with a limited hiring pool, teacher quality is often sacrificed especially when available salaries remain low as compared to other professions with similar educational requirements (1997).

The Florida Education Association (2005) claimed that the teacher shortage crisis in Florida is only exacerbated by the state's "failure" (p. 6) to maintain salaries for teachers competitive to those of teacher salaries in adjacent states and also with occupations with similar educational backgrounds or requirements. Expanding the quality teacher workforce and alleviating the problems of the teacher shortage cannot just be addressed by inventing or offering short-term schemes and bonuses, successful maintenance of attracting and keeping quality teachers in schools must be an ongoing

process of giving attention to those teachers that are already in the classrooms and the new teachers after they have been hired into the system. This attention would come in the form of appropriate working conditions, competitive salaries, valuable professional development, administrative and community support, and an elevation of respect of teachers as professionals.

With the limited number of teaching positions in rural schools, coupled with the teacher shortage, late budget decisions, and fluctuating student populations, rural schools either ignored, or found it difficult to anticipate the job vacancies for the upcoming school year (Darling-Hammond, 2001). Hiring decisions that were pushed back until August and September in conjunction with a school board's inability or unwillingness to pay for vested experience, has created a situation where only the less qualified teachers were available for hiring at that time of year. Sadly, many rural school boards and administrators viewed hiring untrained or poorly qualified teachers as an economic benefit. By hiring teachers with little or no experience, the district spent less money in salaries, in essence, trading an increased fund balance for an inferior quality of teacher. Rural schools also found themselves recruiting and hiring some of these untrained teachers and trying to provide short-term induction programs just prior to their entering the classroom. Darling-Hammond said, "ironically, these strategies exacerbate the problems of supply and demand and cost more in the long run than incentives for hiring well prepared teachers" (p. 14).

Prince and Quinn (2002) stated that "compelling research evidence indicates that teacher quality is the single most important school variable affecting student achievement" (p. 6). According to an article published in *American Teacher*, Girsky, Rose, and Moss (2004), found that teacher quality has influenced the achievement levels of students, and that the issue of teacher quality was in a state of crisis especially in poorer schools. They quoted John Jackson, the NAACP Education Director, as saying that "teacher quality is the most important factor in improving the educational attainment level of a child" (p.17). Girsky et al. continued by posing the rhetorical question of how can rural schools succeed in recruiting, preparing, supporting, and retaining the quality teachers that they are successful in locating, when rural schools continually experience a multitude of frustrating circumstances over which they have little control.

The issue of teacher quality in combination with the well intentioned, but misfitting, one size fits all, legislation of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) has amplified the pressure on rural schools, administrators, and their teachers. This pressure has contributed to the intensifying frustrations of recognized quality classroom teachers who maintain classrooms in rural schools. Reactions to NCLB in many schools have facilitated a demand for changes in teaching methods throughout the entire schools and school districts requiring quality teachers to abandon the methods that they have refined and know are effective. Through this required change of methodology the suggested changes may actually be reducing the effectiveness of these quality teachers. Required changes in pedagogy have also been identified as an issue that many quality teachers are now

leaving the profession. Nieto (2003) stated in his article entitled; *What keeps teachers going?* that "paradoxically, current reforms that focus only on accountability including standardized testing, teacher testing, and other such policies, may be driving out some of the teachers who are effective with the students who most need committed and caring teachers" (p. 18). Saban (2002) reiterated this concern and noted that teaching is a "challenging and confusing endeavor" (p. 837) and as teachers face these new challenges, and as frustrations continue to mount, it is causing quality teachers to question their desire to continue teaching and inhibits their ability to keep going. In the end, for those who stay, it is the satisfaction that encourages them to return each morning. This satisfaction is distinctive and personal to each and every educator and is derived from the daily encounters and experiences with their students and colleagues.

Rural Schools

Rural schools in the United States, and the students they represent, are surrounded by a "bumpy and uncertain ride into the future of education reform" (Belsie, 2003 p. 18). Belsie pointed out that the fledging economy, continuing state educational budget cuts, and, ironically, the mandates of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) are creating ominous situations in already struggling rural school districts. In recent years, the educational focus surrounding our nation's schools under NCLB has been teacher and school accountability. With the close political connections between Washington D.C.,

Texas, and Florida have been considered the leaders in reform and in the implementation of this new legislation. Florida's reform efforts have resulted in the implementation of the A+ Plan, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) examinations, and the state assignment of a school grading system designating the assessed performance of individual schools based upon the annual FCAT results. This focus on teacher and district accountability, student preparation for the FCAT, improved student achievement, and student grade level promotion, is present not only in the statewide discourse of public opinion, it is also permeates the internal fabric of rural schools and their communities (Myers & Curtiss, 2003).

Although poor and rural schools are required to meet the same standards as their urban and suburban counterparts, they are also fundamentally placed at a distinct disadvantage due to the lack of, or the limited accessibility or availability of, many of the resources available to those same urban and suburban schools which are essential in meeting the goals and standards of the No Child Left Behind legislation. At the same time that rural schools were subject to the inaccessibility of many resources, school district administrators were also acutely aware of the threat that federal funds could be recalled or eliminated if school districts were unable to perform to the standards set in the funding legislation.

In the course of reviewing the literature on rural schools, the state of Florida was noticeably absent from discussions that identified it as a state containing rural schools or as a state that needed to deal with rural educational issues. According to the National

Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE)(1996), Florida ranked 44th in descending order by state, with only a total of 14.1% of the state's schools being considered rural or small serving 11.5% of the state's student population. As of an updated 2003 report by the NASBE, Florida was ranked 47th having 18.2% of public schools in rural areas serving a student population of 16.7% ranking Florida 41st in the nation (2003). The NASBE additionally reported that although few students and schools were in rural communities, poverty and minority rates were high in rural schools and that Florida ranked among the states with a most urgent and critical need of policy attention regarding rural school size, lack of parental support, and the percentage of dollars spent in rural schools that makes it to the classroom (p. 33).

Nearly 40% of America's school-age children attended public schools in rural areas or small towns of populations less than 25,000 people (National Education Association, June 2001). State and national legislative debates on educational policy primarily focus on the needs, concerns, and issues of urban and suburban schools. This advantage is inherently bestowed upon urban and suburban districts due to a combination of the geographical, demographical, and economical disposition of these districts. Furthermore, the urban and suburban population could readily take advantage of their existing political and constituential influence as their voices were more readily heard by elected officials. This access was achieved merely because of the urban and suburban districts' statistical capability to dilute the power of the ballot cast by rural voters. Essentially, rural school districts lack the populace and fiscal clout, and, therefore, they

are less able to receive the same level of access and attention afforded urban and suburban school districts as state and federal legislation is proposed and implemented. As new mandates are handed down, rural schools are placed at a noticeable disadvantage when they are required to implement blanket educational mandates into practice in their rural school systems, most of which were designed to address the concerns and needs of urban and suburban schools.

According to the NEA (2001), although rural schools were educating 40% of America's student population, rural schools received less than 25% of the total state and federal monies designated and spent on education. Unsurprisingly, rural schools tended to be located in sparsely populated areas with little or no industry, consisting of neighborhoods with low property values. These circumstances increased the difficulty for local school boards to generate adequate funding to finance the daily operations of their schools, let alone earn additional revenue to give them the opportunity to offer more competitive salaries to their teaching staff. Jimerson (2003) reported that researchers believed that, particularly in rural school districts, "low pay is fueling the teacher shortages" (p. 11).

McCracken and Miller (1988) noted that a considerable number of teachers commented that they needed to "moonlight" (p. 26). Teachers perceived that working a second job permitted them an opportunity to supplement their income and assist in making a more "satisfactory living" (p. 24) for themselves by offsetting the low salary

that they were receiving so that they could continue working in the teaching profession, their chosen vocation.

Seal and Harmon (1995) reported that in addition to the poverty in the area of the school's location, a weak tax base, and insufficient funding for mandated state and federal programs, there was an inadequate pool of qualified instructional personnel to fill teaching positions available within schools in rural areas. This problematic financial situation, coupled with a limited teaching hiring pool, had a direct and continuing negative impact on the recruitment and retention of quality teachers for rural schools. Two of the largest obstacles that rural schools typically encounter in attempting to attract and retain teachers are the social isolation and the absence of entertainment and leisure activities (Buchanan, 2005). The nature of rural school locations also contributed to the difficulties associated with the job satisfaction of its teachers. Collins (1999) stated that social, cultural, and professional isolation are only some of the issues that dilute rural teacher job satisfaction. Harmon (2001) maintained that there is a "critical need" (p. 9) for expanded research and a better understanding of how colleges and universities can assist the rural schools in facilitating educational opportunities to meet the specific needs of the teaching force located in rural schools.

Rural Teacher Shortage

Lemke (1994) and Collins (1999) both suggested that the teacher shortage has affected many schools across the nation and that rural school administrators "find it extremely difficult" (Lemke, p. 10) to find and employ highly qualified teachers who "fit in" (Collins, p. 2) a rural school and rural community. They also noted that rural schools find it difficult to employ teachers who accept the position with the intention of remaining in the job, rather than merely obtaining an initial teaching experience reference while waiting for a position in a larger district to become available. School districts in rural areas experience a more difficult time in attracting teachers to their rural schools due to budget limits and also the lack of amenities available in larger metropolitan areas (Crews, 2002). Collins also that it was particularly difficult for rural schools to recruit teachers who hold state certification in multiple subject areas such as special education, foreign languages, Limited English Proficiency (LEP), or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programs.

It has been estimated that between 2 million and 2.2 million teachers will be needed to fill teaching positions opened by what Ingersoll (2002) calls the retirement of a "graying teaching force" (p. 42), the reduction of class size, and the continued increase of student enrollment in the next eight to ten years (Clewell & Villegas 2001, Rose 2002, Whiting & Klotz 2000). Harmon (2001) added that in addition to teacher retirement and class size reduction, the increase of the student population is not only rising from the

growing families of current residents, but also from the increased number of immigrants. Approximately 1 million teachers will be needed in just the six states of California, Florida, Illinois, New York, Ohio, and Texas as these states contain nearly 1,400 rural schools, and four of which continue to experience high numbers of immigrants entering their states with school age children.

Matus (2005) reported for the St. Petersburg Times that it was projected that for the school year beginning in the fall of 2006, Florida will be in need of 30,000 new teachers as a result of what Matus called "a statistical perfect storm" formed from "a surge in students, a spike in teacher retirements, and the demands of the 2002 Florida constitutional amendment to reduce class sizes" (p. 1.A). These numbers reflect that the current hiring rate for teachers in Florida will nearly double. Beyond the teachers needed for the 2005-2006 school year, it is also predicted that Florida will require an additional 20,000 teachers per year to meet the demand for at least each of the next ten years.

Current educational thought has suggested that the main cause of poor school performance is the difficulty that schools have in staffing each of their classrooms with effective and highly qualified teachers. Harmon (2001) stated that "attracting and retaining quality teachers will be instrumental in creating and implementing the higher standards for student academic achievement being advocated in rural schools" (p. 2). Since education has continued to be in competition with other businesses and careers for intelligent and dedicated people, school districts have the obligation to not only place a high effort in attracting bright individuals and strong candidates to their schools, but to

also provide support and opportunities for these new teachers to become highly qualified (Banks, 1999). Banks continued by stating that "new teachers have the passion and motivation to teach, but many districts provide a sink or swim atmosphere that new teachers must overcome" (p. 12). Bradley (1998) noted that increased teacher shortages were assisted by a teacher distribution problem across the United States, which was generated from both geographical and subject specialty related issues. Affluent suburban districts were not experiencing as many problems associated with the teacher shortage issue because they were receiving adequate numbers of teacher applicants, while rural and urban schools struggled to fill their available teaching positions. Buchanan (2005) pointed out that rural schools face problems that urban and suburban schools did not experience when trying to attract teachers to their rural schools created by social isolation and the unavailability of leisure activities or entertainment. Robinson (as cited by Buchanan) stated that "the city lights, for most young people, are blazing too brightly" (p. 17). In essence, the personal time after the school bell rings to end the teacher workday remains important to young teachers. The accessibility for recreation, entertainment, shopping, social activities, and interactions with their peers was a continuous and vital component for teachers when they were choosing a school and community to work in.

NCLB legislation imparted even greater difficulties for all rural schools, with their traditionally high minority and high poverty populations, in their success in attracting new teachers (Tompkins, 2003). In Smolowitz's article, *Law May Intensify Teacher Shortage,* (March, 2005), it was reported that in North Carolina, administrators

and educators feared that NCLB, although believing it a well intentioned federal law, could actually exacerbate the existing teacher shortages. Smolowitz noted the difficulties rural schools faced by presenting an example of a veteran teacher of 13 years possessing a master's degree, National Board Certification, and a former district teacher of the year. Contrary to the intention of the law, this teacher is not considered "highly qualified" according to the NCLB definition because she teaches multiple subjects, which is a common occurrence in rural schools, and does not hold certifications in each of the subject areas. Sullivan (as cited by Smolowitz), stated that "in a state that was already struggling to find teachers…NCLB is really making it extra difficult." Ironically, what was intended to provide students with qualified teachers creates a situation of an unintended consequence which is sustaining the longevity of the teacher shortage.

Tompkins (2003) also reported that there was considerable disparity in the chronically low salaries that rural teachers received versus teachers in urban and suburban schools. Rural teachers earned an average of 86 cents on the dollar as compared to the urban and suburban colleagues. This correlated to a possible variance of $5,000 a year in the salaries of teachers with comparable college degrees and years of experience, and was reported to be in the range of $6,886 to $7,896 per year in New York, Pennsylvania, and Iowa, and up to $8,573 in Illinois.

The Florida Education Association (FEA, 2005) reported that between 1993 and 2003, Florida's average teacher salary grew a total of 1.2%, taking into consideration a calculated adjustment for inflation. At first glance it might look like a reasonable increase

until compared to the nationwide average totaling a 2.6% increase. In the southeast, only Kentucky's average teacher salary increase was lower than Florida's. More impressive and significant gains were made by other southeastern states such as an 18% increase in Georgia, 15.1% increase in North Carolina, 11.6% increase in Louisiana, 11.2% increase in Alabama, 11.1% increase in Mississippi, and an 8.2% increase in South Carolina. The FEA also reported that, comparatively, Florida's teacher salaries have stayed rather stagnant while at the same time healthcare costs have jumped to all time highs making it even more difficult to attract and keep good teachers in Florida where rural districts are not immune to these increased healthcare costs.

According to Jimerson (2003) from the Rural School and Community Trust in Charlotte, Vermont, research was limited, at best, when studying the specific needs and challenges of attracting teachers to rural schools. As problems and concerns facing rural schools have started to gain the serious attention of educational administrators and policy makers, new focuses and proposals have surfaced with possible programs and solutions in an effort to assist rural schools in attracting high quality teachers, while reducing the effects of the teacher shortage on rural schools.

Growing Your Own Teachers

Several programs have been conceived in an effort to alleviate the teacher shortage issue in rural schools and to supplement the schools with highly qualified and

motivated teachers. The theory of growing your own teachers has been perceived as a practical and effective method of filling these rural teaching positions. According to Lemke (1994) growing your own teachers took advantage of local people who possessed and desired to preserve their rural ties, seeking meaningful employment, and would be more likely to remain teaching in a rural school. These teachers came to the school already aware of its expectations and limitations, with a strong allegiance, and already holding a position within the community. Collins (1999) agreed and proposed that rural school systems needed to identify and target teacher candidates who possessed the personal characteristics, educational experiences, and rural type backgrounds that encouraged them to choose to live in rural communities.

Hutchison and Sundin (1999) identified a three part proposal that promoted the growing your own teachers philosophy. This proposal took advantage of what Hutchison and Sundin considered to be a neglected resource under the school district's charge: its students. They that educators had a build-in advantage over other professions with their immediate access to numerous high school students preparing for graduation, and they had not taken advantage of this untapped and unlimited source of possible teachers in what they went on to say the profession has managed to ignore and waste. The three parts of this proposition began with creating magnet schools providing promising students with multiple chances to experience the rewards of teaching during their high school years. These experiences included student internships or tutoring opportunities which were designed to encourage teaching careers. Hutchison and Sundin's second part, similar to

Lemke's (1994) proposal that for those individuals who commit to teach, scholarships, internships, and part time jobs could be made available to help support their educational pursuits. Aides and paraprofessionals who have made a commitment to the schools and their students but have not finished their degrees would also be included in receiving financial support.

Finally, Hutchison and Sundin (1999) indicated that alternative certification avenues could be provided, along with planned and continuing educational partnerships designed to help recruits accelerate and intensify teacher training with hands-on classroom experiences. Alternative certification would be provided for community members with college degrees, talents, and work experience which would enable them to utilize their expertise to become effective classroom teachers.

Collins (1999) agreed and elaborated by stating that not only should high schools encourage students who demonstrated the characteristics of successful teachers in the teaching profession, but colleges could also begin working with schools to create and make available programs designed to aggressively recruit in middle and high schools. Colleges had the resources available to offer students classes in education theory, peer tutoring, counseling, and role modeling. These curricula could be offered after school and during summer or vacation camp environments, thereby encouraging and educating students to choose to pursue a career in teaching.

According to the Wichita Public Schools Human Resources Office (2002), a Grow Your Own Teachers Program (GYOT), similar to what Hutchinson and Sundin

(1999) proposed, was implemented to assist with the problems that the schools located in Wichita and Sedgwick County were experiencing due to the teacher shortage and also as an effort to increase the representation of the diversity reflected in the demographics of their community. The Wichita program identified and recruited individuals who graduated not only from its local schools, but also from any of the state accredited high schools located in Sedgwick County. They also identified paraprofessionals and other employees who were currently working in the Wichita Public School System. These individuals were identified by referrals from high school counselors, colleges of education, and even self referrals. The program provided financial support in the form of forgivable loans, as well as work experiences within classrooms, seminars, mentor assignments, and job placement assistance upon receipt of state teacher certification and successful completion of the program.

Hare and Heap (2001) concurred with Lemke's (1994) observation concerning the homegrown philosophy of recruiting teachers for rural schools. In Hare and Heap's post study recommendations, they determined that especially in rural schools, an effective strategy was to look to a district's own backyard for future teachers. They also suggested that it was important to encourage community support and the recruitment of homegrown teachers by retaining current staff through activities such as tuition support, implementing Future Teachers of America programs in schools, and implementing career education programs. They also suggested that rural communities and businesses could become involved by designing programs for returning homegrown teachers which would enable

them to reduce their debt loads by refinancing educational loans and offering mortgages at reduced rates, which would provide incentive to return to their rural roots and remain a part of the community.

Lemke (1994) also pointed out that by cultivating this homegrown teacher crop through the various grow your own strategies, and assisting them in their needed training and education degrees, rural schools could gain highly qualified teachers that would come with an acquaintance and fit for the community and the school. This "fit" could produce the ideal rural teacher as he or she would be more likely to stay on the job, be sensitive to, and be responsive to the school's need for them to teach multiple subjects, teach a varied range of student abilities, assume additional duties, and supervise extracurricular activities. All of these would promote a bond with the school, its students, its faculty, and the community.

Summary

Employee productivity and job motivation have received considerable attention in business and industry, however, in education, little research has focused on attitudes related to satisfied teachers (Brunetti, 2001; Quaglia & Marion, 1991). Since Fredrick Taylor's studies on job productivity and his congressional presentation on the topic in 1912, his theory of scientific management has been the basis of the industrial focus on employee productivity (Bracey, 2003). Although accepted in industry, Bracey described Taylor's theory as "disastrous" (p. 36) when applied to education and that it lent a

dehumanizing characterization of students as "standard products" (p. 36) of schools. Owens (2001) agreed with Bracey's observations but credited Taylor with being a pioneer in making the connection between motivation and job performance.

Regardless of the expectations that are projected onto schools and students emanating from the general public, business and industry, or the government, eventually, individual teachers will be the vehicles by which the curricula will be delivered in attempting to meet those expectations. As motivation and job satisfaction have surfaced as bonafied conditions that effect one's performance on the job, Collins (1999) and Jimerson (2004) each confirmed through their writings on rural education that not only was research on job satisfaction limited in the education venue, but it was noticeably incomplete in the realm of rural schools.

While the pendulum of education has slowly swayed to and fro, its current attitude points to a new era of accountability and teacher quality, along with a reappearance of the back to the basics movement and the advancement of national standards. All of these are being packaged in state and federal legislation in ways never experienced before. A phenomenon coinciding with this new era in education, generated by multiple factors, has been an upsurge in the student population (Harmon, 2001) and, therefore, an increased need for teachers during a time of teacher shortages. The requirements of No Child Left Behind stipulating that a highly qualified teacher occupy every classroom in conjunction with the teacher shortage has created a challenging situation for many schools, but it has caused an even greater burden on schools located in

rural areas. Buchanan (2002) observed that rural schools are not the first choices of new teachers. The geographical, cultural, and educational isolation of rural schools makes recruiting and retaining teachers in rural schools difficult, especially when it is coupled with other characteristics that are associated with rural areas (Voke, 2002).

During the last decade, the notion of growing your own teachers has been put forth as a solution to alleviate the teacher shortage, particularly in rural areas. Lemke (1994) asserted that schools should take advantage of people already members of the rural community who would be more apt to remain teaching in a rural school. Hutchison and Sundin (1999) concurred with Lemke and expressed the significance of offering employment to homegrown people interested in teaching opportunities by providing financial support to them while earning their degree or alternative certification. Homegrown teachers come to rural schools with an existing connection and awareness of the community that helps reduce the effects of the teacher shortage for the rural district while allowing the focus on new teachers to be centered on their professional development, rather than attempting to acclimate them to the intricacies of survival in an isolated rural area without the amenities they may be used to.

The proposal of growing your own teachers was not limited exclusively to rural schools but to urban and suburban as well. Researchers such as Lemke (1994), Collins (1999), Hutchinson and Sundin (1999), and Darling-Hammond (2003) all agreed and promoted growing your own as a valid solution in easing the teacher shortage. However, research is essentially nonexistent with regard to implementation of a grow your own

policy influences the attitude and climate of the school in conjunction with the job satisfaction of all teachers, whether they were part of a homegrown program or whether they arrived in the teaching profession via a different route.

Therefore, it is vital that administrators and teachers in rural schools become more familiar and comfortable with what they and their peers' value in their professional relationships and work environments in an effort to understand what is needed to be cultivated to attract and retain quality teachers in rural schools. They face the challenge of doing whatever is necessary to support and improve the job satisfaction of all its teachers in their charge.

CHAPTER 3
METHODS AND PROCEEDURES

Chapter 3 contains a discussion of the methods and procedures for this study. This chapter includes the purpose, and descriptions of study procedures, study site demographics, population sample, sample size, qualitative instruments and analysis packages, data collection, data collection procedures and the basis of the interpretation of the data analysis. In addition, Chapter 3 incorporates a description of the methods implemented during the quantitative portion of the study and the procedures used for the qualitative section of this study.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify the contributors to rural teacher job satisfaction and the beliefs and attitudes concerning teacher satisfaction as acknowledged by teachers in a rural school system.

Study Procedures

The procedures used for this study began with the review of literature and an examination of previous studies related to teacher job satisfaction, rural schools, the teacher shortage, growing your own teachers, and teacher dissatisfaction. Concurrently

with the review of literature, the sample group was identified which included all teachers within a rural school district that managed all public schools in the county and who were working under the district's negotiated teachers' contract during the 2004 – 2005 school year.

A request to approve and conduct the study was prepared and submitted to the University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (UCFIRB). Included in the request for approval was the title of the project, proposed dates of the research, funding sources, scientific purpose, research methodology, and the potential benefits and anticipated risks associated with the study. This request also included the recruiting methods and the processes to be used in acquiring the appropriate informed consent of the study participants. This artifact is located in Appendix A.

Upon receipt of University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board's approval the principal investigator contacted and met with the rural school district's superintendent. During this meeting the purpose and procedures of the research were explained and discussed. The superintendent agreed to present the research proposal and points of discussion to the school board. Additionally, the superintendent arranged for the principal investigator to be included on the board's meeting agenda to present a short outline of the proposed study, to answer any questions or concerns that may be expressed by the board and to secure documented approval to conduct the rural teacher satisfaction research in the Countywide District Schools. This approval by the board was deemed

necessary by the principal investigator whereas the Countywide District Schools had no formal policy regarding institutional review procedures.

This was a mixed study that began with the voluntary participation by the sample population completing two self administered surveys. The two surveys were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) which was a modified version of the demographic section of the MSQ tailored for this study population. Approval for use of the MSQ was requested and granted by the University of Minnesota's Office of Vocational Psychology Research.

This study also included a qualitative component that afforded participants the opportunity to convey their beliefs and attitudes through personal interviews or through focus group discussions. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey respondents interested in taking part in the qualitative portion of the study were given opportunities to participate in a focus group, a personal interview or both. All survey respondents were also informed that they may decline to participate entirely.

To inform the targeted population about the study, its purpose, and procedures the principal investigator requested time during scheduled faculty meetings from the site principals and upon receiving permission, formally addressed the faculty at each of the three district schools. During those meetings the principal investigator provided an explanation of the planned research, the process, answered any questions about the study, and discussed the expectations of the requested voluntary teacher involvement.

During these meetings, teachers were made aware that during the processing of the returned surveys, all survey data would be collected and analyzed solely by the principal investigator and that the principal investigator would separate the informed consent letter from the survey questionnaires after the data had been collected and prior to entering the data into the SPSS software. They were also informed that the consent letters would be placed in a separate file and location from the survey instruments. Personal identifiers would be replaced with codes so that the individuals participating in the study would have complete confidentiality.

At the conclusion of each faculty meeting, teachers received a prepared packet containing a letter describing the study and its procedures along with two copies of the informed consent letter and the survey questionnaires. Teachers were asked to sign one copy of the informed consent letter and were instructed that the duplicate informed consent letter was provided for their personal records. They were also instructed that to indicate their willingness to participate in a focus group or personal interview they were to check the appropriate areas at the bottom of the informed consent letter. If participants did not intend to participate in a focus group or personal interview they were instructed to leave the area blank

The teachers were then directed that upon receiving the packet they were to, at their leisure, read the study information letter, sign the informed consent letter, indicate their intention to participate or not participate in the focus groups or personal interviews at the bottom of the informed consent letter, and to complete the Minnesota Satisfaction

Questionnaire (MSQ) and Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS). Upon individual completion of the MSQ and the RTSS, teachers were instructed to place all signed and completed letters, forms, and surveys in the envelope provided, seal it, and submit it to either the principal investigator or their building principal. At the conclusion of the meetings the teachers were then informed that the meeting dates and times for those who were interested in participating in a focus group or a personal interview would be assigned after a review of the informed consent letters. They were also informed that if they had any questions at any time during the study they could contact the principal investigator or the committee chairman. Contact information for each was provided in the informed consent letter.

The survey instruments that were used were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey. The MSQ was developed and copyrighted in 1963 and revised in 1997. The MSQ was designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his/her job. The MSQ short form consisted of 20 questions and provided information of the respondent's intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction levels. The 20 scale items include the following:

1. Ability utilization: the chance to do something that makes use of abilities.
2. Achievement: the feeling of accomplishment one derives from the job.
3. Activity: conditions where an individual is able to keep busy.
4. Advancement: the opportunity to advance or "move up" in the job.
5. Authority: the chance to direct others.

6. Company policies and practices: the perception of how policies are conceived, directed, and implemented.
7. Compensation: the feeling that the pay package is comparable to the work performed.
8. Co-workers: the perception of how co-workers get along with each other.
9. Creativity: implementing personal methods in performing the job.
10. Independence: having the opportunity to exercise autonomy on the job.
11. Moral values: not having to do things that go against one's conscience.
12. Recognition: the praise a worker gets for doing a good job.
13. Responsibility: freedom of an employee to exercise their own judgment.
14. Security: the way the job provides steady employment.
15. Social service: the opportunity to do things for other people.
16. Social status: the opportunity to be "somebody" in the community.
17. Supervision - human relations: how the boss deals within their employees.
18. Supervision – technical: competence of the supervisor.
19. Variety: having opportunities to vary the job routine.
20. Working conditions: the physical and social surroundings of the workplace.

Pertinent demographic data were collected via the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (11 questions) that was based on the demographic data portion of the Minnesota

Satisfaction Questionnaire and redesigned specifically for to the rural teacher study population.

After the self-administration of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey, respondents who agreed to participate in the focus groups were assigned to manageable groups and respondents who agreed to take part in the personal interviews were asked their preference of interview times and schedules were arranged. Meeting times and locations were planned to accommodate the needs and schedules of those participants.

The qualitative sections of the study were conducted based on the assumption maintained by Erickson (1985) that to understand the beliefs and attitudes of the rural teacher population it was imperative to recognize the "local meanings of actions as defined from the actors' point of view" (p. 119). Erickson suggested that by understanding the local meanings it set a criterion for validity and tempered the interpretations of the researcher. The focus groups were conducted using the protocol as suggested by Floyd Fowler (2002) in *Survey Research Methods* (p. 106-107) and personal interviews will be conducted using the interview protocol as outlined by Dr. Laura Blasi (2004) and information from *The Art of Case Study Research* by Robert Stake (1995). The focus group and personal interview questions emerged from the MSQ data results and also with the assistance of rural teachers working at a rural high school located in north Florida. These teachers were informed of the proposed study and then asked to submit questions that they felt would be important and should be asked if they

were participating in a similar study. The following are the series of questions that were used in the focus groups and personal interviews:

- How would you define your needs for teacher job satisfaction?
- What are the factors that motivate you to teach?
- What are the benefits of working in a rural school?
- What are the disadvantages of working in a rural school?
- If you were starting over, would you choose teaching as a career?
- Is compensation an issue for you as a teacher in a rural school?
- Is recognition an issue for you as a teacher in a rural school?
- Is being homegrown (or transplanted) an issue for you as a teacher in a rural school?
- Are there any other issues you would like to discuss?

Study Site Demographics

This study was conducted in a rural Florida school district located in a single county and operated all public schools within its boundaries. The Office of Program Policy Analysis and Government Accountability (OPPAGA, May, 1998) described this area as one of the most sparsely populated counties and rural communities in the state and the United States Census Bureau (2005) reported that this county had a total population of less than 11,000 residents. There is only one incorporated town within the

entirety of the county and is designated as the county seat. The 2000 United States Census reported the population density at 10.8 (2004) while other sources reported conflicting descriptions of the population density ranging from 10 to 14 (OPPAGA, 1998, U.S. Census Bureau, 2005).

The county seat is the location of the school district's administrative offices and the location of two of the three school sites operated by district. The third school is located approximately 30 miles away. The three schools had a district wide student population of 1,215 students (Kotz, 2005). Elementary School 1 served students K through 6 grades with a student population of 478 students, Elementary School 2 also served students in grades K through 6 with a total student population of 285, and County Middle-High School was a combination school that included grades 7 through 12 and a student population of 452 students.

The economic characteristics as reported by the U.S. Census Bureau (2005), included a per capita income of $15,338, which was 28.9% less than the per capita income of the United States (U.S.), and the median household income was $30,774, 26.7% less than the $41,994 median household income in the U.S. The U.S. Census also noted that 10.7% (299) of the families residing in the county were below the poverty line as compared to a nationwide average of 9.2%, and that 1,487 individuals, 15.2%, were below the poverty line as compared to the national average of 12.4%.

Kotz (2005), indicated that the cumulative number of students eligible for free and reduced lunches, of those who had requested and applied for assistance, was 70%

when combining the three schools. Elementary School 1had a total of 75%, Elementary School 2 had a total of 70%, and County Middle High had a total of 65% of students meeting the federal eligibility requirements to receive free and reduced lunches.

Considering education as a social characteristic, the U.S. Census Bureau (2005) reported that 69.8% of the adult population in the county categorized themselves as a high school graduate as compared to 80.4% of the adult population in the United States. Moreover, the percentage of county residents indicating their earning a bachelor's degree or higher was 9.8% as compared to a reported 24.4% of the national population meeting the same criteria.

The criterion for eligibility to participate in this study were any employee possessing a valid state teaching certificate and who was working under the provisions of the 2004-2005 district teacher's contract. Eligibility included all classroom teachers, medial specialists, guidance counselors, curriculum specialists, and ESE or Title I personnel working in any one or each of the three schools. The number of instructional personnel available for this study totaled 89 K-12 teachers consisting of 54 teachers working in the two elementary schools and 35 teachers in the middle-high school.

According to Petti (2005) the district payroll clerk, of the 89 faculty members employed by the district, 63 teachers held Bachelors degrees, and 24 have Masters Degrees, and 2 have earned Specialist degrees. Additionally, 30 of faculty members are graduates of the local high school and have returned to this rural community to teach. Of the 30 homegrown teachers, 28 have Bachelors degrees, 2 have Masters Degrees. Of the

59 transplanted teachers, 35 have Bachelors degrees, 22 have Masters Degrees, and 2 have earned Specialist Degrees.

Sample Size

Quantitative and Qualitative Instruments

This study had a combined response rate of 95.5% (85 of 89) for each of the quantitative instruments. A total of 89 rural teachers met the criterion for this study and 85 teachers completed and returned the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (N=85), and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (N=85). The two elementary schools had a participation rate of 98% (53 of 54) and the combination middle-high school's participation rate was 91.4% (32 of 35).

Focus Groups and Personal Interviews

A total of 31.7% (27 of 85) of the study group participated in one of four focus groups conducted and 51.8% (44 of 85) of the study group completed a personal interview.

Focus group and personal interview participants ranged from beginning teachers to those with 30 or more years of experience. One each of the focus group sessions were conducted at the two elementary schools and two sessions were conducted at the middle-

high school. This permitted for data that were representative of participants and inclusive of the wide variety of demographics encompassed throughout the study group population.

Quantitative Instruments and Analysis Packages

The quantitative instruments used were the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and a modified version of the MSQ demographic survey (Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey). The data were initially entered into SPSS, exported to Excel, and from Excel tab delimited data was exported and used in MathCAD.

Data Collection

There are twelve demographic and personal dimensions, 20 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) dimensions and three calculated satisfaction scale scores (intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction) for a total of thirty-five dimensions. There are seven categorical variables: School Where You Teach, Homegrown, Transplanted, Gender, Subject Area Certified, Career Choice, and Planning to Stay. There are 27 linear continuous variables: Distance of Commute, Years teaching in Countywide School District, Total Years Taught, Age, the 20 MSQ dimensions, and the three satisfaction scale scores.

Data Collection Procedures

Procedures used in the data collection process followed a multi-step process. This process included gaining approval to meet with each of the three school's faculty, conducting the informational meetings, distribution of survey packets, return reminders, follow-up, and packet collection.

Pre-Meeting Approval

Time was requested from building site principals to meet with their faculties during regularly scheduled meetings. Principals were informed of the proposed study the principal investigator's request of individual participation in the job satisfaction survey and face-to-face interviews and focus groups.

Faculty Meeting Presentations

This time was used to inform potential participants of the significance and purpose of the study, and to encourage their participation. Procedures for providing data for the study were discussed including the satisfaction survey data, personal and group demographics, and the opportunity to participate in a focus group or a personal interview. Information on providing anonymity and confidentiality of completed survey responses and interviews were also discussed.

Packet Distribution

At the conclusion of each faculty meeting every faculty member in attendance received a packet containing two copies of the Informed Consent Form (one for the researcher and one for their records), one Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, one Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey, and an informational letter containing procedural information and contact information for the principal investigator and the committee chair. Faculty members unable to attend these meetings were visited at a later date and given the same packets and information and as those who attended the scheduled meetings. All faculty members were reminded that the principal investigator was available to answer any new or unanswered questions regarding the study.

Return Reminders

Reminders were sent via the district's email system, personal communication, and announcements during subsequent faculty meetings to the proper procedure for returning the Informed Consent Forms and completed surveys.

Follow Up

Three weeks after the initial distribution of the survey packets, supplementary emails and personal communications were attempted to retrieve completed surveys and to encourage those who had not responded to participate in the study.

Packet Collection

The collection of survey packets was an ongoing process. Completed forms and packets were returned beginning the day after the initial meetings and throughout the allotted time. Those packets that were returned to building principals were collected on the final deadline date. Completed surveys collected totaled a 95.5% (85 of 89) response rate.

Qualitative Participation Consent

Informed Consent Forms were reviewed for respondents indicating their intention to participation in focus groups or personal interviews. Recruitment for the focus groups or individual interviews was initiated during the self survey where participants indicated their willingness to continue their involvement by writing their contact information on a supplemental form or through personal contact with the principal investigator. Continued recruitment for members of the focus groups or personal interviews consisted of invitations through personal contact and also through the First Class E-mail system which was utilized county wide.

Focus Group and Personal Interview Scheduling

A list was generated from the Informed Consent Form and personal contacts from respondents indicating their desire to participate in the qualitative portion of the study. After the compilation of this list a separate directory of manageable focus groups and

personal interviews was created. The focus groups were then formed according to school site, to promote easy access and comfort for the participants. Each of the potential group members were contacted with an inventory of prospective dates and times. Focus group members were then contacted after which time the principals of the schools were notified about the proposed dates and time to alleviate as many conflicts as possible. Once permission was granted by the site principal, group members were advised of the approved date, time, and locations.

Personal interviews were scheduled individually after the completion of the focus group sessions. A master schedule was completed as individuals responded with their preference of interview dates and times. Flexibility was ensured for all participants to minimize their discomfort and to meet the demands of their personal schedules.

Focus Group and Personal Interview Framework

At the beginning of each focus group or personal interview sessions participants were reminded of the data collection process and of their opportunity to opt-out of the process at any time without consequence. Participants were advised that the session would be recorded for accuracy and that the tapes would be destroyed after the transcription process. They were also informed that they could request that the recorder be turned off at any time that the felt it necessary. A total of 32% (27 of 85) respondents participated in the focus groups and 52% (44 of 85) completed personal interviews.

Quantitative Data Interpretation

The magnitude of quantitative correlations were interpreted based on the work of Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (1979), who defined the following practical descriptors: (a) .90 to 1.00 equals a very high correlation; (b) .70 to .90 equals a high correlation; (c) 50 to .70 equals a moderate correlation; (d) .30 to 50 equals a low correlation; and (e) .00 to .30 equals little if any correlation.

According to Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire interpretation of percentile scores were described as (a) a score of 75 or higher represents a high degree of satisfaction, (b) a score of 25 or lower indicated a low level of satisfaction, and (c) scores in the middle range indicate average satisfaction.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the analyses of data which were collected in this research study regarding the beliefs and attitudes of teacher job satisfaction of rural teachers. This was a mixed study where quantitative job satisfaction data were collected by means of the 20 item Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey, a modified version of the MSQ demographic survey which was employed to collect demographic data pertaining to variables presented by the study group respondents. Qualitative data were acquired through voluntary participation in focus groups or personal interviews.

The initial component of this chapter identifies the problem addressed in this study, a brief description of the research participants, and survey sample data. The second section outlines the survey sample data and the reliability analysis data of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The third part of this chapter reports the demographic information from the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) and the 20 dimensions of the (MSQ) data as conveyed by the rural teacher respondents. The final part of this chapter presents each of the research questions that guided the study and the quantitative and qualitative data analysis corresponding to those research questions.

Research Problem

The problem addressed in this research study was the identification of the beliefs and attitudes concerning the job satisfaction of rural school teachers and to discriminate those elements of the rural work and community environment that influenced job satisfaction.

Research Participants

The research participants were rural teachers working in a public school district in Florida that managed all public schools countywide. The criterion for participation the study were that teachers were employed full time in any of the three schools operated by this rural school district and working under the district's negotiated teacher contract for the 2004-2005 school year.

Survey Sample Data

A total of 89 rural teachers met the criterion for this study and received survey packets. Of this total, 85 teachers completed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (N=85), resulting in a combined response rate of 95.5% for each of the quantitative instruments. Included in the Rural Teachers Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) respondents were given an opportunity to add any additional

comments that they felt were important to this research study. Of the 85 respondents, 50.6% (43 of 85) included additional comments on the RTSS form.

All teacher respondents (N=85) completed the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) producing a response rate of 100% (85 of 85). Questions not completed by each of the 85 respondents were the "age" category, with a 97.6% (83 of 85) response rate, and question 11a, "planning to stay" which had a 98.8% (84 of 85) response rate to the question of intent to continue of teaching in the district.

Reliability Analysis of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Reliability for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short-form was reported by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967). The Intrinsic Satisfaction scale coefficients ranged from .84 to .91, the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale coefficients ranged from .77 to .82 and the General Satisfaction scale varied from .87 to .92. The reported median reliability coefficients were .86 for Intrinsic Satisfaction, .80 for Extrinsic Satisfaction, and .90 for General Satisfaction (p. 23). In this study SPSS was used to calculate the internal reliability of the MSQ. For this analysis Chronbach's alpha was found to be .84 for the Intrinsic Satisfaction scale, .84 for the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale, and .91 for the General Satisfaction scale, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Reliability for MSQ Satisfaction Scales

Satisfaction Scales	Number of Variables	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Chronbach's Alpha
Intrinsic Satisfaction	12	50.2000	37.6143	6.1330	.84
Extrinsic Satisfaction	6	20.2941	24.3291	4.9325	.84
General Satisfaction	20	77.8706	135.7092	11.6494	.91

Minnesota Satisfaction Scale Scores

The initial data analyses that were used to examine the Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Satisfaction scale scores were calculated by the Office of Vocational Psychology Research at the University of Minnesota, the administrators of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). According to the Manual for the MSQ (Weiss, et. al, 1997,) a percentile score of 75 plus represents a high level of satisfaction, a percentile score range of 26 to 74 represents average satisfaction, and a percentile score of 25 or less indicates a low level of satisfaction.

The analyses of rural teacher job satisfaction indicated overall scale scores in the high satisfaction range in the areas of Intrinsic Satisfaction and in General Satisfaction as shown in Table 2 with scores of 84 and 78 respectively. Extrinsic Satisfaction was in the average satisfaction range with a scale score of 68.

Table 2

Percentile Satisfaction Scores

Satisfaction Scales	Percentile Scores	Representative Satisfaction Level
Intrinsic Satisfaction	84	High Satisfaction
Extrinsic Satisfaction	68	Average Satisfaction
General Satisfaction	78	High Satisfaction

Qualitative Analyses

The data for the qualitative analyses were extracted via the administration, audio recording, and transcription of focus group discussions and personal interviews resulting from the voluntary participation of the respondents of the study group. The study group was informed of the purpose and procedures of the focus groups and personal interviews during the scheduled faculty meetings at each of the three district schools.

Journals were utilized by the principal investigator to make note of prior and existing personal observations, assumptions, and relationships, and used for reference and comparison during review and analysis of the data from the study's personal interviews and focus groups. Similarly, memos were used as a bank for making personal notes of observations, points of discussion, encountered during the course of the research and used for the evaluation of data collected.

The focus groups and personal interviews were scheduled upon the completion and return of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS). Focus groups and personal interview lists were compiled by

reviewing the signed Informed Consent Letters and identifying those letters from respondents who had signified their intention and willingness to be involved in the qualitative portion of this study.

After the compilation of a list of interested parties signifying an inclination to become involved in the qualitative part of the study, a separate directory of manageable focus groups and personal interviews was created. The focus groups were then formed according to school site, to promote easy access and comfort for the participants. Each of the potential group members were contacted with an inventory of prospective dates and times (after school, per administration request). Focus group members were then contacted either face-to-face or by phone by the principal investigator, after which the principals of the schools were notified about the proposed dates and times to alleviate as many conflicts as possible. Once permission was granted by the site principal, group members were advised of the approved date, time, and location via First Class email which employees have daily access. Locations for accomplishing the facilitation of the focus groups incorporated school site teacher workrooms, library areas, and school conference rooms.

Focus Group Execution

A total of 45.8% (39 of 85) of respondent teachers from the Countywide District Schools study group initially indicated their intention to participate in a focus group.

After each focus group assembled, they were thanked by the principal investigator for their voluntary participation and, additionally, were reminded that they could decline to answer any question posed and could end their participation at any time during the focus group discussions. The principal investigator then asked permission to audio tape the session, and informed the group that upon completion of the session, the audio tapes would be transcribed entirely by the principal investigator and then destroyed.

There were four focus groups held and all participants agreed to the audio recording of each session. Within the four focus group discussions, there were no participants who declined to answer any foundation or follow up questions.

One focus group was conducted at each of the two elementary schools, one focus group had eight participants and the second had six participants. Two focus group meetings were held at the middle-high school with six participants in the first one and seven participants in the following focus group. Four teachers who had previously indicated their intent to participate in a focus group said that they had second thoughts and preferred to only participate in the personal interview so they could be more open and less "guarded" than in a focus group format. Reasons given by the respondents who did not participate ranged from prior commitments that conflicted with the scheduled meetings, a reluctance to participate in the qualitative study, or, a preference to do the personal interview only instead of doing both the focus group and interview.

Combined, the four focus groups included 31.7% (27 of 85) teacher participants. Furthermore, the teacher participants in the focus groups included individuals with years

of teaching experience that spanned from beginning teachers to those with 30 years or more. This permitted for focus group data that was representative of participants and inclusive of the wide variety of demographics encompassed throughout the study group population.

Focus Group Data

The personal interviews were scheduled at the convenience of the study group respondents but were prompted by the principal investigator who selected possible dates and times to perform the interview, as well as possible locations of the meeting. Interviews were conducted in a variety of settings, as requested by the teacher participants, which included the principal investigator's home office, teacher workrooms, participant's homes, teacher classrooms, and school conference rooms. Two interviews were conducted by telephone.

The personal interviews that were successfully scheduled and conducted totaled 51.8% (44 of 85) teacher participants. The combined totals of homegrown and transplanted teachers from each of the three schools were 16 homegrown and 28 transplanted.

The focus group and personal interview questions emerged from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) data results and from the additional comments section of the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS). Consideration for interview questions

was also given to questions supplied by the rural teachers who were involved with the pilot study and felt were important in understanding rural teacher job satisfaction issues.

Focus Group and Personal Interview Design

The focus groups and personal interviews were facilitated by the principal investigator implementing an agenda designed with nine foundation questions. The nine foundation questions were presented in each of the focus groups and personal interviews sequentially and the participants were afforded the latitude to expound on the questions in any direction they wished to pursue. At the same time, the principal investigator remained cognizant of the movement of the discussions and tempered any topics that strayed from the issues of job satisfaction while redirecting conversations back to the topic by asking for clarification, offering follow-up questions, or shifting to the next foundation question. Additionally, as the questions were put forward to participants for response, the satisfaction items from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire were incorporated into the fabric of the conversation through follow-up questions and notations of clarification.

Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey Data

Demographic data were acquired through the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS). The RTSS was a modification of the demographic appendage of the Minnesota

Satisfaction Survey used to elicit basic demographic data from the rural teacher respondents.

The Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) included 11 demographic items requesting respondent information by either checking an appropriate answer box or by providing a written response. After question 11c, space was provided for respondents to write any "additional comments" for clarification of any of the previous items that they felt were important. They were also invited to comment on any other issues related to their job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that should be considered in completing this study. The RTSS asked for the following demographics and information:

1. School where you teach
2. Distance of commute
3. Years teaching in the Countywide School District
4. Total years teaching
5. Homegrown or transplanted teachers
6. Gender
7. Age
8. Highest degree earned
9. Subject area certified
10. Career choice

11a. Planning to stay
11b. If you answered no, state reasons for leaving
11c. If you answered yes, state reasons for staying
Additional comments

It should be noted that demographic surveys often include questions related to marital status and ethnicity, along with gender and age. After careful consideration, marital status and ethnicity were intentionally eliminated from the demographic survey because pilot study members expressed concerns with regard to the protection of anonymity. The concerns articulated were related to the fact that in a small rural district

the faculty population is dispersed within only a few schools and a limited number of ethnicities are represented therefore opening the possibility of personal identification.

Consideration was given and the decision was made that the information resulting from the exclusion of these items would not be detrimental to the study, as compared to the possible issues that could arise from the possible breach of anonymity. Therefore, marital status and ethnicity items were excluded from the survey. Tables 3-33 are located in the appendix.

Demographic Data Analysis

School Where You Teach

The school where you teach asked respondents to indicate which of the three schools that they were currently teaching in: Elementary School 1(ES1), Elementary School 2 (ES2), or County Middle-High School (CMHS). Data in Table 3 show that 41.2% (35 of 85) of the teachers surveyed indicated that they worked at ES1, 21.2% (18 of 85) worked at ES2, and 37.6% (32 of 85) worked at CMHS.

Distance of Commute

The distance of commute referred to the distance respondents had to travel (one way) from their home to their work site. Data in Table 4 show that 56.5% (48 of 85) of the teacher respondents commute less than eight miles to work. Additionally, 15.3% (13

of 85) travel between nine and sixteen miles, 4.7% (4 of 85) travel seventeen to 23 miles, 10.6% (9 of 85) reported that they travel 24 to 30 miles, and 12.9% (11 of 85) travel 31 miles or more to their school work site.

Years Teaching in Countywide District Schools

Years teaching in Countywide District Schools refer to the number of years the respondent has worked in the district. Data in Table 5 show that 38.8% (33 of 85) of the teacher respondents have taught three years or less in the district. The next highest response was 23.5% (20 of 85) teaching from four to eight years in the district followed by 11.8% (10 of 85) teaching between nine to thirteen years and 10.6% (9 of 85) having taught fourteen to eighteen years. The final items chosen were 4.7% (4 of 85) of teacher respondents teaching nineteen to twenty-three years, 5.9% (5of 85) teaching twenty-four years, and 4.7% (4 of 85) having taught twenty-nine or more years in the district.

Total Years Teaching

Total years teaching refer to the number of total years the respondent has accrued in the teaching profession. Data in table 6 show that the highest response was 23.5% (20 of 85) teachers have taught between four and eight years. The second highest response was 21.2% (18 of 85) equaling 44.7% of the teachers teaching a total of less than nine years. 15.3% (13 of 85) of the respondents have taught fourteen to eighteen years followed by 12.9% (11 of 85) indicated that they had taught nine to thirteen years. Final

responses reveal that 11.8% (10 of 85) have been teaching over twenty-nine years, 9.4% (8 of 85) have been teaching between twenty-four and twenty-eight years, and the lowest response rate was 5.9% (5 of 85) have between nineteen and twenty-three years of teaching experience.

Homegrown and Transplanted Teachers

Homegrown refers to teachers who graduated from the Countywide District Schools and Transplanted refers to teachers who did not graduate from Countywide District Schools. Data from Table 7 show that 34.1% (29 of 85) of the teacher respondents reported themselves as being homegrown. Fifty-six of the 85 teachers (65.9%) described themselves as being transplanted teachers.

Gender

Data in Table 8 show that 28.2% (24 of 85) indicated that they were male and 71.8% (61 of 85) indicated that they were female.

Age

Data in Table 9 show that the reported age range with the largest number of respondents being 31.8% (27 of 83) with respondent age ranges from 30 to 39 years. The second highest reported age range was 28.2% (24 of 83) who reported they were between the ages of 50 and 59, followed by the third highest reported age range was 21.2% (18 of

83) between the ages of 40 and 49. The least reported age ranges were 20 to 29 years of age at a rate of 9.4% (8 of 83) and 7.1% (6 of 83) indicated they were 60 years or older.

Highest Degree Earned

Data from Table 10 show that a Bachelor's Degree was the highest response indicated for the highest degree earned at a rate of 68.2% (58 of 85). The remainder of the respondents reported earning a postgraduate degree at a rate of 31.8% (27 of 85).

Subject Area Certified

The subject area certified referred to the teaching assignment being performed by the respondents and whether or not they were certified in that subject area. Data from Table 11 show that 88.2% (75 of 85) of teacher respondents reported that they were certified in the subject areas to which they were assigned. Additionally, 11.8% (10 of 85) reported that they were not certified in the subject areas to which they were assigned.

Career Choice

Career choice referred to the timing of the teacher respondents as to when they chose teaching as a career. Career choice was broken down into two timeframes, their primary career choice or their secondary career choice. Data in Table 12 show that 58.8% (50 of 85) of the teacher respondents reported teaching as their primary choice of career. Additionally, 41.2% (35 of 85) indicated that teaching was a secondary career choice.

Planning to Stay

Planning to stay referred to the respondent's intention to remain teaching within the Countywide District Schools. Data in Table 13 show that 83.5% (71 of 84) indicated that they did intend to remain teaching in the Countywide District Schools. The remaining 15.3% (13 of 84) replied that they did not intend to continue teaching in the Countywide District Schools. Only 1.2% (1 of 84) of respondents chose not to reveal the person's intentions about staying in the district.

Additional Comments

A section was provided for participants to add any comments to clarify responses or present any issues they perceived as being important to this study. Just over half of the participants responded to this question 51% (43 of 85). Benefits were the highest discussed topic with 35% (15 of 43) and the second issue presented was co-workers at 28% (12 of 43). The items mentioned for benefits included health insurance and the cost of adding family coverage. Quality of the insurance policy was mentioned noting that dental and vision were not included. The topic co-workers was a combination of the perception that transplanted teachers were not being welcomed, experienced difficulty in being included, and the view of unnecessary competition between teachers and groups. These were expressed by both homegrown and transplanted respondents.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Dimension Analysis

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form contained 20 items that measured the 20 dimensions of job satisfaction which included intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction individual and population measurements. The teacher respondents (N=85) answered all 20 items on each MSQ questionnaire producing a valid response percentage of 100% in all question categories. A 5-point Likert rating scale was applied to each of the 20 items within the MSQ, providing the following possible responses:

1	"Very Dissatisfied"	(1.00 - 1.99)
2	"Dissatisfied"	(2.00 – 2.99)
3	"Neutral"	(3.00 – 3.99)
4	"Satisfied"	(4.00 – 4.99)
5	"Very Satisfied"	(5.00)

Instructions provided to the study group concerning the study and the MSQ indicated that the purpose of the instrument was to give respondents an opportunity to express how each individual presently felt about their current job, the situations or circumstances they are satisfied with, and those situations or circumstances that they are dissatisfied with. The questionnaire then informed respondents that the question items were presented in the form of statements regarding different aspects of their current job, and of the importance to read each statement carefully. Final instructions provided to the

respondents suggested that their job satisfaction expectations would be paralleled with the following responses:

Expectation	Response
1. more than they expected	very satisfied
2. what they expected	satisfied
3. can not make up your mind	n (neither satisfied nor dissatisfied)
4. less than you expected	dissatisfied
5. much less than expected	very dissatisfied

The three scales of the MSQ short-form appraise the intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction levels of the respondents and were embedded in the following items (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967, p. 4):

Scale	Items
Intrinsic----------	1 2 3 4 7 8 9 10 11 15 16 20
Extrinsic----------	5 6 12 13 14 19
General Satisfaction----	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Rural Teacher Response Data

The following 20 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire dimensions are presented in rank order with respect to their mean scores. Actual tables are located in the appendix.

Job Security

Security refers to the way a job provides steady employment. Data found in Table 14 show that "very satisfied" was selected most often by the teacher respondents at a rate of 57.6% (49 of 85). The second highest choice was "satisfied" at 35.3% (30 of 85) with 'neutral" being the third choice at 4.7% (4 of 85)and "dissatisfied" and "very dissatisfied" were tied at 1.2% (1 of 85) regarding the teacher respondents' beliefs about their personal job security. Regarding the issue of steady employment, the data show that 82.4% (70 of 85) of respondents chose "satisfied" and "very satisfied".

Activity

Activity refers to the conditions where an individual is able to keep busy all of the time. Data found in Table 15 show that the highest number of rural teachers, 53% (47 of 85) selected "very satisfied" regarding the activity dimension of job satisfaction; the second highest response 37.6% (32 of 85) chose "satisfied" for activity. None of the teachers surveyed indicated that they were "very dissatisfied" with the activity dimension and only 3.5% (3 of 85) selected "dissatisfied". The neutral area was selected by 3.5% (3 of 85) of the teacher respondents. The data for activity show that the majority of rural teachers, 92.9% (79 of 85), selected "very satisfied" and "satisfied" for being able to keep busy all of the time at their job.

Social Service

Social service is having the opportunity to do things for other people. Data found in Table 16 show that "very satisfied" was selected most often by the teacher respondents at a rate of 51.8% (49 of 85) followed by "satisfied" with 35.3% (30 of 85). No respondents chose "dissatisfied" and only 1.2% (1of 85) chose "neutral" and 2.4% (2 of 85) selected "very dissatisfied". The data show that social service received a majority of respondents' choices at a rate of 96.5% (82 of 85) indicating the availability of circumstances where they can do things for other people.

Variety

Variety is the chance to alter a routine and do different things from time to time. Data found in Table 17 show that the highest number of rural teachers selected "very satisfied" reflecting 49.4% (42 of 85) of the respondents. "Satisfied" was selected by 41.2% (35 of 85) of the teachers and the "neutral" field was marked 4.7% (4 of 85) while the "dissatisfied" and "very dissatisfied" each had 2.4% (2 of 85) checking the variety category. The data show that a majority of respondents selected variety at a rate of 90.6% (77 of 85) in the "very satisfied" and "satisfied" columns and indicating the opportunity to do different things is available.

Ability Utilization

Ability utilization is the chance for an employee to do something that makes use of his/her abilities. Data found in Table 18 show that 48.2% (41 of 85) of the

respondents chose “very satisfied” in the ability utilization area. Adding the second highest response of “satisfied” with 42.4% (36 of 85) gave a total of 90.6% (77 of 85) in the two satisfaction areas. “Neutral” was third 4.7% (4 of 85) and was followed by “very dissatisfied” with a response rate of 3.5% (3 of 85), and “dissatisfied” with 1.2% (1 of 85) regarding ability utilization.

Creativity

Creativity is having the chance to implement personal methods in performing the tasks of the job. Data in Table 19 show that 87.1% (74 of 85) of the teacher group selected the two areas of satisfaction as their top selections. The highest selected category was “very satisfied” at 44.7% (38 of 85) and the second highest choice was “satisfied” at 42.4% (36 of 85). The third highest selected category was “neutral” at 7.1% (6 of 85) followed by “dissatisfied” with 4.7% (4 of 85) and 1.2% (2 of 85) for “very dissatisfied”.

Responsibility

Responsibility is the freedom for an employee to execute his/her own judgment performing his/her job. Data in Table 20 show that “satisfied” was the highest selection at 56.5% (48 of 85) with “very satisfied” being the second highest choice at 34.1% (29 of 85) for a combined expression of satisfaction at 90.6% (77 of 85). The third selection

was “neutral” at 7.1% (6 of 85), and “very dissatisfied” at 2.4% (2 of 85) completing the selections for responsibility. There were no selections in the “dissatisfied” category.

Moral Values

Moral values refer to being able to do things that do not go against the respondent’s conscience. Data found in Table 21 show that “satisfied” was selected most often by the teacher respondents at a rate of 45.9% (39 of 85) and the second highest number selected was “very satisfied” at 36.5% (31 of 85). Next, “neutral” was chosen by 14.4% (12 of 85) of the teachers with the remainder of respondents selecting “dissatisfied” and “very dissatisfied” 2.4% (2 of 85) and 1.2% (1of 85) respectively.

Achievement

Achievement is the feeling of accomplishment an employee gets from performing a job. Data for Table 22 show that for the achievement item, the teacher respondents had a combined response rate of 83.6% (71 of 85) with “very satisfied” being the number one selection at 42.4% (36 of 85) and with “satisfied” second at 41.2% (35 of 85). The third ranked selection was “neutral” at 8.2% (7 of 85), fourth was “dissatisfied” at 4.7% (4 of 85) and the least selected area was “very dissatisfied” at 3.5% (3 of 85) in relationship to the achievement item.

Independence

Independence is having the opportunity to exercise autonomy on the job. Data found in Table 23 show that the largest number of rural teachers selected "satisfied" at a rate of 44.7% (38 of 85) and an additional 35.3% (30 of 85) selected "very satisfied" for independence. A total of 14.1% (12 of 85) of the respondents marked "neutral", with 4.7% (4 of 85) choosing dissatisfied and 1.2% (1 of 85) selecting "very dissatisfied" on the question referring to independence. The data for independence show that a majority of teacher respondents chose "satisfied" and "very satisfied" at a rate of 80% (68 of 85) expressing their appreciation of autonomy.

Social Status

Social status refers to the opportunity be "somebody" in the community. Data in Table 24 show the greatest frequency of responses in the social status category was 45.9% (39 of 85) choosing "satisfied". The second highest was "very satisfied" selected at a rate of 27.1% (23 of 85). The final three revealed 17.6% (15 of 85) selecting the "neutral" statement, 5.9% (5 0f 85) for "dissatisfied", and 3.5% (3 of 85) choosing "very dissatisfied" for social status dimension. Data for social status show that "satisfied" and "very satisfied" were selected a majority of the time at a rate of 73% (62 of 85) regarding the opportunity of being "somebody" in the community.

Working Conditions

Working conditions refers to the physical and social surroundings of the workplace. Data from Table 25 show that "satisfied" was the category selected most often at a rate of 40% (34 of 85), followed by " very satisfied" at a rate of 31.8% (27 of 85). The third highest selected category was "dissatisfied" with 14.1% (12 of 85) selections with the fourth highest category being "neutral" at 11.8% (10 of 85). The least selected category was "very dissatisfied" with 2.4% (2 of 85) being chosen for working conditions.

Supervision –Technical

Supervision - technical refers to employee confidence regarding the respondent's boss and the boss' competence in making decisions. Data found in Table 26 show 40% (34 of 85) of the teachers were "satisfied" with technical supervision. The second highest selection was "very satisfied" at 28.2% (24 of 85). The third and fourth choices, "neutral" and "dissatisfied" were both equal at 15.3% (13 of 85), and "very dissatisfied was marked only once at 1.2% (1 of 85). The data show that the majority of respondents reported that they were "satisfied" and "very satisfied" with technical supervision.

Supervision - Human Relations

Supervision - human relations is concerned with the boss and how he or she deals with employees. Data found in Table 27show "satisfied" was chosen most often at a rate

of 43.5% (37 of 85) with “very satisfied” being chosen second at 25.9% (22 of 85). Third, was “dissatisfied” at 15.3% (13 of 85) followed by “neutral” at 14.1% (12 of 85) and “very dissatisfied” at 1.2% (1 of 85) for supervision - human relations. The data show that a majority of respondents selected “satisfied” and “very satisfied” in relationship to how their boss interacts with employees with a 68.2% (59 of 85) response percentage.

Recognition

Recognition is the praise an employee gets for doing a good job. Data from Table 28 show that the highest response category was “satisfied” at 32.9% (28 of 85) and that “very satisfied” was the second highest response category at a rate of 30.6% (26 of 85). “Neutral” was the third highest response at 18.8% (16 of 85) followed by 12.9% (11 of 85) for “dissatisfied” and 4.7% (4 of 85) for “very dissatisfied” for the recognition dimension item.

Authority

Authority is having the chance to supervise other employees and tell them what to do. Data found in Table 29 show that “ neutral” was selected most often at a rate of 48.2% (41 of 85), and that 38.8% (33 of 85) selected “satisfied” as the response choice regarding authority. The third highest response chosen was “very satisfied” at 9.4% (8 of 85) and the lowest two choices were 2.4% (2 of 85) who chose “dissatisfied” and 1.2% (1

of 85) who chose “very dissatisfied”. Regarding authority, the majority of respondents chose “neutral” and “satisfied” indicating that having the authority to tell other people what to do was not an issue of satisfaction that they particularly relied on.

Co-workers

Co-workers refer to the way co-workers get along with each other. Data from Table 30 show that the category with the largest response was 28.2% (24 of 85) by both the “very satisfied” and “satisfied” fields. This is equal to a 56.4% (48 of 85) response rate in the satisfaction category with reference to co-workers. The third most frequent response regarding co-worker relationships was “neutral” at 21.2% (18 of 85) with “dissatisfied” being chosen by 12.9% (11 of 85) of the respondents, followed by “very dissatisfied” at 9.4% (8 of 85).

Advancement

Advancement refers to the opportunities for advancement or to “move up” in the job. Data in Table 31 show that the highest section selected for advancement was “satisfied” at a rate of 35.3% (30 of 85). The second highest response was “neutral” at 31.8% (27 of 85). The third highest selection was “dissatisfied” with an 18.8% (16 of 85) response rate followed by the fourth highest selection of “very satisfied” at 10.6% (9 of 85). The least selected field was “very dissatisfied” with 3.5% (3 of 85) responses for advancement.

Company Policies and Practices

Company policies and practices are the way company policies are conceived, directed, and implemented. Data found in Table 32 show that the highest response rate for company policies and practices was “satisfied” at 35.3% (30 of 85) with the second highest being “dissatisfied” at 28.2% (24 of 85). The third Most frequent answer chosen was “neutral” at 18.8% (16 of 85), and “very satisfied” at 9.4% (8 of 85). The least chosen answer was “very dissatisfied” at a rate of 8.2% (7 of 85) regarding company policies and practices.

Compensation

Compensation is the feeling that the pay package is comparable for the work performed. The data found in Table 33 show that the highest response in compensation was “dissatisfied” at 34.1% (29 of 85). The second highest choices were “very dissatisfied” and “neutral” both at 18.8% (16 of 85), followed by the least picked choice “very satisfied” at 4.7% (4 of 85). Combining the two areas that express dissatisfaction, “dissatisfied” and “very dissatisfied”, revealed a response rate of 52.9% (45 of 85) concerning compensation which revealed the highest level of dissatisfaction among the 20 scale items.

Research Questions

The following sections address each of the research questions that guided this study. Presented in each section are the data associated with the question and the corresponding analyses.

Research Question 1

The first research question posed: "What are the factors that contribute to rural teacher job satisfaction?"

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Factor Analysis

There are two facts about the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) scales that were considered during the factor analyses. First, the twenty individual component questions of the MSQ were difficult to interpret individually. Second, it has been determined that changing the individual components has little overall effect on the composite General Satisfaction scale scores (Hirschfield, 2000). Therefore, the primarily interest was in the overall composite General Satisfaction scale scores, and its subscales, Intrinsic Satisfaction and Extrinsic Satisfaction.

It became evident that the usefulness of various data analyses of the quantitative data was minimal and that the qualitative data provided more insightful data. However, there were two analyses that provided practical guidance in approaching the qualitative

portion of the study. First, a hierarchy of job satisfaction factors and second, a job satisfaction hierarchy reversal.

Hierarchy of Job Satisfaction Factors

The 20 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) dimensions were ranked, with respect to their means, to determine the hierarchy of MSQ satisfaction factors. The results are shown in Figure 1. The top red box plot shows the mean plus one "standard deviation" of the MSQ dimensions. The green box plot shows the mean of the MSQ dimensions. The blue box plot shows the mean minus one "standard deviation" of the MSQ dimensions. The greatest reported job satisfaction factor was Security, and the lowest job satisfaction was for Compensation. The greatest variation was for Compensation.

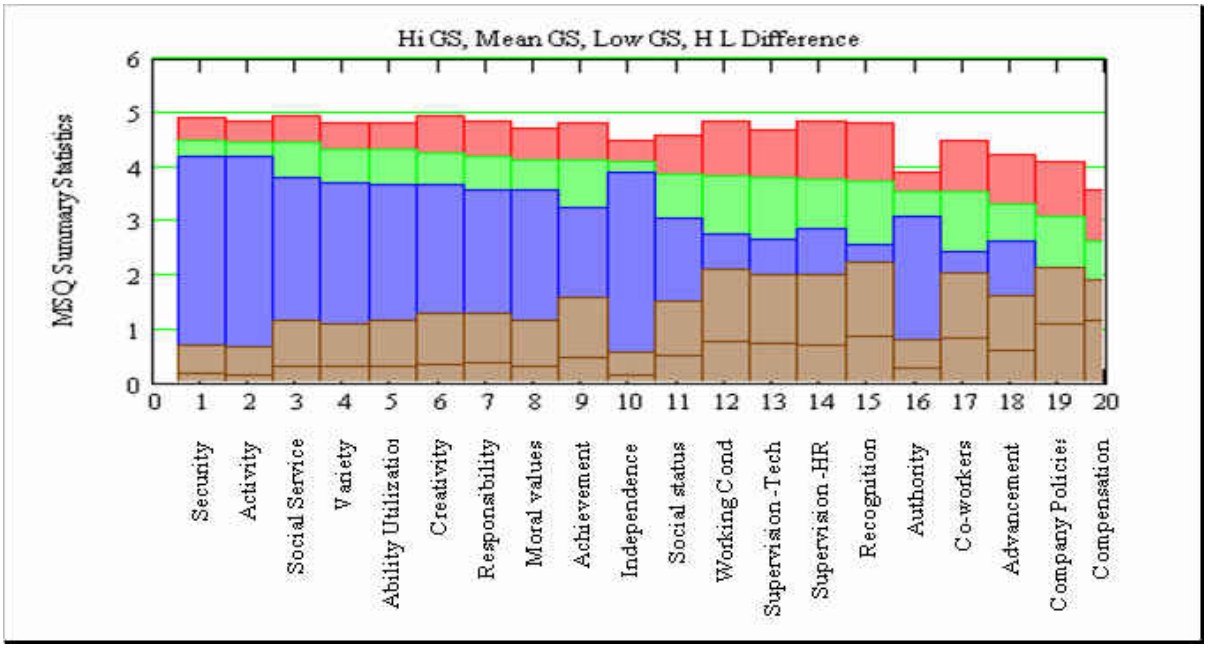

Figure 1 Hierarchy of Job Satisfiers at CDS

Job Satisfaction Hierarchy Reversal

To quantify the dissatisfaction gap with just a single number the dissatisfaction index were defined as the ratio of two factors, which were derived from highest and lowest quartiles of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) factors. The numerator of the index is the difference in quartiles (the brown plot in Figure 2) and the denominator to the absolute MSQ factors (the blue plot in Figure 2).

This index is a better measure of the relative job dissatisfaction gap than just the difference. The result is plotted above as the brown dissatisfaction index line toward the

bottom. The index had a range of 0.15 to 1.14. A decreasing ranking for dissatisfaction index is Compensation, Company Policies, Recognition and Co-workers.

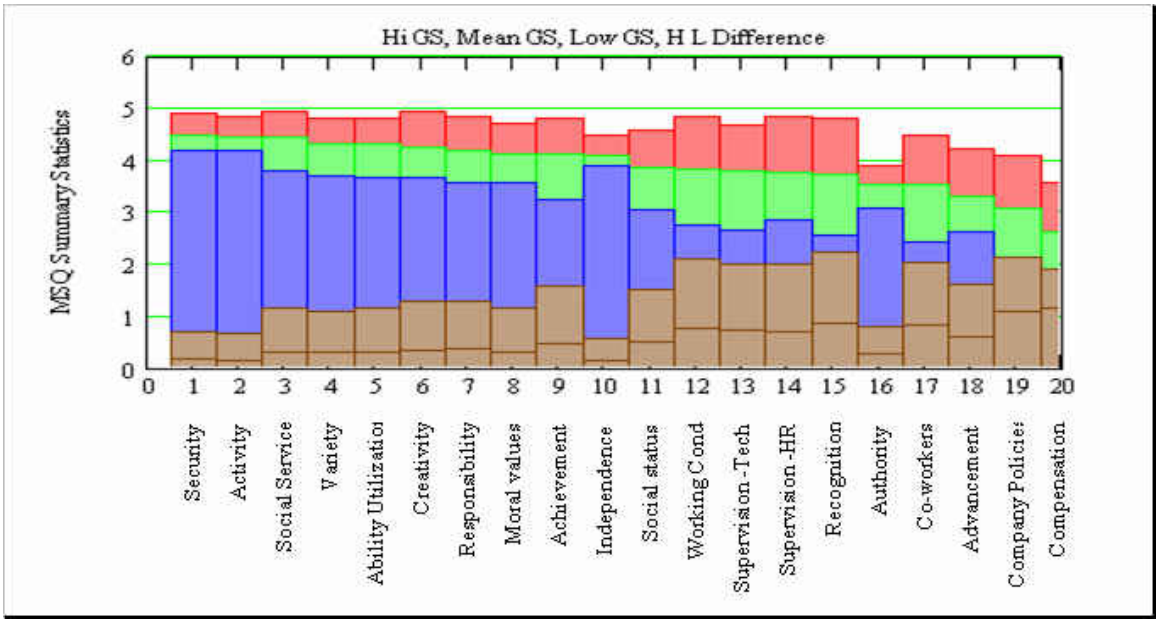

Figure 2 Job Satisfaction Gap Hierarchy Reversal

One result of this observation reveals that the biggest potential for improving the "job satisfaction gap" exists from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire factors, in not the highest, but in the lowest, half of the hierarchy.

Qualitative Response Data

A general theme surfaced from the qualitative interviews. There is "role confusion" that frames the professional and social boundaries of the rural teachers. This role confusion is a consequence of the life interactions of the rural teachers and their formal and informal involvement in familial, voluntary, or leadership positions with persons or groups inside and outside of the school. These interactions with people or groups traverse between their school and community responsibilities blurring the line between professional and personal relations and the expectations from those relationships.

These blurred associations encompassed the teacher relationships between faculty members, building and district administrators, support staff, and the relationships with school board members and the district superintendent. Corresponding actions, reactions, beliefs and attitudes within these ambiguous relationships have directly affected teacher satisfaction, quality, and retention. The rural teachers in this study that the dissatisfaction they have experienced or observed resulted primarily from the perception of a lack of recognition and respect which has been projected on the collective bargaining process and items of discussion within that process. The collective bargaining process was considered by the rural teachers as the catalyst of the less than desirable professional relationship with the school board, superintendent, and with colleagues.

Respondents considered these tense relationships as intermittent in nature but admitted that it constantly remained in the background and was quick to surface when

any notable issue arose as perceived by individual teachers or by the formal and informal groups assembled in the individual schools such as, the teacher's union, grade levels, departments, committees, or coalitions. Tense relationships were not exclusive to the district administration and school board but were also activated between coalitions or individual teachers who, depending on the issue at hand, were considered allies or adversaries.

Data collected through the focus groups and personal interviews supported the qualitative findings indicating that the rural teacher study population identified themselves as having an appreciable level of General Satisfaction (GS). All teachers participating in the focus groups and personal interviews answered the question "What motivates you to teach?" with some type of a response that acknowledged their "kids". Each of the respondents elaborated with descriptive anecdotes of their daily connections with their students and the importance learning and social relationships played in their job satisfaction. This mirrored results found by Shann (1998) in her study on teacher job satisfaction and commitment in urban middle schools. Although not specifically identified on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire teacher respondents contended that it was their greatest source of job satisfaction.

However, the study groups' attention, in the qualitative portion of the study, focused primarily on five items they deemed as having some measure of dissatisfaction and items they perceived as giving them an opportunity to bring to the forefront without reprisal. These items, Recognition, Co-Workers, Advancement, Company Policies, and

Compensation were clustered in the lowest quartiles of the ranked Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire job satisfaction dimensions. Four of these five items corresponded to Extrinsic Satisfaction, with the only exceptions being Co-Workers, which corresponds to GS, and Authority which corresponds with Intrinsic Satisfaction. Authority was the only intrinsic factor located in the lowest quartiles. Focus group and personal interview participants indicated that Authority or "telling people what to do" was not a factor that contributed to their job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and that the other items were issues that were more influential in their job satisfaction.

It was apparent through the analysis of the qualitative data that the issue of recognition and respect had a considerable influence on how this rural study population perceived their personal job satisfaction. Recognition and Advancement were items Herzberg (1966) identified as motivators in his Two-Factor Theory and Company Policies, interpersonal relations (Co-workers), and wages (Compensation) were identified as hygiene needs. Participants suggested that the factors of Co-workers, Advancement, Company Policies, and Compensation not only influenced job satisfaction as individual factors but that each of these factors were entwined and influenced each other in combination.

Considering this combinational influence the qualitative interviews revealed that converse to Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory participants stressed that dissatisfaction with compensation and co-workers were associated to recognition and respect. This mirrors Herzberg's distinction that when recognition was awarded without any type of

accomplishment and used only as a "human relations tool" (p. 74) it no longer met the criterion as a motivating factor.

Following Herzberg's observation, compensation and co-workers are drawn from the hygiene/dissatisfier to the motivator/satisfier segment of the two-factor theory. Herzberg contended that the hygiene factors by themselves do not control job satisfaction and that to change satisfaction attention must be given to the motivating factors. Therefore, when teachers attach the compensation and co-workers factors to respect and recognition the five factors of dissatisfaction all reside in the motivator area of the theory where Herzberg suggested that improvement of job satisfaction could take place.

Comparing the study population's views on recognition, advancement, co-workers, and compensation to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the upper three tiers of the hierarchy are inadequately fulfilled. Maslow asserted that everyone is motivated by their needs and that individuals must satisfy those needs each in turn beginning with the first tier and progressing throughout the hierarchy. As the lower sets of needs are met one can move toward meeting the higher order needs of belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. If fulfillment of the lower needs fade, concern with the higher order needs also fades. When the three highest steps of the hierarchy are not being met consistently, levels of job satisfaction weaken and the fluctuation between the hierarchies of needs inhibit teachers' ability to access and maintain the esteem and self-actualization levels of need. Under these circumstances it can also be that if teachers are unable to have personal needs met,

supporting colleagues and students in attaining higher order needs becomes inconsistent therefore negatively influencing satisfaction, commitment, and quality.

Recognition

Although recognition was not the lowest rated satisfaction factor it was however the one topic of job satisfaction most passionately and frequently discussed in focus groups and personal interviews. Recognition was used interchangeably with the concept of respect. In the analysis of the qualitative transcriptions 89% (39 of 44) of qualitative study participants indicated that they felt a lack of respect and recognition and they were not appreciated or valued. Participants repeatedly made the point that they were appreciative of the recognition and respect they received from the majority of their students, parents, and building administration but the lack of respect from the school board and central administration was essentially omnipresent.

In describing the perception of a lack of respect from the school board and district administration, points of clarification emerged in reference to this issue as resulting from activities associated with and surrounding the collective bargaining process. This relationship with the school board was described by veteran teachers using terms such as, “adversarial”, “discouraging”, “contentious”, and “humiliating”. Explanations of this perspective centered on a strong assertion that the bargaining process had historically been “an exercise in futility” and that a genuine collaborative dialogue did not exist. Upon further questioning, the point was made that each year began without a new teacher

contract and many of the beginning and new teachers interviewed expressed their concern that they had not signed a contract. One veteran teacher in a focus group declared that:

> "We come into the new school year excited and ready to go, but it only takes a few days and the feelings of resentment return when we learn that our contract has not been settled. Right or wrong that resentment is aimed at the board for not having enough respect for us and making an effort to get it done before the beginning of school." Another teacher added, "The worst part of it is that this feeling of disrespect lasts all year long".

It was also noted that the perceived environment of not being valued and receiving respect or recognition infiltrated the actions, interactions, and attitudes of teachers and their co-workers. Additional emphasis was presented by participants indicating that that this perceived lack of respect and recognition has permeated the daily goings on in the schools, and has negatively affected the professionalism within the schools in the district. This perceived lack of respect and recognition has manifested itself what many participants described as an "unhealthy competition" between teachers or has caused teachers to retreat to their classrooms and just "teach to the contract".

It was suggested that due to the lack of recognition and the desire to receive it, teachers have taken it upon themselves to manufacture their own recognition. Teachers proposed that this personal promotion to earn recognition has changed the school climate that previously welcomed new teachers into the school and community to a climate that has lost its generosity and compassion toward new teachers fostering gratuitous competition between teachers perpetuating the "sink or swim" philosophy.

Co-Workers

The dissatisfaction associated with co-workers was an underlying reaction to the perceptions of the rural teachers in combination with the other four items of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire described as sources of dissatisfaction.

New teachers to the district described their experiences as "frustrating", and "discouraging" and this perception was expressed by both transplanted and homegrown teachers. They indicated that this frustration and discouragement was primarily a result of being intentionally "left out". New and novice teachers concurred with the reflection made by a new teacher with over eight years of experience and post baccalaureate degrees, "As a new teacher I felt that I was not welcomed, other than just a couple of people who went out of their way to make my transition easier. I was mostly discouraged with my grade level teachers and leader because I was not included in decision making and if any of my ideas were heard, they were quickly dismissed". Veteran teachers noted that they have observed a change in the environment of teamwork that they had experienced in the past had given way to an atmosphere of egotism in an effort to be personally recognized.

Veteran and new teachers maintained that promoting personal recognition equated to having the "good kids" or more importantly having "cupcake parents" assigned to your class. The term cupcake parent represent parents that have the means and time to volunteer in the classroom, organize and chaperone fieldtrips, and bring food or supplies to the class for activities or parties.

Unhealthy competition was described frequently during discussions as a source of dissatisfaction with co-workers and was clarified by a teacher who stated "Parent request has a lot to do with the competition at our school. The reason everyone is so competitive is that they want the "well known" kids, the popular ones. I mean, it's a big deal to get those parents' kids into your room". These parental requests are frequently made by parents of students, or other teachers who have outside social relationships with the teacher requested. This creates a false hierarchy of teacher competence and promotes the assumption that peers do not have the same qualifications or abilities as the teachers receiving placement requests.

Consequently the competition among teachers, grade levels, and individuals seeking personal recognition, has resulted in the curtailment of the sharing of ideas, methods, experience, and materials. One teacher stated that "I'm afraid we have become content with mediocrity. We do what we are asked but with very little enthusiasm because we are more focused on ourselves and not what's good for everyone….I've noticed, and I'm embarrassed to say that I'm probably guilty too, that we don't treat each other with the respect we expect from everyone else and its holding us back".

It has become increasingly difficult for transplanted teachers to be accepted into the rural school community. Acceptance of new teachers was freely discussed during both focus groups and personal interviews. Homegrown and transplanted groups and individuals described relationships in the schools and district as being cliquish and indicated that it made the ability for transplanted teacher acceptance difficult. Reasons

given by the transplanted group were that it was difficult to identify the members of the coalitions, which one(s) they belonged to, and which one you should align yourself with. Two teachers in a focus group, one each transplanted and homegrown, provided this analogy, "It's almost like going through rush in college." During pre-service everyone is helpful and as the week goes on and as school begins you meet different people, but if you make the mistake of spending too much time with someone from another group, try something new in your class, or anything, "you're blackballed". Another homegrown teacher stated "I think it's hard for outsiders to come into Countywide District. There's nothing wrong with them of course it's just that there are already cliques and friendships that have been established. I just think it's hard for them to fit in".

The phrase "familiarity breeds contempt" was used in the personal interviews by seven homegrown participants in their description of co-worker relationships. Each of the respondents who used this phrase suggested that being homegrown and returning to the county to teach or transplanted with some longevity, seeking a constitutional office, or moving into and administrative position inherently brings the social aspect of their lives into the workplace. The reality of homegrown peoples' lives is considered to be known by all, their life dreams, accomplishments, failures, and relationships. One teacher described it by saying "Everyone thinks they know everything about me and it doesn't bother them to talk about it".

Contempt grows as judgments are formed, expressed, and dispensed about personal agendas, abilities, attitudes, or allegiance. It intensifies when policy is adopted,

appointments are made, or attention is awarded to individuals or groups and the policy makers or recipients are determined to be uninformed in making the decision or undeserving of receiving the attention and an assumption is made that the decisions were made with social influence and not necessity or qualifications.

Assumed intimate knowledge of teaching, administrative, and community peers transfers into ongoing personal assessments. A homegrown teacher stated "I feel more comfortable with teachers I don't know because they don't know who I am and who I'm related to. I get treated differently by being from here and being raised here. I feel uncomfortable with those people (homegrown) because I feel like those are the ones who are judging me more. They don't see me as a science teacher they see Nan the person they went to school with or watched grow up". She went on by saying that "When I got this job I heard all the stuff going around that the only reason I got the job was that I was from here, she's not certified so they should have found someone else… it's only because of who she is. I feel that the homegrown people judge everyone a lot more and they are more cliquish and you are either in the clique or you are not in it".

Advancement

Opportunities for advancement are inherently limited in a rural district. Participants acknowledged that lateral or vertical movement in the district or within a school was viewed by peers with skepticism. For this district, positions of advancement with an increase in salary would be Principal (3), Assistant Principal (1), and Assistant

Superintendent (2). All other positions could be considered lateral advancement and work under the same teachers' contract as classroom teachers but may have additional days added to their annual schedule.

The skepticism regarding advancement was a topic that was freely discussed during personal interviews but was considerably more uncomfortable in the focus groups. During the interviews, 75% (33 of 44) of the participants discussed their perceptions on advancement. Homegrown and veteran transplanted teachers expressed suspicion in the movement of peers. The reservations expressed by participants included questioning on why a teacher would want to leave the classroom, was the advancement a payback for associations with administration, or were qualifications considered for the advancement?

Unexpectedly there was another view of advancement from new homegrown teachers. This view was from a group who had previously worked as paraprofessionals in the district. In meeting the guidelines of the No Child Left Behind Legislation requiring the certification of paraprofessional aides began course work to earn their AA or AS degrees. During the course of this work five paraprofessionals decided to continue on with a Bachelor's degree with the intent of applying for teaching positions. At the time of this study three had earned their teaching certification, were employed by the district, and were included in this study. Their view of advancement was improving from a paraprofessional position to a beginning teacher's position nearly tripling their salary to $30,000 plus. This was described by these individuals as advancement in not only salary but also rewarding in personal growth, independence, and status in the community.

During discussions, advancement was explained as moving forward in the system with an increase in pay or a perceived reduction in duties. The thought of earning an advanced degree was considered by a majority of transplanted participants as personal growth, but conversely, homegrown participants viewed supplemental positions as a route to advancement since it was a way to be involved with students and the school as well as increasing their income. When asked if continuing their education was a priority with the district both homegrown and transplanted indicated that they believed that higher degrees were not valued. One teacher stated that "Teachers haven't been encouraged to advance their education either by their family, their friends, or the school district. So I say as a whole it's not valued in this area". These conclusions are supported by the self reported figures of .07% (2 of 29) of homegrown teachers and .45% (25 of 56) transplanted teachers possessing higher than a Bachelors' Degree. Additionally, at the time of the study there were three teachers taking classes for their Master's Degree, all of whom were transplanted teachers.

Participants noted that during the past two years teachers have been encouraged by the teachers' union and some administration to participate in National Board Certification (NBC) in lieu of earning a graduate degree. The explanation provided by the participants was two fold. First, the fees for NBC were reimbursed by the state, it is only a eight to twelve month process, classes were not required, and there were Nationally Board Certified teachers in the district and available to mentor NBC applicants. For a teacher to get an advanced degree it would be a two and a half to three

year process, the closest university is a three hour round trip, and the tuition, books, and other associated costs would be the responsibility of the individual teacher.

Secondly, earning National Board Certification (NBC) they would be guaranteed an annual supplement for ten years and also the opportunity to double that income by becoming a mentor to other NBC applicants. The supposition presented for this suggestion was that if you earned NBC the monies would come from the state and if you earned a graduate degree the increase in salary would come from the district coffers lowering the available "pot" of money the school board could use for negotiated salary increases for all teachers.

Company Policies

The dissatisfaction regarding company policies in this rural district emerge as a continuation and byproduct of the dissatisfaction with recognition, co-workers, and advancement. Company policies were viewed as any directives placed on the faculty from either by the district superintendent, the school board, or building principal.

Additionally, company policies were perceived as the processes practiced in collective bargaining, advertisement, selection for positions of advancement, transfer within the district, selection and recognition of the Teacher of the Year, and what was described as "appointments to unproductive committees with no real input". Examples offered were the calendar and insurance committees. The calendar committee met, made suggestions which essentially were not entertained because the dates had already been set

and the calendar was approved without teacher suggestions. Participants that this same scenario is duplicated with other committees especially ones originating from the district office.

Two teachers who had previously participated in personal interviews requested a revisit to clarify an issue that they discussed. The teachers said that they had talked with each other after their interviews reflecting about the conflict associated with social and professional relationships. They expressed that the strong social relationships woven in the schools influenced district policies, and made the observation and stated that, "The opportunity for the system to be critical to improve itself is impaired because everything becomes personal".

Compensation

The dissatisfaction with compensation appeared from several fronts based on the career and life levels of the teacher participants. The factor of compensation was considered by the rural teachers to be inclusive of salary, health insurance, and other benefits that were provided for in the teacher contract. Interviewees reiterated that it was the process of collective bargaining that was the primary factor that formed the mind-set of dissatisfaction in relationship to salary and the lack of inclusion in discussions on the issue of adequate and affordable insurance added to that dissatisfaction.

During the focus groups and personal interviews participants took care in making certain that their beliefs were accurately understood. The main point they wanted

reflected was that they recognized the financial restraints the school board experienced with the budgeting process. However, they did not understand why the collective bargaining process was not a collaborative effort and that members of the school board and superintendent did not have the trust or respect to include teacher representatives in the bargaining process and thus was a source of resentment that lead to dissatisfaction.

It was also suggested that dissatisfaction was a result of the inability of the teachers to be unified in contractual requests due to the varying years of teaching experience, life circumstances, and the relatively small number of teachers in the district. They asserted that their inability to be unified contributed to their dissatisfaction as it permitted union negotiators to concentrate on the issues most familiar and important to them and it also allowed the district negotiators to manipulate the process. A focus group described it as essentially imposing a contract ratified by fear, one person explained. "By fear we mean that by the time we have the chance to vote on a contract, we are tired of the process and the ill feelings and at the risk of losing retroactive pay, we give in to voting for something we don't really believe in".

Research Question 2

The second research question asked, "How do the factors of rural teacher job satisfaction influence teacher's decisions to remain teaching in a rural district?"

Data from the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS) revealed that 16% (9 of 56) of transplanted teachers and 14% (4 of 29) of homegrown teachers were not planning to return to the district, and 30% (4 of 13) noted under "additional comments" that their

departure would not be immediate but sometime in the future. Contrary to the survey, 22% (19 of 85) of the original study population resigned their positions during a two year period ending at the completion of the 2005-2006 school year. These figures excluded all teachers who transferred within the district or were involuntarily terminated. The actual number of teachers that voluntarily departed was 5% higher than the number of teachers predicting their departure on the RTSS. Of the nineteen teachers that left the district, two were homegrown and seventeen were transplanted.

Teacher Exit Interviews were requested from each of the three building principals to clarify the higher teacher separation rate than was reported on the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RTSS). Exit interview reports were required for submission to the state Department of Education to track the motives of teacher separation. Thirteen categories are available to designate their reasons for leaving and all categories that applied could be flagged.

It was discovered that the Exit Interviews were completed by the principals or their confidential secretaries without teacher presence or input. Further investigation revealed that only one of the thirteen categories was reported on each of the Exit Interviews according to the perception of the person responsible for completing the form. The principals and their confidential secretaries indicated that they marked the single area that they considered to be the primary grounds that lead to the departure. Admittedly, they did not ask if there were additional conditions influencing their decision, therefore,

if there were supplementary influences, they were not registered in the local or state data and the available exit data would be incomplete, therefore, inaccurate.

Contact was made with 42% (8 of 19) teachers who resigned their positions regarding the Exit Interviews and 75% (6 of 8) were unaware that these forms existed. After explaining the purpose of the Exit Interviews, 87% (7 of 8) stated that they would have selected more than one of the available categories if they had been afforded the opportunity. One teacher was tentative about making any claims that they would add any categories and stated "I wouldn't want to put anything down that would mess up a reference I might need". When questioned on which categories they would have selected, each of the items mentioned were associated with the two of the five lowest factors of the hierarchal rank of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, compensation (inadequate salary and inadequate benefits) and advancement. Inadequate benefits, specifically health insurance, was identified by 62% (5 of 8) as an issue that was considered in their departure, and 2 of the 3 who did not mentioned it said that it was a non issue for them because they were covered under their spouse's insurance. Only 37% (3 of 8) stated that lack of opportunities for advancement would be an item they would consider adding.

Overwhelmingly, the homegrown teachers and veteran teachers with family working in the district whom indicated that they planned to stay acknowledged that they expected to remain teaching in this rural school district. They were passionate in explaining that the rural lifestyles, being close to family, growing up and knowing people

in the community, and owning property created a commitment by investment. These fundamental reasons in addition to their investment into the Teacher Retirement System and having a continuing contract were presented as evidence that moving to another school or district was not a plausible option for consideration. They added that the times they experienced dissatisfaction were not enough to offset the connections they valued with their rural situation. Two homegrown teachers indicated that they were offered opportunities to take other positions in neighboring or area schools with higher salaries and increased benefits. Both stated that the benefit of being "home", near their families, and taking part in a lifestyle they enjoyed, outweighed the potential increase in pay and benefits.

Conversely, 16% (9 of 55) of transplanted teachers indicated on the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey that they planned to leave. Transplanted teachers communicated their appreciation of the advantages of a rural school and their ability to navigate and overcome the isolation and other challenges rural schools present. However, they were resolute in their contention that they could be successful in other teaching situations.

Veteran transplanted teachers articulated an apologetic concern for homegrown peers searching for opportunities to advance because of their perceived inability to leave the district. Transplanted teachers implied that regardless of the level of dissatisfaction or thirst for new challenges that homegrown teachers desired, their personal, familial, and financial investments formed an emotional pressure rendering them unable to move to a new position outside of the district. A deeper personal and social significance was

attached to homegrown teachers acting upon their desire to change. The implication was that transplanted teachers acting upon their interest to advance outside of the district were viewed in a positive frame whereas homegrown teachers were viewed as "bailing out" or "abandoning" the school or district.

This observation was verified by a homegrown teacher describing her experience in leaving the district. When she shared with teaching peers and relatives her decision to apply to another district it was met with cautious disapproval. Her interpretation of the disapproval was unfair and alienating and was inconsistent with her motives for leaving. She stated that "Being a young teacher working with family and friends, I couldn't be myself because they treated me like they did when I was a kid and I felt like I wasn't on my own". After she accepted a position at another school outside of the district she noted that some of the professional relationships she had in the district subtly changed and were "just different". This teacher stated that she did not understand why some treated her that way and said that "It actually helped me realize I made the right decision".

Job satisfaction factors have a greater influence on transplanted than homegrown teachers in the decision to remain in a rural district. The twelve highest ranked items on the job satisfaction scale, all of which are intrinsic and general satisfiers, had a positive influenced on both homegrown and transplanted teachers in relationship to their professional job satisfaction. The five factors of job satisfaction at the lowest end of the scale had a noticeable influence in rural teacher dissatisfaction for homegrown and transplanted teachers. However, this dissatisfaction was a dynamic that contributed to the

decisions of transplanted teachers leaving but had relatively no impact on the homegrown teachers who chose to exit the district.

Research Question 3

The final question guiding this study was, "What are the differences, if any, of homegrown and transplanted teachers' attitudes concerning job satisfaction?"

The data collected in this study suggest that teachers' attitudes concerning job satisfaction varied with their perceptions of the exercise of power in the school and in the community, especially the tension between their social roles in the school and in the community. This finding is suggested first by the survey data and amplified by the interview and focus group data, and is further supported by the emergence of the importance of the long-term social integration of transplanted teachers into homegrown social relationships.

Data from the participants of the qualitative study revealed one main difference in the attitudes pertaining to their job satisfaction. This difference was related to the distribution of power which contributed to periods of job dissatisfaction. These differences originated from the respective points of view of the homegrown and transplanted teachers and were separate from the job duties of the study participants. The varying attitudes were more aligned with the working climate, supervisory and peer leadership, and the interactions with building and district administration.

It should be noted that although homegrown and transplanted teachers were identified in this research question, a prospective third faction was uncovered during the interview discussions. This third group "homegrown by time" (HGBT) describes transplanted teachers who were perceived as having personal and/or political connections to school administrators, community, and faculty leaders garnered through their longevity in the school district, community involvement in various churches and organizations, social circles, or matrimony.

The perspective from homegrown teachers was that they did not have the measure of influence and respect they merited. This power was contended to have been earned through their loyalty by returning to the district, knowledge of the district and community, and inherited through former personal and familial contributions to the district and community. Furthermore, the associations they had acquired during their tenure with individuals who have ascended into administrative leadership positions were also considered as a source of influence. Suggestions from homegrown participants related that conflicts beyond the "normal" struggles associated with workers and supervisors contained a common theme that revealed mistrust with district administration that they perceived as consciously acting without seeking their input or taking into consideration their judgments, experience, and expertise.

Conversely the transplanted teacher perspective views the distribution of power as being unconventional from the standpoint that influence and power was associated with relationships and personalities rather than level of education, experience, or performance.

This perceived distribution of power contributed to the transplanted teachers' perceptions of being treated as "outsiders" and "left out" of decisions or activities in the schools, grade levels or subject area departments. This point of view contributed to the job dissatisfaction of three transplanted teachers who transferred from the district at the conclusion of the school year this study was conducted.

Additionally, transplanted teachers expressed the perception that their homegrown peers were threatened by the experiences, ideas, and education levels of some of their teaching peers. Anecdotes presented by transplanted teachers supporting this view centered on discussions that questioned the motives of teachers taking graduate courses and the promotion of National Board Certification as an alternative to graduate degrees. One individual said that they were quizzed by building peers and others when they signed up for graduate classes. She stated that many congratulated her on her efforts but some questioned "why are you going to put yourself through that…you must be trying to get out of the classroom or applying for another job". She continued by informing them that she was "doing it to improve myself and my teaching". She said they rebutted her with the statement that "there are certain ways things happen here and taking classes won't help…plus the board isn't going to pay you what its worth".

This perception recalled attention to a question on the Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey "highest degree earned" of which 45% (25 of 56) transplanted held post graduate degrees as compared to the homegrown population with 6.8% (2 of 29) earning post graduate degrees.

Homegrown teachers described the homegrown by time (HGBT) teachers as "influential" with administrators and community leaders which afforded teachers they considered to be HGBT undue political "pull" that many articulated should be limited to homegrown teachers. Although the HGBT group was identified by many homegrown and transplanted participants, speculative membership to the HGBT group was not inclusive of all transplanted teachers with longevity in the district. Those identified as being HGBT were somewhat aware of this alleged classification but did not consider themselves as having the influential power depicted, presenting anecdotal evidence to the contrary.

The participants that were considered to be homegrown by time (HGBT) expressed varying opinions that were less extreme than the homegrown and transplanted teacher views. Individuals considered to be part of the HGBT group concurred with the observations that the struggle for influence was a divisive issue within the schools and district but noted that they perceived that power and influence was adequately dispersed and was not as unbalanced as depicted in some interviews and focus groups.

However, they did note that in many instances where influence or power could be perceived as being displaced, it was not bestowed on individuals or groups but was acquired by default. By default they noted that groups or individuals were empowered through a deficiency in strong peer or administrative leadership and thus were unintentionally able to control, influence, or circumvent policies or procedures external of their designated responsibilities. This empowerment, although unintentional, was

formed as a result of circumstances in which administrators and teaching peers attempted to avoid conflicts with persons or groups within the school. Decisions to avoid possible conflicts were based on teachers' and administrators' uneasiness to enforce policy or confront issues resulting from the apprehension of the potential fallout or disruption in the school. When describing this observation, participants noted that the consequences ranged from being excluded to possibly losing one's job. It was stated that "it is easier to let some things slide than to make the wrong people mad".

Homegrown, transplanted and homegrown by time participants indicated that these perceptions caused resentment and dissatisfaction within the schools no matter how frequent or infrequent the groups or individuals practiced their extracurricular influence. They also noted that it was less of an issue if it was compatible with personal objectives.

Teachers who were considered to be homegrown by time (HGBT) remarked that there were unachieved expectations and potential from many of the younger teachers in the district. Their frustrations were most clearly stated by a HGBT who said:

> "There are very few people that come in with the attitude that most of us older teachers had when we came. We not only came here to make a living, we came to stay here, to be happy, we're here to make this a good area, a good place to live, and a good school. When we leave, I want people to say that I did something good. Not that I came in, got a paycheck, and then I left. You know if you can do something to help somebody you're going to help. We're getting very few of those people coming in…giving and being involved in the community, churches, youth livestock, other community organizations. Even homegrown, they're not of the same caliber as their parents. They are more takers than they are givers. And because we are so small and rural and we wear so many hats, we have to be givers".

Conversely, persons identified as teachers having "connections" within the district or schools, viewed themselves as leaders. They thought that they, through a sense of loyalty, assumed responsibilities and roles that were avoided and ignored. They perceived that their contributions transcended contractual duties and contended that when leadership was lacking or overwhelmed, they were available to "step up". It was also maintained that complaints about their efforts combined with their coalition or familial associations were misplaced and misconstrued as a personal benefit. However, there was a concurrence that having the accessibility within those associations was not a personal advantage but was an asset to the school district and improved their ability to "get things done".

Taken together, it is clear the "leakage" of social relationships and social connections negatively affected the homegrown teachers' attitudes, whereas transplanted teachers seemed to be largely oblivious to these dynamics. This finding is supported by the finding that as transplanted teachers staying in the community for a number of years and, more importantly, enter into long-term social and familial relationships with hometown teachers and administrators, their perceptions of job satisfaction became more like homegrown teachers than the perceptions of recently-transplanted teachers.

Summary

Chapter 4 of this study presented the findings of the three research questions posed pertaining to rural teacher job satisfaction. A total of 85 rural teachers responded

to the survey for a response rate of 95.5%. The personal interviews and focus groups had a response rate of 51.8% (44 of 85) teacher participants. The totals of homegrown and transplanted teachers participating in the focus groups or personal interviews were 16 homegrown (36%) and 28 transplanted (64%) similar to the percentages of homegrown and transplanted teachers working in the district.

The quantitative data revealed that the rural teachers reported an overall general satisfaction with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) scale score of 78. Intrinsic satisfaction received a MSQ scale score of 84 and extrinsic satisfaction was in the average satisfaction range with a MSQ scale score of 68. However, within the general satisfaction range, teachers with 1 to 5 years of experience and 11 to 37 years of experience reported high satisfaction and teachers with 6 to 10 years of experience were in the low satisfaction scale score range.

The eleven highest ranked factors of job satisfaction were intrinsic in nature. The dimensions of job satisfaction identified as having the lowest connection to job satisfaction were recognition, co-workers, advancement, company policies, and compensation, all of which are extrinsic except for co-workers which was included in the general satisfaction category. Although they indicated levels of dissatisfaction, these factors hold the greatest opportunity for improvement of job satisfaction.

The qualitative section of the study supplied the richest data collected via the rural teacher participants' points of view which were essential in developing an understanding what the rural study population experienced and the meanings they assigned to those

experiences. The qualitative data revealed that there was "role confusion" for teachers related to their daily interactions which blurred the boundaries between professional and social relations and the expectations from those associations. This role confusion in combination with the lowest five factors of the job satisfaction hierarchy has resulted in a cascading influence disturbing the perceptions surrounding teachers' job satisfaction.

The indication of job dissatisfaction revolved around faculty perceptions of not being afforded the recognition and respect expected and thus negatively influenced the professional and personal interactions with individuals and groups working in the district. These negative perceptions on recognition and respect were contended to be advanced through poor experiences in the collective bargaining process and compensation. Subsequently these attitudes alter the perceptions of company policies, co-workers, and opportunities for advancement bringing about periods of dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, these perceptions have raised the question of power and influence and how it is assumed and exercised by administration, faculty, and community leaders throughout the district. The distribution of influence was accepted by the study participants as a circumstance causing discomfort and promoted a work climate of suspicion of homegrown or transplanted administration, leadership, and peers.

CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 5 restates the problem addressed in this study. The subsequent sections of this chapter will present a summary of the study, findings, conclusions, and recommendations for rural school districts with additional recommendations for future research.

Restatement of Problem

The problem this study addressed was to determine the beliefs and attitudes of rural school teachers concerning job satisfaction and identify those elements of the rural work and community environments that influence job satisfaction and examine those elements as they relate to homegrown and transplanted teachers.

Problems Encountered

Problems emerged with the quantitative survey limiting its anticipated usefulness. The major difficulty developed with data collected from the self-administered quantitative survey in answering the first research question. Personal interpretations were applied by the respondents to several of the job satisfaction factors. These varied

interpretations were revealed in discussions during focus groups and interviews indicating that local actions and circumstances influenced respondents to merge factors as they answered the survey. After various analyses it was concluded that the usefulness of the quantitative data was minimal and the qualitative data provided more insightful data. After this realization it was determined that the pragmatic conclusion was to redirect the study focusing on the richer qualitative data.

Limitations of Study

The subjects of this study were drawn from one inclusive rural school district that operated three public schools countywide. Therefore, the quantitative and qualitative data that were collected from the survey respondents, by means of focus groups and personal interview responses, were limited exclusively to teachers employed by this individual rural school district.

Summary of the Study

While the study of job satisfaction has been extensively researched in business and industry limited studies have examined the job satisfaction of rural school teachers (Collins, 1999). Existing investigations of job satisfaction initiated from the business arena have depended a great deal on quantitative studies but education exists in a human

resource frame and those interactions cannot be adequately measured through quantitative instruments. Although factors of job satisfaction are comparatively similar between business and education, individuals from each of these areas may assign differing levels of importance to the factors of job satisfaction, not because of the dimension being assessed, but by the field from which they are viewing that dimension. Therefore, application of business based quantitative surveys measuring job satisfaction to educational settings has not permitted a suitable or seamless transition from the business model to the educational domain.

The result of this phenomenon has confirmed the importance of including the qualitative piece in this research. As suggested by Erickson, (1985) documenting the meanings of actions rural teachers assigned to the "goings on" in the rural educational environment was essential in understanding the beliefs and attitudes from the rural teachers "point of view". Perceptions individuals hold concerning their jobs affect their emotional and physical well being, and the quality of their work (Bingham 1996; DeMato, 2001). These perceptions also influence their commitment to their job and the decisions they make whether to report to work or quit altogether (Cano & Miller, 1992).

Over the past two decades, the education profession has faced new challenges in the form of teacher shortages, social and political changes, and shifting student demographics and populations. Ironically, the mandates of the No Child Left Behind have created frustrating situations in already struggling rural school districts. Weak rural economies, a small tax base, educational budget cuts, and other inherent limited resources

set rural school districts up for added hardships in attracting and retaining quality teachers (Belsie, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2003). Therefore, promoting job satisfaction and attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers is imperative for successful implementation of higher standards for student achievement in rural schools (Harmon, 2001). It has also been noted that higher levels of job satisfaction had positively influenced student achievement (Mertler, 1992). The purpose of this study was to investigate rural teachers' beliefs and attitudes relevant to job satisfaction.

Participants in the study were K-12 rural teachers from an inclusive countywide rural school district working under the umbrella of the district's negotiated teachers' contract and the same district administration. Data were collected from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Rural Teacher Satisfaction Survey, and from focus groups and personal interviews. The overall response rate for the MSQ was 95.5% (85 of 89). Focus groups had a participation rate of 31.7% (27 of 85) and 51.8% (44 of 85) of the study group completed personal interviews.

The results of the study will be summarized through each of the research questions:

Research Question 1

What are the factors that contribute to rural teacher job satisfaction?

According to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) data, the majority of rural school teachers rated their overall general job satisfaction as "high". Of the 20 dimensions of job satisfaction the 11 highest ranked factors were all intrinsic satisfaction factors. The top five ranked dimensions were security, activity, social service, variety, and ability utilization, all of which had MSQ mean scores of 4.1 or higher. This observation is consistent with studies that contend that the intrinsic factors are essential in realizing job satisfaction (Brunetti, 2001; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Quaglia & Marion, 1991).

Four of the lowest ranked satisfaction dimensions were extrinsic satisfaction items which included compensation, the lowest ranked satisfaction factor, and company policies, advancement, and recognition. The other items were authority, which was an intrinsic satisfier and considered a non-factor to job satisfaction by the rural respondents, and co-workers, which is a general satisfaction item.

General satisfaction scores were reported in the high satisfaction range peaking at the polar ends of the years of service but lower satisfaction was reported in the 6 to 10 year range.

Research Question 2

How do the factors of rural teacher job satisfaction influence teacher's decisions to remain teaching in a rural district?

The data collected in this study suggest that the factors identified by the study group as the lowest rated dimensions of job satisfaction were significantly influential in transplanted teachers' decisions to depart from the rural district, but were negligible for homegrown teachers. This finding is suggested first by the demographic survey data and was further supported by data collected through the state teacher exit interview databank and interviews with study participants who chose to leave the district.

Data collected from the demographic section of the survey indicated that 18% (15 of 85) intended to leave the district at some point during the near future. Of these 16% (9 of 56) were transplanted teachers and 14% (4 of 29) were homegrown. At the conclusion of the second school year, data collected from self reporting teachers and state teacher exit interview data, 22% (19 of 85) of the teachers left the rural district, including two homegrown and seventeen transplanted. This was 5% higher than self reported on the demographic surveys. A comparison of respondents indicating they planned to leave and annotations provided in the "additional comments" section.

Research Question 3

What are the differences, if any, of homegrown and transplanted teachers' attitudes concerning job satisfaction?

Data from the participants of the qualitative study revealed one main difference in the attitudes pertaining to their job satisfaction. This difference was related to the distribution of power which contributed to periods of job dissatisfaction. These

differences originated from the respective points of view of the homegrown and transplanted teachers and were separate from the job duties of the study participants. The varying attitudes were more aligned with the working climate, supervisory and peer leadership, and the interactions with building and district administration.

Homegrown teachers conveyed their view of the imbalance of power as a district-wide occurrence and many noted that it was personally distressing. This viewpoint stemmed from the homegrown perception that teachers returning to the district have inherently earned higher consideration for supplementary responsibilities, advancement opportunities, and a higher level of esteem. This higher consideration was expected due to their allegiance and return to their alma mater, and their familiarity with the school, community, students and families. Homegrown teachers expressed the opinion they were not appreciated and their skills and familiarity with the school and community were not being used to the fullest.

Conversely, transplanted teachers noted their impression of an imbalance of power from the view that power or influence was granted by virtue of relationships rather than education, experience, or quality of work. This was described by a number of interview participants with comparable quotes such as “it’s not what you know but it’s who you know”. Transplanted teachers contended this situation was a dynamic that influenced their job dissatisfaction from the standpoint that regardless of their abilities, intentions, or quality of their work, their contributions to the school were muted and confined to their classroom.

The observations by the alleged homegrown by time (HGBT) group concerning the distribution of power were considerably more centered than those of the homegrown and transplanted teacher groups. They expressed an awareness of the dichotomy in the other two groups' perceptions, however contended that the distribution of power was consistent with their experiences. They also noted that teachers' attention to influence and power promoted unhealthy competition that individuals consciously employed to secure or confiscate the perceived due share of influence. The HGBT teachers believed that the unhealthy competition was a dynamic that damaged collegiality and diverted focus from compulsory educational objectives.

Conclusions

This study had a response rate of 95.5% (85 of 89) and showed that rural teachers reported an overall high level of general satisfaction with a scale score of 84 as defined and calculated by the University Of Minnesota Department Of Vocational Psychology. Nearly 85% of rural teacher respondents indicated that they were satisfied and intended to remain teaching in this rural district.

The factors of job satisfaction were measured by teacher rankings. The 20 dimensions of job satisfaction pertained to the psychological needs of workers and were acquired through the use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The data of this study confirmed prior research suggesting that multiple factors influence job satisfaction

with intrinsic satisfaction factors being the best predictors of overall job satisfaction and extrinsic factors the most likely to predict dissatisfaction. Study participants indicated that security, activity, social service, variety, and ability utilization were the intrinsic factors ranked highest in contributing to job satisfaction and the extrinsic factors of recognition, company policies, opportunities for advancement, co-workers, and compensation most influenced dissatisfaction. During interviews respondents were candid with their responses to questions about job satisfaction but were equally persistent in their desire to move discussions to the factors they perceived as contributing to their dissatisfaction.

The majority of participants maintained that the responsibilities of their daily work, interactions with their students, and the creative challenges were the situations that gave them the most enjoyment with the job. Conditions traditionally associated with rural schools such as isolation, limited services, low socioeconomic status of students, and limited resources were considered as acceptable trade-offs for their perceived advantages of living in a rural area. However, the lowest ranked extrinsic factors were dimensions that were perceived as factors that influence their job dissatisfaction and intermittently had a negative influenced on the climate and relationships within the schools. Interview participants communicated that these five factors were intertwined and sometimes difficult to separate in the context of the workplace.

A common theme surfaced from the interviews and transcriptions. The entwinement of the five lowest extrinsic factors was described as a consequence of the

rural teachers' disillusionment with the collective bargaining process and the difficulties rural teachers faced in managing their social and professional responsibilities and associations. The collective bargaining process was considered to reinforce their beliefs that teachers were generally not respected and in the case of homegrown teachers, their returning to the district was unappreciated. Difficulty in separating social and professional relationships was disclosed by members of the homegrown and the homegrown by time teacher groups but was also noted by the transplanted teacher group. Although collective bargaining was attributed as the primary stimulus to job dissatisfaction, the crossover of professional and social relationships at the worksite, and the questioning of the distribution of power were also established as concerns influencing job dissatisfaction.

Discouragement from the bargaining process emanated from a perceived "lack of respect" which teachers associated with the extrinsic dimension of recognition. Respondents claimed that the subject of salaries was not at the center of their displeasure but the process of negotiations was the catalyst of frustration and resentment between all parties involved. Consequently this "lack of respect" propagated distrust within groups, individuals, also pointed to co-workers, company policies, and opportunities for advancement as factors advancing dissatisfaction.

"Role confusion" emerged as a major source of job dissatisfaction for homegrown and transplanted teachers. Teachers often found themselves discouraged at work because of the unrealistic expectations placed on them by peers, administrators, community

members, and even themselves. Interview data clarified that the conflicting expectations experienced by teachers were associated with inconsistencies between their professional roles as teachers and their social roles in the community. Additionally, interview participants acknowledged that disappointment was also encountered when the expectations they anticipated from others did not transpire. Dissatisfaction from role confusion was associated with the five extrinsic satisfiers and distribution of power as the primary cause of expectations not being met.

Teachers also disclosed concerns regarding the distribution of power. Distribution of power was described as the perceived misplacement of influence with individual teachers and teacher groups. Transplanted teachers perceived that power was placed with homegrown teachers regardless of educational experience, educational level, or quality of work, and by their social affiliations with administrators, teacher leaders, or community leaders. Transplanted teachers viewed themselves as having no influence except in their own classrooms which guided their belief that they were excluded from decision making or and that their suggestions for school improvement were ignored.

Conversely, homegrown teachers perceived that the homegrown by time (HGBT) group possessed the most influence and believed that was garnered due to their longevity in the district and social connections cultivated over time. This study documented that the perceived imbalance of power was overrated and that there was a misconception of the assessment and clout employed through the actions of teacher peers and teacher groups. Interview data suggested that power was distributed properly, however, a systemic

problem with the established decision making processes emerged. Respondents viewed the decision making process as frequently being conducted informally, leading to suspicion and widespread perceptions of favoritism. Additionally, teachers recognized as having power often exercised their influence not because power had been granted, but because they were unchallenged by administrators or peers. Therefore, without opposition they were able to exercise influence by default.

Job satisfaction factors had a greater role in transplanted teachers' decisions to depart than it did for homegrown teachers. During the two years of the study 22% of the study group left the rural district. Two homegrown teachers left during the time of the study, each noting that personal relationships were the reason for their departure. Commitment by investment was the position homegrown teachers used to explain that the rural lifestyle, being close to family, growing up and knowing people in the community, owning property, being vested the retirement system, and their investment of years of service in the rural district created a situation that made leaving the district an unacceptable option.

Transplanted teachers resigning their rural teaching positions during the study equaled 20% (17 of 85). All 17 transplanted teachers indicated that their departure was influenced by at least two or more of the five lowest job satisfaction factors of compensation, recognition, company policies, advancement, and co-workers. Each of the transplanted teachers designated varying personal meanings to all of the five extrinsic

factors that they related to their work experience, offering their interpretations as clarification for their reasoning to leave the rural district.

Recommendations for Countywide District Schools

The greatest opportunities for improving rural teacher satisfaction are presented from the data extracted from rural teacher participants' interviews and data collected from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire demonstrating that job dissatisfaction was a product of multiple extrinsic factors. Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are offered for Countywide District Schools' consideration to assist in supporting the intrinsic satisfaction factors that promoted job satisfaction and mitigate the extrinsic satisfaction factors that were identified as contributing to job dissatisfaction. These recommendations are respectfully offered to facilitate the improvement of job satisfaction of rural teachers and to strengthen the districts ability to retain highly qualified teachers, promote a collegial and respectful school climate, and support student achievement.

1. It is recommended that the district administration recognize and utilize the expertise and experience of the district's faculty. In the rural situation where resources are already limited it would behoove the district to take advantage of the resources that are readily available and teachers to volunteer their talents for

the sake of school improvement. Inclusion of faculty in decision making will afford teachers an opportunity to take a more active role in achieving the mission of the district and increase the significance of their status as stakeholders. Additionally, inclusion may ease the tensions perceived by teachers regarding the distribution of power. Including teachers in standard decision making processes may create an atmosphere where teachers and administrators making the decisions or potential recipients of the decisions are not met with skepticism or resentment.

2. It is recommended that participants of collective bargaining begin a process of transformation to conduct negotiation sessions in a face-to-face format. Moving to this format will afford both the district and faculty the opportunity to negotiate in good faith and alleviate the propagation of misinterpretations or misinformation that occurs when information is transmitted through intermediaries. Additionally, this change in procedure could enhance how the collective bargaining is viewed by the union negotiators, faculty at large, and administration supporting the factors the study population associated with improving job satisfaction.

3. It is recommended that an ongoing district wide teacher recognition program be designed in addition to the Teacher of the Year program to acknowledge teacher

achievements. The mission of the program should be to promote the profession, emphasize teacher retention, provide support for career teachers, and reward teachers who demonstrate leadership skills with other faculty and students.

4. It is recommended that the county induction program be reviewed, restructured, and funded to provide continuing training and meaningful information to all new teachers, homegrown or transplanted. It was suggested by interview participants that the induction program should return its roots encouraging a welcoming and inclusive environment, advance supportive and professional relationships, and promote the retention of quality teachers.

Recommendations for Future Research

The main purpose of this research was to investigate the factors that influenced rural teacher job satisfaction. Based on the conclusions of this research, the following recommendations are presented for consideration to strengthen research in the area of rural education and specifically rural teacher job satisfaction.

1. Research job satisfaction of rural teachers in other rural school districts in the state, region, and nation should be conducted and compared with the present study.

2. Research the results of the implantation of “grow you own” programs and the impact it has had on rural schools that used the program and the findings related to teacher retention and job satisfaction.
3. Research specific to rural teacher job satisfaction implementing teacher specific surveys in order that the quantitative data will be more beneficial.
4. Research to better understand the sociology of rural communities and how that sociology specifically affects rural teachers’ job satisfaction.
5. Replicate this study in other rural school districts in Florida and other similar sized districts.

APPENDIX A: UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA IRB APPROVAL LETTER

University of Central Florida

Office of Research & Commercialization

March 29, 2005

John Huysman
P.O. Box 1032
Moore Haven, FL 33471

Dear Mr. Huysman:

With reference to your protocol #05-2496 entitled, "Rural Teacher Job Satisfaction" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office. **The expiration date for this study will be 3/20/06.** Should there be a need to extend this study, a Continuing Review form must be submitted to the IRB Office for review by the Chairman or full IRB at least one month prior to the expiration date. This is the responsibility of the investigator. **Please notify the IRB when you have completed this study.**

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board through use of the Addendum/Modification Request form. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

Barbara Ward

Barbara Ward, CIM
IRB Coordinator

Copy: IRB file

12443 Research Parkway • Suite 302 • Orlando, FL 32826-3252 • 407-823-3778 • Fax 407-823-3299

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APPENDIX B: UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE APPROVAL LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts

N218 Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455
Office: 612-625-2818
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February 24, 2005

John Huysman
University of Central Florida
P.O.Box 1032
Moore Haven, FL 33471

Dear John Huysman:

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire 1977 short form version in your research project.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of your research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including 1) demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including scale means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and standard errors of measurement. If your tests are scored by us, we will already have the information detailed in item #2.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel free to call us at 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,

Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research

APPENDIX C: RTSS DEMOGRAPHIC TABLES

Table 3

School Where You Teach

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	ES1	35	41.2	41.2	41.2
	ES2	18	21.2	21.2	62.4
	CMHS	32	37.6	37.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 4

Distance of Commute

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 - 8 miles	48	56.5	56.5	56.5
	9 - 16 miles	13	15.3	15.3	71.8
	17 - 23 miles	4	4.7	4.7	76.5
	24 - 30 miles	9	10.6	10.6	87.1
	31+ miles	11	12.9	12.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 5

Years teaching in Countywide District Schools

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 years probationary	33	38.8	38.8	38.8
	4-8 years	20	23.5	23.5	62.4
	9-13 years	10	11.8	11.8	74.1
	14-18 years	9	10.6	10.6	84.7
	19-23 years	4	4.7	4.7	89.4
	24-28 years	5	5.9	5.9	95.3
	29+ years	4	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 6

Total Years Teaching

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 years probationary	18	21.2	21.2	21.2
	4-8 years	20	23.5	23.5	44.7
	9-13 years	11	12.9	12.9	57.6
	14-18 years	13	15.3	15.3	72.9
	19-23 years	5	5.9	5.9	78.8
	24-28 years	8	9.4	9.4	88.2
	29+ years	10	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 7

Homegrown and Transplanted Teachers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	homegrown	29	34.1	34.1	34.1
	transplanted	56	65.9	65.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 8

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	24	28.2	28.2	28.2
	Female	61	71.8	71.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 9

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20 - 29	8	9.4	9.6	9.6
	30 - 39	27	31.8	32.5	42.2
	40 - 49	18	21.2	21.7	63.9
	50 - 59	24	28.2	28.9	92.8
	60 +	6	7.1	7.2	100.0
	Total	83	97.6	100.0	
	Missing System	2	2.4		
	Total	85	100.0		

Table 10

Highest Degree Earned

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelors	58	68.2	68.2	68.2
	Post Graduate	27	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 11

Subject Area Certified

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	75	88.2	88.2	88.2
	no	10	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 12

Career Choice

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary	50	58.8	58.8	58.8
	Secondary	35	41.2	41.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 13

Planning to Stay

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	71	83.5	84.5	84.5
	No	13	15.3	15.5	100.0
	Total	84	98.8	100.0	
	Missing System	1	1.2		
	Total	85	100.0		

APPENDIX D: MSQ FACTOR TABLES

Table 14

Security

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	2.4
	neutral	4	4.7	4.7	7.1
	satisfied	30	35.3	35.3	42.4
	very satisfied	49	57.6	57.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 15

Activity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	0	0	0	0
	dissatisfied	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	neutral	3	3.5	3.5	7.1
	satisfied	32	37.6	37.6	44.7
	very satisfied	47	55.3	55.3	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 16

Social Service

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	neutral	1	1.2	1.2	3.5
	satisfied	38	44.7	44.7	48.2
	very satisfied	44	51.8	51.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 17

Variety

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	4.7
	neutral	4	4.7	4.7	9.4
	satisfied	35	41.2	41.2	50.6
	very satisfied	42	49.4	49.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 18

Ability Utilization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	4.7
	neutral	4	4.7	4.7	9.4
	satisfied	36	42.4	42.4	51.8
	very satisfied	41	48.2	48.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 19

Creativity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	4	4.7	4.7	5.9
	neutral	6	7.1	7.1	12.9
	satisfied	36	42.4	42.4	55.3
	very satisfied	38	44.7	44.7	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 20

Responsibility

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	dissatisfied	0	0	0	2.4
	satisfied	48	56.5	56.5	65.9
	very satisfied	29	34.1	34.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 21

Moral Values

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	3.5
	neutral	12	14.1	14.1	17.6
	satisfied	39	45.9	45.9	63.5
	very satisfied	31	36.5	36.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 22

Achievement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	dissatisfied	4	4.7	4.7	8.2
	neutral	7	8.2	8.2	16.5
	satisfied	35	41.2	41.2	57.6
	very satisfied	36	42.4	42.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 23

Independence

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	4	4.7	4.7	5.9
	neutral	12	14.1	14.1	20.0
	satisfied	38	44.7	44.7	64.7
	very satisfied	30	35.3	35.3	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 24

Social Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	dissatisfied	5	5.9	5.9	9.4
	neutral	15	17.6	17.6	27.1
	satisfied	39	45.9	45.9	72.9
	very satisfied	23	27.1	27.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 25

Working Conditions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	dissatisfied	12	14.1	14.1	16.5
	neutral	10	11.8	11.8	28.2
	satisfied	34	40.0	40.0	68.2
	very satisfied	27	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 26

Supervision - Technical

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	13	15.3	15.3	16.5
	neutral	13	15.3	15.3	31.8
	satisfied	34	40.0	40.0	71.8
	very satisfied	24	28.2	28.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 27

Supervision – Human Relations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	13	15.3	15.3	16.5
	neutral	12	14.1	14.1	30.6
	satisfied	37	43.5	43.5	74.1
	very satisfied	22	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 28

Recognition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	4	4.7	4.7	4.7
	dissatisfied	11	12.9	12.9	17.6
	neutral	16	18.8	18.8	36.5
	satisfied	28	32.9	32.9	69.4
	very satisfied	26	30.6	30.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 29

Authority

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	dissatisfied	2	2.4	2.4	3.5
	neutral	41	48.2	48.2	51.8
	satisfied	33	38.8	38.8	90.6
	very satisfied	8	9.4	9.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 30

Co-Workers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	8	9.4	9.4	9.4
	dissatisfied	11	12.9	12.9	22.4
	neutral	18	21.2	21.2	43.5
	satisfied	24	28.2	28.2	71.8
	very satisfied	24	28.2	28.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 31

Advancement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	dissatisfied	16	18.8	18.8	22.4
	neutral	27	31.8	31.8	54.1
	satisfied	30	35.3	35.3	89.4
	very satisfied	9	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 32

Company Polices and Practices

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	7	8.2	8.2	8.2
	dissatisfied	24	28.2	28.2	36.5
	neutral	16	18.8	18.8	55.3
	satisfied	30	35.3	35.3	90.6
	very satisfied	8	9.4	9.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Table 33

Compensation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very dissatisfied	16	18.8	18.8	18.8
	dissatisfied	29	34.1	34.1	52.9
	neutral	16	18.8	18.8	71.8
	satisfied	20	23.5	23.5	95.3
	very satisfied	4	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

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