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**THE IMPACT OF INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATIONAL POLITICS ON NEW
JERSEY TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION, SELF-EFFICACY, AND WORK
LOCUS OF CONTROL: A SURVEY RESEARCH STUDY**

by

Kayla A. Lott

A Dissertation

Submitted to the
Department of Educational Services and Leadership
College of Education
In partial fulfillment of the requirement
For the degree of
Doctor of Education
at
Rowan University
March 9, 2016

Dissertation Chair: Ane Turner Johnson, Ph.D.

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Dedications

I dedicate this dissertation to my role model, my rock, my best friend, my mother, Robin. Through her example, she taught me how to be a fighter. I watched my mother work countless hours while raising three children on her own. At times I pushed myself so hard so that I could guarantee that I would not have to live a life like hers. Never did I think that this journey would make me more like her. Mommy, I thank you for supporting me but most importantly providing me with a real example of resilience, dedication, and living a life in excellence. I love you and I truly hope that I made you proud of me.

I dedicate this dissertation to my sister Kyla, brother Marshon, and boyfriend Ty. Your love and support kept me motivated.

I dedicate this dissertation to my father Kenneth, my guardian angel. I love you and miss you dearly. May you continue to look down on me and be proud.

I dedicate this dissertation to all educators who find light in this ever-changing education system. May we never forget how important our jobs are and the lives that we impact.

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I would like to express my appreciation to my dissertation chair, Dr. Ane Turner Johnson for her guidance throughout this long process. Not only did she equip me with the skills and knowledge that I will use for years to come, but her high expectations, which often felt impossible, have made me a stronger human being. For this I am forever grateful.

Very special thanks to my committee members, Dr. Brianne Morettini and Dr. Kara Ieva, for your dedication to scholarship. You have helped me in a way that I could never repay.

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Lastly, to my critical friends: David, Bhavesh, Kimberly, cohort members, and members of Dr. Johnson's advisement group. Thank you for all your input and guidance.

I had this dream of completing a doctoral degree and I really did it! This would not have been possible without the love, support, and encouragement of my family, colleagues, and friends. Thank you all for helping me make my dream come true!

Abstract

Kayla A. Lott

THE IMPACT OF INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATIONAL POLITICS ON NEW
JERSEY TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION, SELF-EFFICACY, AND WORK
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2015-2016

Ane Turner Johnson, Ph. D.

Doctor of Education

A paradigm shift has occurred for the field of education with a renewed focus on accountability and performance. This increase in accountability along with new mandates and regulations are factors that lead to low teacher retention, especially for young teachers with less than five academic years of experience (Shen et al, 2002).

Unfortunately, teachers have little influence on the creation or implementation of new education reform initiatives. The purpose of this survey research was to explore the relationship between teacher involvement in educational politics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. This study measured these variables using the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction (1951), Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1988), and Kalayciouglu and Turun's (1981) political participation scale that was modified to educational politics.

Study participants were New Jersey teachers representing 20 of the 21 counties in the state. The findings suggest voting in national, state, and local elections to be a predictor of job satisfaction and self-efficacy. The implications for future research, policy, and practice are discussed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Teachers are constantly on the forefront of battle with legislators, administrators, and parents regarding the practices they engage in when molding the future leaders of the world. In fact, “what was once a stable and predictable career has become volatile and tentative because of high-stakes measures, changing legislative demands, and increased pressure to improve outcomes” (Moore, 2012, p. 1). This battle has led many to question where the responsibility and accountability for teaching lies (Epstein, 2004). In a time where the academic weakness of students in the United States are more prevalent than that in other countries, educators, legislators, administrators and parents find themselves playing the blame game when it comes to student achievement (Epstein, as cited in Epstein, 2004). As time progresses, more and more demands are being placed on teachers, which has led to some teachers being dissatisfied with their careers (Perie & Baker, 1997). The National Center for Educational Statistics notes that in the 2007-08 school year, of the 3,380,300 public school teachers, 270,424 (8%) of them left the profession before the 2008-09 school year (Keigher, 2010). The rate of private school teachers leaving the profession is almost double that of public school teachers with 77,481 (15.9%) out of 487,300 leaving the profession (Keigher, 2010). Consequently, what was once a stable career path people would retire from is fast becoming a first career instead.

Many posit that the disintegration of the profession is due to significant policy change in education over the past 100 years. Some may date the instability of teaching to the formation of standardized testing (Fletcher, 2009). Standardized testing, which dates back to the 1920's with the formation of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), tested

college-bound high school seniors' knowledge of vocabulary and basic math to serve as a determining factor in the college-admissions process (Fletcher, 2009; Lemann, as cited in Zwick, 2004). Others may date this back to the *Brown v. the Board of Education* of 1954, the ruling that allowed for the integration of African Americans and Caucasians in the same school (Warren, 1954). This ruling required teachers, who were mostly Caucasian, to adapt their pedagogy to teach a race of students who were viewed as inferior to them (Warren, 1954). Others If not that, then perhaps one can trace the current teaching climate to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, which requires all schools receiving federal funding to administer a statewide-standardized assessment and monitors them for continuously improving scores (USDOE, 2008). The No Child Left Behind Act also advocates for the increased accountability of teachers as well as requiring all teachers to be deemed "highly-qualified" (USDOE, 2008), placing more focus on the role teachers play in the academic success of students (Selwyn, 2007). Or maybe the instability of teaching has something to do with this new idea of merit-based pay, which supports the idea of teachers being compensated by their students' achievement (Education Week, 2001; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). These, amongst other factors, have been suggested as contributing to the changes in education. More importantly, these trends are creating gaps between "those who make [education] policy and those responsible for the results" (Epstein, 2004, p. 3).

Educational Policy & Teachers in the United States

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 put in place by the George W. Bush Administration, is a source of major educational change in recent years. The Elementary

and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was a program created by the United States Department of Education as a means to establish a process for distributing funds to school districts with a high percentage of low-income families. Originally, the Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) of 1965 was composed of the six titles, each focusing on different aspects of education upon which the government wanted “to strengthen and improve educational quality and educational opportunities in the Nation’s elementary and secondary schools” (U.S. Government and Printing Office, 1965, p. 27). The role of the teacher and their impact of student achievement were not addressed in any of the six titles in ESEA. Even though many amendments had been made to the ESEA, the reauthorization in 2001, also known as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, was more teacher-centered and placed increasing responsibilities on educators.

The NCLB Act’s primary focus was to close the achievement gap with accountability, flexibility, and choice so that no child is left behind. The reauthorization came with an entirely new focus (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002). The ESEA’s initial focus was providing federal financial aid to K-12 schooling, but transformed to a law that seemed to focus more on the accountability of the teacher, mentioning the term “teacher” over 150 times (NCLB, 2002). The act now requires teachers to have greater responsibility for student performance, to address the individual needs of students based on their achievement on assessment items, mandatory professional development, the implementation of student achievement standards, and the communication with parents about a child’s academic performance, to name a few instances (NCLB, 2002). The act, created by politicians, places the responsibility of student achievement on that of the teachers (NCLB, 2002; Selwyn, 2007).

Education reform has shifted from focusing on the money to improve student achievement to focusing on teacher accountability. The initial focus of school reforms, "... including NCLB, were developed in response to the widespread perception that students in the United States are not learning enough" (Stecher, Hamilton, & Gonzalez, 2003, p. 2). Legislators tried to be proactive about educational reform with the creation of the ESEA of 1965, dedicating multiple titles to the financial assistance of local educational agencies for the education of children of low-income families (U.S. Government and Printing Office, 1965, p. 27). Students from low-income families and students with limited English proficiency perform poorer on standardized-test scores, grades, college completion rates, and other success measures (Stecher, Hamilton, & Gonzalez, 2003; Education Week, 2011; Viadero, 2000). Unfortunately, students of low-income families and students with limited English proficiency are not the only ones suffering from low academic achievement. As of 2013, 39% of students achieved the score (163) that would constitute them as being academically prepared for college level math; only 38% percent achieved the determined reading score (302) on the NAEP. These gaps are even more evident between ethnic groups. Outside of Asian/Pacific Islander students, white students score higher than blacks, Hispanics, and American Indian/Alaskan Native on both reading and math tests, with the largest gaps being between White and Black students (NAEP, 2013).

These issues were definitely at the forefront of the reauthorization of the ESEA, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Of all the titles enclosed in NCLB, Title I may be considered the most important because it lays out the criteria school districts must meet in

order to receive federal funding. The cornerstone of NCLB is accountability grounded in standards-based assessments (Stecher, Hamilton, & Gonzalez, 2003).

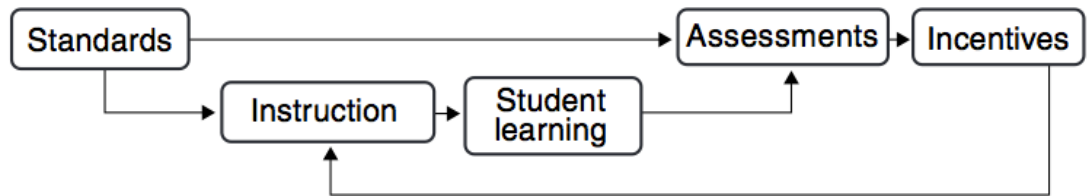


Figure 1. Elements of standards-accountability model. This figure is adapted from “Working smarter to leave no child behind: Practical insight for school leaders” (2003), by Stecher, Hamilton, and Gonzalez.

Though this figure is a simplified version of NCLB, the basic premises are the same.

Stecher, Hamilton, and Gonzalez (2003) explain the logic behind this figure best:

The goals of the system are embodied in a set of content or performance standards that schools and teachers use to guide curriculum and instruction. Tests are developed to measure student learning and determine if students have mastered the standards. Improved performance on the tests leads to rewards that reinforce effective behavior; poor performance on the tests leads to sanctions and improvement efforts that modify ineffective behavior. (p. 3)

Every aspect of the model besides the *Standards* is dependent upon the teacher. How the teachers teach will impact what the students learn, which in turn will determine how well the students do on the assessments, and affect the incentives received by the school district and its staff (Stecher, Hamilton, & Gonzalez, 2003). Even though it is the

legislation the driving change in policy (Epstein, 2004), the responsibility of implementing policy and increasing student achievement are the role of the teacher.

Teaching in the United States

Kathleen Porter-Magee (2004) asserts that many teachers feel blamed for the lack of student achievement in the United States. Porter-Macgee (2004) quoted a teacher who questioned the role the school districts, principals, and parents play in the accountability of student achievement. As per NCLB, all teachers must be “highly-qualified” by the 2005-06 deadline in order to teach (USDOE, 2005). The criterion for highly qualified is to (1) hold a college degree, (2) be state certified, and (3) demonstrate mastery of the subject they teach. These requirements were based off research that found teacher effectiveness to impact student achievement (Porter-Magee, 2004). Although studies have shown teachers to be the strongest determinant of student achievement, little research defines exactly what teacher quality is and how to provide this quality to every student (Berry, 2004). Requiring teachers to be “highly qualified” has proved to be a serious challenge in schools that service low-performing students. This means administrations have to rely on “inexperienced, underprepared, and ineffective teachers” (Berry, 2004, p. 6) because those teachers who are “highly qualified” are choosing to leave the district (Berry, 2004) or the field of education completely due to their job dissatisfaction (Ingersoll, 2002).

The continued lost of novice teachers coupled with the growing rate of retiring teachers has placed a strain on quality education for children (Keigher, 2010; Ingersoll, 2001). Keigher (2010) cites that 8% of public school teachers and 14% of private school teachers in the 2007-08 school year left the profession before the 2008-09 school year.

Ingersoll (2001) notes that a huge part of teachers leaving the profession is due to retirement, but other factors such as job dissatisfaction and teachers pursuing other careers also factor into these numbers. Though some may claim that the issue of quality education can be attributed to an increase in student enrollment (Kearney, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001), there is no denial that the number of teachers leaving the field, especially before five years of instruction (Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, & Ma, 2011; Kearney, 2008) is alarming.

The pressure for student accountability can be attributed to why teachers are leaving the field of education (Berry, 2004). “Many teachers note a decrease in morale since the implementation of NCLB because they feel they have to do well on a standardized test or are failures, no matter how much progress they make” (Hefling, 2012, para. 20). Teachers have noted other reasons responsible for their dissatisfaction and/or leaving the field, such as low salaries, lack of administrative support, working conditions, student behavior, teacher autonomy, and lack of influence over school policy (Perie & Baker, 1997; Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980; Ingersoll, 2002). Understanding policies for student accountability and the subsequent pressure it places on teachers is very important because teacher job dissatisfaction is a leading cause of high attrition rates (Ingersoll, 2001). Because student accountability is a primary focus of NCLB, it would be beneficial to understand how teachers perceive the pressures of student accountability. By soliciting their involvement in the future revision and creation of education policy teachers can avoid being made the blame for the lack of student achievement (Porter-Magee, 2004).

Novice Teachers

The grooming of novice teachers is necessary to continue to offer quality education to children as well as meet the demands of NCLB. A large percentage of teachers are leaving the field of education within five years of instruction (Shen et al., 2011; Ingersoll, 2001). Low retention rates coupled with the large percentage of teacher retiring and increase in student enrollment will “force many school systems to resort to lowering standards to fill teaching openings, inevitably resulting in high levels of under-qualified teachers and lower school performance” (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 500). Research has also shown novice teachers to have lower self-efficacy compared to that of veteran teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Other research has suggested teacher self-efficacy to be linked to the amount of stress one is under and teachers who have low self-efficacy are likely to leave the profession before 5 years of instruction (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982; Smylie, 1988). Due to the fact that teachers have a huge impact on student achievement, understanding how to increase teacher self-efficacy early in their career can lead to the retention of teachers and a boost in education quality (Berry, 2004). Since an average of 45% of teachers are leaving the field before 5 years of service it is possible they had low self-efficacy which in turn could have impacted student achievement (Shen et al. 2011; Smylie, 1988; Berry, 2004).

Job Satisfaction and Self-Efficacy

Becoming involved in the decision making process of laws and rules that affect oneself is beneficial to one’s career (Dukes, Showers, and Imber, 1980). With the changes of responsibilities placed on teachers to help students reach higher standards, teachers have become more dissatisfied with their jobs (Shen et al, 2012; Perie & Baker,

1997). Increased demands are not the only factors that affect one's job satisfaction. Researchers have found teacher job satisfaction to also be dependent on salary, working conditions, recognition, opportunities for advancement, work locus of control, and classroom autonomy to name a few (Perie & Baker, 1997; Shen et al., 2012, Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Studies have also shown teacher influence of school policy to also contribute to teacher job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980).

With teachers gaining most of their satisfaction from teaching their students, most would steer away from opportunities to become more involved because cost of involvement outweighs the benefits (Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980). It was found that mere involvement in the decision making process is not enough anymore. To aid job satisfaction, teachers must have the have the opportunity to “partake in decisions that directly affect their work” (Sheppard, as cited in Shen et al., 2011), and also have influence over the outcome (Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980).

In the situation of New Jersey, the NJ Educator Effectiveness Task Force piloted the teacher and principal evaluation from 2010 – 2013 and implemented the change for the 2013-2014 school year (NJDOE, 2010). Even though the NJ Educator Task Force stated that they solicited feedback on recommendations from various stakeholders (NJDOE, 2011), according to Sheppard (as cited in Shen et al., 2011; Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980) teachers must be involved in the decision-making process as well as the outcome to maintain teacher morale. The creation of the NJ Educators Effectiveness Task Force, which was comprised of different stakeholders, further advances the claim that the creation of educational politics has become the responsibility of many, not just

administrators and/or legislators. However, it is important to involve teachers in the decision-making process of educational policy because these laws have a direct impact on their instruction. Teacher job satisfaction can be influenced by involvement in the decision making process and its outcome, therefore the lack of solicited teacher involvement in educational politics will have influence teacher attrition rates (Perie & Baker, 1997).

Teacher employment status (i.e. tenure vs. non-tenure) has an impact on involvement in educational politics and the decision-making. Interestingly enough, some administration and even unions “...dissuade untenured teachers from active participation beyond joining the union...” because being non-tenured puts them at a lower status (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). One’s involvement in politics may also be based on one’s self-efficacy. It is often assumed that novice teachers are too busy to become actively involved in politics (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). In order for novice teachers to believe that they are able to be actively involved and encourage change but still be an effective teacher, they must believe the benefit of involvement to outweigh the cost of involvement (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). If administrators and unions continue to caution the involvement of novice teachers in educational politics, novice teachers may be less empowered to get involved in the decision making of policies, which can lead to lower self-efficacy when it comes to influencing change (Shen et al., 2012).

Education in New Jersey

The State of New Jersey is experiencing its own changes in regards to education. These changes can be attributed to a shift in leadership. Governor Christie has publicly expressed his dissatisfaction with the state of education in New Jersey and is keen to

create change. In 2010, Governor Christie stated,

I'm a public school product and I love the public school teachers that helped to lay the foundation in my life for being able to get to this point in my career. And I believe in a strong public education system, and a well funded one. But you know, at some point there has to be parity. There has to be parity between what's happening in the real world and what's happening in the public sector world.

(NJDOE, 2010, para. 1)

Governor Christie described New Jersey's current education system as ineffective and his plans to alter the system to make "teacher effectiveness and student achievement the driving forces behind every policy and practice" (NJDOE, 2010, para. 3). These changes range from tenure reform to changes in the teacher evaluation system (NJDOE, 2010) and even a push to extend the school year (Christie, 2014).

Governor Christie's opinions about the education system may be justified. The New Jersey Department of Education (2010) cite statistics about the achievement gap between black and Hispanic students compared to that of white students along with the lack of academic growth of New Jersey students as a whole. Also, the achievement gap between the wealthy and low-income students has had miniscule change in the past 19 years amongst other statistics that show the persistence of the achievement gap in the state (NJDOE, 2010). The election of a governor with such passionate views on education brought along an increase of gubernatorial control coupled with a demand of change in the education system. Unfortunately, with this change in leadership has come a lack of teacher representation.

Governor Christie decided to create *The New Jersey Effectiveness Task Force* to assist with creating the guidelines for the new educator evaluation system (NJDOE, 2011). The primary focus of the task force was to create “recommendations for improving student achievement in New Jersey by revamping our educator evaluation system” (NJDOE, 2011). Unfortunately, there were no teachers on the task force membership (NJDOE, 2011).

Teacher Unions

In order for the NJEA to maintain its effectiveness, union leaders must recruit and retain new members (Pogodzinski, 2012). The two most powerful teacher unions are the National Educational Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (Tamir, 2010). These organizations are comprised of over 3 million members and 1 million members, respectively, and serve as the “major spokes-group for public schools and the key defenders of the system at all three levels of government: federal, state, and local...” (Cooper & Sureau, 2008, p. 89). The majority of the 138,694 certified teaching staff in New Jersey belongs to the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA), the state affiliate of the NEA (NJDOE, 2014; NJEA, 2014).

The mission of the NJEA is to “advance and protect the rights, benefits, and interests of members and promote a quality system of public education to all students” (NJEA, 2014). Even though the power of the NJEA has been on the decline since the early 1980s due to “increasing public hostility towards unions, the increasing power of the Republican Party, and the growing concerns and criticism regarding...the “deteriorating” quality of U.S. public education,” (Tamir, 2010, p. 470), the NJEA remains in alliance with the state legislators when it comes to collective bargaining

(Woodbridge Township Education Association, personal communication, January 5, 2015). The NJEA also serves its members by offering professional formal assistance from veteran educators, protection from employment-related matters, and fighting for fair funding and better education policy (Kopkowski, 2008). A major source of NJEA's power stems from union membership dues which are collected by all active professional teachers, educational support professional, retired educators, and student members (Tamir, 2010; NJEA, 2015). Outside of paying membership dues, active membership in NJEA ranges from attending local union meetings, committee membership, and/or being a school representative.

Novice teacher lack of involvement may be a result of fear and lack of perceived benefit. Thomas (as cited in Kopkowski, 2008) states, "Teachers sometimes feel alone and scared of what the principal will say if they speak up as a union member" (para. 2). Other research suggests that novice teachers are not involved in their unions is because they view unions to be less beneficial to them compared to that of veteran teachers (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014). Pogodzinski and Jones (2014) found that for a teacher to want to be involved, they must view the benefit of their involvement to outweigh the cost of their involvement. On the other hand a union as large as the NEA, ones voice will be heard and you will have "the chance to stand up for what I believe in and affect the course of education in our state" (Thomas, as cited in Kopkowski, para. 17). However, it is important to know that the major reason why novice teachers may not be involved in the union is because they lack a basic understanding of its purpose (Pogodzinski, 2012; Pogodzinski and Jones, 2014). Understanding the benefits of involvement in the union

may lead to increased involvement with the novice teachers benefitting from feelings of self-efficacy (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014).

Problem Statement

The increased pressure being placed on teachers has a direct effect on how satisfied teachers are with their career. Research has shown that teacher job satisfaction has a direct impact on “teacher effectiveness, which ultimately affects student achievement” (Perie & Baker, 1997). Not only does job dissatisfaction yield less than satisfactory results on standardized testing, teacher ineffectiveness leads to a decrease in quality of instruction provided to students (Perie & Baker, 1997). This is an issue for the state because federal funding is dependent upon student achievement on standardized testing. If teachers are ineffective, and students yield poor results, then the state can likely lose some funding (USDOE, 2008).

The increased pressure on teachers not only leads to teacher ineffectiveness, but also teacher resignation. Shen et al. (2011) analyzed results from the Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study 1993-97 that showed that teachers are leaving the field of education at alarming rates. In fact, results showed the retention rates of new teachers to be 45% after 5 years with very few teachers leaving involuntarily (Shen et al. 2011). With the average cost of recruiting, hiring, preparing, and then losing a teacher to be \$50,000 (Vail, 2005), teacher retention is an issue best resolved for school districts.

Characteristics that lead to teacher job satisfaction include working conditions, compensation, teacher autonomy, the degree of student misbehavior, and more (Perie & Baker, 1997; Lester, 1987). Teacher job satisfaction is also being attributed to the “degree of faculty influence over policies and decision-making” (Ingersoll, Han, & Bobbitt, 1995,

p. 38). Influence over school policy includes input in the decision-making process as well as influence over its outcome (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014). Unfortunately, with some administrators and even unions cautioning novice teachers against political involvement due to their non-tenured status, these behaviors may lead novice teachers to have a lower self-efficacy compared to that of veteran teachers (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014).

Higher self-efficacy can be linked to the higher retention rates. Smylie (1988) found that teachers with low self-efficacy are likely to leave the field of education before five years. Self-efficacy can increase with experience (Berry, 2004), but understanding other factors that can lead to higher self-efficacy can lend itself to the conversation on teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention.

Teacher effectiveness has been a topic of conversation for New Jersey's governor, Chris Christie, but unfortunately teachers are having little influence in the new laws and regulations that are affecting them (NJDOE, 2014). The teacher unions, whom serve as the spokes group for educators, are doing their best to offer quality support for its members, but are unfortunately lacking the involvement of novice teachers. Reasons for lack of novice teacher involvement in unions vary from fear to a basic lack of understanding of the purpose of the union (Kopkowski, 2008). Novice teachers are also more reluctant to become politically involved because they view the cost of involvement to outweigh the benefit (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014).

To truly empower novice teachers to expand their understanding political involvement, we need a deeper understanding of the relationship between political involvement and job satisfaction and if it leads to higher self-efficacy. In addressing

these research problems, we may better address the practical issue of how to increase the retention of novice teachers as well as reduce the achievement gap amongst students.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this survey study was to draw upon the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2002) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982) to examine the relationship between political involvement, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control of novice educators who teach in New Jersey public schools. The independent variable, political involvement, is characterized by participants' level of involvement in educational politics and years of involvement. The dependent variables are self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control. Self-efficacy is defined as a novice teacher's belief concerning his/her ability to successfully teach (Betz & Borgen, 2000) while job satisfaction is defined as the overall feelings one has about his/her job (Perie and Baker, 1991). Spector (1988) defines work locus of control as "...a generalized expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in life are controlled either by one's own actions (internality) or by other forces (externality)" specific to one's work domain (p. 335). The purpose of a survey design is to generalize from a sample of novice teachers in New Jersey to a population of novice teachers so that inferences can be made about characteristics that affect job satisfaction.

The following research question will guide my study:

1. How do novice teachers rate their perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics compared to that of experienced teachers?

- a. How do teachers of different gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch rate their perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics?
2. What is the difference in perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics between teachers of different experience, gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch status?
3. Does engagement in educational politics, gender, school's county, and free or reduced lunch status predict job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control?

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined in terms of this study's purpose.

Educational political involvement. The term educational political involvement is defined as being an active member in New Jersey Education Association (NJEA), local teacher unions, state policymaking, and/or school decision-making.

Job satisfaction. The term job satisfaction is defined as "...an affective reaction to an individual's work situation. It can be defined as an overall feeling about one's job or career or in terms of specific facets of the job or career (e.g., compensation, autonomy, coworkers) and it can be specific outcomes such as productivity" (Rice, Gentile, and McFarlin as cited in Perie and Baker, 1991, p. 2).

Novice teacher. For this purpose of this study, the term novice teacher is defined as teachers with 0-4 years teaching experience. As of 2012, the new tenure law for NJ teachers was changed and required teachers to complete four years plus a day to obtain

full-tenure status (NJEA, 2012). I'm considering novice teachers to be those that are not tenured.

Self-efficacy. The term self-efficacy is defined as one's belief concerning one's ability to successfully perform a task (Betz & Borgen, 2000)

Theoretical Framework

The social cognitive theory was developed by Bandura (2001), and used to study the consequences behind a sequence of events that influence behaviors. The theory indicates that, "efficacy beliefs play a central role in the self-regulation of motivation through goal challenges and outcome expectations. It is partly on the basis of efficacy beliefs that people choose what challenges to undertake, how much effort to expend in the endeavor, how long to persevere in the face of obstacles and failures, and whether failures are motivating or demoralizing" (Bandura, 2001, p. 10). As applied to my study, this theory demonstrates that I would expect self-efficacy to influence the political involvement of novice teachers because if one has high self-efficacy expectation regarding a task, they are more likely to perform the task, have higher performance, and persevere through times of difficulty (Betz & Borgen, 2000).

I also used Bandura's (1982) theory of self-efficacy to inform this study. The theory indicates that sources of self-efficacy are performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and one's physiological and emotional states all affect one's self-efficacy judgments or expectations, which determine one's performance. From the lens of these two theories, we may understand what aspects of political involvement affect a novice teacher's self-efficacy.

Significance of Study

The results of this study can be used to inform practice, policy, and research. With the identification of self-efficacy having an impact on one's job satisfaction and teacher attrition rates (Berry, 2004; Smylie, 1988), educational organizations may be able to more effectively plan for the involvement of novice teachers in the development of policies and procedures. Likewise, understanding the relationship between political involvement and self-efficacy, this research may prompt the understanding of other causes behind the low retention rate of teachers.

Practice

With greater accountability of teachers being a focus of NCLB, this study may first be used to drive teachers to take other measures to develop professionally and increase their perceived self-efficacy through reflective practice and support from other teachers. Second, this study may be used by local, regional, and national stakeholders to persuade teachers to get more involved and take on issues that affect both the classroom and the field of education as a whole to help advance the entire education community. The findings may also be used to inform educators about the basic purpose of their union and when they can be of use.

Policy

First, the findings from this study may be used to advocate for policies regarding the professional development of novice teachers. The evidence may be used to revamp teacher-mentor programs as well as pre-service internships to address factors of self-efficacy as well as viable options to gain professional development to manage other stressors that may lead to job dissatisfaction. Second, as this study examines the

motivators behind involvement in local, state, federal educational politics, findings may also be used to advocate for the increased funding of programs and that groom novice teachers to be effective leaders inside and outside of the classroom and help increase their self-efficacy. Findings may also be used to increase collaboration between local, regional, and national stakeholders on future educational policies and initiatives. With more educational responsibilities being shifted from the school district to that of gubernatorial control (Shober, 2012), the acceptance of future decision-making (i.e. curriculum policies, high stakes testing, etc.) will be dependent upon the involvement of various stakeholders, novice teachers included

Research

First, the findings from this study can be used to influence research on other facets that significantly impact teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and motivation for political involvement. Second, the results from this study can be used to further research into the relationship between self-efficacy and teacher retention. Lastly, this study can be used to influence research on the impact of political involvement on novice teacher job satisfaction and feelings of self-efficacy in different context such as private schools and states who are affected by different educational policy (i.e. Common Core State Standards).

Limitations

Survey studies have a number of limitations that need to be addressed prior to the administration of the survey to guarantee results that are both reliable and valid (Fink, 2013). With the state of New Jersey having 21 counties and over 100 school districts, the best way to survey a sample of novice teachers would be through a self-administered

survey through an online response system. In an effort to guarantee a response rate acceptable for this study, a few precautions will be taken. First, representatives of the NJEA will be notified requesting the emails of novice teachers in their schools/district. These teachers will be emailed a description of the study as well as be requested to participation (Fink, 2013). If the NJEA representatives are not comfortable with disclosing such information, they will be asked to serve as liaison between the novice teachers and myself.

The greatest limitation of survey research lies in the creation of the survey. Creating a survey that is reliable and valid often requires the adaption of surveys used in previous research literature along with multiple strands of pilot testing (Fink, 2013). The survey will be comprised of closed-ended questions, which will be derived from previously published surveys. The survey will be tested for reliability by completing a test-retest activity to ensure the survey yields the same results, the wording is easy to understand, and the questions are encouraging thoughtful answers (Fink, 2013; Salant, 1994). Also, because I am operating from a post-positivist paradigm, once the pilot test proves the survey to be valid, I will be reporting directly upon the responses I receive. Due to the fact that this survey will draw upon the theories of social cognitive and self-efficacy, the pilot test should also prove this survey to have content validity (Fink, 2013).

Overview of Dissertation

This study is composed of six chapters. Chapter 1 sought to introduce the topic of investigation and describe the purpose of the research, significance, research questions, and limitations. Chapter 2 will act as the literature review in which the theoretical framework and other pertinent literature will be further discussed. Chapter 3 describes

the study's methodology. Chapter 4 will reveal the overall findings of the study. Chapter 5 will discuss my conclusion and recommendations for further research on novice teachers' perceived self-efficacy as it relates to their degree of involvement in educational politics.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Chapter Two provides a review of the literature pertinent to this study and a conclusion based on that literature. The literature reviewed focuses on novice teachers, political involvement in educational politics, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy while drawing connections between each of these separate elements. Drawing from the of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001) and the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982), this review seeks to identify the gaps in research concerning the connection between teacher attrition, teacher job satisfaction, political involvement, and teacher self-efficacy in order to underscore the need for this study.

Teacher Attrition

Teachers are leaving the field of education at alarming rates (Shen et al, 2012; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). Studies have shown a 45% teacher attrition rate after five academic years (Shen et al., 2012). These rates can be attributed to young teachers leaving the field coupled with high retirement rates (Ingersoll, 2002; Shen, 2010). Other than retirement, characteristics that are linked to high teacher attrition are: gender, race, level of education, and years of experience (Caprara et al., 2006; Kearney, 2008; Shen, 2010; Perie & Baker, 1997; Borman & Dowling, 2008).

There are vastly more female teachers than male teachers (Caprara et al., 2006; Duarte, 2000). The influences behind females becoming teachers can be attributed to many factors. Smith (2011) identifies three spheres of influence on females that choose teaching as their career:

“Socialization and the social construction of women’s maternal and relational roles, institutional factors, such as endemic institutional discrimination, and personal factors, including motivation and values, aspirations, perceptions of school leadership and the women’s self-perceptions about the extent to which they had exerted their personal agency in their approach to career management” (p. 11).

Conversely, one reason that males do not choose teaching as a career path is because of the lack of male teacher role models for teachers (Mills, Martino, & Lingard, 2004) and low salaries (Mills, Martino, & Lingard, 2004; Borman & Dowling, 2008). More females are becoming teachers and are more likely to remain a teacher compared to their male counterparts (Caprara et al., 2006; Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemeyer, 2000; Henke, Choy, & Geis, 1996; Holdaway, 1978; Perie & Baker, 1997; Schlechty & Vance, 1983; Kearney, 2008; Stockard, 2004; Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2014). Males are more likely to leave the education field because of salaries (Mills, Martino, & Lingard, 2004; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Kearney, 2008), benefits, and opportunities for advancement (Kearney, 2008).

In addition to gender, race is also a factor in teacher attrition. White teachers are more likely to leave the profession than minority teachers (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll 2001; Shen, 2010; Stockard, 2004). Even though they are leaving the teaching profession at a much faster rate, white teachers still outnumber minority teachers (Kearney, 2008). Kearney (2008) states even, “As young teachers are dropping out... the teaching pool remains almost exclusively white” (p.614). This means that the overwhelming amount of white teachers currently in the field still outnumbers the

number of whites leaving the field yearly. To be more specific, Borman and Dowling (2008) found teacher attrition to be higher amongst white females who were married with children. This is not the only conclusion, as other researchers have found race to be unrelated to teacher attrition and more dependent upon extrinsic factors (Singer, 1992).

Attrition rates are also highest amongst teachers who have high academic achievement (Kearney, 2008; Shen, 2010). Kearney (2008) states:

“A disturbing factor about this situation was that the young teachers who had left the classroom were often the best and brightest candidates. Those who had scored in the top quartile on college entrance exams were nearly twice as likely to leave the field as those who scored in the bottom quartile. The report concluded with information that individuals who entered and remained in the teaching field tended to register lower test scores than those of their peers (p. 615)”

Not only are standardized test scores an indicator of teacher attrition, having regular certification and no graduate degree also contribute to high attrition (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Singer, 1992). There have also many discrepancies between teachers who specialize in math or science leaving the field earlier than those who specialize in general education areas. Some researchers believe attrition to be higher amongst science and math teachers (Borman & Dowling, 2008) while others find this not to be a factor of attrition (Shen, 2010).

As stated before, the attrition rate after five academic years is 45% (Shen et al., 2012). Earlier studies found attrition rates to be “15% from 1988 to 1989, 13.2% from 1991 to 1992, and 14.3% from 1994 to 1995” (Ingersoll, 2001). Furthermore, national data shows an average of 7% of teachers leaving the profession each year (Borman &

Dowling, 2008). This shows a steady increase in teacher turnover rates as time passes. Characteristics such as school demographics (Borman & Dowling, 2008) as well as level of education (Stockard, 2004) are also predictors of teacher attrition.

A teachers' age is also an indicator of the likelihood of turnover (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 518). Researchers have found teacher turnover to follow a U-shaped curve in which turnover is high for younger teachers, declines for mid-career teachers, and rises again for teachers in their retirement years (Ingersoll, 2001; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Shen, 2010; Crossman & Harris, 2006). In the case of South Texas, Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, and Stottlemeyer (2000) concluded that 88% of beginning teachers under the age of 25 plans to leave the profession compared to 69% of beginning teachers over 35. The U-shaped curve analogy is the same when discussing age and/or experience. High attrition can be contributed to teachers who are young or have little teaching experience as well as those veteran teachers whom are eligible for retirement (Ingersoll, 2001). A teacher's age also can be associated with job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997) which is another factor of teacher attrition. The following section will discuss literature of teacher job satisfaction and its connection to teacher attrition.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

Teacher job satisfaction is “a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness” (Shann, 2010, p. 67). Researchers have tried to uncover what factors lead to teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in an effort to retain teachers in the field of education (Woods & Weasmer, 2004; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Perie & Baker, 1997). The factors affecting job satisfaction can be broadly characterized as intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors

(Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008; Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2014; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Kearney, 2008).

Intrinsic Factors

Intrinsic factors not only motivate individuals to enter the education field, but are also proven to lead to high satisfaction and low attrition rates (Perie & Baker, 1997).

Intrinsic factors that impact teacher job satisfaction include a sense of accomplishment (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993), working with students (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Cockburn, 2002; McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, Yee, 1986), personal teaching efficacy (Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008), autonomy (Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008; Perie & Baker, 1997), work locus of control (Rotter, 1966; Ross, 1991; Muhonen & Torkleson, 2004; Spector et al., 2001), and other meaningful activities that relate directly to teaching (Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2014; Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Even though intrinsic rewards are more powerful for motivating teachers compared to extrinsic rewards (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005), there are some intrinsic factors that may lead teachers to leave the field (Brown, 1996). These factors include the need for personal growth and the desire for a coherent philosophy of education (Brown, 1996).

Sense of accomplishment. When students demonstrate mastery over what was taught, it creates a sense of accomplishment, an intrinsic reward for teachers (Pearson and Moomaw, 2005). Firestone and Pennell (1993) state, "...teachers are quite dependent on students for intrinsic feedback, such as knowing that their charges have learned what was taught" (p. 493). This means that teachers evaluate their worth on the academic accomplishment of their students. Even though research has recognized "...test scores do

not capture all facets of student learning...[they] are widely recognized as important indicators of achievement by educators, policymakers, and the public” (Rockoff, 2004, p. 251). According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), “Teachers report that they rarely use students’ standardized test scores to evaluate their performance” (p. 504). However, Rosenholtz’s (1987) study on teachers administering the minimum competency tests found that having their students meet minimum competency standards served as an evaluation of their work amongst other benefits.

Besides test scores, teachers gain a sense of accomplishment through psychic rewards of teaching (Hargreaves, 2000). Psychic rewards of teaching “...rotate around classroom events and relationships with students; the cathexis of classroom life underlies much of what teachers feel about their work” (Lortie, as cited in Hargreaves, 2000, p. 817). Teachers not only gain a sense of accomplishment from students’ academic achievement but also from emotional bonds and positive feedback received from students when they are no longer their teacher (Hargreaves, 2000).

Working with students. Working with students, which some researchers have labeled the task of teaching, is defined as desire to help students achieve academically and socially and having a positive impact on student attitudes (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Cockburn, 2002; McLaughlin et al., 1986). Working with students is found to be one of the primary sources of teacher job satisfaction because of the positive impact it has on both students and teachers (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Cockburn, 2002; McLaughlin et al., 1986). McLaughlin et al. (1986) states, “the positive impact on students’ lives yield the psychic rewards that teachers seek and need in order to

sustain their efforts” (p. 421). A teacher’s commitment to student achievement not only has a positive effect on the teacher, but it also has a positive effect on student achievement. Firestone & Pennell (1993) found that teachers who lacked commitment resulted in a decrease in student achievement.

It is important to point out the difference between a commitment to students and a commitment to teaching. Firestone and Pennell (1993) found that a commitment to students is associated with a “warm, supportive climate that is likely to reduce the dropout rate but may not contribute much to academic achievement, while a commitment to teaching may have the opposite effect” (p. 491). On the other hand Dinham and Scott (1996) define the task of teaching as “pupil achievement, teacher achievement, [and] changing pupil attitudes and behaviours in a positive way...” This definition coincides more with other research definitions of commitment to students than commitment to teaching. In any case, commitment to students is equated with teacher efficacy, another intrinsic factor that affects teacher job satisfaction (Kushman, 1992).

Teaching efficacy. Researchers have found teaching efficacy to be directly related to job satisfaction as well as teacher persistence, enthusiasm, and commitment (Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, & Benson, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Caprara, 2006; Buyukgoze-Kavas, Duffy, Guneri, & Autin, 2014; Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Unfortunately, what is not that clear is what researchers define as teaching efficacy. Many researchers use the terms and phrases teaching efficacy, perceived self-efficacy, teacher empowerment, and performance efficacy interchangeably.

Ashton and Webb (as cited in Kushman, 1992) defined teacher efficacy as “the belief that teaching can lead to student learning even when obstacles to learning are present” (p. 9). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) complemented this definition by defining teacher’s efficacy beliefs as “...a judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated” (p. 783). On the other hand, Gibson (1984) defined teaching efficacy as the “...belief that any teacher's ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher, such as the home environment, family background, and parental influences” (p. 574). Gibson (1984) is one of the few researchers that recognize a difference between teaching efficacy, and personal teaching efficacy with the latter being defined as the “belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning” (p. 573). These definitions sound familiar to what Bandura (1997) defines as perceived self-efficacy or the “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Bandura’s (1997) idea of perceived self-efficacy is more general than teaching specific. Shen et al. (2012) considered self-efficacy specific to “...professional worth and growth, often as a result of teachers being given autonomy, creating impact on the life of students, receiving professional respect, and partaking in decisions that directly affect their work.” Rosenholtz (1987) described performance efficacy as the feelings that are connected to how well one performs on the job (p. 540).

No matter the terms used, efficacy beliefs impact not only one’s performance but also outcomes. Also, the “...possession of knowledge and skills alone are not sufficient for efficacious teaching” (Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992, p. 150); it also depends

on how that knowledge and skills are mobilized to perform an act successfully (Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992, p. 150).

Researchers have found teaching efficacy to not only be related to how well a teacher performs but also to related to student motivation, student self-efficacy beliefs, student self-esteem, classroom behavior, and positive attitudes toward school (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Caprara, 2006; Gibson, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Ashton and Webb (as cited in Kushman, 1992) found that a “...high sense of efficacy...[is] likely to result in high student achievement” (p. 9-10). Gibson (1984) also reported that a high sense of teacher efficacy resulted in reading achievement in students. Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992) found the “...direct causal relationship between teacher’s perceived self-efficacy and student achievement to be demonstrated empirically” (p. 151). Also, even though researchers have found self-efficacy to be related to a teacher’s commitment (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), Kushman (1992) found there to be no link between a teacher’s commitment and student achievement gains.

Though the research varies on the effect of teacher efficacy on student achievement, researchers have found student achievement to have an impact on teacher efficacy (Tschannen & Hoy, 2007; Sarafoglu, 1997; Caprara, 2006; Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992). Student achievement allows for teachers to feel rewarded and motivates teachers to continue to perform well as an incentive for future performances (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Rosenholtz, 1987; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Bandura’s (2001) social cognitive theory explains these as mastery experiences in which come from “...actual teaching accomplishments with students” (Tschannen-Moran

& Hoy, 2007, p. 945). A student's previous academic achievement also contributes to a teacher's perceived self-efficacy (Caprara, 2006; Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992).

Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992) found positive feelings of self-efficacy to be necessary for effective teaching (p. 151). Feelings of self-efficacy appear very early in one's career and are unlikely to change across stages of a career (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Novice teachers' efficacy beliefs are related to stress and commitment to teaching (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Novice teachers often enter the profession with high hopes about their abilities to positively impact the lives of their students and encounter "reality shock" when the task turns out to be more difficult than anticipated (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Tschannen, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Due to the fact that novice teachers are often totally immersed in the task of teaching, they rarely take the time to reflect on their practice, which can also lead to a negative self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Blair, 2008). Unfortunately, research on experience affects teacher's self-efficacy is limited (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Research has shown teaching efficacy leads to commitment and "...commitment comes when one experiences responsibility for the outcomes of one's work" (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 498) or autonomy, another intrinsic factor that affects teacher job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Autonomy. Definitions of autonomy differ amongst researchers. Firestone and Pennell (1993) refer to autonomy as a "...worker's freedom to schedule work and determine the procedures used to carry it out" (p. 498). However, other researchers were able to recognize that teacher autonomy, to be more specific, has different meanings to different teachers. Where one teacher may view autonomy as having "...substantial

freedom and independence in the classroom free from interference or supervision” others view autonomy as “...freedom to develop collegial relationships to accomplish tasks that extend beyond the classroom” (Frase & Sorenson, 1992, p. 40). Firestone and Pennell (1993) concur with Frase and Sorenson’s (1992) idea of having autonomy over decisions made inside and outside of the classroom and labeled them as operational and strategic decisions. Unfortunately, teachers are viewed to have autonomy over operational decisions, or those that happen in the classroom, but little autonomy over strategic decisions, or those that happen in multiple classrooms, the school, or district (p. 498).

The difference in how one defines autonomy does not negate the fact that high levels of autonomy are associated with high levels of job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Frase & Sorenson, 1992; Firestone & Pennell, 1993) and low levels of attrition (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001; Borman & Dowling, 2008). Unfortunately, some researchers found that autonomy that promotes isolation “...limits feedback about performance, and promote staleness” amongst teachers (McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, & Yee, 1986, p. 423). Frase and Sorenson (1992) believe that the intended spirit of “autonomy” is not isolation but autonomy is really about collegial interaction (p. 40). However, in the absence or reduction of autonomy, participation in decision-making can serve as a substitute (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Kushman (1992) states, “When teachers feel in control of the learning process, they are more likely to perceive their own professional worth and efficacy, seek and find solutions to students’ learning difficulties, and in the end, experience more success in the classroom leading to greater intrinsic satisfaction with teaching” (p. 36). The real

question as it pertains to this study is if political involvement provides teachers with this sense of control.

Work locus of control. Spector et al. (2001) define work locus of control as an “...individual’s tendency to believe that he or she controls events in [one’s work] life (internality) or that such control resides elsewhere (externality)” (p. 818). Those people who believe they have internal control tend to be “...more satisfied with their jobs...report less stress, perceive more autonomy and control, and tend to favor longer job tenure” (Ross, 1991, p. 1080). On the contrary, those people who believe they have external control not only report lower job satisfaction, but they also tend to have greater job related stress and ill-health (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). While gender has been noted as a factor that contributes to teacher attrition, studies has shown no gender differences when it comes to work locus of control but work locus of control has been identified as a significant predictor for health and job satisfaction for women (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004, p. 26).

Meaningful activities related to teaching. Teachers often have responsibilities that extend beyond the classroom (Fireston & Pennell, 1993). Participation in these professional activities can influence job satisfaction (Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Azumi & Lerman, 1987; Thompson, 2013). Azumi and Lerman (1987) found that participation in activities such as curriculum development and educational decision making to have the most impact on job satisfaction, compared to cultural exchange and counseling students. When considering novice teachers in an induction program, Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found common planning time, regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers on issues of instruction, attendance to seminars, and

participation in external networks of teachers as meaningful activities that lead to less teacher turnover. Thompson (2013) complemented these finding by discovering there to be a weak relationship between teacher job satisfaction and extracurricular programming involvement. Furthermore, Firestone and Pennell (1993) recognized activities such as “...patrolling during lunch periods, hall monitoring, and supervising bus loading” to be the most meaningless activities that rob teachers of their intrinsic motivation. Flowers’s (2003) study found 30% of teachers who left the field strongly agree it was a result of the mandatory participation in meaningless activities such as those described by Firestone and Pennell (1993).

Intrinsic factors that contribute to teachers leaving. Brown (1996) is one of the few researchers to identify intrinsic factors that contribute to teachers leaving the field of education whereas other researchers have found intrinsic factors to lead to job satisfaction. Brown (1996) interviewed twelve former teachers in an effort to recognize the factors that led to them leaving the field. Two intrinsic factors that emerged from the study were the need for personal growth and the desire for a coherent philosophy of education. The need for personal growth had different meaning to the participants with some noting that the repetitive nature of teaching hinders personal growth and provides a sense of confinement. While researchers have recognized working with students to be a factor that leads to job satisfaction (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Cockburn, 2002; McLaughlin et al., 1986), Brown (1996) discovered that a participant left teaching because the profession did not have enough prestige, and while a teacher’s efficacy has an impact on student motivation and student

self-esteem (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Caprara, 2006), it can limit a teacher the opportunity for self-discovery (Brown, 1996).

A coherent philosophy of education, or a clear understanding about the meaning of what it is to be a teacher, was identified as another intrinsic factor that leads to teachers' dissatisfaction with the profession and ultimately leaving. Participants described this as issues about pedagogy and the constant change of curriculum. Participants' felt that their purpose was to teach students how and what to teach, but they had a different philosophy (Brown, 1996). These intrinsic factors were supplemented by extrinsic factors for leaving which are discussed in the next section.

Extrinsic Factors

Intrinsic factors are more likely to influence teacher satisfaction while extrinsic factors heavily influence dissatisfaction (Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2014, p. 262). Extrinsic factors that affect job satisfaction include working conditions (Veenman, 1984; Rosenholtz, 1987; Perie & Baker, 1997; Marlow, Inman, Betcancourt-Smith, 1996, Holdaway, 1978; Alt, Kwon, & Henke, 1999; Dinham & Scott, 1996; McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, Ma, 2012; Poole, 1999), recognition and support for performance (Dinham & Scott, 1996; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Picrd, 1986; Perie & Baker, 1997; McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Caprara, 2006; Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemeyer, 2000; Heineke, Mazza, & Tichnor-Wagner, 2014; Leavitt, 1986; McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, & Yee, 1986), and salary (Perie & Baker; Rees, 1991; Kearny, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001; Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, Stottlemeyer, 2000; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Shen, 1997; Shann, 2010; Schlechty & Vance, 1983). Even though researchers

have found extrinsic factors to lead to job dissatisfaction (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2014), extrinsic rewards like salary, working hours, and not working on holidays are believed to affect job satisfaction (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004; Kottkamp, Proveno, & Cohn, 1986). Two extrinsic factors that have proven to have huge impact on teacher job satisfaction are: security (Ingersoll, 2001; McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Pogodznski & Jones, 2014; Shann, 2010; Abraham & Medoff, 1984) and control over decision-making (Perie & Baker, 1997; Ingersoll, 1995; Ma & MacMillian, 1999). Security was found to be a huge contributor to job satisfaction amongst young teachers, leading to high attrition (Veenman, 1984).

Working conditions. Researchers identified working conditions to encompass a number of factors such as: current teaching assignments, class size, administrative support and leadership, salary, number and length of meetings, non-teaching duties, paperwork, professional development opportunities, and much more (McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Poole, 1999; Marlow, Inman, & Betancourt-Smith, 1996; Brewer, 1996; Dinham & Scott, 1996). Many of these of these factors contribute to the dissatisfaction of teachers as well as the reason for leaving the field (McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Perie & Baker, 1997). For instance, Rosenholtz (1987) found that low-efficacy teachers converse more about poor working conditions as the reasons behind their lack of teaching success. This is because these low-efficacy teachers find it easy to blame their lack of success on issues that are out of their control (Roseholtz, 1987).

When it comes to how beginning teachers view their working conditions, Veenman (1984), found that although beginning teachers cited many issues their first

year of teaching, none of them were related to their working conditions. However, this does not mean that these beginning teachers are satisfied. Holdaway (1978) used Herzberg's two-factor theory as a framework to further explain "Better working conditions can only affect our dissatisfaction and not our satisfaction" (p. 33). This means that working conditions such as recognition and support for performance and salary will not produce a satisfied worker but a worker who is not dissatisfied.

Recognition and Support. Leavitt (1986) found recognition to be a major factor that contributes to job satisfaction, whereas the lack of recognition leads to job dissatisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1996). The need for recognition or the sense of being valued is not only what attracts some people to becoming teachers, but it can also be perceived as a measure of success (McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, & Yee, 1986; Leavitt, 1986). Recognition and support from administrators, parent, students, and fellow colleagues all play a role in teacher job satisfaction and a teacher's decision to continue or discontinue teaching (Caprara, 2006; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Perie & Baker, 1997; Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemeyer, 2000; McCarthy, Lambert, Crowe, & McCarthy, 2010; Heineke, Mazza, & Tichnor-Wagner, 2014; Picard, 1986). When it comes to novice teachers, Picard (1986) found that "Teachers in age groups 21-30...rated recognition as having greater motivational value than did teachers in age group 41-45 (p. i). This means that novice teachers require recognition and support, particularly from the principal, as a motivator to stay in the field otherwise they will adopt the feeling that "...teaching is 'just not worth the effort'" (McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, & Yee, 1986, p. 424). It is through recognition and support that a principal can reduce a

teacher's stress and feelings of burnout (Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemeyer, 2000).

Salary. While some researchers have found salary to be a predictor of teacher turnover (Borman & Dowling, 2008) others have found there to be a weak relationship between salary and satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997). Teacher salaries are often based on a uniformed salary schedule which factors in one's years of experience and level of education (Ingersoll, 2011; Rees, 1991) except when it comes to merit pay which is dependent upon teacher evaluations and student achievement scores (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Since most teacher salaries are based on a uniformed salary guide, direct raises are uncommon. In the absence of direct raises, school districts can address salary dissatisfaction by enlisting the help of local businesses for coupons and discounts for teachers to use. Nevertheless, the issue of salary diminishes as teachers gain experience (Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Shen, 1997; Schlechty & Vance, 1983).

Job security. Job security was rated second highest in terms of importance to teachers (Shann, 2010). The idea of job security being important is confirmed by McCarthy et al. (2010), who found that out of the 16 teachers who were not returning to teaching, two stated job security as their reason. Nonetheless, job security is another extrinsic factor that increases with length of service (Abraham & Medoff, 1984). Job security is particularly enjoyed more by those senior workers who are also in a union (Abraham & Medoff, 1984). This could be because seasoned teachers look less for support and recognition from administration (Picard, 1986) and more from their union. Whereas, novice teachers yearn for support from administration and only when that

support is absent do they “...desire an increased role for their union in their work lives” (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2014, p. 505).

Control over decision-making. Control over decision-making is an extrinsic factor that warrants more understanding because researchers have offered vague insight as to what this looks like. Teachers are often perceived to have more control over classroom decisions compared to decisions over issues that affect multiple classrooms, the school, or the district (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 498). Pearson and Moomaw (2005) were able to confirm this finding while indicating “...their influence on a variety of classroom and school wide issues...[has] have remained stable over the past few years...” (p. 41) with little progression.

Reasons why teachers are reluctant to get involved in decision making outside of the classroom is because the cost of involvement outweighs the benefit (Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980), leading one to theorize that the benefits of teachers being involved in the decision-making process are not made clear to teachers. With less autonomy over the decisions that are made in their classroom, teachers’ participation in school decision-making may serve as a partial substitute for autonomy (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 500). Mere involvement in decision-making is not the focus of this study, but actually the political involvement teachers and the impact on decision-making.

Extrinsic rewards. Even though many extrinsic factors are related to teacher job dissatisfaction, there are extrinsic rewards that are more related to job satisfaction. Zemblyas and Papanastasiou (2004) completed a study in Cyprus in which they found extrinsic rewards such as salary, the hours, and the holidays associated with the teaching profession to be a huge influence for a Cypriot to join and remain in the profession.

Kottkamp, Proveno, and Cohn (1986) corroborate this finding by declaring that the satisfaction teachers “...derive from a schedule that allows them time away from work to fulfill other needs has increased” (p. 567). Even though it was previously stated that salary is an extrinsic factors that contributes to job dissatisfaction (Borman & Dowling, 2008), the discrepancy findings can be contributed to the fact that Zemblyas and Papanastasiou’s (2004) study was conducted in another country. Zemblyas and Papanastasiou (2004) do agree that “...the higher the teachers’ extrinsic motivation (salary and working conditions) is, the more satisfied are the teachers with their jobs” (p. 369).

Now that an understanding of the factors that contribute to job satisfaction were explained, we must show the benefits of political involvement.

Benefits of Political Involvement

A teacher’s history of involvement could possibly show a trend for future involvement in educational politics. If teachers find the cost of involvement to outweigh the benefits (Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980), they may not understand the impact political involvement has on their job satisfaction and self-efficacy. To understand the importance of involvement on one’s development, the study from Eccles and Barber (1999) on the impact past involvement in sports and extra-curricular activities can be used.

Eccles and Barber (1999) completed a study on high school student involvement in extracurricular activities and how that involvement affects their identity and peer associations. Based on their study, it was concluded that students who are involved in various extracurricular activities are more likely to enjoy school, have a higher G.P.A and

also are more likely to attend college. It was also found that their involvement contributes to their identity as an "...important and valued member of the school community" (p. 29). Throughout the research it was described that if one participates in sports as a child (i.e. little league baseball) they begin to associate with peers alike whom they may consider friends (Eccles & Barber, 1999). Recognizing the impact of involvement in childhood sports and extra curricular activities on a child's development may further the need for understanding how novice teacher involvement in educational politics and the affect on their job satisfaction and self efficacy, which directly affects their effectiveness (Shann, 2010).

Student involvement in college may also indicate a trend of involvement in one's career. Studies show that students who are involved throughout their college career are less likely to drop out and lead to a strengthened competency and higher self-esteem (Astin, 1999). Being involved was also said to have the large impact on freshman student characteristics (Astin, 1999). However, later research found that it was impossible to determine that student involvement solely led to competency, higher self-esteem, and other changes of characteristics (Wilson, 2008). In fact, it was later determined that Astin's (1999) theory of student involvement should only be used as a framework that should be used to "guide those interested in determine causal relationships through a statistical model that assist researchers in avoiding pitfalls in inference that can come from assuming that an achieved outcome is an effect of college..." (p. 19). Often, researchers are only interested in making inferences from incomplete data as to if certain singular situations have impact over one's college experience (Astin, 1970). All aspects

including the inputs, environment, and outputs must be considered when making conclusions.

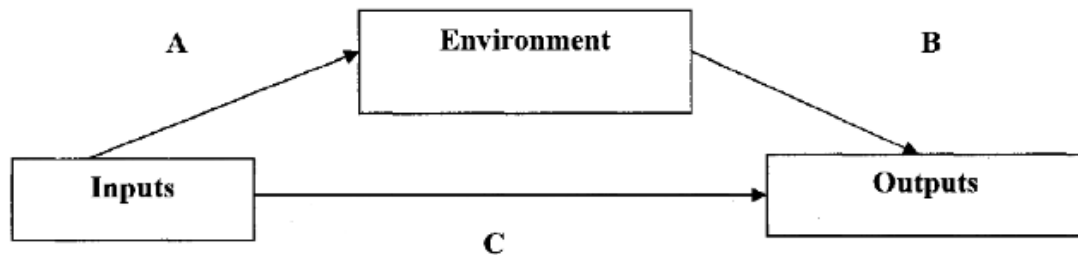


Figure 2. Astin’s Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) model. For this figure inputs refer to how the student is when entering college or the situation. Environment refers to the experience being investigated to have impact over the student. Outputs refer to the talent developed as a possible result of the environment (Wilson, 2008).

Looking at the model, it’s important to see the direction in which the arrows flow. This is how Astin believed each factor impacted the outcomes of student achievement and what all aspects meant must be considered when deriving a conclusion (Wilson, 2008).

To be more specific when investigating student involvement in politics, Verba et al. (1995) provided a model of Civic Voluntarism. This framework draws upon Astin’s I-E-O model to “...understand useful ways how environments and experiences lead to the development of college outcomes” (Wilson, 2008, 23). The Civic Voluntarism model believes that those who are involved in non-political organizations eventually become involved in political activity due to the network of people they become involved with in their non-political involvement activities (Wilson, 2008). However, Verba et al. (1995) recognized that in order to be become involved in politics one must have the time,

financial resources, and political efficacy, or belief that his or her involvement will have an impact on the political process. For example, an individual may become involved in lobbying because a law being implemented may affect the their lives or that of others with whom they work. But in order to do this effectively, they must have the financial resources and time to dedicate to political involvement and the belief that their involvement will make a difference.

The idea of Civic Voluntarism insists that there are specific reasons or incentives for people to become politically involved. Studies show incentives for political involvement to include purposive motivations (Ippolito, 1969), but few studies show incentives for political involvement to impact one's career or self-efficacy. Garcia (1997) found that the longer one is involved in politics, the involvement becomes less dependent upon purposive motivation and more about personal ambition. When people who are political involved are driven by purposive motivations it runs the risk of a party losing vitality because once the people achieve their goal they become less motivated (Garcia, 1997).

As stated earlier, being a part of communities that empower and provide professional support are factors that impact teacher job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006). These communities can be found in the coworkers, professional associations, and teacher unions. Pogodzinski and Jones (2012) completed a study on novice teacher attitudes regarding teacher unions and found that novice teachers are less likely to get involved in unions. Novice teachers feel that unions focus more on issues that affect veteran teacher (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). Other reasons why novice teachers may be less involved in teacher unions include time constraints and the feeling of being

“...overwhelmed with the day-to-day tasks of learning to teach” (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012, p. 502). Additionally, novice teachers tend not to be involved in teacher unions because little is communicated for the expectations of novice teacher involvement in unions besides paying dues (Pogodzinski, 2012, p. 191). Most importantly, novice teacher’s lack of involvement in unions can be equated to the union’s focus on issues that do not interest novice teachers (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). Is it in a union’s best interest to focus more on issues that affect novice teachers? Soule and McGarth (1975) conducted a study on amateur participation in politics in which they concluded political amateurs to program and principle driven, reinforcing Garcia (1997) idea of purposive motivation. Since unions deal with issues that range from job security, benefits, teacher assignments, and much more (Pogodzinski & Jones, 1997) that vary from year to year, continued support and vitality is necessary to remain strong. Since novice teachers are leaving the field at faster rates compared to other age/experience groups (Ingersoll, 2001), this may explain why unions tend to focus more on veteran teacher issues than those of novice teachers (Pogodzinski & Jones, 1997). Due to their non-tenure status, unions may feel reluctant to take on issues that affect novice teachers because they are believed to have a “lower social, political, and economic status” (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012) and are more likely to leave the field within 5 years. Unfortunately, this mindset diminishes novice teacher desire to become involved in unions politics.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the rate in which novice teachers are leaving the field of education was explained (Shen et al., 2012; Ingersoll, 2001, McCarthy et al., 2010). Much research has been conducted in the factors that lead to job satisfaction because it is a huge

indicator of teacher attrition (Woods & Weasmer, 2004; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Perie & Baker, 1997). Of these factors, the influence over decision-making has been noted to influence if a teacher leaves or stays in the profession (Perie & Baker, 1997; Ingersoll, 1995). Minimal research has been conducted on the political involvement of teachers and the affect it has on one's job satisfaction. Since research also suggests job satisfaction has an impact on one's self-efficacy, research on teacher political involvement may also lend itself to the increased self-efficacy of teachers. This chapter was able to reveal the gaps in research on if and how political involvement can impact one's job satisfaction and self-efficacy. The following chapter will review the methodology that will be used for this study, the context in which this study will take place, and the sampling strategy. The chapter will also explain plan for data collection, how the data will be analyzed and interpreted, and will address issues of reliability, validity, and transferability.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The purpose of this cross-sectional survey study was to draw upon the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2002) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982) to examine the relationship between political involvement, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control of novice educators who teach in New Jersey public schools. The independent variable, political involvement, is characterized by participants' level of involvement in educational politics and years of involvement. The dependent variables are self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control. Furthermore, I want to examine the relationship between gender, school's county area, and school's free or reduced lunch status to job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. I added three additional independent variables to provide greater depth of analysis on how teacher's self-efficacy, teacher's job satisfaction, and teacher's work locus of control might be affected by gender, school's county area, and school's free or reduced lunch status. Self-efficacy is defined as a novice teacher's belief concerning his/her ability to successfully teach (Betz & Borgen, 2000) while job satisfaction is defined as the overall feelings one has about his/her job (Perie and Baker, 1991). Spector et al. (2001) defines work locus of control as "...individual's tendency to believe that he or she controls events in [one's work] life (internality) or that such control resides elsewhere (externality)" (p. 818). The purpose of this survey design was to make generalizations from a sample of novice teachers in New Jersey to the larger population of novice teachers so that inferences can be made about characteristics that affect job satisfaction. From the sample results, I was able to draw inferences to a population of novice teachers (Creswell, 2014).

The following research questions will guide my study:

1. How do novice teachers rate their perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics compared to that of experienced teachers?
 - a. How do teachers of different gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch rate their perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics?
2. What is the difference in perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics between teachers of different experience, gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch status?
3. Does engagement in educational politics, gender, school's county, and free or reduced lunch status predict job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control?

Assumptions of and Justifications for Quantitative Research

A quantitative researcher focuses on the testing of theories through the examination of variables and their relationships (Creswell, 2014). As a result, quantitative research allows the researcher to study different variables either showing a cause-and-effect relationship (experimental) or examining relationships among variables as it relates to theory (non-experimental) (Belli, 2009; Johnson, 2001; Kerlinger, 1986). Quantitative research is also deductive in nature, or based on reason and logical analysis, as the purpose of this study is to test Bandura's social cognitive theory (2002) and

Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1982) and how it relates to novice teacher political involvement and self-efficacy.

There are both limitations and benefits of quantitative research, but for the purposes of this study the benefits outweigh the limitations. Benefits of quantitative research include but are not limited to: replication, generalization, minimization of bias, inclusion of a large sample size, and objective summarization (Creswell, 2012).

Quantitative research was chosen for this study because of its direct correlation to postpositivist worldview (Creswell, 2014; Ryan, 2006). Since the philosophy of postpositivist is to determine the effects or outcomes of variables (Creswell, 2014), quantitative methods were used. Operating from a postpositivist worldview and using quantitative methods to collect data also allowed me to investigate my own epistemology about novice teacher involvement in educational politics (Ryan, 2006). Creswell (2014) explains, "We cannot be positive about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans" (p. 7). Since variables cannot be manipulated to identify a true cause-and-effect relationship, a non-experimental quantitative study using multiple sources for correlation explanations were used to provide alternative understanding of the data (Belli, 2009, Johnson, 2001; Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Researchers have concluded that a correlation study, such as this, can be used to study independent variables, such as job satisfaction, because their ability to not be manipulated allows for a correlation to be inferred from the dependent and independent variables (Johnson, 2001; Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Furthermore, quantitative research is the chosen methodology for this study because the results from this study can then be generalized to a large population to

advance the knowledge base about the relationships between novice teachers and their job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control (Creswell, 2014; Dillman, 1991).

Context

There are many educational initiatives in Jew Jersey that affect teachers, such as TEACHNJ, AchieveNJ, and merit pay (NJEA, 2014; NJEA, 2011; NJDOE, 2013). All three of these educational initiatives have the power to influence novice teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction. According to the New Jersey Department of Education, the purpose of TEACHNJ is the following:

The law defines certain requirements and structures for the new evaluation system in New Jersey, and requires that tenure decisions be linked to evaluation outcomes. This means that teachers' job security is directly tied to three to four observations over the course of one school year. Achieve NJ provided the details and support structures necessary to all districts to implement the law effectively. (para. 9)

Each of these new initiatives were implemented under the leadership of Governor Chris Christie, a governor who has made education a major focus under his tenure.

Unfortunately, many teachers are taking new educational laws personally because the laws are directly affecting their pedagogy and job satisfaction (Strauss, 2013; Strauss, 2014).

Underpinning this study is extent research that suggests teacher job satisfaction is influenced by salary, working conditions, and influence over school policy (Perie & Baker, 1997; Duke, Showers, & Imbers, 1980), all which seem to be under evaluation when it comes to the new educational initiatives (NJEA, 2014; NJEA, 2011; NJDOE,

2013). With New Jersey teachers feeling as if they are under attack by the current political climate (Strauss, 2014), the trend of teachers leaving the field within five years can be expected to continue (Shen et al., 2012), thus this context is appropriate to the purpose of the study.

Data Collection

Data was collected through a cross-sectional survey and analyzed using statistical analysis to understand the phenomenon within its real-life context including the analysis of several variables through the theoretical lens of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2002) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982). A cross-sectional survey was the preferred strategy of inquiry because the survey will be collected one time from the participants while still collecting a wide variety of data (Creswell, 2014).

Surveys are used to describe the relationship between variables (Punch, 2003; Czaja & Blair, 2005; Snapsford, 2007). Punch (2003) identifies "...three main general questions leading to three main types of study in quantitative research..." (p. 16). If the purpose of the study is to identify how the variables are distributed, then it is a descriptive study. If the study is to investigate why the variables are distributed and related in that way, it is an explanatory study. But, if the study is identifying how the variables are related, like this one, it is a descriptive-explanatory study (Punch, 2003).

Quantitative surveys are used to "...measure a group of people on the variables of interest and to see how those variables are related to each other across the sample studied" (Punch, 2003, p. 23). In order to do this, it is assumed that the participants answered the questions honestly. For the participants to feel comfortable answering the survey truthfully, they were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality and were made

aware that their participation is completely voluntary and that they may withdraw from the study at any time.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from Rowan University before data were collected. Results from this study did not affect individual school districts, nor were participants contacted through school districts, therefore IRB approval was not required from individual schools where participating teachers worked.

Data collection took place over a number of months through an online survey instrument 1 (Fink, 2013; Dillman, 1991). For this study, the self-administered survey was the only source of data to inform a correlation between the variables (Fink, 2013). The use of a survey that was previously tested and validated will be modified for the purpose of this study after gaining permission from the researcher (Creswell, 2003; Fink, 2009).

“Surveyors like online surveys because they can easily reach large numbers of people across the world and because online survey software is accessible and relatively inexpensive” (Fink, 2013, p. 11). The primary data collection method will be through the online survey instrument for teachers whose email addresses are accessible. The survey was administered via an online survey instrument, Qualtrics. Qualtrics can be viewed on a computer or mobile device and is cost efficient.

As Fink (2013) states, “All surveys *must* be pilot tested before being put into practice” (p. 7). The survey format had been previously tested and validated, but was modified to specifically address educational politics. Due to those changes, it was imperative to make sure the language of each question was clear and easy to understand or could have resulted a low response rate or inaccurate results (Fink, 2013). Once the

survey was sent to participants, follow-up emails were sent to ensure a higher response rate (Fink, 2013; Dillman, 1991).

Sampling Strategy and Participant Selection

Studies have shown that teachers are leaving the field between 0-5 years experience at alarming rates (Shen et al., 2012). Due to those statistics, this study aimed to focus on teachers with 0-4 years classroom experience. This study focused on teachers with 0-4 years experience due to the recent tenure law change in New Jersey, which, as August 2012, considered new teachers tenured after teaching for four years and a day (NJEA, 2012).

“Tenure itself – the system that protects teachers from being fired without a cause – is cited by many public school administration as a major obstacle to weeding out incompetent teachers in their districts” (Kvenvold, 1989, p. 99). Some researchers view tenured teachers to have shortcomings and to be incompetent (Kvenvold, 1989; Roney & Perry, 1977; Range et al., 2012), while other researchers view tenured teachers as less responsive to change (Kersten & Brandfon, 1988). On the other hand, teachers who are not tenured lack job security compared to their tenured counterparts, even if the New Jersey’s new tenure law has made it more difficult for incompetent, tenured teacher to remain in the field (NJDOE, 2014). By including only non-tenured teachers in this study, results will come from teachers who are new to the career and are more responsive to change (Kersten & Brandfon, 1988).

Even though the study focused primarily on New Jersey public school teachers with 0-4 years experience teachers with five or more years of experience were used as a control group to compare the novice teacher results. Criterion or criterion-based selection

will be used to randomly select participants for this study (Maxwell, 2005; Patton, 2002). Criterion sampling is appropriate for this study because the purpose of this study is to generalize findings from the sample of participants who meet a specific criterion (0-4 years experience) to all novice teachers across the state of New Jersey and states with comparable situations (Patton, 2002). Criterion sampling, even though often associated with qualitative research, was found to be more appropriate for this study than the typical quantitative sampling strategies. In the case of this study for which there are three individual variables, a minimum of 662 teachers needed to be surveyed.

When it comes to selecting participants, superintendents throughout the state of New Jersey were contacted and asked to send the survey to the teachers in their district.

Instrumentation

General Demographic Survey

The General Demographic Survey is a seven-item questionnaire created by the researcher, which asks the practicing New Jersey teachers to report their basic demographic information (gender, race/ethnicity, county he/she teaches in, school zip code, percent of students in school who receive free or reduced lunch, feelings about Student Growth Objective). More specifically, the demographic information included two areas relating to New Jersey teachers years of experience and tenure status. Prior to using the General Demographic Survey in this study, it was reviewed by the committee members as well as administered to a group of educators during a pilot test for readability and clarity.

The Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction

The Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) is an attitude scale measuring one's job satisfaction and overall attitude towards his or her work. This instrument, developed as a scale to identify one's overall feelings towards his or her work, was chosen to measure the general level of job satisfaction of New Jersey teachers. Created using the Thurstone method, 77 judges sorted through items in order to identify 18 items that would reflect an individual's overall feelings of satisfaction with one's job (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951).

The index consists of 18 Likert scale items, with responses ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Some sample items from the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction are "There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved" and "I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people." The scale contains items that cover the "...entire range of attitude continuum at approximately .5 step intervals" (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, p. 308). Overall scores range from 18 to 90, with 90 indicating a high level of job satisfaction and 54 being neutral.

The reliability coefficient for this scale is .87 (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). Evidence for the high validity of this index rests upon the "...differentiating power when applied to two groups which could reasonably be assumed to differ in job satisfaction" (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, p. 311). When the instrument was assigned to two groups, totaling a number of 91 participants, "...the difference between the means was found to be significant at a 5% level" (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, p. 311). Thus it can be concluded that the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction is reliable and an appropriate measure of job satisfaction.

Teacher Efficacy Scale

The Teacher Efficacy Scale, created by Gibson and Dembo (1984), is a scale used to adequately measure teachers' sense of efficacy. The scale is composed of two factors: personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy. For the purposes of this study, only items from factor one (personal teaching efficacy) were used because these items "...reflect the teacher's sense of personal responsibility in student learning and/or behavior" whereas factor two (teaching efficacy) focuses on factors external to the teacher (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, p. 573).

Factor one of the Teacher Efficacy Scale consists of nine, Likert scale items with responses ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (6). Some sample items from the Teacher Efficacy Scale, particularly factor one, are, "If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept," and "When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student." Factor one of the Teacher Efficacy Scale consists of nine of the total 16 questions in the scale.

The validity of the personal teaching efficacy portion of the Teacher Efficacy Scale had been confirmed from multiple researchers (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Cronbach's alpha scores range from .75 to .81 for factor one of the Teacher Efficacy Scale. Although most studies which have used the Teacher Efficacy Scale by Gibson and Dembo (1982) have administered the items that address both personal teacher efficacy (factor one) and general teaching efficacy (factor two) to measure one's general sense of teaching efficacy, this study only focuses on items that measured factors that were within the teacher's control. Thus, it can be concluded that the personal teaching

efficacy items of the Teacher Efficacy Scale are reliable and an appropriate measure of teacher efficacy.

Political Participation Scale

The political participation scale (Kalaycioglu & Turun, 1981) is a three-dimensional scale created to measure participants past campaign activity, voting activity, and discussion of communal and national issues amongst government officials and fellow voters. Kalaycioglu and Turun (1981) suggest that wording of the questions can be altered and "...devised for political systems with different structures and institutions" (p. 134). For the purposes of this study, the questions were altered to measure New Jersey teachers' involvement in educational politics.

The political participation scale (Kalaycioglu & Turun, 1981) is composed of 10 items with responses being either a "yes" or "no." Some sample items from the political participation scale are "I voted in the last national election" and "I worked for a candidate during a campaign." Other questions were added to this scale to measure participant involvement in state elections, local elections, and union elections.

This scale demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency when administered in three different countries (Turkey, Kenya, and Korea). The Cronbach's alpha scores for the scale range between .60, .66, and .75. Hence, the political participation scale is a reliable and valid instrument to measure political participation.

Work Locus of Control Scale

The Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1988) measures one's beliefs of internal and external control particularly in the case of his or her work. In past research, Rotter's I-E scale was used to measure general locus of control, but Spector (1988)

developed an instrument that was domain-specific (Spector, 1988). This scale is a stronger indicator of, not only work locus of control, but job satisfaction, retention, and role stress than Rotter's I-E scale of general locus of control (Spector, 1988).

The WLCS consists of 16 Likert scale items with responses ranging from "disagree very much" (1) to "agree very much" (6). Some sample items from the WLCS are, "On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set to accomplish," and "The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck." Although, the original scale is 16-items, Spector (1988) also created a shorter version of the scale to measure work locus of control. The shorter version consists of eight Likert scale items with an equal number of internally and externally worded items. For the purposes of minimizing the amount of items for this study, the shorter version of the WLCS was used. Scores from this scale range between 8 and 48, with higher scores indicating greater externality (Spector, 1988).

Results across 6 US samples suggest WCLS to be a viable scale (Spector, 1988). Coefficient alpha internal consistency scores range from .75 to .85 with all but one in the .80s (Spector, 1988; Spector et al., 2001). Additionally, validity was demonstrated with WCLS and organizational variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, autonomy, influence, role stress, tenure, consideration, initiating structure, general locus of control (Spector, 1988). Thus, the findings support that WCLS is a reliable instrument to measure work locus of control.

Analysis Methods

The quantitative data were analyzed using pragmatic strategies (i.e. descriptive statistics, Mann Whitney U-Test, Pearson correlation, and ordinal logistic regression

analysis) that described the individual variables as well as their correlation (Cresswell, 2013). Since operating from a postpositivist worldview, this cross-sectional survey research will rely on descriptive and correlation/regression analysis techniques (Belli, 2009; Ryan, 2006; Johnson, 2001).

Descriptive analysis, such as measures of central tendencies (mean, median, mode, standard deviation), described how novice teachers rate their level of engagement in educational politics, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy (Huck, 2012).

The Mann Whitney U-Test analysis explored whether there is a difference in perceived political engagement, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control between novice and experienced teachers. The Kruskal-Wallis H Test explored whether there is a difference in perceived political engagement, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control between gender, county, and free or reduced lunch.

Pearson correlation analysis explained, “whether there is a relationship between the dependent and independent variables, and how strong or weak the relationship is, presuming that a relationship does, in fact, exist” (Huck, 2012, p. 80). The correlation analysis also described the direction (positive, negative, no relationship) as to which the relationship of the variables (Huck, 2012). Ordinal logistic regression analysis was used to determine if political engagement is a predictor of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control.

Similarly, chi-square test for association explained whether a relationship exists between gender, county, and free lunch to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control. Ordinal logistic regression analysis was used to determine if political

engagement, gender, county, and free lunch are predictive of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control.

Four different surveys were used to measure these variables, two of which draw upon Bandura's social cognitive theory (2002) and Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1982). Only survey questions pertaining to the study will be used. This is where pilot testing is necessary to ensure that the survey questions still produce valid results. The Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction was used to measure job satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). The Teacher Efficacy Scale was used to measure self-efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). The Work Locus of Control Scale created by Spector (1988) was used to measure work locus of control. A scale of political participation will be created to measure the political involvement of novice teachers in teacher unions. The scale will draw from Kalaycioglu and Turan's (1981) political participation scale, which provided a "...potential for cumulative analysis in the subfield of political participation" (p. 123). Kalaycioglu and Turan (1981) suggest:

...That the actual wording of the questions or types of items used in this scale need not be replicated exactly the way they appear on our scale. However, functionally equivalent items may be devised for political systems with different structures and institutions. (p. 134)

Ethical Considerations

Prior to data collection, I obtained Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Rowan University and completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) training. Once IRB approval was received, the surveys will be administered to the participants. The surveys were collected via online survey instrument. The use of a

computer system is an ethical consideration. To maintain privacy and confidentiality participants do not have to offer personal information, as the survey is completely anonymous. As for access to the survey results, the researcher will be the only one with the username and password to the online account. Once all the surveys are collected, they will be downloaded and saved to a password-protected computer.

Limitations

Researchers explain there to be several threats to validity that can affect the outcome of results. These threats include internal validity, external validity, face validity and content validity (Creswell, 2014; Fink, 2013; Litwin, 2003). Fink (2013) explains the internal threat of history to be the "...unanticipated events that occur while the survey is in progress" (Fink, 2013, p. 109). For instance, one threat to this study was that even though the recent educational initiatives are the motivation behind this study, they also be the motivation behind some responses, allowing participants to respond to certain questions out of bias. Since this survey was administered over a course of months to maximize the response rate, it is important that the timing of conducting the survey does not coincide with new educational initiatives.

Operating from a postpositivist worldview, participant responses were accepted and reported as they were, absent from interpretation. The idea of social desirability serves as a limitation for this study. "Social desirability refers to a tendency respond to self-report items in a manner that makes the respondent look good rather than to respond in an accurate and truthful manner" (Holtgraves, 2004, p. 161). This is one of the downfalls for using quantitative research techniques. In a study on social desirability and self-reports, Holtgraves (2004) found that participants who are "...concerned with how

their responses make them look...tend to consider their answers more carefully...[even though] this does not always affect the particular answer that they give..." (p. 171). Since the focus of this study is not controversial, social desirability is considered a small threat.

To address face and content validity, I elicited feedback from both untrained judges and experts in the field of political involvement, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy. Gaining feedback from untrained judges helped me create an instrument that was easy to understand and willing to be completed. Gaining feedback from experts helped me to make sure that the instrument included everything it should and nothing it should not (Litwin, 2003, p. 33). Overall, these strategies were used to create an instrument with a correlation coefficient of at least 0.70, a representation of good validity (Litwin, 2003).

A major benefit of survey research and quantitative research in general is its ability to generalize its findings from a sample to a population (Fink, 2013; Punch, 2003). The strength of the study is not only grounded in the clarity of the survey, data analysis, and interpretation techniques, but most importantly the response rate (Fink, 2013). The biggest rule that differentiates quantitative research from qualitative research is that the more participants, the better (Fink, 2013). I found that the follow-up email elicited more teacher responses.

A final limitation of this study is that fact that results will rely solely on a self-administered questionnaire, meaning that I will not meet with the participants face-to-face to administer the survey (Punch, 2003). Quantitative research is grounded in experimental designs or non-experimental designs, such as surveys (Creswell, 2013) as this study. The issue is not the fact that the results are based on a survey but the fact that a qualitative sampling strategy will be used to collect the data. By surveying a minimum of

107 novice teachers, I guaranteed the production of rich data that can be generalized to the novice teacher population.

Conclusion

In this chapter has reviewed the methodology that was used for this study, the context where the study took place, and sampling strategy. The basis for sampling and participation selection is grounded in the recent educational initiatives that have been adopted by New Jersey legislators. This chapter also explained the plan for data collection, the instrument(s) that was used, and how the data was analyzed and interpreted. The chapter also addressed the issues of reliability, validity, and transferability, as well as the addressing of ethical considerations. The next chapter will discuss the survey results. The paper will conclude with a chapter on research conclusions and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents the results from the statistical analyses mentioned in the methodology. A description of the participants and response rates will be discussed. The findings will be presented in chronological order answering the research questions of this study.

Data Analysis

Independent Variables

For the purpose of this research, the independent variables measured in this study are gender, county region, free or reduced lunch status, and political involvement.

Gender variable. The gender variable was measured by one question on the survey (see Appendix). An example of such question asks respondent to answer “Male” or “Female”. The data is dichotomous and categorical for analysis purposes. A respond of “Male” is coded as 1 and “Female” as 2.

County region variable. The county variable asked participants to identify the county their school is located in. New Jersey schools in Bergen, Essex, Hudson, Morris, Passaic, Sussex and Warren County were coded as “North”. New Jersey schools in Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Ocean, Somerset and Union County were coded as “Central”. New Jersey schools in Atlantic, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Gloucester and Salem County were coded as “South”. The data is categorical for analysis purposes.

Free or reduced lunch variable. The free or reduced lunch variable asked participants to identify the percent of students received free or reduced lunch at the

school. The options were <10%, 10-30%, 31-49%, 50%, 51-70%, 71-89%, >90%, and Not Sure. The categories were recoded as the following: <10% as “1”, 10-30% as “2”, 31-49% as “3”, 50% as “4”, 51-70% as “5”, 71-89% as “6”, >90% as “7”, and Not Sure as “Missing Values” in SPSS. The data is considered categorical for analysis purposes.

Political involvement variable. The political involvement variable was measured by questions thirty-three to forty-three on the survey (see Appendix). An example of such question asks respondent to answer “Yes” or “No” to the statement of, “I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.” Since the response to statements measuring Political Involvement is “Yes” or “No” the data is dichotomous and categorical for analysis purpose. A respond of “Yes” is coded as 2 and “No” as 1.

Dependent Variables

There are three dependent variables measured in this study: job-satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control.

Job satisfaction variable. The job satisfaction variable was measured by questions six to twenty-four asking teachers to respond with their opinions on a Likert-scale to statements related to job-satisfaction. The response options ranked from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, to Strongly Agree. An example of a question measuring job-satisfaction is, “My job is like a hobby to me.” A response of Strongly Agree was coded as 1. Some of the questions are reverse positives such as, “I am disappointed that I ever took this job.” A response of Strongly Agree was coded as 1 instead of 5 in this case. Data for these questions are ordinal for analysis purpose since the responses are ranked and there is meaningful difference between the different ranks.

Self-efficacy variable. The self-efficacy variable was measured by questions twenty-five to thirty-two. These questions asked teachers to respond with their opinions on a Likert-scale to statements related to self-efficacy. The response options ranked from Strongly Agree, Moderately Agree, Agree slightly more than disagree, Disagree slightly more than agree, Moderately Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. An example of a question measuring self-efficacy is, “When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.” A response of Strongly Agree would be coded as 1. Data for these questions are ordinal for analysis purpose since the responses are ranked and there is meaningful difference between the different ranks.

Work locus of control variable. The work locus of control variable was measured by questions forty-four to fifty-one asking teachers to respond with their opinions on a Likert-scale to statements related to work locus of control. The response options ranked from Disagree very much, Disagree moderately, Disagree slightly, Agree slightly, Agree moderately, and Agree very much. An example of a question measuring work locus of control is, “If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.” A response of Agree very much would be coded as 6. Some of the questions were reverse positives such as, “Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.” A response of Agree very much was coded as 1 instead of 6 in this case. Data for these questions are ordinal for analysis purpose since the responses are ranked and there is meaningful difference between the different ranks.

The quantitative data was analyzed using pragmatic strategies (i.e. descriptive statistics, Mann Whitney U-Test, Pearson correlation, and ordinal logistic regression analysis) that described the individual variables as well as their correlation (Cresswell,

2013). Since operating from a postpositivist worldview, this cross-sectional survey research will rely on descriptive and correlation/regression analysis techniques (Belli, 2009; Ryan, 2006; Johnson, 2001).

Results

Demographics

A total of 1,043 participants took the survey; however, not all questions were answered fully. For this reason, the frequency statistics presented here about the participants include only responses to questions that were actually answered. The participants were typically Caucasian (93.3%) female (78.4%) with more than 5 years of teaching experience (83.8%). Participants were from public schools within twenty counties in the state of New Jersey with the top three counties being: Middlesex (20.8%), Gloucester (14.9%), and Monmouth (12.0%). Detailed tables with this information may be found in Tables 9 through 13 (appendix).

Research Question 1

The first research question in this study sought to answer “How do novice teachers rate their perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics to be compared to that of experienced teachers?” Furthermore, this study examined “How do teachers of different gender, school’s county area, and free or reduced lunch rate their perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics?”

The Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction. The Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) was used to measure the job satisfaction of

teachers by group (i.e. novice vs. experienced, gender, county, free or reduced lunch). The participants were asked to answer nineteen Likert scale statements with five available different options ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The sample size of novice and experienced teachers, gender, county region, and percent of free or reduced lunch, along with means and standard deviations are summarized in Table 14, Table 18, Table 22, and Table 26 (appendix). The means were reported instead of the median so readers can determine the average difference of agreement levels. The standard deviations explain how far the set of data is to the mean. Initial review of the information appears that novice teachers, female teachers, teachers whom teach in counties in the southern region, and teachers whose school has 50% of students receiving free or reduced lunch, reported a greater sense of job satisfaction. The difference was not determined for statistical significance until the second research question.

Teacher Efficacy Scale. The self-efficacy variable was measured using the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). The participants answered eight Likert scale statements rating their agreement to the statement using six options ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The sample size, mean, and standard deviation were reported for the different groups in the Table 15, Table 19, Table 23, and Table 27 (appendix). At face value, it appears experienced teachers, male teachers, teachers who teach in counties in the northern region, and teachers whose schools have 50% of students receiving free or reduced lunch reported a greater sense of self-efficacy; again statistical significance was not determined as of yet.

Political participation scale. For political involvement, participants were asked to answer eleven questions given three options ranging from “No,” “Yes,” or “Not

Applicable.” For this type of categorical data, the sample size, mode, mean, and standard deviation were reported for the different groups. The modes were equal for all except four questions. It was found that the modes for experienced teachers to vote in local election, union election, attend board of education meetings and contribute money was “Yes” whereas the common response for novice teachers the was “No.” Involvement in politics was generally the same amongst gender, county region, and free or reduced lunch status. This information is presented in Table 16, Table 20, Table 24, and Table 28 (appendix).

Work Locus of Control Scale. The work locus of control variable was measured with eight Likert scale statements asking participants to rate their agreement level using six options ranging from Disagree Very Much to Agree Very Much. The sample size, mean, and standard deviation were reported in Table 17, Table 21, Table 25, and Table 29. From review of the information, experienced teachers, male teachers, teachers who teach in counties in the northern region, and teachers whose schools greater than 90% of students receiving free or reduced lunch had a higher rating of work-locus of control. The difference was determined for statistical significance in the second research question.

Research Question 2

The second research question addressed, “What is the difference in perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics between groups based on teaching experience, gender, state county, and percent of free or reduced lunch?” Mann Whitney *U*-Test analyses were performed for forty-seven statements to identify statistical significance between the variables and teaching experience and summarized in Table 30 (appendix). Statistical significance was

found for several questions in terms of how novice and experienced teachers rated their perceived job satisfaction, self-efficacy, political involvement, and work-locus of control.

At the .01 significance level, the Mann Whitney *U*-Test showed that novice teachers had on average higher job satisfaction than did experienced teachers when they reported that the job is like a hobby to them and when they said they enjoy work more than leisure time. On the contrary, at the .01 significance level, the Mann Whitney *U*-Test showed that experienced teachers on average had a higher sense of self-efficacy, work locus of control, and were more politically involved. It was found that experienced teachers on average were more likely to agree, “If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.” They were also more likely than novice teachers to agree, “When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.” Experienced teachers on average higher work-locus of control when they reported, “promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job” and “people who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.” These experienced teachers were also more likely than novice teachers to have voted in the last national election, state election, local election, and union election. They also were more likely to try to influence others to vote and attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed. Table 1 summarizes the statements with significant differences.

Table 1

Mann Whitney U-Test results based on teaching experience (Abbrieviated)

Questions	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
My job is like a hobby to me.	-5.157*	.000
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	-3.503*	.000
If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	-3.691*	.000
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	-3.613*	.000
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	-3.207*	.001
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	-3.671*	.000
I voted in the last national election.	-7.629*	.000
I voted in the last state election.	-7.875*	.000
I voted in the last local (county) election.	-5.828*	.000
I voted in the last union election.	-5.344*	.000
I tried to influence others to vote.	-2.635*	.008
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	-3.902*	.000

*Significant at .01 level.

Note: This table identifies the statements that showed statistical significance when determining novice and experienced teachers rated their perceived job satisfaction, self-efficacy, political involvement, and work-locus of control. The first two statements refer to novice teachers, while the remaining statements refer to experienced teachers. This is a shortened table listing only the statements that showed statistical significance. The complete table may be found in the appendix (Table 30).

Similarly, to address the research question in terms of gender, another Mann Whitney *U*-Test was performed on the survey questions (Table 31 - in appendix). Statistical significance was found for some questions in terms of how male and females rated their perceived job satisfaction, self-efficacy, work locus of control, and political involvement.

At the .01 significance level, the Mann Whitney *U*-Test showed that female teachers had on average greater job satisfaction than did male teachers when they reported that they are often bored with their job. Furthermore, it was found that female teachers had on average higher self-efficacy when they reported “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson” and “When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.”

It was also found that at the .01 significance level, the Mann Whitney *U*-Test showed that female teachers on average were more politically engaged than male teachers. Specifically, more female teachers reported “I voted in the last local election” and “I frequently discuss education meetings, union meetings and/or other meeting in which educational issues are discussed” in terms of political engagement. In terms of work locus of control, fewer female teachers reported, “Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.” Table 2 summarizes the statements with significant differences.

Table 2

Mann Whitney U-Test Results between based on gender (Abbreviated)

Questions	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
I am often bored with my job.	-3.154*	.002
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	-2.910*	.004
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	-3.618*	.000
I voted in the last local election.	-2.947*	.003
I frequently attend education meetings, union meetings and/or other meeting in which educational issues are discussed.	-2.972*	.003
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	-2.698*	.007

*Significant at .01 level.

Note: This table identifies the statements that showed statistical significance when determining how male and female teachers rated their perceived job satisfaction, self-efficacy, work locus of control, and political involvement. The first five statements refer to females since they rated themselves as having the highest rating for these statements. This is a shortened table listing only the statements that were statistically significant. The complete table may be found in the appendix (Table 31).

The Kruskal-Wallis H Test was performed to determine the differences in perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control and engagement in educational politics between groups based on state county region and percent free or reduced lunch. Test analyses were performed for forty-seven statements and summarized in Table 32 (appendix). Statistical significance was found for some questions in terms of how teachers from north, central, and south counties rated their perceived job satisfaction, self-efficacy, political involvement, and work-locus of control. For teachers from schools with different free or reduced lunch amounts, significance was found for only one question.

At the .01 significance level, the Kruskal-Wallis H Test showed that teachers in the southern county schools on average had the least job satisfaction than teachers from the north and south counties when they reported that “Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.” It was also found that at the .01 significance level, teachers from the southern county schools on average were most likely to be political engaged in terms of voting in national, state, and local elections. Teachers from the central county teachers were most likely to “attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.” On the contrary, teachers from the northern county schools are the most likely to “frequently discuss educational issues with friends, coworkers, etc.” Table 3 summarized the statements with significant differences.

Table 3

Kruskal-Wallis H Test results based on county region (Abbreviated)

Questions	Chi-square	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	13.062	.001
I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.	11.720*	.003
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	10.172*	.006
I voted in the last national election.	21.208*	.000
I voted in the last state election.	16.103*	.000
I voted in the last local election.	9.165	.010
I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.	11.720*	.003

*Significant at .01 level.

Note: This table identifies statements that showed statistical significance when determining differences in perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control and engagement in educational politics between groups based on state county region. The statements refer to the county region that rated themselves as having the highest lowest job satisfaction and the highest political involvement as shown in Tables 22 and 24. This is a shortened table listing on the statements that were statistically significant. The complete table may be found in the appendix (Table 36).

At the .01 significance level, the Kruskal-Wallis H Test showed that teachers who taught in schools with 31-49% of students receiving free or reduced lunch were more likely to work for a candidate during a campaign than teachers in the other groups. This was the only significant finding dependent upon the free or reduced lunch status. Table 4 (in appendix) summarizes all statements that were significant based on percent of reduced lunch status.

Table 4

Kruskal-Wallis H Test results based free or reduced lunch status (Abbreviated)

Questions	Chi-square	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
I worked for a candidate during campaign.	19.105*	.004

*Significant at .01 level.

Note: This table identifies the statement that showed statistical significance when determining differences in perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control and engagement in educational politics between teachers who taught in schools with students who received free or reduced lunch. The statement refers to teachers who taught in schools with 31-49% of students receiving free or reduced lunch. This is a shortened table listing the only statement that showed statistical significance. The complete table may be found in the appendix (Table 33).

Research Question 3

The final research question of this study is, “Does engagement in educational politics, gender, school’s county, and school’s free or reduced lunch category predict job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control?” In order to answer this question, Spearman ranked correlation tests were performed to determine the relationships between the dependent variables (job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work-locus of control) and an independent variable also known as the predictor variable (political involvement). Similarly, chi-square tests for association were performed to determine the relationships between the dependent variables and independent variables (gender, county, and free or reduced lunch).

Essentially, the Spearman ranked correlation tests and the chi-square test for associations revealed which questions of the independent variables are correlated to questions in the dependent variables. Unlike causation, correlation does not indicate a

cause and effect relationship. Correlation simply indicates the direction and to what magnitude two variables relate. The political involvement questions that correlated to the dependent variable questions at the significance level of .01 were then used for the ordinal regression analysis. The ordinal regression analysis provided a model that revealed whether the political involvement questions used were good predictors of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work-locus of control. To discuss the association and prediction of every single question in the independent variable and dependent variables is unnecessary to the purpose of this research. For this reason, only questions that were found to have significant association or predictive power to questions in the dependent variables are discussed here. The extensive analysis results on the association or lack thereof for each question are presented in Tables 32 and 33 (appendix). Also, located in Tables 32 and 33 are questions that were found to have significant association but not significant as predictors.

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to determine the relationship between “I voted in the last national election,” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” A negative correlation which was statistically significant ($r_s(1025) = -.093, p = .003$). This means participants who voted in the last national election were more likely to be enthusiastic at their job. A Spearman's rank-order correlation was also run to determine the relationship between “I voted in the last state election,” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” There was a negative correlation which was statistically significant ($r_s(1024) = -.083, p = .008$), meaning participants who voted in the last state election were more likely to be enthusiastic at their job.

To verify results an ordinal regression analysis was run. The assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the residual of the fitted location model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(12) = 15.090, p = .237$. The Wald test statistic for the predictor “I voted in the last national election” has been found to be statistically different ($p=.000$) from zero in estimating “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” The Wald test statistic for the predictor “I voted in the last state election” has been found to be statistically different ($p=.000$) from zero in estimating “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.”

Table 5

Parameter estimates for predicting voting to increase work enthusiasm

		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q19 = 1]	-1.329	1.377	.931	1	.335	-4.028	1.370
	[Q19 = 2]	1.329	1.377	.931	1	.335	-1.370	4.028
	[Q19 = 3]	2.453	1.381	3.153	1	.076	-.255	5.160
	[Q19 = 4]	4.880	1.445	11.402	1	.001	2.048	7.713
Location	[Q33_A=1]	-14.907	1.398	113.769	1	.000	-17.646	-12.168
	[Q33_1_A=2]	-15.353	1.378	124.085	1	.000	-18.054	-12.651
	[Q33_1_A=3]	0 ^a			0			
	[Q34_A=1]	14.953	.195	5856.109	1	0.000	14.570	15.336
	[Q34_A=2]	14.807	0.000		1		14.807	14.807
	[Q34_A=3]	0 ^a			0			

Note: Link function: Logit.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was also run to determine the relationship between “I voted in the last national election” and “If a student did not remember

information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” There was a negative correlation which was statistically significant ($r_s(1017) = -.099, p = .002$). In addition, a Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to determine the relationship between “I voted in the last state election” and “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” There was a negative correlation which was statistically significant ($r_s(1016) = -.103, p = .001$). A final Spearman's rank-order correlation was also run to determine the relationship between “I voted in the last local election” and “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” There was a negative correlation which was statistically significant ($r_s(1016) = -.084, p = .008$). This means participants who voted in the last national election, state election, or local election were more likely to possess the self-efficacy to increase a student’s retention in the next lesson if that student did not remember information from the previous lesson.

An ordinal regression analysis was run to verify results. The assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the residual of the fitted location model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(24) = 7.471, p = .999$. The Wald test statistic for the predictor “I voted in the last national election” has been found to be statistically different ($p=.000$) from zero in estimating “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” The Wald test statistic for the predictor “I voted in the last state election” has been found to be statistically different ($p=.000$) from zero in estimating “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson,

I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” The Wald test statistic for the predictor “I voted in the last local election” has not been found to be statistically different ($p > .01$) from zero in estimating “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.”

Table 6

Parameter estimates for predicting voting to increase student retention

		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q28 = 1]	-3.296	1.275	6.685	1	.010	-5.795	-.798
	[Q28 = 2]	-1.497	1.273	1.382	1	.240	-3.992	.999
	[Q28 = 3]	-.014	1.272	.000	1	.991	-2.507	2.478
	[Q28 = 4]	1.545	1.278	1.462	1	.227	-.960	4.050
	[Q28 = 5]	2.585	1.304	3.931	1	.047	.030	5.141
Location	[Q33_A=1]	-16.878	1.496	127.283	1	.000	-19.811	-13.946
	[Q33_A=2]	-17.251	1.480	135.883	1	.000	-20.152	-14.350
	[Q33_A=3]	0 ^a			0			
	[Q34_A=1]	14.739	.207	5070.665	1	0.000	14.333	15.144
	[Q34_A=2]	14.554	0.000		1		14.554	14.554
	[Q34_A=3]	0 ^a			0			
	[Q35_A=1]	.532	.767	.481	1	.488	-.972	2.035
	[Q35_A=2]	.397	.757	.275	1	.600	-1.087	1.882
	[Q35_A=3]	0 ^a			0			

Note: Link function: Logit.

A chi-square test for association was conducted reported gender and “When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.” All expected cell frequencies were greater than five. There was a statistically significant association between gender and teacher’s perception of self-efficacy to adjust

to a student's level when they have difficulty with an assignment, $\chi^2(5) = 18.704, p = .002$.

To verify results an ordinal regression analysis was run. The assumption of proportional odds was not met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the residual of the fitted location model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(3) = 8.097, p = .044$. The Wald test statistic for the predictor gender has been found to be statistically different ($p=.001$) from zero in estimating "When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level." However, this finding is limited due to proportional odds not being met.

Table 7

Parameter estimates for predicting gender to differentiation of instruction

		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q32 = 1]	-.070	.070	1.000	1	.317	-.208	.067
	[Q32 = 2]	2.503	.120	438.267	1	.000	2.269	2.737
	[Q32 = 3]	3.321	.166	398.089	1	.000	2.995	3.647
	[Q32 = 4]	4.643	.306	230.256	1	.000	4.043	5.243
Location	[Gender=1]	.474	.147	10.481	1	.001	.187	.761
	[Gender=2]	0 ^a	.	.	0	.	.	.

Note: Link function: Logit.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

A chi-square test for association was conducted between gender and "I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials." All expected cell frequencies were greater than five. There was a statistically significant association between gender

and teacher's perception of self-efficacy to adjust to a student's level when they have difficulty with an assignment, $\chi^2(6) = 19.136, p = .004$.

To verify results an ordinal regression analysis was run. The assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the residual of the fitted location model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(4) = 5.619, p = .229$. The Wald test statistic for the predictor gender has been found to be statistically different ($p=.000$) from zero in estimating "I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials."

Table 8

Parameter estimates for predicting gender to working for a campaign

		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q40 = 1]	.134	.070	3.646	1	.056	-.004	.272
	[Q40 = 2]	2.050	.102	405.630	1	.000	1.850	2.249
	[Q40 = 3]	3.591	.187	369.157	1	.000	3.225	3.957
	[Q40 = 4]	4.971	.357	193.484	1	.000	4.270	5.671
	[Q40 = 5]	5.957	.580	105.591	1	.000	4.821	7.093
Location	[Gender=1]	.510	.144	12.526	1	.000	.228	.793
	[Gender=2]	0 ^a	.	.	0	.	.	.

Note: Link function: Logit.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

In this section, I will discuss the findings from the data analysis. First, I will review the research questions for this study. Second, I will discuss the findings in the context of the research questions. Third, I will present the limitations of the study. Lastly, I will conclude the chapter with a brief discussion of the next steps.

Discussion

The overall goal of this study was to explain the relationships between novice teacher involvement in educational politics and its impact on self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control. Additionally, data were collected from experienced teachers for a comparison group. Data analysis sought to answer the following research questions:

1. How do novice teachers rate their perceived self-efficacy, perceived job satisfaction, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics compared to that of experienced teachers?
 - a. How do teachers of different gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch rate their perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics?
2. What is the difference in perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics between teachers of different experience, gender, school's county area, and free or reduced lunch status?

3. Does engagement in educational politics, gender, school's county, and free or reduced lunch status predict job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control?

Variable Ratings

Job satisfaction. Initial review from the job satisfaction scale reports novice teachers have a greater sense of job satisfaction compared to that of experienced teachers. Teacher job satisfaction is important because it is “a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness” (Shann, 2010, p. 67). Unfortunately, even with results showing novice teachers to be slightly more satisfied than their experienced counterparts, the rate of teacher attrition is still 45% after five academic years (Shen et al., 2012). Due to the fact that the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction scale does not ask specific, in depth questions as to what factors contribute to a teacher's job satisfaction or lack thereof, it is difficult to pinpoint just what intrinsic or extrinsic factors led participants to rate their job satisfaction as high or low. Items that showed to significantly affect participants' job satisfaction were explored more thoroughly in the second research question.

Unlike feelings of self-efficacy, female teachers rated a higher sense of job satisfaction than male teachers. In the past, female teachers have reported higher workload and classroom stress (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Antoniou, Polychroni, & Vlachakis, 2006). Past studies have also linked high levels of stress to high self-efficacy but not job satisfaction (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). This study seems to differ from past research. Male teachers are known to have less work related stress (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), but in terms of this study male teachers rated themselves as having a higher sense

of self-efficacy but a lower sense of job satisfaction compared to females. On the contrary, female teachers have high work-related stress (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), but in this study female teachers rated themselves as having a lower sense of self-efficacy compared to males, but a higher sense of job satisfaction. Past research has shown that women tend to have a work-family conflict that is linked with job dissatisfaction, but again this study seems to refute this idea (Noor, 2002). Reasons why female teachers may have a higher sense of job satisfaction may be contributed to other factors that influence job satisfaction. It is clear that more studies on gender roles and stress and how they affect job satisfaction are needed. Again, specific factors that lead to job satisfaction are explored later in this chapter.

Teachers from the southern region of New Jersey rated themselves as having the highest sense of job satisfaction compared to other teachers throughout the state of New Jersey. New Jersey counties that were considered southern included: Atlantic, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Gloucester, and Salem Counties. When investigating district/counties in New Jersey it's important to consider the District Factor Group (DFG) classification. The DFGs indicated the socioeconomic status of the citizens in school district throughout the state (NJDOE, 2004). The scoring ranged from A to J, with A being the lowest level of socioeconomic status (NJDOE, 2004). Results from the 2000 Decennial Census showed majority of the districts with the lowest level of socioeconomic status (rating A) were in the southern counties. Socioeconomic status also includes the percentage of students partaking in free or reduced lunch. Teachers with 50% of students receiving free or reduced lunch rated themselves as having a higher sense of job satisfaction compared to other teachers throughout the state. This is important because it

lends itself to past research on the fact that "...personal efficacy to some extent is independent of school socioeconomic status" (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Bassie, 1992, p. 292). The results from this study may also suggest that job satisfaction is also independent of school socioeconomic status even though previous research identifies low school socioeconomic status leads to teacher stress and burnout (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler, 1988).

Teaching Efficacy. The results from Teacher Efficacy scale appear to show that experienced teachers have a higher sense of self-efficacy compared to novice teachers. Studies have shown self-efficacy to be a factor of job satisfaction and job satisfaction to be a factor of teacher attrition (Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, & Benson, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Caprara, 2006; Buyukgoze-Kavas, Duffy, Guneri, & Autin, 2014; Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, Shann, 2010). In this regard, this study seems to be in agreement with past research on teacher efficacy. Past research has also shown that novice teachers tend to have negative self-efficacy because they are immersed in teaching, which in turn allows for less time for reflection (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Blair, 2008). With past studies also showing teacher self-efficacy to peak at 23 years (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), it was expected that experienced teachers have a higher sense of self-efficacy than those teacher with 0-4 years experience. With recent changes in New Jersey education policy like TeachNJ, which changes the requirement for tenure making it dependent upon more than just teacher practice, reflection is a necessary component self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and teacher attrition for all teachers (NJDOE, 2010).

As for gender, it appears that male teachers have a slightly higher sense of self-efficacy compared to their female teacher counterparts. Researchers have linked gender with job stress and job satisfaction, but not specifically with self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Antoniou, Polychroni, & Vlachakis, 2006). Past research has theorized that since we know self-efficacy is a factor of job satisfaction, more research is needed on how gender affects self-efficacy specifically. It may be that female teachers have less time to focus of self-reflection because they have to split their time between work and familial obligations. In contrast, male teachers may have a false sense of self-efficacy because they lack self-reflection. Either way, findings of gender differences and self-efficacy warrant further research.

Teachers who taught in counties in the northern region of New Jersey rated themselves to have a greater sense of self-efficacy compared to teachers who taught in the southern and central region. Again, the counties that were considered northern are: Bergen, Essex, Hudson, Morris, Passaic, Sussex, and Warren Counties. Both the central region and southern region county teachers rated their teacher efficacy to be very close to that of the northern county region teachers. The fact the average scores were all within one point of each other may be the result of recent changes in the teacher evaluation system which requires teachers to be rated on more than just their teaching practice (NJDOE, 2014). In 2013, the top five state approved teacher evaluation systems were Charlotte Danielson Framework for Teachers, Stronge Teacher and Leader Effectiveness Performance System, Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning Teacher Evaluation Standards, Marzano's Casual Teacher Evaluation Model, and The Marshall Rubrics (Mooney, 2013). Each of these teacher evaluation systems consider not only

teacher reflection to be a component in overall effectiveness scoring, but also use that reflection to inform their future practice (Danielson, 2013; Marzano, 2016; Stronge & Associates Educational Consulting, LLC, n.d.; Marshall, 2011). With teacher evaluations, student growth objectives, and student growth percentiles being linked to teacher tenure status and ultimately employment (NJDOE, 2010), many teachers may take more time to reflect upon their practice to be rated effectively. This may lead to an increased sense of self-efficacy. Research on teachers in specific counties within the northern region are needed to gain a better understanding as to why they have a slightly better sense of self-efficacy than other teachers throughout the state of New Jersey.

Like job satisfaction, teachers who identified that 50% of their students receive free or reduced lunch rated the highest sense of self-efficacy throughout the state. It is commonly known that teachers who serve in schools with low socioeconomic status tend to be more stressed than teachers who teach in other areas (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler, 1988, p. 107). If the results from this study would have been in agreement with past research on school socioeconomic status, it should have illustrated a decrease in self-efficacy as the percent of free or reduced lunch statuses increased. The results from this study agree more with the research of Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Bassie (1992), which suggested a teacher's feeling of efficacy to be less dependent on school socioeconomic status and more on individual status characteristics.

Political involvement. When considering the political involvement scale, experienced teachers were more likely to be politically involved compared to novice teachers. To be more specific, the results from the survey items pertaining to political involvement found experienced teachers were more likely than novice teachers to vote in

the last local (county) election, vote in the last union election, frequently discuss educational problems with government officials, attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed, and contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives. Prior research may offer an explanation as to why novice teachers may be less involved than experienced teachers. The fact that novice teachers do not have time to be involved in teacher unions because they are too busy with the day-to-day tasks of teaching or the fact that teacher unions tend to focus on issues that do not interest novice teachers are a few explanations (Pogodzinski & Jones, 2012). When considering the location of this study, New Jersey, it is important to point out the state-specific reasons why novice teachers may choose to not be involved. For one, the governor of New Jersey has expressed his disappointment with public school system and teachers (NJDOE, 2010; Christie, 2014) on multiple occasions, making teachers feel more defensive than proactive. Second, as displayed in the NJEA website and recent memos from local teacher unions, the political focus right now pertains to pension funding (NJEA, 2016). Many novice teachers feel disconnected from this issue since collecting a pension is something so far in the future. With past research showing that novice teachers are more likely to be involved with the union if they "...perceive the union to be effective in obtaining both intrinsic and extrinsic benefits for the membership" (Chacko, 1985, p. 371) this study suggest that the union may not be doing a great job in expressing how issues such as the pension affect everyone and not just experienced teachers near retirement. Therefore, these findings suggest unions and other political figures (i.e. Board of Education members, party lobbyists, etc.) should gain a better understanding of issues and concerns that are

important to novice teachers as well as expressing how issues affect all teachers if they would like their involvement.

As for gender, results from the survey items were consistent amongst male and females except for the statements, “I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or meetings in which educational issues are discussed” and “I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.” For these statements, female teachers were more likely to attend meetings and contribute money, time, and/or resources than male teachers. This finding is in agreement with past research that states “...women tend to be less politically interested, informed, and efficacious than men” except when it comes to school politics (Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997, p. 1051). It’s important to point out that like the field of education, female teachers were the dominant group when it came to this study (Caprara et al., 2006; Duarte, 2000). This study may suggest that one reason female teachers may choose to stay in the field is because they attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and other meetings in which educational issues are discussed and may feel that they are a part of the decision-making or at least are aware of the changes at the onset of implementation. Alternatively, this study may be in agreement with past research that finds dissatisfaction with unions to increase participation (Chacko, 1985). There is a difference between being informed, attending meetings, and participating in meetings, with the latter having influence on decision-making (Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997; Chacko, 1985; Cohen, Vigoda, & Samorly, 2001). To better understand why female teachers attend meetings and contribute money, time, and/or resources than male teachers, a better understanding of what they do at the meetings is needed.

When analyzing the modes for political involvement by county, results were consistent among county region except for the statements, “I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or meetings in which educational issues are discussed” and “I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.” For these two statements, teachers from the northern and southern counties were more like to say “yes” compared to teachers from central counties. This is a powerful finding and may link job satisfaction and self-efficacy with political involvement. As previously stated, teachers from southern counties rated themselves as having the highest sense of job satisfaction, with teachers from the northern counties being second. As for self-efficacy, teachers from the northern counties had the highest sense of self-efficacy, with teachers from the southern counties being second. For both job satisfaction and self-efficacy, teachers from the central counties had the lowest rating. These teachers were also more likely to not attend meetings in which educational issues are discussed or contribute resources to advance educational initiatives. This could mean two things: a) central county teachers lack of involvement leads to dissatisfaction and a lower sense of self-efficacy which brings some new light to the connection of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and political involvement, or b) teachers in the central counties choose not to attend meetings in which educational issues are discussed or contribute resources to advance educational initiatives because they are satisfied with their current state of their profession and do have a high sense of self-efficacy, just not in comparison to other teachers throughout the state. Like past research has shown, dissatisfaction heightens participation (Chacko, 1985). Statistical significance in terms of how county region rated their political involvement is explored later in this chapter.

The percent of students who receive free or reduced lunch provided the most differences. The mode for teachers with over 90% of students receiving free or reduced lunch was “no” when considering if they voted in the last union election, while the other groups mode response was “yes.” For the question “I tried to influence others to vote,” the mode response for teachers with less than 10%, 31-39%, and 50% students with free or reduced lunch was “no” in comparison to the other groups whose mode response was “yes.” Lastly, for the statement “I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed,” the mode response for teachers with 31-49% students with free or reduced lunch was “no,” while the other groups mode response was “yes.” Cohen, Vigoda, and Samorly (2001) brought insight into how citizen socioeconomic status (SES) impacts their political involvement, and Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler (1988) believed teachers who teach in school with low SES have increased stress and job satisfaction, but little research has been done on SES and teacher political involvement. These results could be coincidental, or there could be a real underlying reason as to why the teachers choose to be involved. Further research is needed to explain the connection between school SES and teacher political involvement.

Work locus of control. Results from the work locus of control scale found experienced teachers to have a slightly higher sense of internal work locus of control compared to novice teachers. Since research shows that people who believe in an internal work locus of control have higher job satisfaction and less stress compared to those who believe in external control (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004), the results from this study seem to be consistent with past research. People who believe in internal work locus of

control also tend to favor job tenure (Ross, 1991), so results finding experienced teachers to have a higher sense of internal [work locus of] control would explain why past novice teachers are leaving the field before five years of service (Shen et al., 2012). Could this be because of the recent changes in educational policy like TeachNJ and AchieveNJ that are putting more emphasis on student outcomes and other factors outside of one's control (NJDOE, 2014)? Novice teachers are coming into a field with these guidelines already in tact, while experienced teachers are seeing the change right before their eyes. With nothing to compare this current situation to, novice teachers may feel that they do have control whereas experienced teachers who have had true autonomy in the past are beginning to feel a lost of autonomy and an increase in external [work locus of] control. Again, the items that showed significant affect in the participants' work locus of control were explored in the second research question, and will be discussed later on in this chapter.

Male teachers rated themselves to have a higher sense work locus of control compared to female teachers. Past research has called for exploring the relationship between gender and work locus of control (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004), but unfortunately this study does not extend the understanding of work locus of control and gender any further. Past studies have shown work locus of control to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction in women, but not in men (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). This study found female teachers to have a higher rating of job satisfaction but a lower sense of internal work locus of control, which is inconsistent with past research (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Reasons why males may have a higher sense of work

locus of control may be due to a lack of work-family conflict (Noor, 2002). Still, further understanding of how gender affects work locus of control is needed.

Teachers from the northern region of New Jersey reported the highest sense of work locus of control compared to their counterparts. Interestingly enough, teachers in the southern counties also rated themselves as having the highest sense of job satisfaction. This finding contradicts the idea that people who have internal locus of control tend to have a higher sense of job satisfaction (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). The results from this study may suggest that having a high sense of work locus of control may also be a factor of self-efficacy and vice versa because teachers in the northern counties also rated themselves as having the highest sense of self-efficacy compared to other teachers throughout the state of New Jersey. As previously stated, many districts with the DFG rating of J were located in the southern counties of New Jersey. With past research finding teachers to have extreme stress and job dissatisfaction when dealing with students from low socioeconomic background, this study continues to enforce that idea (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler, 1988).

Simply describing how teachers rated their self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and work locus of control does not allow for a deeper understanding of how these variables are impacted by political involvement. Hence the purpose of the second research question, “What is the difference in perceived job satisfaction, perceived self-efficacy, perceived work locus of control, and engagement in educational politics between teachers of different experience, gender, school’s county area, and free or reduced lunch status?”

Variable Significance

While the first research question gave a glimpse into how the different groups rated their job satisfaction, self-efficacy, political involvement, and work locus of control, the second research question analyzed the survey items for statistical significance.

Teacher experience. In the first research question we found experienced teachers to generally have a higher sense of job satisfaction compared to novice teachers. Further analysis found novice teachers to have statistical significance when they reported that the job is like a hobby to them and when they said they enjoy work more than leisure time. Novice teachers spend an immense amount of time immersed in the task of teaching (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) which can negatively affect their self-efficacy and even though self-efficacy is related to job satisfaction, so are many other factors. The task of teaching is more than just presenting the subject matter. The task of teaching includes planning and organizing the lesson and working with students, as well as keeping records up to date. With so much time spent on teaching and the other tasks that come with it, this study suggests that novice teachers do not have time to spend on other activities. Since experienced teachers have the knowledge to navigate the tasks of teaching, this allows them the time to spend on hobbies and enjoy their leisure activities.

The results from the Mann Whitney *U*-Test also found novice teachers had a higher sense of work-locus of control when they reported “promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job” and “people who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.” Since most teacher salaries are based on a uniformed salary guide, promotion and rewards are more linked to recognition, support, and job security. With research showing recognition to be a huge motivational factor to stay in the field

(Picard, 1986), promotion in the sense of being recommended for rehire is dependent upon how well one performs on the job, and could be the reason as to why statistical significance was reported for experienced teachers and not novice teachers.

Gender. When evaluating the survey items in terms of gender, the results from the Mann Whitney *U*-Test showed that male teachers had on average greater job satisfaction when they reported that they are often not bored with their jobs. This contradicts past research which would have implied female teachers to be less bored as a teacher. One explanation why male teachers may not feel bored at their jobs is because other females surround them. In a field where females are the dominant group (Caprara et al., 2006; Duarte, 2000), female teachers have more role models (Mills, Martino, & Lingard, 2004) and tend to have more opportunities for advancement (Kearny, 2008). Female teachers may also not feel bored at their job because they are dealing with substantially more stress compared to males (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). For those females who have families especially, their work-family conflict may not allow time for them to be bored. Furthermore, it was found that female teachers had on average higher self-efficacy when they reported “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson” and “When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.” With classroom stress being linked to teachers’ instructional strategies’ self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), this may explain why female teachers are able to increase student retention and differentiate instruction.

The Mann Whitney *U*-Test also showed statistical significance when female teachers reported that they voted in the last local election and agreed with the statement

“I frequently discuss education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.” This finding shows a connection between female teachers and educational politics, adding to the body of research that suggest that female teachers are more politically interested, informed, and efficacious about school politics (Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997).

County region. Overall, central county teachers on average had the least job satisfaction compared to teachers from the north and south counties. The Kruskal-Wallis H Test showed statistical significance specifically when central county teachers reported that “Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.” This is an interesting finding but because the statement is so broad it is hard to identify the specific reason central county teachers feel this way. Also, there is limited research on individual counties in order to gain a better understanding. When evaluating the county region by DFG scores, the following data emerged:

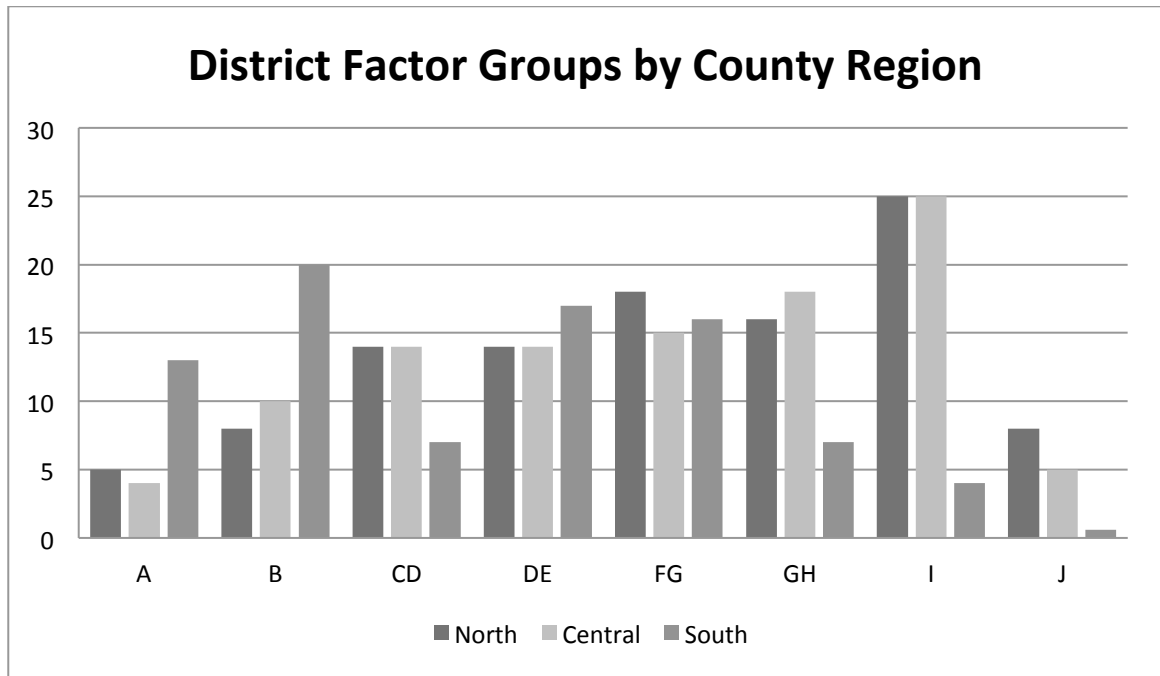


Figure 3. District factor groups by county region. This chart displays the percent of each DFG group in each county. The DFG code *A* stands for the lowest socioeconomic status, while the code *J* is the highest.

As you can see, the southern counties have the majority of their factor groups in categories A through DE (72.4%), while northern and central counties have most of their factor groups in categories FG to J (67% and 63%, respectfully). When it came to job satisfaction, southern county teachers rated themselves as having the highest compared to northern and central county teachers. This could imply that those teachers who serve in areas with lower socioeconomic status have a higher sense of job satisfaction. Studies show that “low income parents are less involved in their children’s school activities” compared to middle- and upper-income parents (Evans, 2004, p. 77). With southern county teachers serving students from low-income families and understanding the many struggles children from low-incomes experience, these teachers may find joy in being a support system for these children. Teachers who serve low SES areas may find their job

satisfaction is dependent not only on helping students achieve academically and socially, but also having a positive impact of their student's attitudes (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Cockburn, 2002; McLaughlin et al., 1986). McLaughlin et al. states, "the positive impact on students' lives yield the psychic rewards that teachers seek and need in order to sustain their efforts" (p. 421). This positive impact goes beyond academic achievement.

How does this help explain why central county teachers often have to force themselves to go to work? Middle and upper class parents tend to be more involved in their child's academics (Evan, 2004), which may make the teachers feel as if their impact is minute. If a teacher does not feel valued or believe that they are having a huge impact on their students, this can lead to a lack of commitment. Other reasons that may lead to central teacher dissatisfaction may be school practices, for example having a school duty like hall monitoring or patrolling during lunch periods, that leads to a decrease in intrinsic motivation (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). In order to understand specifically why central county teachers are not as eager to go to work as northern and southern county teachers, further research on individual school practices and teacher evaluation scores (including PARCC, SGO, and SGP scores) would be helpful.

Free or reduced lunch status. Teachers who taught in schools with 31-49% of students receiving free or reduced lunch were more likely to work for a candidate in a campaign. Is this because teachers who teach in these schools also are residents of this community? Is this due to these teachers having more political awareness than the teachers in the other groups? This is a finding that would require more investigation in order to make a more detailed conclusion.

Ultimately, the purpose of this study was to determine the affect of political involvement on teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. This brings me to the final research question, “Does engagement in educational politics, gender, school’s county region, and school’s free or reduced lunch status predict job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control?”

Do the Independent Variables Predict Dependent Variables?

Research stresses the fact teachers are leaving the field of education within the first five years of instruction (Shen et al., 2012). This study did not want to investigate if political involvement leads to teacher retention, but factors that lead to teacher retention. With job satisfaction, self-efficacy and work locus of control all influencing teacher retention in some fashion, focusing on if involvement in educational politics predicts these variables may be an answer to teacher retention. For the context of this study, correlation tests were performed to determine the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. A correlation was found between “I voted in the last national election” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” Another correlation was found between “I voted in the last state election” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about work.” This is an interesting finding because it is very specific. Voting in an election, state or national, is an act of participating unlike attending a meeting, an act of just being informed (Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997; Chacko, 1985; Cohen, Vigoda, & Samorly, 2001). Participation includes decision-making (Chacko, 1985), which is what teachers are doing when they are choosing to vote. They are choosing to place a decision on who they would like to next lead the nation and state. Education is a huge topic discussed by both national and state officials when they are up for election. Due to the fact that teachers are

involved in the decision of who gets elected, they are also deciding which educational vision they agree with most or would like to see implemented. This can influence their enthusiasm towards their work because they believe in the changes that are being implemented. If they do not believe in the changes that are being implemented, they are aware of the changes before implementation and are able to properly prepare. This includes attending professional development or studying the new curriculum standards so that they are able to properly implement them with their students. Past research has found involvement in extra-curricular activities to affect students but did not identify political involvement. Eccles and Barber (1999) found that high school students who are involved in extra-curricular activities are more likely to enjoy school. This study can extend this finding to professionals, in particular teachers and their involvement in politics. Further studies found that involvement in college leads students to have strengthened competency and higher self-esteem (Astin, 1999), which may help me explain the next finding.

A correlation was found between “I voted in the last national election” and “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” Additionally, “I voted in the last state election” and “I voted in the last national election” were also correlated to “If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.” This finding adds to the idea that simply participating in decision making on a national, state, and local level has further impact for teachers than ever considered. If involvement in college can lead to strengthened competency and higher self-esteem, then political involvement having an impact of self-efficacy, particularly how teachers increase student retention, is not unlikely. As shown

in this study, participation in national, state, and local elections had a significant effect on aspects of teacher enthusiasm about work and ability to properly differentiate instruction, which suggests that political involvement is a predictor of teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy.

Another correlation was found between female teachers and the survey item, “When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust to his/her level.” The idea of female teachers having higher self-efficacy was discussed in the findings for the second research question. Past research concluded that classroom stress, which is greater amongst female teachers than male teachers, could be linked to instructional self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Now that this study has established an official correlation between gender and self-efficacy attributed to classroom practices, a further understanding of how classroom stress affects instructional self-efficacy would be beneficial to establish a cause and effect relationship.

A final correlation was found between female teachers and the survey item, “I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.” Again, the idea of female teachers having more awareness and involvement in educational politics was explored in the findings for the second research question. This finding can add to the current body of research, which finds female teachers to be more invested in school politics than male teachers (Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997).

Implications

Implications for future research, policy, and practice are discussed in this section. To fully discuss the implications, I will discuss the limitations of this study and offer guidance on how this study can be modified for future research.

Research

The present study modified a scale on political involvement to measure political involvement specific to education. This scale was modified due to lack of an existing instrument specific to involvement in educational politics. With the field lacking a formal instrument to measure such involvement, researchers may use this scale in the field for further validation. It would be suggested that questions be more tailored to educational politics and not general political involvement. Furthermore, researchers may use this instrument to further understand of how involvement in educational politics affects other aspects of teaching, such as teacher retention.

Brayfield and Rothe (1951) constructed an index for job satisfaction that was initially made as general measure of one's attitude towards his or her work. Though this instrument has been used to evaluate the job satisfaction of many fields, this instrument does not cater to issues that may be specific to that field and may lead to job satisfaction, or lack thereof. This study highlights the need for an index of job satisfaction that is specific to the field of education, especially in light of the many changes. With job satisfaction being a factor that impacts teacher retention, assessing teacher job satisfaction regularly may be beneficial for researchers to develop a timeline of events that positively and negatively affect teachers.

While the present study evaluated the impact of political involvement on job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control, future studies may evaluate the impact of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control on political involvement. With new court hearings such as *Freidrichs v. California Teacher Association*, which, if passed, will allow teachers the choice to not join the union as well

as not have to pay nonmember dues (NJEA, 2016), understanding what leads to political involvement may prove to be advantageous for unions to understanding how they can keep their members. Evaluating the impact of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control on political involvement may also benefit future politicians who wish to gain the vote of teachers.

The state of New Jersey is unique as it is one of the twelve states that have chosen to implement the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers, a high quality assessment that aligns to the Common Core State Standards (PARCC, 2015). The implementation of this assessment along with the state bill that ties students' PARCC scores to teacher evaluations has caused much controversy for educators throughout the state (NJDOE, 2014; NJEA, 2015). This event may have influenced how teachers responded to the survey questions. Implementing this study in states that have not chosen to implement the PARCC or even private schools may yield different results.

The measures from this study were dependent upon self-reports, which allows for participation interpretation and social desirable responses (Hotgraves, 2004). Future researchers who may wish to replicate this study may want to consider making it mixed-methods and engaging in participant interviews and/or focus groups. Researchers may also wish to create an intervention with a focus group to measure how political involvement can predict a certain behavior and not just correlation. This will allow for a more in depth understanding and explanation for certain findings that were serendipitous.

Researchers have to be willing to take risk to identify how to keep the integrity of teaching. This study attempted to find a connection between involvement in educational politics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control amongst teachers. Very

little research identified political involvement as having a huge impact on teachers. It's important that researchers take the time to investigate other factors that may be the key to keeping teachers in the field.

Practice

This study found voting in national, state, and local elections to have an impact on teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Educational changes, such as the new teacher evaluation system and linking student assessment scores to teacher evaluation (NJDOE, 2014) can cause teachers to feel less in control and question their professional worth (Kushman, 1992). It is important for novice teachers and experienced teachers alike to become more involved in politics. When one votes, he or she is having an impact on who may get into office and the issues they stand to fix (Harder & Krosnick, 2008). This study shows that voting for those who have the same views on economy, education, and other global issues may affect enthusiasm about one's teaching career and the way in which he or she responds to students. In the unfortunate event that the person who gets office is someone that does not share the same views as the voting teacher, political awareness may have the same affect.

Furthermore, classroom teachers can use this research to reflect on the personal beliefs and practices that influence their job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. Reflecting on these beliefs and practices may persuade teachers to attend professional development workshops that focus on ways to enhance those skills. Reflecting on their personal beliefs may also allow for teachers to have a renewed sense of purpose in light of new educational mandates that may pressure teachers to leave the field.

With novice teachers leaving the field very early in their career (Shen et al., 2002) teacher preparation programs may wish to influence preservice teachers to become politically involved. Again, with this study finding voting in national, state, and local elections to have an impact on teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy, higher education institutions may find it noteworthy that promoting political involvement may have an influence on effective teacher practices. By being proactive, the teacher preparation programs are promoting a culture of political awareness that preservice teachers may take with them into field.

It is also imperative for teacher unions to make teachers aware of the candidates that wish to preserve the integrity of teaching. Unions currently endorse political candidates who support public education; unfortunately their efforts to promote these endorsements may be outdated. This study suggests unions identify new mechanisms of delivering information to their members. By finding new ways to spread information, novice teachers and experienced teachers who are uninformed may begin to experience the benefits of political involvement on practice. This may also lead to an increase in membership and support of the union.

Policy

The findings from this study have implications for future policy-making. With an influence on decision-making being positively correlated with aspects of job satisfaction and self-efficacy, it is important for teachers to have a say in the future educational policies and mandates. The New Jersey Department of Education has had committees in the past to assist with creating new guidelines and regulations, but those committees do not always include teachers. For example, *The New Jersey Effectiveness Task Force*,

which assisted with creating the guidelines for the new educator evaluation system, did not include any teachers in its membership. In the future, there should be a minimum requirement of teachers that must be included in the decision-making of policies that will directly affect the profession. This allows for teachers to get the same benefit from voting in national, state, and local election on their career from decision-making that directly affects them.

Non-tenured, first year teachers are required to participate in a new teacher mentor program to assist with the “...performance of their duties and adjustment to the challenges of their teaching assignment” (NJDOE, 2014). Through this program, new teachers are required to meet one-on-one with a mentor to discuss their teacher practices and help with their professional development. Novice teachers may also be required to attend district wide meetings with other novice teachers to gain awareness about district policies and procedures and other aspects that affect their practice. The results from this study suggest that political awareness should be a component added to the new teacher mentor program as a way to address national, state, and local policies that may affect teachers. New laws and mandates are being implemented on a continuous basis. With novice teachers being occupied with task of teaching (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998), they may not have the time or energy to learn about new laws and mandates that may affect their teaching practice. Gaining political awareness early on in their career may influence them to stay informed in politics, which can lead to heightened enthusiasm about their work and the ability to better differentiate instruction for their students.

Lastly, the findings from this study should be used to develop professional development for teachers. New laws and mandates, such as AchieveNJ and TEACHNJ,

may allow for teachers to feel less in control of their professional life. Professional development will allow for teachers to gain a better understanding of the things that are inside and outside of their control. For example, instead of administrators saying, “Get over it, the PARCC is here to stay,” they can provide professional development into the positive and negative ways the PARCC is changing the dynamic of teaching and offer tools for teacher success.

Significance

It is clear that a paradigm shift has occurred for the field of education with a renewed focus on accountability and performance. New Jersey’s policy environment has given a substantial amount of importance to public schools improving student achievement and developing students so that they are able to compete with their peers from around the world. Unfortunately, these pressures in the form of new laws and mandates have lead to a decrease in teacher retention, especially for young teachers with less than five academic years of experience (Shen et al, 2002). In that regard, political leaders are playing an important role in producing 21st century learners that can compete with students from countries with different education beliefs.

With education reform initiatives having a huge impact on the teaching practice, teachers have little influence on their creation or implementation. Research shows that teacher influence of school policy contributes to job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Duke, Showers, & Imber, 1980), so understanding how involvement in politics that transcend the school may help identify ways schools can retain teachers. To address this gap in research, this study examined the role of political involvement on teachers’ job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. Political involvement has been

studied extensively in other areas, but the effect it has on teachers and teacher practices remained relatively ignored. Thus, the present study explored different factors that may influence teacher retention and preserve the integrity of teaching.

This study also took into account different demographics to explain teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control. Gender is a common demographic explored when it comes to job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control, but the county region and percent of students who receive free or reduced lunch have rarely been explored. This study was able to establish differences among these demographics specific to the state of New Jersey and establish the need for further exploration.

Furthermore, this present study linked involvement in national, state, and local elections to aspects of job satisfaction and self-efficacy. The significance of voting and job satisfaction and self-efficacy showed political involvement to be a possible predictor of teacher retention. The relationship between political involvement and teacher retention continues to be a gap in research. Thus, the present study contributed to the discussion by establishing a connection between political involvement and factors that predict teacher retention and teacher commitment (Shann, 2010).

Next Steps

This study collected data via an email survey from over 1000 public school teachers throughout the state of New Jersey. Even though a teacher sample from every county except Union county was accounted for, a teacher sample from every school district in New Jersey was not. To further the understanding of how political involvement affects job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control, participant interviews and surveys from teachers not in the original sample would be beneficial.

Second, the survey instrument will be revised to tailor questions about job satisfaction and political involvement specifically to the field of education. This can be accomplished by asking open-ended questions about job satisfaction that will allow for teachers to introduce ideas that lead to their satisfaction or lack thereof that were not previously explored. Next, research questions about whether job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work locus of control affect political involvement will be added to check for any connections. Lastly, the findings will look to be presented at a teacher convention to relay the results for teachers and other professionals invested in the field of education.

Conclusion

This study found that New Jersey teachers that voted in past national, state, and local elections were more enthusiastic about their jobs and knew how to increase knowledge retention in students. Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory and theory of self-efficacy (1982) suggest that if New Jersey teachers replicate this behavior they will be rewarded the same way. Even though being enthusiastic about one's work and knowing how to increase knowledge retention in students are small aspects of job satisfaction and self-efficacy, they are a start. Job satisfaction and self-efficacy are not only predictors of teacher retention but also a contributor to school effectiveness (Shann, 2010).

In closing, this study raises awareness in regards to what educational policymakers, unions, district and school leaders, teachers and other educational professional can do to increase teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Policymakers, in particular, must understand that they have an obligation to involve teachers in decisions that will directly impact practice. This may be challenging, but it is imperative to ensure

that teachers are working in an environment that is conducive to student learning and success. Ultimately, the policies and mandates that are influenced by teachers will be the only way to ensure that no child, or teacher, is left behind.

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Appendix A

eIRB Notice of Approval



** This is an auto-generated email. Please do not reply to this email message.
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DHHS Federal Wide Assurance Identifier: FWA00007111

IRB Chair Person: Harriet Hartman

IRB Director: Sreekant Murthy

Effective Date: 8/4/2015

eIRB Notice of Approval

STUDY PROFILE

Study ID: Pro2015000472

Title: The impact of involvement in educational politics on novice teachers' job satisfaction and beliefs about self-efficacy: A survey research study

Principal Investigator:	Ane Johnson	Study Coordinator:	None
Co-Investigator(s):	Kayla Lott	Other Study Staff:	None
Sponsor:	Department Funded	Approval Cycle:	Twelve Months
Risk Determination:	Minimal Risk	Device Determination:	Not Applicable

Review Type: Expedited

Expedited Category: 7

Subjects: 214

CURRENT SUBMISSION STATUS

Submission Type:	Research Protocol/Study	Submission Status:	Approved
Approval Date:	8/4/2015	Expiration Date:	8/3/2016
Pregnancy Code:	No Pregnant Women as Subjects Not Applicable	Pediatric Code:	Not Applicable No Children As Subjects
		Prisoner Code:	Not Applicable No Prisoners As Subjects

Protocol:	AppendixA_Survey.docx Lott_IRB_Protocol.doc AppendixC_Survey Flyer.pptx AppendixC_Survey Flyer.pdf AppendixB_ConsentForm.doc	Consent:	There are no items to display	Recruitment Materials:	IRB_Email Letter.pdf AppendixC_Survey Flyer.pdf
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* Study Performance Sites:

Rowan University, Education Hall, 201 Mullica Hill Road, Glassboro, NJ 08028

ALL APPROVED INVESTIGATOR(S) MUST COMPLY WITH THE FOLLOWING:

1. Conduct the research in accordance with the protocol, applicable laws and regulations, and the principles of research ethics as set forth in the Belmont Report.
2. **Continuing Review:** Approval is valid until the protocol expiration date shown above. To avoid lapses in approval, submit a continuation application at least eight weeks before the study expiration date.
3. **Expiration of IRB Approval:** If IRB approval expires, effective the date of expiration and until the continuing review approval is issued: **All research activities must stop unless the IRB finds that it is in the best interest of individual subjects to continue. (This determination shall be based on a separate written request from the PI to the IRB.) No new subjects may be enrolled and no samples/charts/surveys may be collected, reviewed, and/or analyzed.**
4. **Amendments/Modifications/Revisions:** If you wish to change any aspect of this study, including but not limited to, study procedures, consent form(s), investigators, advertisements, the protocol document, investigator drug brochure, or accrual goals, you are required to obtain IRB review and approval prior to implementation of these changes unless necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to subjects.
5. **Unanticipated Problems:** Unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or others must be reported to the IRB Office (45 CFR 46, 21 CFR 312, 812) as required, in the appropriate time as specified in the attachment online at: <http://www.rowan.edu/som/hsp/>
6. **Protocol Deviations and Violations:** Deviations from/violations of the approved study protocol must be reported to the IRB Office (45 CFR 46, 21 CFR 312, 812) as required, in the appropriate time as specified in the attachment online at: <http://www.rowan.edu/som/hsp/>
7. **Consent/Assent:** The IRB has reviewed and approved the consent and/or assent process, waiver and/or alteration described in this protocol as required by 45 CFR 46 and 21 CFR 50, 56, (if FDA regulated research). Only the versions of the documents included in the approved process may be used to document informed consent and/or assent of study subjects; each subject must receive a copy of the approved form(s); and a copy of each signed form must be filed in a secure place in the subject's medical/patient/research record.
8. **Completion of Study:** Notify the IRB when your study has been stopped for any reason. Neither study closure by the sponsor or the investigator removes the obligation for submission of timely continuing review application or final report.
9. The Investigator(s) did not participate in the review, discussion, or vote of this protocol.
10. **Letter Comments:** *There are no additional comments.*

CONFIDENTIALITY NOTICE: This email communication may contain private, confidential, or legally privileged information intended for the sole use of the designated and/or duly authorized recipients(s). If you are not the intended recipient or have received this email in error, please notify the sender immediately by email and permanently delete all copies of this email including all attachments without reading them. If you are the intended recipient, secure the contents in a manner that conforms to all applicable state and/or federal requirements related to privacy and confidentiality of such information.

Appendix B

Survey Consent Form



I am inviting you to participate in a research survey entitled “The impact of involvement in educational politics on teachers' job satisfaction and beliefs about self-efficacy. You are included in this survey because you are a New Jersey public school teacher. In order to participate in this survey, you must be 18 years or older.

The survey may take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary. If you do not wish to participate in this survey, do not respond to this paper survey. I hope to have as many subjects enrolled in the study as possible.

The purpose of this research study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, political involvement, and work locus of control of teachers in New Jersey public schools.

Completing this survey indicates that you are voluntarily giving consent to participate in the survey.

There are no risks or discomforts associated with this survey. There may be no direct benefit to you however, by participating in this study, you may help to give New Jersey’s public school teachers a voice that may serve to influence future policy, enhance practice, and encourage additional research.

Your response will be kept confidential. We will store the data in a secure computer file and the file will be destroyed once the data has been published. Any part of the research that is published as part of this study will not include your individual information. If you have any questions about the survey, you can contact me at the email address or phone number provided below, but you do not have to give your personal identification.

Thank you,

Kayla Lott
Email: lottk12@students.rowan.edu
609.271.2379

Appendix C

Survey

1. How many years have you been teaching?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5+

2. Gender?

- Male
- Female

3. To what racial or ethnic group(s) do you *most* identify?

- African-American (non-Hispanic)
- Asian/Pacific Islanders
- Caucasian (non-Hispanic)
- Latino or Hispanic
- Native American
- Other

4. What county do you teach in?

- Atlantic
- Bergen
- Burlington
- Camden
- Cape May
- Cumberland
- Essex
- Gloucester
- Hudson
- Hunterdon
- Mercer
- Middlesex
- Monmouth
- Morris
- Ocean

- Passaic
- Salem
- Somerset
- Sussex
- Union
- Warren

5. What is your school's zip code?

6. What percent of students in your school receive free or reduced lunch?

- <10%
- 10%-30%
- 31% - 49%
- 50%
- 51% - 70%
- 71% - 89%
- >90%
- Not sure

7. I have ultimate control over my Student Growth Objectives (SGOs)?

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8	There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.					
9	My job is like a hobby to me.					
10	My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.					
11	It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.					
12	I consider my job rather unpleasant.					
13	I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.					
14	I am often bored with my job.					
15	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.					
16	Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.					
17	I am satisfied with my job for the time being.					
18	I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.					
19	I definitely dislike my work.					
20	I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.					
21	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.					
22	Each day of work seems like it will never end.					
23	I like my job better than the average worker does.					
24	My job is pretty uninteresting.					
25	I find real enjoyment in my work.					
26	I am disappointed that I ever took this job.					

		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree slightly more than disagree	Disagree slightly more than agree	Moderately disagree	Strongly disagree
27	If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.						
28	When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.						
29	When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.						
30	If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.						
31	When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.						
32	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.						
33	If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.						
34	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level						

		Yes	No
35	I voted in the last national election.		
36	I voted in the last state election.		
37	I voted in the last local (county) election.		
38	I voted in the last union election.		
39	I tried to influence others to vote.		
40	I attend political rallies.		
41	I worked for a candidate during campaign.		
42	I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.		
43	I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.		
44	I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.		
45	I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.		

		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
46	On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.						
47	If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.						
48	Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.						
49	Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.						
50	Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.						
51	It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.						
52	People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.						
53	The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.						

Appendix D

Tables

Table 9

Race of participants

	Frequency	Percent
African American	10	1.0
Asian/Pacific Islander	12	1.2
Caucasian	973	93.3
Hispanic	28	2.7
MIXED: African-American & Native American	1	0.1
MIXED: Asian/Pacific Islander & Caucasian	1	0.1
Native American	1	0.1
Other	16	1.5
Total	1043	100.0

Table 10

Gender of participants

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Male	224	21.5	21.6
Female	813	22.9	78.4
Missing	6	0.6	
Total	1043	100.0	100.0

Table 11

Participant teaching experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Novice	166	15.9	16.2
Experienced	857	82.2	83.8
Missing	20	1.9	
Total	1043	100.0	100.0

Table 12

Participant years of experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
1 year	40	3.8	3.9
2 years	40	3.8	3.9
3 years	41	3.9	4.0
4 years	45	4.3	4.4
5+ years	857	82.2	83.8
Missing	20	1.9	
Total	1043	100.0	100.0

Table 13

Participant demographic

	Frequency	Percent
Atlantic	51	4.9
Bergen	60	5.8
Burlington	61	5.8
Camden	21	2.0
Cape May	17	1.6
Cumberland	14	1.3
Essex	49	4.7
Gloucester	155	14.9
Hudson	2	.2
Hunterdon	42	4.0
Mercer	26	2.5
Middlesex	217	20.8
Monmouth	125	12.0
Morris	18	1.7
Ocean	20	1.9
Passaic	27	2.6
Salem	30	2.9
Somerset	18	1.7
Sussex	58	5.6
Warren	30	2.9
Total	1043	100.0

Note: This table displays the counties from which the participants teach in.

Table 14

Results from the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction based on teaching experience

		N	Mean	SD
Q6 There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.	Novice	149	2.05	0.769
	Experienced	760	1.77	0.787
Q7 My job is like a hobby to me.	Novice	149	3.01	1.271
	Experienced	760	2.40	1.284
Q8 My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	Novice	149	4.31	0.717
	Experienced	760	4.40	0.736
Q9 It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	Novice	149	3.77	0.809
	Experienced	760	3.79	0.822
Q10 I consider my job rather unpleasant.	Novice	149	4.24	0.723
	Experienced	760	4.14	0.940
Q11 I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	Novice	149	2.39	0.978
	Experienced	760	2.19	0.936
Q12 I am often bored with my job.	Novice	149	4.27	0.732
	Experienced	760	4.32	0.789
Q13 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	Novice	149	3.95	0.891
	Experienced	760	3.86	0.921
Q14 Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	Novice	149	4.18	0.698
	Experienced	760	4.17	0.860
Q15 I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	Novice	149	3.97	0.885
	Experienced	760	3.86	0.913
Q16 I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	Novice	149	3.54	1.124
	Experienced	760	3.46	1.175
Q17 I definitely dislike my work.	Novice	149	4.50	0.722
	Experienced	760	4.47	0.756
Q18 I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	Novice	149	3.89	0.874
	Experienced	760	3.75	0.962
Q19 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	Novice	149	4.15	0.748
	Experienced	760	4.08	0.778
Q20 Each day of work seems like it will never end.	Novice	149	3.99	0.784
	Experienced	760	4.09	0.837
Q21 I like my job better than the average worker does	Novice	149	3.89	0.793
	Experienced	760	3.79	0.860
Q22 My job is pretty uninteresting.	Novice	149	4.41	0.668
	Experienced	760	4.31	0.800
Q23 I find real enjoyment in my work.	Novice	149	4.21	0.738
	Experienced	760	4.20	0.775
Q24 I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	Novice	149	4.55	0.662
	Experienced	760	4.48	0.793

Table 15

Results from the Teacher Efficacy Scale based on teaching experience

		N	Mean	SD
Q25 If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	Novice	149	4.95	0.873
	Experienced	760	5.05	0.914
Q26 When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	Novice	149	4.93	0.847
	Experienced	760	4.90	0.963
Q27 When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	Novice	149	4.97	0.969
	Experienced	760	5.06	1.040
Q28 If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	Novice	149	4.62	0.957
	Experienced	760	4.80	1.029
Q29 When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	Novice	149	4.16	1.103
	Experienced	760	4.18	1.240
Q30 If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	Novice	149	5.23	0.881
	Experienced	760	5.39	0.823
Q31 If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	Novice	149	5.01	0.878
	Experienced	760	5.28	0.885
Q32 When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	Novice	149	5.15	0.809
	Experienced	760	5.38	0.792

Table 16

Results from the political involvement scale based on teaching experience

		N	Mode	Mean	SD
Q33 I voted in the last national election.	Novice	149	2.00	1.70	0.466
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.91	0.291
Q34 I voted in the last state election.	Novice	149	2.00	1.56	0.511
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.84	0.368
Q35 I voted in the last local (county) election.	Novice	149	1.00	1.49	0.515
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.72	0.457
Q36 I voted in the last union election.	Novice	149	1.00	1.39	0.672
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.72	0.488
Q37 I tried to influence others to vote.	Novice	149	1.00	1.35	0.585
	Experienced	760	1.00	1.50	0.556
Q38 I attend political rallies.	Novice	149	1.00	1.10	0.409
	Experienced	760	1.00	1.16	0.444
Q39 I worked for a candidate during campaign.	Novice	149	1.00	1.08	0.414
	Experienced	760	1.00	1.11	0.424
Q40 I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers etc.	Novice	149	2.00	1.72	0.451
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.81	0.411
Q41 I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	Novice	149	1.00	1.10	0.340
	Experienced	760	1.00	1.16	0.456
Q42 I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	Novice	149	1.00	1.38	0.501
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.54	0.521
Q43 I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	Novice	149	1.00	1.50	0.552
	Experienced	760	2.00	1.52	0.338

Table 17

Results from the Work Locus of Control Scale based on teaching experience

		N	Mean	SD
Q44 On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	Novice	149	4.64	1.014
	Experienced	760	4.53	1.130
Q45 If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	Novice	149	4.55	1.043
	Experienced	760	4.45	1.125
Q46 Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	Novice	149	3.92	0.323
	Experienced	760	3.94	0.259
Q47 Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	Novice	149	3.99	1.130
	Experienced	760	4.06	1.192
Q48 Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	Novice	149	4.03	1.299
	Experienced	760	3.65	1.423
Q49 It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	Novice	149	4.89	1.124
	Experienced	760	4.82	1.196
Q50 People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	Novice	149	4.08	1.249
	Experienced	760	3.65	1.399
Q51 The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	Novice	149	4.77	1.066
	Experienced	760	4.89	1.171

Table 18

Results from the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction based on gender

		N	Mean	SD
Q6 There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.	Male	221	1.85	.786
	Female	807	1.82	.803
Q7 My job is like a hobby to me.	Male	222	2.51	1.303
	Female	801	2.55	1.305
Q8 My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	Male	221	4.36	.729
	Female	807	4.38	.772
Q9 It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	Male	222	3.64	.876
	Female	805	3.80	.811
Q10 I consider my job rather unpleasant.	Male	221	4.06	1.034
	Female	805	4.18	.880
Q11 I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	Male	220	2.25	.963
	Female	806	2.24	.944
Q12 I am often bored with my job.	Male	222	4.16	.888
	Female	799	4.37	.743
Q13 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	Male	222	3.92	.971
	Female	807	3.85	.915
Q14 Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	Male	220	4.26	.851
	Female	808	4.14	.808
Q15 I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	Male	220	3.83	1.001
	Female	806	3.91	.878
Q16 I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	Male	222	3.55	1.136
	Female	805	3.47	1.171
Q17 I definitely dislike my work.	Male	222	4.47	.816
	Female	805	4.48	.732
Q18 I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	Male	219	3.87	.951
	Female	805	3.75	.956
Q19 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	Male	221	4.10	.839
	Female	807	4.09	.769
Q20 Each day of work seems like it will never end.	Male	222	4.09	.838
	Female	804	4.05	.845
Q21 I like my job better than the average worker does	Male	220	3.91	.763
	Female	806	3.77	.888
Q22 My job is pretty uninteresting.	Male	222	4.35	.768
	Female	805	4.34	.787
Q23 I find real enjoyment in my work.	Male	222	4.19	.872
	Female	805	4.21	.750
Q24 I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	Male	222	4.47	.849
	Female	805	4.50	.767

Table 19

Results from the Teacher Efficacy Scale based in gender

		N	Mean	SD
Q25 If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	Male	220	4.96	.995
	Female	798	5.06	.879
Q26 When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	Male	219	4.78	.953
	Female	796	4.95	.939
Q27 When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	Male	220	4.95	1.130
	Female	795	4.08	.988
Q28 If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	Male	219	4.62	.980
	Female	797	4.81	1.023
Q29 When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	Male	219	4.06	1.167
	Female	793	4.20	1.239
Q30 If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	Male	219	5.38	.828
	Female	798	5.35	.841
Q31 If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	Male	219	5.18	.819
	Female	798	5.25	.912
Q32 When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	Male	219	5.17	.871
	Female	798	5.38	.800

Table 20

Results from the political involvement scale based on gender

		N	Mode	Mean	SD
Q33 I voted in the last national election.	Male	223	2.0	1.87	.337
	Female	799	2.0	1.87	.334
Q34 I voted in the last state election.	Male	222	2.0	1.83	.374
	Female	796	2.0	1.78	.414
Q35 I voted in the last local (county) election.	Male	221	2.0	1.76	.425
	Female	792	2.0	1.66	.474
Q36 I voted in the last union election.	Male	216	2.0	1.69	.462
	Female	770	2.0	1.65	.479
Q37 I tried to influence others to vote.	Male	215	2.0	1.53	.500
	Female	773	1.0	1.46	.499
Q38 I attend political rallies.	Male	219	1.0	1.16	.363
	Female	783	1.0	1.15	.360
Q39 I worked for a candidate during campaign.	Male	219	1.0	1.11	.319
	Female	780	1.0	1.11	.315
Q40 I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.	Male	221	2.0	1.75	.436
	Female	793	2.0	1.80	.401
Q41 I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	Male	222	1.0	1.22	.413
	Female	779	1.0	1.13	.342
Q42 I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	Male	220	1.0	1.45	.498
	Female	792	2.0	1.54	.499
Q43 I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	Male	217	1.0	1.49	.501
	Female	782	2.0	1.52	.500

Table 21

Results from the Work Locus of Control Scale based on gender

		N	Mean	SD
Q44 On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	Male	222	4.46	1.128
	Female	800	4.57	1.121
Q45 If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	Male	221	4.42	1.202
	Female	800	4.48	1.090
Q46 Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	Male	220	3.82	1.335
	Female	798	4.00	1.235
Q47 Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	Male	221	3.89	1.225
	Female	795	4.12	1.178
Q48 Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	Male	220	3.70	1.453
	Female	800	3.70	1.427
Q49 It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	Male	221	4.74	1.172
	Female	799	4.85	1.217
Q50 People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	Male	221	3.69	1.463
	Female	799	3.71	1.397
Q51 The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	Male	221	4.75	1.170
	Female	798	4.91	1.147

Table 22

Results from the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction based on county region

		N	Mean	SD
Q6 There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.	North	243	1.82	.889
	Central	443	1.81	.756
	South	346	1.84	.786
Q7 My job is like a hobby to me.	North	240	2.53	1.313
	Central	443	2.52	1.312
	South	344	2.59	1.288
Q8 My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	North	242	4.42	.781
	Central	443	4.33	.776
	South	347	4.41	.729
Q9 It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	North	243	3.77	.790
	Central	443	3.72	.892
	South	345	3.83	.762
Q10 I consider my job rather unpleasant.	North	241	4.22	.877
	Central	443	4.10	.928
	South	346	4.20	.907
Q11 I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	North	241	2.25	.985
	Central	443	2.26	.925
	South	346	2.22	.953
Q12 I am often bored with my job.	North	242	4.37	.800
	Central	442	4.27	.791
	South	341	4.36	.749
Q13 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	North	243	3.91	.940
	Central	444	3.84	.910
	South	346	3.89	.933
Q14 Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	North	243	4.22	.833
	Central	442	4.08	.870
	South	347	4.24	.823
Q15 I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	North	242	3.94	.942
	Central	443	3.87	.892
	South	345	3.89	.891
Q16 I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	North	243	3.64	1.068
	Central	441	3.43	1.196
	South	347	3.46	1.178

Table 22 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
Q17 I definitely dislike my work.	North	243	4.49	.789
	Central	441	4.45	.782
	South	347	4.52	.664
Q18 I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	North	241	3.77	.998
	Central	443	3.78	.947
	South	344	3.79	.934
Q19 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	North	243	3.12	.804
	Central	443	4.06	.788
	South	346	4.12	.768
Q20 Each day of work seems like it will never end.	North	242	4.04	.955
	Central	442	4.03	.823
	South	346	4.11	.784
Q21 I like my job better than the average worker does	North	243	3.82	.832
	Central	441	3.77	.889
	South	346	3.83	.848
Q22 My job is pretty uninteresting.	North	242	4.41	.701
	Central	443	4.34	.808
	South	346	4.29	.798
Q23 I find real enjoyment in my work.	North	243	4.25	.764
	Central	442	4.19	.764
	South	346	4.20	.805
Q24 I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	North	243	4.49	.746
	Central	441	4.46	.825
	South	347	4.54	.757

Table 23

Results from the Teacher Efficacy Scale based on county region

		N	Mean	SD
Q25 If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	North	240	5.07	.855
	Central	438	5.01	.924
	South	343	5.04	.917
Q26 When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	North	240	4.91	.985
	Central	436	4.90	.927
	South	342	4.93	.934
Q27 When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	North	239	5.00	1.085
	Central	437	5.09	.976
	South	342	5.04	1.031
Q28 If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	North	239	4.71	1.136
	Central	437	4.83	.971
	South	343	4.73	.992
Q29 When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	North	237	4.22	1.212
	Central	435	4.13	1.244
	South	343	4.19	1.208
Q30 If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	North	240	5.38	.855
	Central	437	5.30	.841
	South	343	5.40	.817
Q31 If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	North	240	5.27	.866
	Central	437	5.22	.921
	South	343	5.21	.874
Q32 When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	North	240	5.35	.854
	Central	438	5.33	.823
	South	342	5.33	.792

Table 24

Results from the political involvement scale based on county region

		N	Mode	Mean	SD
Q33 I voted in the last national election.	North	239	2.0	1.87	.332
	Central	441	2.0	1.82	.382
	South	346	2.0	1.93	.249
Q34 I voted in the last state election.	North	237	2.0	1.79	.406
	Central	440	2.0	1.74	.439
	South	345	2.0	1.86	.350
Q35 I voted in the last local (county) election.	North	237	2.0	1.65	.477
	Central	436	2.0	1.65	.478
	South	344	2.0	1.74	.437
Q36 I voted in the last union election.	North	232	2.0	1.62	.485
	Central	427	2.0	1.64	.479
	South	330	2.0	1.70	.460
Q37 I tried to influence others to vote.	North	234	2.0	1.50	.501
	Central	423	1.0	1.46	.499
	South	335	1.0	1.47	.500
Q38 I attend political rallies.	North	235	1.0	1.15	.357
	Central	430	1.0	1.17	.372
	South	341	1.0	1.14	.351
Q39 I worked for a candidate during campaign.	North	234	1.0	1.10	.298
	Central	429	1.0	1.14	.347
	South	339	1.0	1.09	.280
Q40 I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.	North	239	2.0	1.79	.405
	Central	437	2.0	1.75	.432
	South	342	2.0	1.83	.376
Q41 I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	North	236	1.0	1.17	.380
	Central	434	1.0	1.18	.388
	South	335	1.0	1.10	.298
Q42 I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	North	238	2.0	1.60	.491
	Central	438	1.0	1.46	.499
	South	340	2.0	1.54	.499
Q43 I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	North	236	2.0	1.56	.497
	Central	430	1.0	1.48	.500
	South	337	2.0	1.52	.500

Table 25

Results from the Work Locus of Control Scale based on county region

		N	Mean	SD
Q44 On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	North	240	4.53	1.124
	Central	441	4.53	1.185
	South	345	4.60	1.035
Q45 If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	North	241	4.46	1.103
	Central	439	4.44	1.168
	South	345	4.53	1.051
Q46 Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	North	240	3.87	1.263
	Central	437	4.00	1.248
	South	345	3.97	1.274
Q47 Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	North	239	3.92	1.149
	Central	437	4.14	1.211
	South	344	4.09	1.187
Q48 Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	North	241	3.72	1.412
	Central	439	3.67	1.464
	South	344	3.72	1.405
Q49 It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	North	241	4.85	1.167
	Central	439	4.86	1.232
	South	344	4.78	1.205
Q50 People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	North	241	3.73	1.402
	Central	438	3.67	1.427
	South	345	3.74	1.400
Q51 The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	North	241	4.91	1.142
	Central	438	4.85	1.166
	South	344	4.88	1.153

Table 26

Results of the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction based on free or reduced lunch status

		N	Mean	SD
Q6 There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.	<10%	183	1.89	.891
	10-30%	145	1.89	.914
	31-49%	108	1.77	.678
	50%	20	1.65	.671
	51-70%	82	1.71	.676
	71-89%	64	1.70	.683
	>90%	24	1.89	.833
Q7 My job is like a hobby to me.	<10%	181	2.61	1.315
	10-30%	145	3.52	1.323
	31-49%	108	2.63	1.323
	50%	20	2.50	1.318
	51-70%	82	2.54	1.288
	71-89%	64	2.50	1.333
	>90%	25	2.76	1.332
Q8 My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	<10%	182	4.42	.829
	10-30%	145	4.34	.835
	31-49%	108	4.34	.751
	50%	20	4.60	.503
	51-70%	83	4.30	.792
	71-89%	64	4.33	.757
	>90%	25	4.56	.583
Q9 It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	<10%	183	3.80	.815
	10-30%	145	3.72	.939
	31-49%	108	3.81	.837
	50%	20	3.95	.686
	51-70%	83	3.66	.914
	71-89%	64	3.67	.909
	>90%	24	3.71	.550
Q10 I consider my job rather unpleasant.	<10%	182	4.21	.888
	10-30%	144	4.12	1.028
	31-49%	108	4.32	.818
	50%	20	4.40	.940
	51-70%	83	4.20	.694
	71-89%	64	3.89	1.086
	>90%	24	4.50	.511

Table 26 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
Q11 I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	<10%	182	2.22	.877
	10-30%	144	2.34	.962
	31-49%	108	2.45	1.017
	50%	20	2.30	.923
	51-70%	83	2.27	1.025
	71-89%	64	2.19	.974
	>90%	25	2.64	1.075
Q12 I am often bored with my job.	<10%	182	4.43	.715
	10-30%	144	4.31	.865
	31-49%	105	4.33	.768
	50%	20	4.35	.933
	51-70%	82	4.29	.809
	71-89%	63	4.35	.652
	>90%	25	4.12	.881
Q13 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	<10%	183	3.95	.912
	10-30%	145	3.92	.965
	31-49%	108	3.86	.912
	50%	20	4.20	.523
	51-70%	82	3.78	.969
	71-89%	64	3.72	1.015
	>90%	25	4.04	.611
Q14 Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	<10%	183	4.21	.879
	10-30%	145	4.24	.802
	31-49%	107	4.30	.792
	50%	20	4.50	.513
	51-70%	83	4.16	.833
	71-89%	64	3.94	1.082
	>90%	25	4.24	.436
Q15 I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	<10%	183	3.86	.971
	10-30%	144	4.01	.881
	31-49%	108	3.76	.994
	50%	20	4.15	.671
	51-70%	82	3.88	.852
	71-89%	63	3.84	.902
	>90%	25	4.08	.702
Q16 I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	<10%	183	3.51	1.157
	10-30%	145	3.34	1.197
	31-49%	107	3.50	1.177
	50%	20	3.60	.940
	51-70%	83	3.46	1.233
	71-89%	64	3.53	1.112
	>90%	25	3.64	1.150

Table 26 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
Q17 I definitely dislike my work.	<10%	183	4.63	.725
	10-30%	145	4.47	.808
	31-49%	108	4.61	.624
	50%	20	4.75	.444
	51-70%	83	4.40	.748
	71-89%	64	4.39	.748
	>90%	25	4.60	.645
Q18 I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	<10%	183	3.85	.994
	10-30%	143	3.87	.951
	31-49%	108	3.81	.971
	50%	20	3.90	.788
	51-70%	83	3.78	.925
	71-89%	63	3.57	.979
	>90%	25	4.00	.707
Q19 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	<10%	183	4.15	.762
	10-30%	145	4.12	.807
	31-49%	108	4.17	.743
	50%	20	4.20	.523
	51-70%	83	4.02	.883
	71-89%	62	3.92	.855
	>90%	25	3.12	.726
Q20 Each day of work seems like it will never end.	<10%	183	4.10	.859
	10-30%	145	4.12	.832
	31-49%	108	4.13	.821
	50%	20	4.20	.768
	51-70%	83	4.04	.818
	71-89%	63	3.87	1.008
	>90%	25	4.12	.666
Q21 I like my job better than the average worker does	<10%	183	3.82	.947
	10-30%	145	3.87	.892
	31-49%	106	3.85	.790
	50%	20	3.80	.768
	51-70%	83	3.80	.880
	71-89%	64	3.67	.874
	>90%	25	3.88	.781
Q22 My job is pretty uninteresting.	<10%	179	4.36	.708
	10-30%	146	4.32	.870
	31-49%	108	4.31	.882
	50%	18	4.61	.502
	51-70%	83	4.34	.720
	71-89%	63	4.25	.897
	>90%	27	14.33	.679

Table 26 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
Q23 I find real enjoyment in my work.	<10%	181	4.23	.795
	10-30%	145	4.33	.746
	31-49%	108	4.30	.740
	50%	20	4.20	.696
	51-70%	83	4.12	.832
	71-89%	64	4.06	.924
	>90%	25	4.12	.666
Q24 I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	<10%	183	4.61	.619
	10-30%	145	4.46	.850
	31-49%	108	4.53	.848
	50%	20	4.60	.503
	51-70%	83	4.25	.961
	71-89%	64	4.34	.912
	>90%	25	4.76	.436

Table 27

Results from the Teacher Efficacy Scale based on free or reduced lunch status

		N	Mean	SD
Q25 If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	<10%	181	5.17	.778
	10-30%	145	4.98	1.057
	31-49%	105	4.97	.837
	50%	20	5.35	.745
	51-70%	82	5.00	.861
	71-89%	63	4.97	.803
	>90%	25	5.20	.764
Q26 When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	<10%	181	5.04	.846
	10-30%	144	4.87	1.026
	31-49%	104	4.77	1.045
	50%	20	5.05	.999
	51-70%	82	4.94	.743
	71-89%	63	4.90	.928
	>90%	25	4.36	.700
Q27 When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	<10%	182	5.12	.990
	10-30%	145	5.08	1.143
	31-49%	105	5.01	1.033
	50%	20	5.40	.754
	51-70%	81	4.86	.997
	71-89%	62	4.94	1.054
	>90%	25	5.36	.638
Q28 If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	<10%	182	4.82	.998
	10-30%	144	4.87	.963
	31-49%	103	4.61	1.078
	50%	20	5.15	.813
	51-70%	82	4.70	1.108
	71-89%	63	4.69	1.057
	>90%	25	4.92	.759
Q29 When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	<10%	180	4.28	1.187
	10-30%	144	4.21	1.205
	31-49%	103	4.08	1.377
	50%	20	4.60	1.353
	51-70%	81	4.15	1.152
	71-89%	63	4.16	1.260
	>90%	25	4.68	1.069

Table 27 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
	<10%	182	5.40	.771
	10-30%	144	5.35	.831
Q30 If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	31-49%	104	5.36	.696
	50%	20	5.70	.571
	51-70%	82	5.27	.930
	71-89%	63	5.24	.875
	>90%	25	5.48	.653
	<10%	181	5.29	.940
	10-30%	144	5.17	.956
Q31 If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	31-49%	104	5.16	.860
	50%	20	5.60	.598
	51-70%	82	5.21	.885
	71-89%	63	5.08	.921
	>90%	25	5.40	.764
	<10%	181	5.52	.796
	10-30%	144	5.37	.791
Q32 When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	31-49%	105	5.21	.793
	50%	20	5.50	.827
	51-70%	82	5.35	.692
	71-89%	63	5.24	.911
	>90%	25	5.36	.700

Table 28

Results from the political involvement scale based on free or reduced lunch status

		N	Mode	Mean	SD
Q33 I voted in the last national election.	<10%	183	2.0	1.91	.291
	10-30%	145	2.0	1.87	.339
	31-49%	108	2.0	1.84	.366
	50%	20	2.0	1.90	.308
	51-70%	82	2.0	1.85	.356
	71-89%	64	2.0	1.88	.333
	>90%	25	2.0	1.92	.277
Q34 I voted in the last state election.	<10%	183	2.0	1.80	.399
	10-30%	144	2.0	1.78	.412
	31-49%	108	2.0	1.79	.411
	50%	20	2.0	1.90	.308
	51-70%	82	2.0	1.84	.367
	71-89%	64	2.0	1.75	.436
	>90%	25	2.0	1.76	.436
Q35 I voted in the last local (county) election.	<10%	183	2.0	1.66	.475
	10-30%	142	2.0	1.72	.451
	31-49%	108	2.0	1.75	.435
	50%	20	2.0	1.75	.444
	51-70%	82	2.0	1.73	.446
	71-89%	63	2.0	1.68	.469
	>90%	25	2.0	1.64	.490
Q36 I voted in the last union election.	<10%	177	2.0	1.62	.488
	10-30%	137	2.0	1.67	.471
	31-49%	106	2.0	1.67	.473
	50%	20	2.0	1.70	.470
	51-70%	80	2.0	1.69	.466
	71-89%	59	2.0	1.73	.448
	>90%	23	1.0	1.48	.511
Q37 I tried to influence others to vote.	<10%	179	1.0	1.45	.499
	10-30%	138	2.0	1.57	.498
	31-49%	105	1.0	1.48	.502
	50%	19	1.0	1.47	.513
	51-70%	81	2.0	1.56	.500
	71-89%	63	2.0	1.54	.502
	>90%	22	2.0	1.55	.510

Table 28 (continued)

		N	Mode	Mean	SD
Q38 I attend political rallies.	<10%	176	1.0	1.11	.318
	10-30%	141	1.0	1.18	.389
	31-49%	108	1.0	1.28	.450
	50%	20	1.0	1.20	.410
	51-70%	81	1.0	1.20	.401
	71-89%	63	1.0	1.17	.383
	>90%	24	1.0	1.12	.338
Q39 I worked for a candidate during campaign.	<10%	178	1.0	1.04	.208
	10-30%	141	1.0	1.18	.389
	31-49%	105	1.0	1.19	.395
	50%	20	1.0	1.15	.366
	51-70%	81	1.0	1.16	.369
	71-89%	63	1.0	1.17	.383
	>90%	24	1.0	1.12	.338
Q40 I frequently discuss educational problems with friends, coworkers, etc.	<10%	180	2.0	1.75	.434
	10-30%	143	2.0	1.76	.427
	31-49%	108	2.0	1.81	.390
	50%	20	2.0	1.80	.410
	51-70%	81	2.0	1.89	.316
	71-89%	64	2.0	1.77	.427
	>90%	24	2.0	1.62	.495
Q41 I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	<10%	177	1.0	1.14	.349
	10-30%	140	1.0	1.23	.421
	31-49%	106	1.0	1.25	.432
	50%	20	1.0	1.10	.308
	51-70%	82	1.0	1.17	.379
	71-89%	62	1.0	1.21	.410
	>90%	23	1.0	1.17	.388
Q42 I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	<10%	182	2.0	1.59	.493
	10-30%	142	2.0	1.58	.495
	31-49%	107	1.0	1.48	.502
	50%	20	2.0	1.55	.510
	51-70%	82	2.0	1.54	.502
	71-89%	63	2.0	1.59	.496
	>90%	24	2.0	1.50	.511

Table 28 (continued)

	N	Mode	Mean	SD
	<10%	183	2.0	1.51 .291
	10-30%	145	2.0	1.52 .339
	31-49%	108	2.0	1.59 .366
Q43 I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	50%	20	2.0	1.55 .308
	51-70%	82	2.0	1.59 .356
	71-89%	64	2.0	1.58 .333
	>90%	25	2.0	1.38 .277

Table 29

Results from the Work Locus of Control Scale based on free or reduced lunch status

		N	Mean	SD
Q44 On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	<10%	183	4.63	1.140
	10-30%	144	4.67	1.070
	31-49%	108	4.55	1.114
	50%	20	4.85	1.137
	51-70%	81	4.36	1.110
	71-89%	64	4.53	1.154
	>90%	25	4.64	1.381
Q45 If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	<10%	183	4.59	1.044
	10-30%	143	4.57	1.123
	31-49%	107	4.54	1.075
	50%	20	4.80	1.196
	51-70%	81	4.33	1.095
	71-89%	64	4.50	1.141
	>90%	25	4.40	1.190
Q46 Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	<10%	183	3.89	1.181
	10-30%	142	4.01	1.329
	31-49%	107	4.07	1.207
	50%	20	4.35	.933
	51-70%	79	4.00	1.166
	71-89%	64	4.00	1.321
	>90%	25	3.76	1.393
Q47 Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	<10%	182	4.07	1.147
	10-30%	142	4.02	1.223
	31-49%	107	4.12	1.203
	50%	20	4.25	1.020
	51-70%	79	4.06	1.136
	71-89%	64	4.28	1.266
	>90%	25	3.92	1.382
Q48 Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	<10%	183	3.79	1.388
	10-30%	143	3.97	1.472
	31-49%	107	3.78	1.341
	50%	20	3.60	1.392
	51-70%	80	3.41	1.524
	71-89%	64	3.73	1.514
	>90%	25	3.64	1.630

Table 29 (continued)

		N	Mean	SD
Q49 It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	<10%	183	4.92	1.089
	10-30%	143	4.72	1.345
	31-49%	107	4.79	1.316
	50%	19	4.89	1.286
	51-70%	81	4.63	1.123
	71-89%	64	4.95	1.161
	>90%	25	4.72	1.208
Q50 People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	<10%	183	3.79	1.414
	10-30%	143	3.86	1.476
	31-49%	107	3.91	1.377
	50%	20	3.70	1.218
	51-70%	80	3.60	1.356
	71-89%	64	3.70	1.508
	>90%	25	3.40	1.384
Q51 The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	<10%	183	4.96	1.116
	10-30%	143	4.82	1.208
	31-49%	107	4.99	1.103
	50%	19	5.05	1.268
	51-70%	81	4.78	1.151
	71-89%	64	4.83	1.279
	>90%	25	4.68	1.492

Table 30

Mann Whitney U Test results based on teaching experience (Full)

Questions	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
My job is like a hobby to me.	-5.157*	.000
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	-.594	.552
It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	-.095	.925
I consider my job rather unpleasant.	-.978	.328
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	-3.503*	.000
I am often bored with my job.	-.784	.433
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	-1.782	.075
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	-.119	.905
I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	-2.305	.021
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	-1.103	.270
I definitely dislike my work.	-.774	.439
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	-1.899	.058
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	-1.072	.284
Each day of work seems like it will never end.	-1.477	.140
I like my job better than the average worker does	-1.904	.057
My job is pretty uninteresting.	-.631	.528
I find real enjoyment in my work.	-.263	.792
I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	-1.030	.303
If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	-1.342	.180
When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	-.560	.576
When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	-1.812	.070
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	-2.310	.021
When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	-.401	.688
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	-1.856	.064
If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	-3.691*	.000
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	-3.613*	.000
I voted in the last national election.	-7.629*	.000
I voted in the last state election.	-7.875*	.000
I voted in the last local (county) election.	-5.828*	.000
I voted in the last union election.	-5.344*	.000
I tried to influence others to vote.	-2.635*	.008
I attend political rallies.	-1.870	.061

Table 30 (continued)

	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)
I worked for a candidate during campaign.	-1.234	.217
I frequently discuss educational problems with fiends, coworkers, etc.	-2.336	.020
I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	-2.113	.035
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	-3.902*	.000
I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	-.277	.781
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	-1.445	.148
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	-1.619	.105
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	-.284	.776
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	-.514	.607
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	-3.207*	.001
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	-.875	.381
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	-3.671*	.000
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	-1.275	.202
I have ultimate control over my Student Growth Objectives (SGOs).	-1.540	.124

*Significant at .01 level.

Table 31

Mann Whitney U-Test results based on gender (Full)

Questions	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
My job is like a hobby to me.	-.376	.707
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	-.709	.478
It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	-2.508	.012
I consider my job rather unpleasant.	-.925	.355
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	-.120	.904
I am often bored with my job.	-3.154*	.002
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	-1.392	.164
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	-2.426	.015
I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	-.590	.555
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	-.733	.463
I definitely dislike my work.	-.484	.628
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	-1.674	.094
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	-.320	.749
Each day of work seems like it will never end.	-.746	.456
I like my job better than the average worker does	-1.815	.070
My job is pretty uninteresting.	-.052	.959
I find real enjoyment in my work.	-.397	.692
I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	-.143	.886
If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	-.968	.333
When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	-2.536	.011
When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	-1.000	.317
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	-2.910*	.004
When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	-1.855	.064
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	-.513	.608
If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	-1.839	.066
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	-3.618*	.000
I voted in the last national election.	-.094	.925

Table 31 (continued)

	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)
I voted in the last state election.	-1.687	.092
I voted in the last local (county) election.	-2.947*	.003
I voted in the last union election.	-1.339	.181
I tried to influence others to vote.	-1.843	.065
I attend political rallies.	-.072	.942
I worked for a candidate during campaign.	-.108	.914
I frequently discuss educational problems with fiends, coworkers, etc.	-1.700	.089
I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	-2.973*	.003
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	-2.393	.017
I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	-.834	.405
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	-1.454	.146
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	-.557	.578
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	-1.646	.100
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	-2.698*	.007
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	-.091	.928
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	-1.657	.097
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	-.066	.947
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	-1.968	.049
I have ultimate control over my Student Growth Objectives (SGOs).	-1.766	.077

Table 32

Kruskal-Wallis H Test results based on county region (Full)

Questions	Chi-sq.	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
My job is like a hobby to me.	.692	.708
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	4.090	.129
It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	2.110	.348
I consider my job rather unpleasant.	4.612	.100
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	.811	.666
I am often bored with my job.	4.455	.108
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	2.092	.351
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	10.172*	.006
I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	1.989	.370
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	4.671	.097
I definitely dislike my work.	1.060	.589
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	.037	.982
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	2.616	.270
Each day of work seems like it will never end.	1.957	.376
I like my job better than the average worker does	.921	.631
My job is pretty uninteresting.	2.991	.224
I find real enjoyment in my work.	1.401	.496
I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	1.888	.389
If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	.361	.835
When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	.421	.810
When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	.566	.754
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1.904	.386
When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	.346	.841
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	4.338	.114
If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	.797	.671
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	.466	.792
I voted in the last national election.	21.208*	.000
I voted in the last state election.	16.103*	.000

Table 32 (continued)

	Chi-sq.	Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)
I voted in the last local (county) election.	9.165*	.010
I voted in the last union election.	3.710	.156
I tried to influence others to vote.	1.151	.562
I attend political rallies.	.731	.694
I worked for a candidate during campaign.	6.180	.046
I frequently discuss educational problems with fiends, coworkers, etc.	6.990	.030
I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	11.720*	.003
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	13.062*	.001
I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	4.507	.105
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	.691	.708
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	1.176	.555
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	1.820	.403
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	6.059	.048
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	.330	.848
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	1.773	.412
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	.668	.716
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	.513	.774
I have ultimate control over my Student Growth Objectives (SGOs).	7.578	.023

Table 33

Kruskal-Wallis H Test results based on free or reduced lunch (Full)

Questions	Chi-sq.	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
My job is like a hobby to me.	1.562	.955
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.	7.000	.321
It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.	3.952	.683
I consider my job rather unpleasant.	11.662	.070
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	7.395	.286
I am often bored with my job.	5.132	.527
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	6.160	.406
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	7.823	.251
I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	7.627	.267
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	2.908	.820
I definitely dislike my work.	10.399	.109
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	6.144	.407
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	5.379	.496
Each day of work seems like it will never end.	4.110	.662
I like my job better than the average worker does	3.314	.769
My job is pretty uninteresting.	2.780	.836
I find real enjoyment in my work.	8.078	.232
I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	14.447	.025
If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps teaching that concept.	8.095	.231
When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	11.208	.082
When I really try, I can get through the more difficult students.	11.102	.085
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	9.123	.167
When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra force.	8.940	.177
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	6.998	.321
If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	9.894	.129
When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	8.540	.201
I voted in the last national election.	3.751	.710
I voted in the last state election.	3.640	.725

Table 33 (continued)

	Chi-sq.	Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)
I voted in the last local (county) election.	3.964	.682
I voted in the last union election.	6.622	.357
I tried to influence others to vote.	5.625	.466
I attend political rallies.	13.001	.043
I worked for a candidate during campaign.	19.105*	.004
I frequently discuss educational problems with fiends, coworkers, etc.	11.054	.087
I frequently discuss educational problems with government officials.	7.620	.267
I attend board of education meetings, union meetings, and/or other meetings in which educational issues are discussed.	4.898	.557
I contribute money, time, and/or resources to advance educational initiatives.	5.760	.451
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	7.594	.269
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	6.592	.360
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.	4.441	.617
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	3.485	.746
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	8.486	.205
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	6.056	.417
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.	5.461	.486
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	3.735	.713
I have ultimate control over my Student Growth Objectives (SGOs).	12.944	.044