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Principal Leadership Style, Teacher Motivation, and Teacher Retention

Willie E. Williams
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Willie E. Williams

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Review Committee

Dr. Mary Enright, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Valerie Worthington, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Victoria Latifses, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2018

Abstract

Principal Leadership Style, Teacher Motivation, and Teacher Retention

by

Willie E. Williams

MA, University of Oklahoma, 1998

BS, Johnson C. Smith University, 1981

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

The problem of teacher turnover in the United States has received significant attention from policymakers and district leaders. Improving teacher motivation is a concern and challenge for principals because they are faced with retaining highly qualified and capable teachers in the classroom. Researchers have indicated that principals can play a crucial role in motivating teachers. This nonexperimental correlational study used Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory and the leadership theories of Burns, Avolio, and Bass as a framework to address 2 research questions. The first research question examined the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation, and the second question addressed principal leadership style and teacher retention. The sample included 55 certified teachers working in public middle school and high school in a southeastern state. The teachers completed electronic versions of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work, and demographic questionnaire. For the first research question, results from a multiple linear regression showed transformational leadership to be a significant predictor of teacher motivation. For the second research question, a binary logistic regression did not support a relationship between principal leadership style and teacher commitment to teaching. The information gained from this study may benefit principals and teachers by informing leadership approaches for organizational change that may enhance teacher motivation.

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Dedication

I want to dedicate this achievement to Annie Lenora Davis Johnson, a young lady who was not afforded the opportunity to pursue her dreams and educational goals in her short lifetime. To my spouse, family, and friends for their unwavering support and encouragement to me in my effort to complete this process.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Public education is the most significant project accepted by many governments around the world. Moreover, it is the aim of public school in the United States that all children receive a quality education (Baker & LeTendre, 2005; Coley, 2009; Hill & Crevola, 2006; Leech & Fulton, 2002; Prather-Jones, 2011; Wagner, 2008). However, many school principals across the United States are finding it increasingly difficult to acquire and keep quality teachers (Kaliprasad, 2006; Muller, 2009). Teacher turnover is not unusual; however, when continual, it becomes problematic with time (Allensworth, 2009; Cave & Mulloy, 2010; Coggs, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009; Klasen & Chiu, 2010). Teacher attrition and retention are an ongoing concern, not only in the United States but also worldwide (Clotfeter, 2003; DeAneglis, 2013; Hong, 2010; Johnson, 2012; Kraf & Papay, 2012; Opfer, 2011). Ashiedu (2012) and Carroll (2010) estimated that the United States would need between 2.9 and 5.1 million teachers between 2008 and 2020 to offset the effects of teacher retirement and turnover.

Ingersoll and Perda (2009) defined *turnover* as the migration of teachers from one school district to another and the attrition of teachers leaving the teaching profession. According to Boyd, Grossman, Hamilton, Loeb, and Wyckoff (2009), more than 500,000 teachers in the United States leave their schools each year, 16% of whom retire and 84% of whom transfer to other schools or experience voluntary or involuntary professional attrition. Because communities are growing, schools and school districts across the

United States are struggling to keep quality teachers (Carroll & Foster, 2010; College Board, 2006; Guavino et al., 2006). Researchers on teacher turnover asserts that it is not unusual for skilled and experienced teachers to seek teaching positions at schools with higher-achieving students, fewer minority students, fewer disciplinary problems, and higher-income students; these schools are also typically safer (Boyd et al., 2009; Brown & Wynn, 2009; Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2011; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2007). The task of attracting and recruiting qualified teachers has school districts and principals searching to find sustainable solutions, particularly in the areas of math, science, and special education (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2006; Kinsey, 2006; Rafferty, 2002). Principals have started to use alternative teacher licensure, hiring of training paraprofessionals, and offering entry-level salaries that exceed the norm (Beesley, 2010; Laagna, 2009).

Experience matters, and when experienced teachers leave, they take knowledge, skills, and experience to their new positions (i.e., to postsecondary education, business, or corporate America) (Buchanan, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Skaalvik, 2011). Johnson (2012) found that first-year teachers are not successful in the classroom compared to more experienced teachers, and most vacant teaching positions are typically earmarked for first-year teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Johnson, 2012; Kerr & Berliner, 2002; Masters, 2003). Ingersoll and Perda (2009) found that achievement was impeded for urban students met with a constant revolving door of inexperienced teachers. Carroll and Foster (2010) argued that although new teachers may bring innovative ideas to teach, a learning curve hinders or delays the development of professional competence among new

hires. Johnson and Retelsdorf (2009) found that new teachers' effectiveness and proficiency improve with each year of teaching experience in over the course of 7 years. Teacher turnover, especially in hard-to-staff schools, disrupts efforts to build a high-quality organizational culture. It also negatively influences trust between teachers and students, and the ability of a school to coordinate many instructional programs (Brown & Hughes, 2008; Lasagna, 2009; Ghamrawi, 2013; Johnson & Retelsdorf, 2009; Thomas, 2010). To keep experienced and qualified teachers, principals must create a favorable work climate that will influence teachers' motivation (Blasé & Kirby, 2000; Can, 2009; Finnigan, 2010; Johnson, 2012). My focus in this study was to investigate the relationship between principal leadership styles, teacher motivation, and teacher retention.

Problem Statement

Starting in 2001, the Center for Education, Recruitment, Retention, and Advancement (CERRA) began issuing an annual teacher/administrator supply and demand survey to South Carolina's public school districts and individual schools (CERRA, 2012; Hirsch, 2004). CERRA (2001) developed the survey to find solutions to the growing problem of teacher attrition and to increase the retention rates of highly qualified teachers. CERRA (2012) concluded an average of 5,200 teachers within South Carolina's public-school districts leave the classroom and the teaching profession each year. Of the 5,200 teachers, 1,200 are retirees, and 11% to 30% of those who leave are new teachers who have 5 or fewer years of experience in the classroom (CERRA, 2012).

According to CERRA (2012), 5,746 public school teachers did not return to the teaching profession between 2007 and 2008. In the 2009-2010 school year, there was a

19% reduction in teachers from the previous year, with only 4,652 public school teachers leaving the teaching profession. The attrition rate decreased an additional 7% in 2010-2011, with approximately 4,287 teachers not returning to teaching. Approximately 11% of teachers who left the classroom were working in another school district in South Carolina. CERRA (2013) reported a 9% increase in the 2012-2013 school years, with the loss of 5,003 teachers. CERRA (2012) reported teacher turnover and retention continues at a disturbing trend, referring to 4,612 teachers who did not return to the classroom in the 2010-2011 school year and negatively affecting the school's efforts to improve student's achievement. Moreover, districts are cutting positions in response to funding shortages, and fewer than 2,200 student graduates are expected to teach in South Carolina teacher education programs each year.

Researchers have found having a supportive environment is essential for teachers' motivation to stay in the teaching profession. Teachers who feel pressured or controlled by their principals are more likely to respond by being more controlling of their students (Assor et al., 2005; Deci et al., 1991; Ryan, 2009; Van den Broeck et al., 2012). For example, pressure from principals to make sure students perform up to standards is one kind of pressure. Beginning teachers often use a control-motivated style to pressure students to think, feel, or behave in a specific way (Reeve, 2009). Eyal and Roth (2010) argued that few studies have examined the effects of various leadership styles on the motivation of supporters. Tait (2008) asserted that teaching is one of the few professions in which beginning teachers have the same responsibilities more experienced teachers,

and teachers must contend with job insecurity and classroom management (Fisher, 2011; Khan, 2012; McCarthy, 2009; Pearson, 2005).

Canrinus (2012) and Thoonen (2010) found that teachers' commitment increases when teachers internally accept organization goals as their own, which is an essential element to teachers' motivation and dedication to the profession of instruction. Factors that contribute to teachers' attrition or transferring to other schools include insufficient preparation time, limited mentoring support, poor working conditions, low salaries, curricular issues, lack of community support, and principals' leadership (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Jonathan & Henry, 2009; Seashore-Louis, 2010; Waddell 2010).

Background of the Problem

Teacher turnover is one of the leading problems facing principals and school districts today. Researchers have identified supportive environments essential for teachers' motivation to stay in the teaching profession. How principals use their leadership influences schools' organization, culture, and working conditions, which in turn influence teacher motivation, job satisfaction, and retention (Finnigan, 2010; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Martin & Dowson, 2011; Price, 2012). Ingvarson (2009) claimed that motivation depends on employees' perception of how satisfied they are with the way their organization operates. Several studies on leadership styles in school (e.g., Finnigan, 2010; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Ladd, 2009; Martin & Dowson, 2011; Price, 2012) have found that leadership style and teachers' perception of school leaders influence teacher retention.

Principals are responsible for facilitating and fostering collaboration, creating opportunities for learning, and helping to strengthen new teachers' sense of efficacy toward the teaching profession (Ahuja, 2007; Brown & Wynn, 2009; Denton 2009; Lekamge, 2010; Lynch, 2012). Lynch (2012) claimed school principals' roles as a disciplinarian and teachers' boss. Principals are leaders of personnel, government, and public relations, finance, and student academic performance. Consequently, it is important to keep teachers motivated in the implementation of educational reform policies and retaining teachers in academically struggling schools (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012; Butler, 2007; Cave & Mulloy, 2010; Finnigan, 2010; Pirkle, 2011; Thomas, 2011). Ashiedu and Scott-Ladd (2012) found that job satisfaction for teachers depends on having realistic workloads, manageable class sizes, available curriculum materials, career pathways, reasonable salaries, and opportunities for professional development

Principals now have the task of understanding what attracts and motivates teachers to remain in teaching positions (Ahuja, 2007; Denton, 2009; Lekamge, 2010). According to research by Hancock and Scherff (2010), principal support is considered central to teacher retention, and when that is missing, teachers are more likely to leave. To bring about improvement, principals must motivate teachers by communicating goals, aligning resources with goals, and fixing problems (Finnigan, 2010; Korkmaz, 2007). Teaching is an occupation that is more stressful than any other professional group regarding work-related motivation (Goswami, 2013; Jesus & Len, 2005; Khan, 2012; Kottler & Zehn, 2000; Roth, 2007).

Louis et al. (2010) concluded, “When principals and teachers share leadership, teachers’ working relationship with one another is stronger, and student achievement is higher” (p. 282). Schools that are committed to keeping and supporting effective teachers create an attractive environment that appeals to the most talented new teachers while nurturing accomplished teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Mancuso, Roberts, & White, 2010). My purpose in this nonexperimental, correlational study was to examine the relationship between principal leadership styles, teacher motivation, and teacher retention.

Conceptual Framework

The theoretical basis for this study focused on two theories: self-determination theory and leadership theory. A synopsis of these theories follows.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT), postulated by Deci and Ryan (1991, 1985, 2000), is a broad framework of human motivation that asserts humans’ innate needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness for best performance and subjective well-being. More than a few studies have supported the SDT approach to understanding work motivation within organizations (Gagne` & Deci, 2005, Thoonen, 2010; Wichmann, 2011). The main difference between SDT and other work motivation theories is SDT’s focus on the relative strength of autonomous versus controlled motivation, rather than on the total amount of motivation (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007). SDT replaced the extrinsic and intrinsic dichotomy with a more differentiated continuum of autonomous versus controlled motivations (Roth et al., 2007). Autonomous motivation

includes intrinsic motivation that comes from doing something because it is enjoyable and interesting or by the value of the activity has been into oneself (e.g., doing or working because it is fun). Autonomously and extrinsically motivated requires that people identify with the values of behavior for their own self-selected goals (Gagne` & Deci, 2005). Thus, *autonomy* is defined as endorsing one actions; when teachers feel they can direct their behavior and their choices reflecting their interest, goals, and values (Ryan & Weinstein, 2009; Kusurkar, Croiset, & Ten Cate, 2011; Thomas, 2010; Wichmann, 2011). Controlled motivation consists of external regulation according to (e.g., teachers who participate in school innovation projects because they feel they are obliged to do so because the principal wants them to, or because it is of relevance for their reputation). Self-determination theory considers extrinsic motivation from the angle of teachers' need for autonomy has appeared to be a critical factor in their motivation and job satisfaction (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional and in contrast with amotivation, which implies a lack of intention and motivation (Gagne` & Deci, 2005).

Teachers' sense of self-government at work could enable them to endure occasional frustrations and setbacks, allowing them to mitigate negative experiences that could lead to burnout and loss of energy (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009; Kusurkar et al., 2011; Thomas, 2010; Wichmann, 2011). *Competence* refers to experience and the knowledge of a subject and challenges exploration along with stretching of one's abilities. Teachers who desire to explore and master their craft might view themselves as competent. However, some teachers may perform their work tasks because of external

pressure or benefits associated with the work. Other teachers may engage in their work because they grasp the importance of working with children, making a social contribution and a difference (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Fernet, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009; Thomas, 2010; Watt, 2012). *Relatedness* is defined as a person's needs to feel a sense of being securely connected to others and significant in the eyes of others (Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995; Saunders & Saunders, 2001). Ryan and Deci (2002) suggested that human being's need for relatedness "reflects the homonymous aspect of the integrative tendency of life, the tendency to connect with and be integral to and accepted by others" (p. 7). Ryan and Weinstein (2009) asserted that high-stakes testing undermines the motivation of teachers and students. School principals have a considerable amount of influence on teachers' professional development, and teachers need the support of their principals and a collaborative environment in which to work (Mansfield, 2012; Wagner & Kegan, 2006). Deci et al. (1991) claimed that "relatedness involves developing secure and satisfying connections with others in one's social milieu" (p. 327).

Leadership Theory

Burns (1978) introduced transformation (TF) and transaction (TA) leadership theory. Bass (1985) built upon Burns' theory, differentiating between TA and TF. The transactional leadership style is based on a relationship with a series of exchanges and bargains between a leader (in this case, the principal) and a group being led (in this case, the teachers). This type of leadership is effective and elucidates expectations and goals but is less effective when it comes to developing the long-term potential of teachers. Two

main factors are associated with the transactional leadership style. First, transactional leaders rely on the use of positive and negative rewards, punishing undesired actions, and offering promotions for high-quality work. Transactional leaders usually interact with teachers when expectations are not met and provide negative feedback. Leaders intervene only to give feedback on failure to meet standards.

Transactional of leadership is considered management by expectation. Second, the transactional leadership style is an autocratic leadership style that hinders the followers' self-determination (Gagne & Deci, 2005). According to Eyal and Roth (2011), transactional leadership's emphasis on extrinsic rewards and monitoring followers' work activities will create a controlling environment that fosters high coercion and low self-determination.

Transformational leadership is sensitive to differences and meeting the needs of others (Currie & Lockett, 2007). Bass (1985) described transformational leaders according to four distinct characteristics: charismatic, inspirational, individual consideration, and intellectually stimulating. First, *charismatic* leaders act as role models and create a sense of shared identity with the organizational goals while instilling pride and confidence in followers that they can overcome obstacles. Second, *inspirational* leaders inspire and empower their supporters to accept and pursue challenging goals and missions enthusiastically. Third, *individual consideration* consists of behaviors, such as communicating personal respect to followers by giving them specialized attention, by treating each person as an individual, and by recognizing each one's unique needs. Finally, *intellectually stimulating* leaders can view old problems in new ways, articulate

these new ideas, and encourage followers to rethink their conventional practices and beliefs. According to Joo and Lim (2013), employees have a higher level of career satisfaction when they perceive (a) significant meaning, competence, self-determination, and (b) idealized influence from their leaders. Based on self-determination theory, transformational leadership will predict autonomous teacher motivation. Research on leadership styles has claimed that transformational leadership supports teachers' intellectual development and generates excitement in the organizational climate, whereas transactional leadership secures and maintains power teachers by rewarding or punishing to achieve school goals.

Summary of the Theoretical Framework

Afshari et al. (2011) found that supportive leadership encourages originality through confidence-building of followers, intrinsic motivation, and a supportive work environment. My purpose in this study was to identify and examine the connection between principal leadership style on teachers' motivation and retention using self-determination theory postulated by Ryan and Deci (2000). As depicted in Figure 1, I hypothesized that transformational leadership would lead to autonomous teacher motivation and retention, whereas transactional leadership would predict teacher-controlled motivation. The information gleaned from this study had the potential to help principals develop strategies to improve teacher motivation, thereby stabilizing teacher retention in their school.

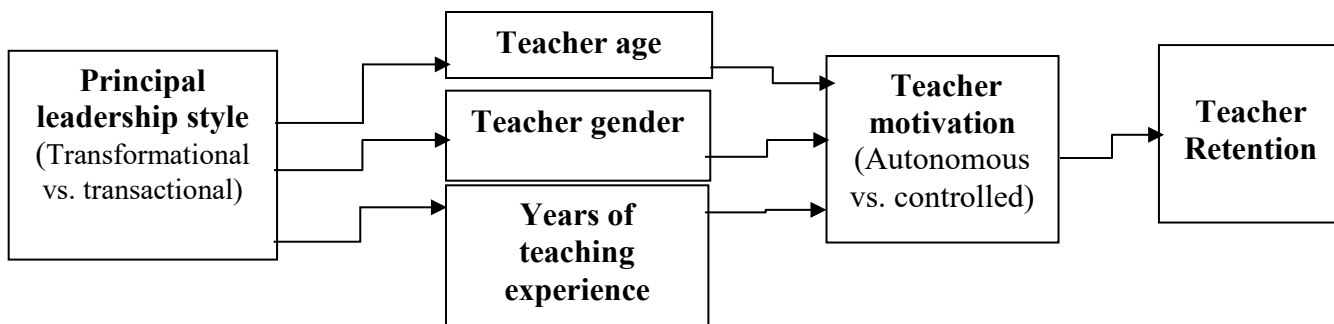


Figure 1. Hypothesized relationship between principal leadership style and teacher retention as moderated by teacher motivation.

Nature of the Study

This study used a quantitative, nonexperimental research design to investigate the correlation between principal leadership style, teacher motivation, and retention. I collected data using three instruments. First, I used the multifactor leadership questionnaire evaluation developed by Bass and Avolio (2004). This leadership questionnaire measures a full range of leadership behaviors perceived by the leader and the follower. Deci and Ryan's (2000) Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work scale served as the second instrument. It is a widely used instrument to measure autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Hetland, Jetland, Andreasen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011; Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Kasser, Davey, & Ryan, 1992). The third instrument took the form of a demographic questionnaire. In Chapter 3, I discuss the details regarding the research design and methodology.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study incorporated the conceptual framework and past research on the topic under investigation. I tested the following research questions and hypotheses (along with their corresponding null hypotheses):

RQ1: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher motivation?

H_{a1}: Principal leadership style is related to teacher motivation.

H₀₁: Principal leadership style is not related to teacher motivation.

RQ1a: To what extent do teachers' age, gender, and years of experience moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation?

H_{a1a}: Teachers' age, gender, and years of experience do moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation.

H_{01a}: Teachers' age, gender, and years of experience do not moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation.

RQ2: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher retention?

H_{a2}: Principal leadership style is related to teacher retention.

H₀₂: Principal leadership style is not related to teacher retention.

RQ2a: To what extent does teacher motivation moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher retention?

H_{a2a}: Teacher motivation moderates the relationship between principal leadership and teacher retention.

H_{02a}: Teacher motivation does not moderate the relationship between principal leadership and teacher retention.

Definitions of Terms

Autonomously motivated means being motivated by one's interest in the activity (i.e., intrinsic motivation) and because the value and regulation of the activity have been integrated within oneself (i.e., integrated extrinsic motivation) (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Controlled motivation consists of external regulation that reflects the degree to which one feels coerced or seduced by external contingencies or by their introjected counterparts (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Extrinsic motivation refers to seeking out innovation and encounters to extend and exercise one's competencies to explore and teach (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Job satisfaction is the extent to which job expectations are met, resulting in a positive feeling and lower absenteeism and turnover (Muller et al., 2009).

Morale refers to "the degree to which an employee feels competent about his/her work and work environment" (McKnight, Ahmad, & Schroeder, 2001, p. 467).

Motivation represents set of similar beliefs and emotions that influence professional and personal behavior; what moves a person to do something, such as begin a new career or learn to work efficiently and achieve potential (Bandura, 1997; Caninus, 2012; Green, Martian, & Marsh, 2007).

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their capabilities to carry out a course of action successfully (Bandura, 1987; Usher & Parjares, 2008).

Staff relations involves teachers' professional and social relationships with other teachers (Boyd et al., 2009).

Teacher attrition refers to the phenomenon of teachers leaving the teaching occupation altogether (Ingersoll, 2003).

Teacher retention refers to the rate of teachers who have remained or plan to stay in the same school or school system, or in the teaching profession in general (Moore-Johnson, 2004).

Teacher turnover is the phenomenon of teachers moving from or leaving their teaching jobs (Ingersoll, 2003).

Turnover intention is the phenomenon of teachers considering quitting their teaching careers (Firth, Moore, & Loquet, 2004).

Work motivation refers to "A set of energetic forces that originate both within and beyond an individual is being to initiate work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Latham & Pinder 200, p. 486).

Assumptions

The following assumptions applied to this study. First, I assumed that all teachers participating in this survey would respond out of their own free will and a desire to aid in evaluating the relationship between school principals' practices and school teachers' motivation. Second, I assumed that all teachers will answer survey questions honestly and not collaborate with other teachers. Third, I assumed that teachers responding to the survey would comprehend the self-administering instructions and answer questions thoughtfully and honestly.

Limitations

Creswell (2012) asserted that limitations are potential problems for any study, and researchers are responsible for stating those within the study. This study involved a survey of teachers in rural schools in a southeastern state. Some teachers may have chosen not to participate in this study based on their personal feelings about why they were planning to leave or had left the school. The participants in this study were not randomly selected and not generalized to representatives of all school teachers in the United States. In this study, I did not address all teacher retention factors; the teacher retention factors in this study were limited to those addressed in the research findings in the literature review.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study involved teachers in a southeastern state, which included middle school and high school. The study did not include principals or teachers from kindergarten and elementary school.

Significance of the Study

To bring about improvement, principals need to motivate teachers by communicating goals, aligning resources with goals and fixing problems (Finnigan, 2010; Korkmaz, 2007). This survey study could provide additional statistical data to fill gaps in the literature regarding employed principals to help principals and schools to identify the motivation factors that will assist in keeping teachers in their schools. Self (2015) authored an article in the local newspaper titled, “With Too Few teachers, SC Schools Look Overseas to Fill Classrooms.” In this article, Self-reported that Carroll and Fosters

(2010) claimed hiring new teachers to keep the pipeline supplied is no longer a workable solution, because the new teachers are leaving, and a surge of experienced teachers are retiring from the profession. Richardson, Short, and Prickett (1993, p. 171) asserted, “Without teachers who are motivated to teach, the search for excellence will be in vain.”

Implications for Social Change

Understanding the complexities of teacher motivation could provide insight into how to enhance teacher motivation more broadly (Mansfield et al., 2012), which could support the goal of maintaining a high-quality teaching force. Principals are responsible for continuous school improvement, and that calls for unique leadership qualities in meeting the demands of a changing society with global needs. The results from this study had the potential to help principals understand the long-term effects of their support for new teachers, and not to support their veteran teachers better. Principals who realize and understand the differences among teachers may be more effective at curbing teacher turnover and strengthening the community within their schools.

Summary

Educating a diverse population of students enrolled in schools throughout the United States is an ever-increasing challenge for many teachers. A lot depends on implementation at the classroom level. It is vital that educational leaders look carefully at how to keep teachers in the field of education. Quality, intensity, and administrative activity significantly influence teacher motivation through strong leadership (Brown & Hughes, 2008; U.S. Department of Education, 2010). The literature on leadership styles shows that principals play a vital role in teacher retention. Ladd (2009) found that

teachers' perceptions of their school principal, measured through school-level averages of responses to school climate surveys, are most predictive of teachers' intentions to remain in the school or to find alternative jobs. The role teachers play are essential in the success of every educational policy and curriculum; however, if they are poorly motivated, the question remains about how they will motivate their students in the class (Day, 2012; deJesus & Lens, 2005; Lambert, 2004; Martinek, 2012). Davis and Wilson (2000) found that principals' empowerment of their teachers affected teacher motivation.

My purpose in this study was to investigate whether principals' leadership styles affect teacher motivation and teacher retention. In Chapter 2, the review of related literature, I provide a detailed analysis of the current literature related to leadership styles, motivation, and teacher retention. In Chapter 3, I present the methodology of the research study, which details the various aspects of a noncorrelation experiment.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The process of acquiring and keeping quality teachers is a continual battle for educational leaders at all levels. Teachers are leaving the classroom and the teaching profession each year (Boyd et al., 2009; Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Between 1988 and 2008, the percentage of teachers leaving schools and quitting the profession rose from 9.8% to 13.1% (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012).

Moreover, the departure of qualified and talented teachers weakens the teaching profession, because they take with them a considerable amount of knowledge, skills, and experience (Buchanan, 2009; Hancock & Scherff, 2010). Scherer (2001) stressed that teachers typically require 5 to 8 years of experience to master their profession; therefore, classrooms become recurring training grounds because teachers are leaving the classroom before becoming experts, only to be replaced by another set of novice teachers. Hursh (2007), found schools that serve a large population of minorities students, or that are socially and economically disadvantaged, are more likely to have a high attrition rate of teachers leaving the classroom. The replacement teacher is typically a first-year teacher that are less efficient than more experienced teachers, making it challenging to build instructional capacity and ensure students in all classrooms have effective teachers (Kraft et al., 2012). Teacher turnover erodes schools' efforts to coordinate curriculum, track, and share relevant information about students' movements from grade to grade, and maintain productive relationships with parents and the local community (Donald & Johnson, 2011, p. 48.). In this literature review, I will focus on the following topics

related to teacher motivation: (a) literature search method, (b) conceptual framework, (c) review of the literature on critical variables, (d) critical analysis of the literature, and (e) summary and conclusions.

Literature Search Strategy

I used several strategies to search the literature on teacher career trajectories, teacher motivation, principal leadership, attrition, and retention. First, articles were identified through computerized reference databases and focused on published articles or reports, doctoral dissertations from 1984 to 2015, and peer-reviewed journal articles and conference papers. The databases included Academic Search Complete, Education Research Complete, Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse (ERIC), Emerald Management, MEDLINE with full text, Opposing View Points, ProQuest Central, PsycArticles, PsycINFO, PubMed, SAGE Premier, Science Direct; Scholar works, SocINDEX with Full Text searches, scholarly books, and electronic dissertations. Resources for this study were obtained from Walden University and local university libraries' Internet search engines, which included EBSCO, Google Scholar, and JSTOR. I searched these databases for all publications that included terms related to teacher motivation (i.e., *teacher careers, teacher retention, teacher motivation, teacher turnover, teacher attrition, principal leadership, and leadership theories*).

Following this, I used Google and other search engines for references to research or any other published or unpublished studies or collection of data. The searches produced more than 250 studies that narrowed down using the abstracts referencing teacher motivation, retention, and attrition. If an abstract or study did not meet the

research criteria, are excluded from consideration. The following topics emerged from the search: leadership styles, principal preparation, working conditions, teacher preparation, teacher career cycle, remuneration, mentoring, and support. A follow-up search strategy included reviewing reference sections of all retrieved articles to identify any additional relevant publications. After completing another series of search method, no other available quantitative studies are located on teacher motivation.

Conceptual Framework

The reasons that individuals are motivated to start or leave any profession are vast and complex. To better understand the motivation and to answer the research questions concerning teacher motivation, there is a need to provide a guiding definition of *motivation*.

Motivation can be broadly defined as “an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior” (Woolfolk, 2007, p. 372). Guay et al. (2010, p. 712) defined *motivation* “the reasons underlying behavior.” The investigation of the motivational process and dynamics has long been a focus of study for educational psychology (Lai, 2011; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). Various theories address what motivate teachers. Researchers have found it difficult to conceptualize teachers’ motivation and needs because their responsibilities and the school environments differ (Kocabas, 2009). Studies on motivation often distinguish between intrinsic motivation, in which individuals engage in behavior out of enjoyment, and extrinsic motivation, which is motivation governed by reinforcement contingencies (Lai, 2011).

Bandura's (1977, 1997) social learning theory and Rotter's (1966) internal-external locus of control theory have provided the conceptual lens for a considerable amount of research on teacher motivation. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is a person's belief about his or her ability to be successful at a given task. Locus of control theorist asserts individuals are motivated to the extent they feel they are in control of their success and failures (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Both theories are essential for predicting planned behavior and competence beliefs that are relevant; however, these theories do not quantify to what extent motivated behavior is internalized within oneself (Fernet, 2008; LaGuardia, 2009). SDT addresses individual differences in people's orientations toward the initiation and regulation of their behavior and distinguishes between different types of motivation that depend on upon perceived autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1993). Complementing SDT, Bruns's theory of leadership served as the second dominant theory underlying the conceptual framework for this study.

Self-Determination Theory

According to self-determination theory, regardless of whether individuals are consciously aware or not, when given a choice, they will gravitate toward the environments that support their needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This theory characterizes motivation as a natural function of human development because people move forward and away from different challenges that are present in unusual contexts throughout their lifespans (Cullen & Greene, 2011). Deci and Ryan proposed three basic psychological needs that promote satisfaction autonomy, competence, and relatedness. These three basic psychological needs, in turn, enhance employees' work outcomes in six ways: (a)

persistence and maintained behavior change; (b) adequate performance, particularly on tasks requiring creativity, cognitive flexibility, and conceptual understanding; (c) job satisfaction; (d) positive work-related attitudes; (e) organizational citizenship behaviors; and (f) psychological adjustment and well-being (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Research has shown that whereas autonomous motivation facilitates efficient performance and well-being, controlled motivation can detract from those outcomes, mainly if the task requires creativity, cognitive flexibility, or deep processing of information. Self-determination theory does not suggest individuals need to move through several various stages based on specific behaviors (Gagne & Deci, 2005). SDT posits that autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional; furthermore, these forms of motivation stand in contrast to amotivation, which involves a lack of intention and motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Ryan and Deci (2006) defined *autonomy* as individuals' choices that reflect their interests and values, along with the need to carry out a task of their choosing. *Competence* refers to the person's desire to discover and feel confident in the skills, and relatedness is the sense of being securely connected to others. SDT replaced extrinsic and intrinsic dichotomy with a more differentiated continuum of autonomous versus controlled motivations (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007). In self-determination theory, both autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are intentional, and together they stand in contrast to amotivation, which implies a lack of intention and motivation (Chen, 2010; Cullen & Greene 2011; Hein, 2012; Gagne, 2005). Autonomous motivation is an individual who is motivated by his or her interest in an

activity. They are intrinsically motivated because the value and regulation of the activity have been integrated and generated from within. Controlled motivation consists of external regulation that reflects the degree to which a person feels forced or seduced by external contingencies or by their interjected counterparts (Gagne & Deci, 2005). This theory also distinguishes the difference between conduct that is deliberate or motivated (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Kusurkar et al., 2011; Ratelle & Thomas, 2010; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009; Thoonen, 2010; Wichmann, 2011). SDT asserts a difference between amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation) and motivation. Amotivation involves not having an intention to act, whereas motivation involves intentionality SDT discusses amotivation, which occurs when individuals see no point in engaging in an activity (Cullen & Greene, 2011). The concepts of autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and amotivation are associated with a person's relationship to an activity, whether it is authoring a report, or just doing one's job. Eyal and Roth (2010) contended for extrinsically motivated behavior to become autonomous; it first needs to be internalized in three diverse ways. Introjection is defined as the internalization that requires teachers to take on values and regulations (external) of behavior without accepting it as their own. In its place, an individual applies contingencies of approval or worth to themselves enforced by others. Therefore, individuals tend to feel an inner pressure to behave and their self-esteem is contingent on their behavior. This type of behavior is controlled because the regulation is now within oneself. Identified regulation occurs when a person has identified the importance of the activity for himself or herself. Moreover, the person performs the behavior entirely autonomously, although he or she does not find the activity inherently

interesting (Bieg, Backes & Mittag, 2011; Cullen & Greene, 2011; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007).

The autonomous motivation for teachers refers to teachers' thoughts and feelings that are positively associated with personal accomplishment and negatively associated with exhaustion (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007). Roth et al. (2007) maintained that research studies had confirmed the importance of autonomous motivation for teaching, especially in the initial phase of a teacher's career, because many teachers do strive for genuine self-realization and accomplishment in their work. Self-determination theory provides a better understanding of intentional motivated teachers' behavior and controlled types of intentional regulation and the principal's influence on teaching staff (Feinberg, & Tal, 2009; Grove, Dixon, & Pop, 2009; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon & Kaplan, 2007; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). Motivated actions are self-determined to the extent in which teachers are engaged in volitionally and endorsed by the teachers entirely (Cullen & Greene, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Roth et al., 2007).

Burns's Theory of Leadership Styles

Transformational and transactional leadership offers a valuable perspective on leadership theory. Burns (1978) proposed the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. He asserted that leadership in an organization is a process in which one person successfully exerts influence over others to reach desired objectives. Bass (1985) added to Burn's research, stressing the difference in transformational leadership and transactional leadership in addition to introducing a third leadership style, laissez-faire leadership. In 1991, Avolio and Bass suggested three types of leadership and

assigned them nine distinct characteristics: five to transformational (inspirational motivation-charisma, idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration), three to transactional (contingent reward, management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive) and one to laissez-faire.

Transformational leadership. According to SDT, autonomous motivation for teaching, by all accounts, is associated with transformational leadership (Eyal & Roth, 2010). Transformational leaders create and put into practice clear visions for their organization, strengthening and motivating their staff toward higher standards, and have established credibility (Pepper, 2010). Jantzi (2005) described transformational leadership style as a leader that focuses on appealing to a faculty's higher level of personal commitment. The transformational leader typically inspires followers to do more than initially expected. Ruhaar and Sanders (2010) assert there is a definite relationship between occupational self-efficacy and transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership has four components. The first element is charisma. Charismatic leaders can provide the vision and have a sense of the mission; they instill pride, which translates into respect and trust by the staff, along with increased optimism. The second component is an inspiration. Leaders can inspire, empower followers into enthusiastically accepting and pursue challenging goals and complete the missions. The third component is an individual consideration. This element focuses on communication, personal respect to followers, attention, treating all staff members individually, and recognizing each employee's unique needs. The final component of transformational

leadership is intellectually stimulating. Intellectually stimulating leaders are skillful at looking at the old problem in brand-new ways, articulating new ideas, and encouraging staff and others to rethink their traditional practices and ideas (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Choi, 2006; Finnigan, 2010; Sidani, 2007). Effective principals can look at old problems in a brand-new way and come up with new ideas, in addition to encouraging staff and others to rethink their conventional practices.

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on continuing the compelling works from the past and transferring them to the future. This leadership style involves providing a productive academic environment and is most appropriate for the daily management and organizational needs of the school. According to Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006), transactional leaders are not necessarily interested in people's personal development but focus on rules, procedures, and job descriptions to accomplish the organization's goals and expectations (Sergiovanni, 2007). Transactional leaders take a direct approach to managing and motivating employees to carry out their work with the help of external motivators (Bass, 2000; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Pepper, 2010). Transactional leadership has three components (Paraschiv, 2013). The first element is a contingent reward, a process of the mutual transaction in which a leader is trying to motivate employees through rewards and promises. This style of leadership is not linked to does not motivate employees to do anything beyond what is stated within their contracts, which imply most employees work within the framework of their self-interest (Paraschiv, 2013). The second component is management by exception (active); leaders are actively observing their employees' performance and correcting their mistakes.

Management by exception (passive) is leaders who will only act or intervene in organizational problems when it requires their direct attention and strict action. The third component is a laissez-faire style of leadership in which the leader never intervenes. This type of leadership is the most passive form of leadership; employees have unlimited freedom.

Laissez-faire leadership. Aydin (2013) asserted that laissez-faire leadership is the absence of leadership, with little or no interaction between the leader and the followers. Laissez-faire leadership style is the third part of transactional leadership according to Bass (2000). Laissez-faire leader gives complete autonomy to employees. Employees can complete their duties on their time frame. The laissez-faire leader does not that care of the needs and development of employees and wishes that things to continue, the way they are (Cemaloglu, Sezgin, & Kilnic, 2012). The laissez-faire leader rejects responsibility, delays in decision making, does not provide feedback and makes no effort to meet the needs of the follower (Aydin, 2013). There is a negative relationship between the satisfaction, performance, and motivation of the followers and the actions of the laissez-faire leader (Rowold & Scholtz, 2009).

Summary of Conceptual Framework

Building on self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) described, my study hypothesized transformation leadership would predict teachers' autonomous motivation and retention, whereas transactional leadership would predict teachers' -controlled motivation leading to attrition. A transformational form of leadership and teacher motivation indirectly affects the quality of teaching practices (Thoonen et al., 2010).

Review of the Literature on the Key Variables

Several themes emerged from the literature review to explain teacher motivation. This review will focus on three themes that appear in the literature. The first section describes the teacher career cycle. The second section reviews factors affecting teacher retention, and the last part describes the roles of principals.

Teacher Career Cycle

Teachers' careers are considered to consist of two parts, pre-service and in-service. Pre-service refers to the preparation program traditionally offered by a college or university, and in-service is the period between a teacher's initial entry into the profession through retirement or another form of exit from the teaching profession (Eros, 2011). Day and Gu (2006) performed a quantitative analysis of the different stages of a teacher's professional career and identified a teacher's professional life phase (PLP) motivation. The authors identified six professional phases and revised them into three teacher professional life phases (PLPs) related to a teacher's experience and relationship with motivational and demotivational factors.

Phase 1: Early career. The first phase (0 – 7 years of experience) is critical for teacher motivation for those who are just entering the teaching profession. A teacher's commitment, well-being, identity, and effectiveness will vary during these years. Novice teachers may leave the profession if they perceive they are ineffective. According to Day et al. (2006), the amount of support, they receive from their school, department heads, and student behavior in the first three years all impact motivation for teachers who are just starting their careers. Wolters and Daughert (2007) maintain the first initial phases of

a teacher's career are the most challenging and self-efficacy grows with years of experience. Commitment stay is lower for teachers with advanced degrees. Guarino et al.'s (2006) study of teacher retention found teachers who achieved high scores on their college entrance examinations were more likely to leave teaching within four years, compared to teachers who received lower scores on their college entrance examinations. Also, the attrition rate is higher for teachers who hold advanced degrees than for teachers with bachelor's degrees (Kirby et al., 1999). However, Adam (1996) found elementary teachers in a large Texas school district with only bachelor's degrees are 68% more likely to leave teaching beyond a bachelor's degree.

Phase 2: Mid-career. During the second phase (8 -23 years), teachers are managing role changes, growing tensions, and transitions that challenge their motivation and commitment. Kooji and colleagues (2008) suggest teachers in the middles or late stages of their careers are age-related physical and psychological factors that influence work motivation. During this time, some teachers hold positions of responsibility, with the possibility of progression to a higher level in their careers and their personal lives.

However, as teachers progress in their career, their workload has also increased. Negative motivational factors include increasing workloads requiring more responsibility, lack of support within the school or outside the school, poor student behavior, achieving work-life balance and career stagnation (Muller et al., 2009). Day (2012) claimed teachers' private lives could become intertwined with problems at work due to unavoidable and interrelationships between professional teaching demands and personal investment.

Phase 3: Late career. The years of the third phase (24 -30 plus years) are critical for teachers in sustaining motivation and the ability to cope with change, as motivation declines for those teachers looking forward to retirement. The closer to retirement in their teaching careers teachers' motivation and commitment to their profession, and student learning may be compromised by a lack of school support, and students' disruptive behavior (Muller et al., 2009; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Organizational support along with changing external and the internal working condition can influence teachers' behavior towards teaching in the classroom. Teachers may have mixed emotions and psychological factors that are age-related health may influence motivation, force job termination, reassignment, or wanting to leave an unrewarding profession (Kooij et al., 2008;). According to Day (2012), without organizational support, teachers may find it challenging and stressful to teach efficiently as their commitment and resilience diminish. Kelchtermans (2005) found that education reform produces emotions that cause teachers to resist or support changes in the classroom. Similarly, Mansfield et al. (2012) claim teachers' well-being and mental health are becoming professional issues and concerns in programs.

Factors That Influence Teacher Retention

Teaching is considered a profession that is “emotionally taxing and potentially frustrating” (Lambert et al., 2006, p.105). This group of professionals is an essential part of our nation's future (Bishay, 1996). Day and Leitch (2001, p.712) claimed to teach at its best requires motivation, commitment, and emotional attachment, and this interaction has a central role in the program of teacher education and continuing professional

development in all phases of teachers' lives. This section of the literature review explores the following factors influencing teacher retention: (a) teacher motivation, (b) teacher preparation, (c) remuneration, (d) working conditions, and (e) demographic characteristics.

Teacher motivation. Teacher motivation is fundamental to teaching and the learning process; however, many teachers are not motivated (Jesus & Lens, 2005). The role of teacher motivation and encouragement in subsequent retention and effectiveness has attracted increasing awareness to a critical factor in the sustainability of a quality educational system (Eres F., 2011; Malawi & Selemani-Meke, 2013).

Motivation is defined differently from one person to another, and what motivates people may not have the same effect on for another. Muller et al., (2009) stated that “qualified and motivated employees are considered to be a key factor for organizational success” (p.579). Sawchuk (2010) discovered teacher motivation serves as one of the most fundamental concepts in school improvement. Whereas, Bennell (2004) argued teacher motivation is a compilation of all the psychological processes that influenced their behavior toward the achievement of educational goals, and these psychological processes cannot be because of environmental challenges and organizational constraints that affect the achievement of educational goals.

Sinclair (2008) surveyed 211 pre-service teachers and identified ten motivators consisted of previous research studies: (1) desire to work with students; (2) desire to make a difference; (3) teaching as a “calling;” (4) a love of teaching or a particular subject; (5) the influence of others, (6) a desire to impart knowledge; (7) perceived

benefits and/or convenience of teaching, teacher work schedule; (8) career security and salary; (9) perceived ease of teaching; and (10) social status that comes along with teaching. These motivators also are the same across gender, ethnic and socio-economic status. An earlier study by Sinclair, Dowson, and McInerney (2006, p. 1137) revealed that the motivation to teach changes, “particularly in response to “real-life” teaching experiences.

Hellsten and Prytu (2010) found teachers were motivated to enter the profession by both intrinsic motivation (e.g., desire to work with children and make a difference and personal and professional development) and extrinsic motivation (i.e., material benefits and job security).

Teacher preparation. The role of teacher preparation programs has overlooked and its impact on teacher retention (Darling-Hammond, 2010, 2003). Teachers that are beginning their careers report a disconnection between their post-secondary coursework and actual teaching in the classroom. Kaufman and Al-Bataineh (2011) asserted the majority of undergraduate teaching programs do not offer classes that educate teachers-in-training on the skills of classroom management, problem-solving in the classroom, and collaboration between teachers and principals. Thus, not providing teachers with the hands-on teaching experience they need in the classroom. Darling-Hammond et al. (2002) found teachers that who feel that they are well prepared for teaching are much more likely to plan to stay in teaching than those who feel that are poorly prepared.

Yost (2006) argued that is necessary for student teachers in their post-secondary coursework gain teaching experience that connects with the coursework, which will in

turns, increase confidence and self-efficacy, encouraging higher levels of competence in the first year of teaching. Szecis and Spillman (2012) asserted that teacher education programs ought to seek to encourage minorities to choose the teaching profession, because of the disproportionate balance of students of color in the classroom and teachers in classrooms across America.

Alternative teaching programs. Inadequately prepared teachers from alternative routes to teaching is suggested to be part of the problem because they leave schools in high-needs areas as well as traditional teacher preparation. Greenlee and Brown (2009) found teachers who are trained in alternatively certified programs are less prepared. Alternative route candidates in Houston and New York City experienced over 50% attrition after three years and were found to be less efficient (Body et al., 2006; Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). A study by Henke (2000), on alternative teacher survival rates, mentions the National Center for Education Statistics report that reported 49% of uncertified nontraditional teachers left within five years, compared to only 14% of certified traditional teachers. However, Fowler (2008) study discovered the rate of new teachers leaving was 44% over three years for the Massachusetts Initiatives for New Teachers (MINT) programs.

Remuneration. Compensation and other incentives are factors that motivate and influence teacher retention. According to Marvel et al. (2007), approximately 15% of public school teachers who left their school for another school in 2004-2005 reported they did so for better salaries or benefits. The National Center for Educational Statistics (2008), reported teachers who left the teaching profession, 25% of mathematics and

science teachers, in addition to 23% of all other teachers, left in search of better salaries and benefits. Trends in teacher quality have correlated teacher pay (Corcoran et al., 2004). Another study by Kaufman and Al-Bataineh (2011), found many teachers, including beginning teachers, believe that their salary does not compensate them for the time and effort they put into their assignments (Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Darling-Hammond (2010) claims that teachers' salaries have been declining since the 1990s compared to those of other professions. Moreover, depending on the region and professional field, teachers may earn 15% to 30% less than other individuals with a college degree (Darling-Hammond, 2010). It is suggested that there is a need for more competitive wages and better working conditions, especially for teachers in high demand fields such as math and science (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011; Loeb & Myung, 2010).

Some states have resorted to using incentive programs to retain teachers, offering to pay student loans and increasing the pay for beginning teachers (Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Arkansas, for example, paid new teachers a \$2,000 bonus each year for their first three years of teaching providing they remain within the district, and New York City offered new teachers a \$5,000 beginning bonus along with a \$400 monthly housing stipend for two years (Spradlin & Prendergast, 2006). Whereas the incentives attracted highly qualified teachers, they were not designed to retain them once they complete their contract (Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Loeb and Myung (2010) concluded that teachers might respond to higher wages; however, this is not a change in the labor market but a variation in salaries between districts. Clotfelter et al. (2008) contend states and

districts have shown little interest in ongoing financial bonuses or other forms of salary designed to attract and keep qualified teachers in low-performing schools. Darling-Hammond (2010) argued that teacher's salary is more critical at the beginning of a teacher's career; whereas administrative support and working conditions influence more experienced teachers' transfers from one school to another.

Working conditions. Teachers working conditions do play a significant role in attracting, developing, and retaining effective teachers. Professional working conditions that allow teachers to be effective are essential and critical to teacher decisions whether they stay in a school or even in the profession is the principal support, strong co-workers, and opportunities to participate in decisions (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Helen Ladd (2011) defined work conditions in her study to included "the physical features of the workplace, the organizational structure, and the sociological, political and psychological and educational features for the work environment" (p.237).

Professional conditions that allow teachers to be effective are essential and critical to teacher decisions whether they stay in a school or even in the profession (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Student behavior is a factor affecting a teacher's career decision. Disruptive behavior by in the classroom by students does negatively influence teacher motivation and one of the leading causes of stress and teachers job dissatisfaction (Agezo, 2010; Corbell & Kalogrides, 2011; Reiman, 2010; Salifu & Agbenyega, 2013). Agezo (2010) examined the impact of disruptive student behavior on teacher motivation and found that disruptive student behavior affects teachers' enthusiasm, love, and passion for their profession, thus moving them to seek another profession. Geving (2007) found

that poor student behavior is a significant contributor to teacher stress, especially at the secondary school level.

Numerous research studies found that teachers reported leaving schools with poor working environments, large minority populations, and low-income students (Borman & Dowling; Boyd et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond & Luxzak, 2005; Ladd, 2009, 2011; Loeb & Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Research conducted by Boyd et al. (2005) and Hanushek et al. (2004) found teachers preferred higher-achieving students and highly qualified teacher stand more likely to transfer or quit when teaching low-achieving students. Teachers in more advantaged communities experience more comfortable working conditions, including smaller class sizes and pupil loads, and have more influence in decisions (Darling-Hammond, 2010). In hard-to-staff schools, this may mean students are more likely to have new and inexperienced teachers (Goodpaster, Adedokun, & Weaver, 2010). In contrast, Johnson et al. (2012, p. 4) claimed that teachers were not leaving because of student demographics but “the conditions in which they must teach, and their students are obliged to learn.” According to Scafidi et al. (2003), Elementary teachers in Georgia moved from schools with majority-minority student populations and from low-performing schools to higher performing schools with lower minority populations.

Principal support is essential and related to working conditions. Research studies conducted by Darling-Hammond (1997) and Ingersoll (2001, 2002) concluded teachers’ beliefs about principal support, resources for teaching, and teacher input into decision-making strongly influenced their decision to leave the school or the profession.

Demographic characteristics. Dissatisfaction with the job, starting a family, or retirement all result in teacher attrition (Guarino et al., 2006; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). Several research studies have revealed characteristics such as age, gender, race, or ethnicity affect an individual's decision to enter teaching and to remain in a school (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012; Boyd et al., 2009; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Guarino et al., 2006).

Age. Studies on age reveal both younger and older teachers are leaving the teaching profession. Attrition takes the form of a U-shaped curve, with young and new teachers leaving the profession of instruction within the first five years. Similarly, the average age of teacher retirement is between 50 and 59 (Adams, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Carroll & Foster, 2010; Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Joerger, 2011; Kirby et al., 1999; Murnane, 1984; Singer & Willet, 1988). The National Center for Education Statistics (2005) reported the average beginning age of teachers entering the workforce in 1999-2000 was 29 because teachers are no longer entering teaching in their early twenties, straight out of college. Henke et al. (2000), using longitudinal data from 1993-1994 Baccalaureate and Beyond surveys, estimated a four-year attrition rate of about 30% overall and about 20% of teachers who entered teaching directly after college. According to Ingersoll (2001), retirement only counts for 12% of the total attrition rate. A meta-analysis by Borman and Dowling (2008) showed teachers who are 51 years of age or older are nearly 2.5 times more likely to quit teaching than teachers who are 50 or younger. Harris and Adams (2007) claimed one reason for teachers' early retirement might be the ratio of pension to salary in teaching is quite high.

According to Carroll and Foster (2010), many teacher retirement policies and pension are at odds with the education system. Retirement plans have an inherent enticement for retiring at or near the age of 55. Moreover, if teachers want to stay beyond the usual years of service retirement date, their pension could decline in benefits.

Gender. Women make up most teachers in the workforce and are 37% more likely to leave than males (Hughes, 2012). Some studies found men leave the classroom, but they choose to change roles and move up the career ladder (Borman & Dowling, 2006; Guarino et al., 2006; Ingersoll, 2001). Several researchers found most females exit the teaching profession to start a family or to be at home with their children and 33% of females return to the profession of instruction within a 14-year period (Allred & Smith, 1984; Girssmer & Hudson, 1991; Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Ingersoll, 2001; Kirby & Kukula-Acevedo, 2009; Murnane, Singer, & Willet, 1989; Stinebrickner, 2002).

Race/ethnicity. Borman and Dowling (2006) found Whites are more likely to leave teaching than non-Whites. Although research suggests White, female teachers are more likely to exit the profession; minority teachers are starting to leave at a higher rate than White teachers (Ingersoll & May 2011). According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) (2010), 8% of Non-Hispanic teachers left the profession in 2008-2009 while 9% of African-Americans teachers left and 5.6% of Hispanic teachers left. There is an emerging concern about the under-representation of minority teachers in classrooms. Villegas and Davis (2007) stated more significant numbers of insider experiences would help build bridges between cultures and Bennett et al. (2006) and Zirkel (2002) asserted minority students need stronger role models. However, Henke,

Chen, Geis, and Knepper (2000) reported there were no differences in gender regarding teacher retention and found no relationship between teacher ethnicity and retention. The traditional practice of hiring new teachers has not been proven a reliable solution to the problem (Balu et al., 2010). A study by Prather-Jones (2011) indicated retention is strongly influenced by teachers' perception of regarding the support they receive from their principal; teachers are more likely to or want to leave teaching when they feel they are receiving inadequate support.

Role of Principals

The principal is the key person in creating an ideal school. Managerial knowledge and skills are of the highest importance for in-class educational development, and they play a significant role in the overall success of the school. Teachers who are dissatisfied with their work exhibit lower commitments and are at a higher risk of leaving the profession (Klassen & Ming Chiu, 2010). Principals' leadership that is supportive creates an adequate buffer against job stress (Wang & Howell, 2012).

Teachers' Classroom Autonomy

Classroom autonomy is in the principal's hands; teachers desire more control over choosing instructional techniques, textbooks, classroom discipline, and grading policies (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Cave and Molly (2010) claimed teachers disappointed by their profession would seek to reduce their stress level by lowering their professional efforts, attaching lower values to new programs they are expected to implement. Classroom autonomy is associated with positive teacher outcomes. Schools that allow their teachers more autonomy in the class have a lower rate of teacher attrition. Teachers that are

allowed more freedom in choosing textbooks, instructional techniques, classroom discipline, and grading policies reported lower levels of stress (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Teachers dissatisfied with their work exhibit lower commitments and are at a higher risk of leaving the teaching profession (Klassen & Ming Chiu, 2010).

The pressure principals exert on teachers is at the top of the list of factors negatively affecting teachers (Lambert et al., 2006). Principals have control over teachers' schedules, assign duties, distribute, or withhold resources, criticize, and praise teachers, and recommend them for continued employment (Brook & Grady, 2007). The support of principals is critical, research has confirmed teachers who are dissatisfied with their work exhibit lower commitments and are at a higher risk for leaving the profession (Klassen & Ming Chiu, 2010).

Mentoring and Principal Support

Giving support is a way of retaining new teachers and reducing their feeling of isolation since new teachers need to feel they are a part of the learning community or school (Morgan, Ludlow, Kitching, O'Leary, & Clarke, 2010; Viadero, 2008). Principal support is especially crucial for new teachers, who need regular constructive feedback (Kaufman & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Tait (2008) claimed education is one of the few professions in which beginning teachers have the same amount of responsibility to more experienced teachers. School induction and mentoring programs have grown in importance in school districts to assist in supporting and introducing new teachers to the profession. Establishing induction and mentoring programs is vital to the continued success of beginning teachers. Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found teachers who receive

mentoring in their first year of teaching are less likely to quit. New teachers reported leaving the teaching profession because they did not feel that they were supported in the first year of teaching (Kaufman, & Al-Bataineh, 2011). Mentoring and induction programs play a significant part in teachers' decisions to quit or remain in the job with mutual support (Brown & Wynn, 2009). Darling-Hammond (2003) found solid induction programs that include the use of mentors are effective in increasing teacher retention. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) found favorable results, with several studies showing a positive association between induction support and teachers' intentions or decisions to remain at their current school or stay in the profession. Developing a robust and comprehensive induction is essential. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) maintained highly advanced, comprehensive, and intensive induction programs appear to have a more significant impact on retention rates than lower quality programs. Districts that invest in induction programs experience fewer turnovers and increased teacher retention (Shockley, Guglielmino & Watlington, 2006). Induction programs are essential for new high school teachers, who typically receive less intensive induction than elementary school teachers (Ingersoll, 2007; Kapadia, Coca, & Easton, 2007). Research by Ingersoll (2004) asserts 16.1% of teachers who leave rural high-poverty schools and 8.8% of those leaving urban high-poverty schools noted induction and mentoring programs were effective in retaining teachers.

Principal Preparation Programs

Public schools in the United States have seen a progression in the responsibilities associated with today's principals (Searby, 2010). The lack of leadership skills is one problem many schools systems face. Districts are challenging principals to move beyond merely managing or administrative duties such as scheduling, budgeting, and discipline to leading instruction, implementing practices that promote professional growth and building proficiency in teachers (Drago-Severson, E., Asghar, A., Blum-DeStefano, J., & Welch, J. R., ,2011)). Critics of leadership programs have criticized them for lacking in quality. They claim they are too theoretical, and they are out of touch with the daily demands on the present-day principal (Davis, Darling-Hammond, Lapointe, & Meyer, 2005; McHatton, 2010; Young, Crow, Murphy, and Ogawa 2009). Post-secondary college's and university are starting to receive more attention in need to equip future school leaders with the necessary skills, commitment needed to organize, on top of the complex understanding to lead schools where all children have regular and sustained opportunities to learn and achieve (Carver & Klien, 2013). However, despite criticism and supposed reform within graduate-level principal preparation programs, the core content, structure, and experience remain unchanged (McHatton, 2010).

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) found university programs for school administrators are not aligned with the instructional and real-world demands facing principals (Militello, 2009). McHatton (2010) asserted 67% percent of principals consider leadership programs in education graduate schools out of touch with what it takes to manage schools in today's environment. Cunningham and

Sherman (2008) asserted theory and practice connection should occur through collaborative partnerships between postsecondary institutions and district school systems. Burke (2012) claims most principals barely have a novice understanding of how to lead, relying on the trial-and-error method when making decisions. Aspiring principals do not have sufficient opportunities to apply their learning in real-world schools and scenarios, which is considered an essential step for adult learners (Whitemire, 2012). Candidates perceived a significant increase in their leadership experience from participating in real-life experiences in their fieldwork placement while attending to their official credentialing program (Barton & Cox, 2012).

Moreover, Dunaway, Bird, Flowers, and Lyons' (2010) study of 160 principal interns found more involvement on the part of the interns resulted in higher levels of perceived knowledge. Interning principals reported an increase in their learning from participating in leadership activities. The beliefs that some principals' preparation programs are inadequate training programs have led to the development of alternative programs by colleges and universities, school district partnerships, online programs and programs not associated with post-secondary education including state principals' associations (Militello, Gajda, & Bowers, 2009). Principal positions leadership is connected with the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2002), and the Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004), as principals must meet adequate yearly progress (Lynch, 2012). Principals' passive roles have become more active roles in the form instructional leaders (Lynch, 2012). Today's principals must be well versed in legal and instructional issues related to inclusion, accountability, high-stakes testing, and

teacher evaluation (Lynch, 2012). More than a quarter of all states have adopted some form of alternative certification for school principals, and some states operate a principal Academy for ongoing professional learning. Also, forty-six states have adopted leadership standards that align themselves with principal pre-service programs (McKibben, 2009). Shelton (2012) asserted this is an essential first step toward increasing the quality of the pre-service program.

Research on Principal Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the manner and approach used in providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Principals' managerial style and leadership skills are critical in motivating teachers. Several research studies found principals' leadership style was an essential component contributing to teacher motivation, retention, and job satisfaction (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Finnigan; 2010; Ingersoll, 2001; Lekamge, 2010; Thoonen et al., 2011). Teachers reported the lack of principals' support is one of several reasons for leaving, including low salaries, and less-than-ideal working conditions (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Despite extensive comparative research on leadership styles, there have been few attempts to examine the impact of various leadership styles on the motivation of the followers (Eyal & Roth, 2011). Effective principals' leadership style plays a key role in teacher retention and reaching school objectives. Teachers are more committed when they perceive that they have a principal who is capable and able to enlist administrative support for the operation of the building (Ware & Kitsantas, 2011). Transformational and transactional leadership styles work well together in today's high-stakes testing (Pepper,

2010). Both styles of leadership are needed because various leaders tend to emphasize one style over another (Conger, 1999; Schneider, 2002).

Critical Analysis of the Literature

Many factors have been examined to find out what motivates teachers. Teachers' motivation and incentives have drawn considerable attention as an essential component in the sustainability of a quality educational system (Canrinus et al., 2012; Cave & Mulloy, 2010; Selemani-Meke, 2013). Research on teacher retention and attrition has pointed to principals as being the most significant individuals in the creation of an effective school, contributing to teacher retention, job satisfaction, and motivation (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Finnigan; 2010; Ingersoll, 2001; Lekamge, 2010; Thoonen et al., 2011). Darling-Hammond (2010) and Thomas (2010) claimed teachers most often point out a lack of principal support, followed by low salaries, lack of adequate preparation time, lack of mentoring, and working conditions as the reason for leaving.

Studies of school leadership in the literature on teacher motivation have attempted to understand the impact principals have on school performance (Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008, 2008; Supovitz et al., 2010; Thoonen, 2011). Even though there is a considerable amount of research on school principals' leadership style, there is sparse information on principals' leadership style and teachers' autonomous versus control motivation.

Schieb and Karabenick (2011) asserted that motivational concerns indirectly mentioned in the literature. For example, concerning participation incentives or teacher confidence, moreover, this is a significant understudied component of teacher

professional development. Richardson and Watts (2010) argued educational psychologist research has frequently focused on student motivation ignoring teacher's motivation, which is essential to teacher's goals, attitude, perception, objective, perception, and behavior. In addition to extensive comparative research on leadership style, a few studies have examined the impact of various leadership styles on the motivation of the followers (Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Teachers are a crucial factor in education in the facilitators of learning and the brokers of relationships between students. Without teachers, in the classrooms, no educational policies or reform can be implemented if teachers are not entirely motivated to implement them within the classroom. Schools all over the United States are experiencing traditional post-secondary graduate teachers and non-traditionally certified teachers exiting from their school or the profession, taking experience and a considerable amount of knowledge. Therefore, what motivates a teacher to stay or to leave is a question requiring understanding to promote change. The majority of research on teacher motivation has focused on the students' perspective rather than that of the teachers. Research has indicated the reasons individuals choose a career in teaching are varied and complex (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012; Mansfield et al., 2012; Levine, 2006; Sinclair, 2008; Thoonen et al., 2011). Chong and Low (2009) and Muller et al. (2009) claimed that teachers' altruistic motivation involves their desire to work with children and to contribute to society. Studies have consistently cited the significance of effective leadership to improve educational outcomes (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Devine & Alger, 2012; Finnigan, 2010; Kurland, Peretz & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010). Studies of beginning

teachers in small urban districts found that beginning teachers' decisions to remain at their school site is strongly influenced by principal's leadership and school climate (Wynn et al., 2005; Wynn & Patall, 2006). Hirsch and Emrick (2007) acknowledged that when teachers have a positive perception of their working conditions are more likely to stay at their current school. According to Thornton, Peltier, and Medina (2007), lack of support by principals and peers significantly related to the special-education teacher's decision to leave.

Principals should be particularly concerned with the effect of stress on teachers since stress on individual teachers may affect the classroom environment and student learning (Kipps-Vaughan, 2013). Having common planning time and regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers, an external network, adequate instructional resources, and reduced assignments and workload are positively associated with teacher retention (Corbell, Booth, & Reiman, 2010). The support of principals is essential, and research has confirmed the lack of adequate mentoring support, working conditions, and low salaries contribute to teacher attrition (Cooper & Alvarado, 2008; Finnigan, 2010; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Pepper, 2010). There is a considerable amount of research literature on teaching styles and students' motivation; however, there is a limited amount of research on principals' leadership styles and teachers' autonomy versus controlled motivation. This study seeks to bridge the gap in the literature and identify factors that affect and cause low teacher motivation in public schools.

Summary

The role of teacher motivation and encouragement has attracted increasing awareness as a critical factor in the sustainability of a quality educational system (Eres, 2011; Malawi, & Selemani-Meke, 2013). Research studies have suggested that teachers who are supported in autonomy versus controlled are more likely to inspire students' intrinsic motivation and self-determination (Adeyemo, Adeyinka, Oladipupo, Asabi, & Omisore, 2013; Deci et al., 1991; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Pelletier et al., 2002). Previous studies have found that principals' leadership style is an essential component contributing to teacher motivation, retention, and job satisfaction (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Finnigan; 2010; Ingersoll, 2001; Lekamge, 2010; Thoonen et al., 2011). According to Eyal and Roth (2011), power in the education system should be delegated to allow school principals to facilitate teacher's motivation, satisfaction, and well-being. Carpenter and Dyal (2001) stated that principals should create and maintain a climate of inclusive practices within the school. Improving the quality of education in schools in the United States so all students may reach their academic potential is very important for the continued growth and well-being of the nation, its citizens, and the global economy (Pepper, 2010).

The most crucial component to educational excellence is teachers, and the attraction and retention of highly capable individuals is an ongoing investment for any successful organization (Kaliprassad, 2006). According to Korkmaz (2007), school principals need to consider and understand how their role and behavior strongly influence teacher morale and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Fulton (2008) stressed the importance

of extensive training for principals and teachers in facilitating shared decision-making. Effective principal behaviors nurture participation in decision-making, with all decisions arrived at interdependently with the teachers. Collaborative approaches to professional learning can promote school change that extends beyond an individual classroom. Two-thirds of teachers report they believe that more collaboration among teachers would improve student achievement (MetLife, 2010). Jackson and Bruegmann (2009) found that when teachers can collaborate with their more experienced colleague's peers learning takes place that contributes to teachers feeling more satisfied with their profession and raises student achievement. The need to retain a new generation of teachers is a widespread challenge facing school principals (Coley, 2009).

Research studies have suggested that students who have effective teachers for several years in a row are on the path for growth and success, while students who are taught by a "revolving door" of less effective teachers may experience academic challenges. Grissom (2011) infers that a principal's leadership style may aid in slowing the attrition rates from the teaching profession. Furthermore, Grissom asserted that principals might be more critical in high poverty schools than they are in wealthier schools, which is especially problematic according to Leo et al. (2010), found that on average, inexperienced, weaker principals lead high poverty schools. Therefore, it is essential to consider the motives for teacher shortage, and the reasons teachers continue to exit schools and the profession (Gardner, 2010).

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This chapter includes a narrative of this research study's design, sample, survey, data analysis, and ethical considerations. I also provide an overview of the survey's design, which will include the rationale for the research design that I selected. Also, within this chapter are the measures that I used to determine the relationship examined and evidence of reliability and validity.

Purpose of the Study

Review of the literature has revealed teachers' view of school principals' leadership styles may influence teacher motivation (Boyd et al., 2011; Gonzales et al., 2008; Ronfeldt & Wyckoff, 2011; Thornton et al., 2007). An extensive amount of research has addressed leadership styles and models of leadership, most notably on Bass and Avolio's transformational and transactional leadership styles (Eyal & Roth, 2010). Research has shown a critical element of effective schools is leadership, and principal leadership style is a significant factor in teacher retention (Angelle, 2006; Brown & Wynn, 2007; Greenlee & Brown, 2009; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Pugh et al., 2012). Leadership style represents a consistent behavioral pattern by leaders who can enlist, organize, and motivate others to apply their abilities and resources to a given goal or purpose (Blanchard & Johnson, 2001; Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Despite comparative research on leadership, few studies have examined the effects of various leadership styles on the motivation of its followers. Transformational leadership in the education system has been shown to have a positive influence on

teachers' commitment, levels of trust, and motivation (George & Sabhapathy, 2010). Kirk and Van Dijk (2007) asserted that transactional leadership would focus on external expectations and obligations and would predict followers' avoidant motivational orientation. In this study, I used two theoretical frameworks—self-determination theory and leadership theory—to help bridge the gap. I examined the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation and retention.

Research Design

I used a quantitative method to examine the relationship between principal leadership style, teacher motivation, and teacher retention. I sought to answer questions about a complex phenomenon from the participant's point of view (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 94). A quantitative method promotes a fair, unbiased measurement of the data. The quantitative format allows researchers to measure more carefully the relationships between the independent variable, in this study leadership style, and the dependent variable of interest (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). I used a nonexperimental correlational design (also referred to as an ex-post facto design), which looks at conditions that have already occurred and collects data to investigate a relationship between these circumstances and following characteristics or behaviors (Black, 2005; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Using correlation research does have limitations, which include chance finding. Gall et al. (2005) explained, "When a large number of variables are correlated with each other, some variables will correlate significantly with each other by chance alone" (p. 35). Correlational research looks at surface relationships but does not establish causal connections between the underlying variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Literature

related to the correlations between transformational leadership has been shown to be useful for gaining more performance, a higher perception of the principal's effectiveness by teachers, and a willingness to make an extra effort for the principal (Meng-Chun Chin, 2007).

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of public school teachers teaching in districts in a southeastern state. The sampled population included public middle school and high school certified teachers. The participants composed of teachers, both male and female, in Grades 6 through 12. Participants differed in age and years of teaching experience. The school districts were selected because they employ teachers from varying ethnic and age backgrounds. The teachers are presumed to have experienced a variety of life events both positive and negative.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Drawing from implications from self-determination theory and Bruns's theory of leadership styles, the following research questions and hypotheses framed the investigation:

RQ1: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher motivation?

H_{a1}: Principal leadership style is related to teacher motivation.

H₀₁: Principal leadership style is not related to teacher motivation.

RQa1: To what extent do teachers' age, gender, and years of experience moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation?

*H*_{a1a}: Teachers' age, gender, and years of experience do moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation.

*H*_{01a}: Teachers' age, gender, and years of experience do not moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation.

RQ2: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher retention?

*H*_{a2}: Principal leadership style is related to teacher retention.

*H*₀₂: Teachers' age, gender, and years of experience do not moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation.

RQ2: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher retention?

*H*_{a2}: Principal leadership style is related to teacher retention.

*H*₀₂: Principal leadership style is not related to teacher retention.

RQ2a: To what extent does teacher motivation moderate the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher retention?

*H*_{a2a}: Teacher motivation moderates the relationship between principal leadership and teacher retention.

*H*_{02a}: Teacher motivation does not moderate the relationship between principal leadership and teacher retention.

Procedures

I used the following procedures:

1. Before beginning the data collection process, it was necessary to obtain approval from Walden's Institutional Review Board (IRB).

2. After receiving IRB approval # 04-03-17-0013377 (Appendix A), teachers received an email invitation requesting their participation (Appendix B).

3. The letter of invitation served two purposes: to inform participants about the purpose of the study and directed them to the SurveyMonkey link. Teachers who met the criteria clicked on the embedded survey linked through SurveyMonkey. The survey link included the informed consent if the teachers had no questions about the informed consent. Teachers proceeded to the demographic survey and other instruments.

4. I followed up with a reminder within five days of via email for the first emailed invitation.

5. No data collected included any identifying information, such as names of teachers.

6. A follow-up reminder to teachers via email who may not have responded within ten days.

7. Data collected keyed into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

I reminded the teachers that the research study was voluntary. The survey administered to participants and the information acquired would be kept confidential.

This research involved no known risks or adverse consequences for participants' involvement.

Instrumentation

The instruments in this study were the MLQ designed by Avolio and Bass (2004) and the BNSW scale created by Deci and Ryan (2000) to measure autonomous motivation. All teachers completed a demographic questionnaire.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5x-Short) Form

The MLQ (Appendix B) measured the perceptions of teachers of principal leadership in middle school and high school. The MLQ is a 45-item Likert-type scale instrument that contains nine leadership subscales: four transformational leadership styles, three transactional leadership styles, and one laissez-faire leadership style. The Likert scale items are on a four-point scale ranging from zero (not at all) to four (frequently, if not always). Each of the leadership style components consists of four items, and scores of the nine scales are the average rating for in each scale.

Transformational leadership styles score is an average of all the scores from the items on the following scale: idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), motivation by inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership style scores by averaging all scores from the items in the following scales: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), and laissez-faire leadership style is the only scale that measures non-leadership behaviors thus non-leadership style score will be the scale for laissez-faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Cemaloglu et al., 2012; Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Validity. The MLQ is a well-established instrument and has been well documented and used in management, non-profit companies, and Fortune 500 firms (Bolger, 2001; Eyal & Kark, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). In a meta-analysis of 87 studies, using the MLQ, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found the overall validity coefficient to be 0.44. The results from factor analysis studies suggest the nine scales of leadership based on the MLQ provide the best reflection of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

Reliability. Reliability of the MQL survey instrument ranges from 0.74 to 0.91, which indicates a moderate to good internal consistency and statistical testing level (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The reliability was established through a pilot study conducted by McKenzie (1999) using a sample of 63 teachers. Resulting in a subscale internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha 0.81 for laissez-faire, 0.80 passive management-by-exception, 0.82 contingent reward, 0.89 active management-by-exception, 0.88 individualized influence behaviors, 0.80 inspirational motivation, 0.85 intellectual stimulation and 0.81 individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Ghamrawi, 2013; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

The Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work Scale

Created by Deci and Ryan (2000) the Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work (BNSW) scale; (Appendix C) is one of the most often used instruments to measure autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Baard et al., 2004; Deci, Ryan, Gagne 2001'; Hetland, H, Jetland, J, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011; Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Hardi et al., 1993; Kasser et al., 1992). The scale consists of 21 items

measuring autonomy (seven, items), competence (six items), and relatedness (eight items). This questionnaire is a seven-point Likert-type scale that ranges from one (not at all true) and seven (very true). Scoring is determined by averaging all responses and reversing the scores of items that are written negatively (Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016; Hetland, 2011; Silman, 2014).

Validity. The Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work Scale is a widely used instrument to measure the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness must be ongoingly satisfied for people to develop and function in healthy or optimal ways (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Van den Broeck et al., 2008; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

Reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three scales are .81 for autonomy, .85 for competence and .82 for relatedness and an internal consistency respectively of 0.68, .067, and 0.81(Hetland et al., 2014; Kamel & Hashish, 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

Demographic Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed consisting of seven items to collect participants' demographics and retention information (see Appendix D). This demographic data includes gender, ethnicity, age, years of teaching experience, and school level (middle or high school). The demographic questionnaire, was the last question on the survey, was used to investigate teacher retention. The demographic questionnaire addresses gender, ethnicity, age, years of teaching experience, grade level taught, and how many years teachers plan to teach.

Data Analysis

I used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data from both survey instruments and the demographic questionnaire. To reduce the chance of committing a Type II error in the statistical analysis, I performed a statistical power estimate on specifying a minimum power level of .80 and an alpha level of 0.05 (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). To answer the research questions, I planned to conduct stepwise multiple regressions. Stepwise multiple linear regressions allow a researcher to assess the relationship among a set of independent variables and one dependent variable. Because this study had more than one independent variable, a multiple regression analysis was appropriate (Ngo, 2012) for research questions 1 and 2. For the subquestions involving a moderation analysis, Baron and Kenny (1986) described a process where variable X (in the present study, principal leadership style) is assumed to cause Y (in this study, teacher retention), but the relationship between X and Y is caused by a third variable M (in this study, teacher motivation). However, and as detailed in chapter 4, due to limitations in the sample and demographic survey, I was unable to perform the planned moderation analysis.

Ethical Considerations

Some guidelines and requirements must be followed when conducting a research study. Among the requirements is that the scientific research design is grounded in sound research practices. Researchers need to follow legal procedures in securing informed consent from each participant and ensuring confidentiality in the disclosure of results. The researcher made every effort to protect the confidentiality of each teacher. Teachers

that responded were only reported as groups, and demographic information, likewise, was reported in groups rather than individuals.

Limitations

Limitations are any extraneous variables that may affect a study by threatening its validity or reliability and that are beyond the researcher's control (Creswell, 2009). These include the possibility of distorting responses due to personal bias, anger, anxiety, politics, and lack of understanding (Patton, 2002). I attempted to minimize these limitations by stating the purpose of the study at the beginning of the survey and assuring anonymity throughout the process of the research (Kruger & Casey, 2009).

Summary

The purpose of my study was to examine the relationship between principal leadership and teacher motivation. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5x-short), 16-item motivation scale, and a demographic questionnaire were used to collect data to analyze the hypotheses. The results of this study, presented in Chapters 4 and 5, provide a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

A fundamental component of effective schools is leadership, and principal leadership style is a significant factor in teacher retention (Angelle, 2006; Brown & Wynn, 2007; Greenlee & Brown, 2009; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Pugh et al., 2012). While previous research indicates that teachers' view of school principals' leadership styles may influence teacher motivation (Boyd et al., 2011; Gonzales et al., 2008; Ronfeldt & Wyckoff, 2011; Thornton et al., 2007), very few studies have examined the impact of various leadership styles on the motivation of followers. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between principal leadership and teacher motivation. This chapter presents the results of the analyses described. The chapter begins with a description of the pre-analysis data cleaning procedures, followed by a summary of the descriptive statistics. Finally, the results of the primary analyses and hypothesis testing are presented.

Data Collection

The survey data collected from May 1 to July 10, 2017. A preanalysis statistical power estimate using G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lange, & Buchner, 2007) specified a minimum sample size of 82. The initial recruitment outreach to 108 teachers occurred May 1- 12, 2017 and yielded partial responses from 75 participants. I sent reminder emails to participants within five days to increase participation. Because of the limited participation, I requested permission from the IRB to reopen and extend the date of the survey in hopes that more teachers would participate or complete the surveys they had

previously started. Upon receiving permission from IRB to reopen the survey, I emailed out a new invitation to participants requesting their participation and reiterating the confidentiality of participants in the survey. I subsequently emailed reminders to participants within seven days encouraging their participation in the survey. Despite the increased efforts, this secondary recruitment resulted in only nine more individuals participating. Thus, the original dataset consisted of 84 participants. Of this dataset, 21 cases were missing all data. These teachers opened the survey, then decided not to participate. Further, eight participants had completed the demographic information but were missing data for the variables of interest. With these missing cases removed, the final dataset consisted of 55 participants far below the minimum required for adequate statistical power.

The data were then assessed for outliers, which may be overly essential data points that unduly bias the results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I evaluated the data for outlying values using the procedures set forth by Tabachnick and Fidell. First, standardized (z) scores were created for the continuous study variables of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, and autonomy scores. Tabachnick and Fidell suggested that values with an associated Z -score of less than -3.29 or higher than 3.29 are evidence of an outlying value. These analyses produced no outliers, with no standardized scores beyond that range. Thus, the final usable dataset consisted of 55 participants.

Description of the Sample

The final dataset of 55 participants consisted entirely of certified teachers (100%) who were not substitute teachers (100%). Many of the participants did not teach a core class (56.4%). Most participants were male (63.6%), aged 45 to 55 (43.6%), and Caucasian (54.5%). The most considerable proportion of participants had five to ten years of teaching experience (34.5%) and taught high school (78.2%). When asked if they would choose to become teachers if they had an opportunity to start a new career, most said yes (56.4%), and 43.6% said no. When asked how many years they planned to teach, virtually all (96.4%) the teachers in the sample planned to teach at least three more years. Only 3.6% indicated they were only planning to teach 1 to 2 more years. Almost one-third (32.7%) responded 30-plus years, and only slightly fewer responded 15 to 25 years (30.9%). Table 1 presents a breakdown of the frequencies and percentages associated with these demographic variables.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

Variable	Descriptor	<i>n</i>	%
Certified teacher	Yes	55	100.0
	No	0	0.0
Substitute Teacher	Yes	0	0.0
	No	55	100.0
Teach Core Class	Yes	24	43.6
	No	31	56.4
Gender	Male	35	63.6

	Female	20	36.4
Ethnicity	African American	18	32.7
	Asian American	1	1.8
	Caucasian	30	54.5
	Other	6	10.9
Age	25-30	2	3.6
	30-45	19	34.5
	45-55	24	43.6
	Older than 55	10	18.2
Years of Teaching Experience	1-2	9	16.4
	3-7	19	34.5
	8-15	16	29.1
	15 or more	11	20.0
Current School Level	High school	55	100.0
If you had the opportunity to start a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?	Yes	31	56.4
	No	24	43.6
How many years do you plan to teach?	1-2	2	3.6
	3-7	9	16.4
	8-15	9	16.4
	15-25	17	30.9
	30 or more	18	32.7

As described in Chapter 3, I operationally defined leadership style by scores on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire scale. The predictor variables of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire came from the subscales of leadership style. Transformational leadership score is computed by taking an average of 20 items, with participants rating principals as “sometimes” performing transformational leadership

behaviors. Transactional leadership score is computed by taking the average of eight items, and participants rated principals at an average of slightly more than “sometimes” performing transactional leadership behaviors. Laissez-faire was computed by averaging eight items; participants rated principals at an average of slightly more than “occasionally” performing laissez-faire behaviors. The criterion variable of autonomy for the first research question derived from the Basic Needs at Work scale. Autonomy is computed by taking an average of seven items. Participants’ scores indicated that, on average, they felt it was “somewhat true” that they were satisfied with their autonomy at work. Table 2 presents the ranges, means, and standard deviations for these continuous variables.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables

Variable	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational leadership	0.05	4.00	2.35	1.03
Transactional leadership	0.63	4.38	2.55	0.90
Laissez-faire leadership	0.00	3.63	1.49	1.05
Autonomy	2.00	7.00	4.58	1.43

Deviation from Planned Analyses

Initially, the researcher proposed to conduct a moderation analysis with several moderating variables. Multiple regressions can be used to examine the moderator effects on the variables. Researchers can use multiple regressions to examine moderator effects

whether the predictor or moderator variables are categorical (e.g., sex or race) or continuous (e.g., age) (Frasier et al., 2004). However, in the present study, the sample collected consisted of only 55 participants, far below the minimum required for adequate statistical power. Thus, with such a small sample and with three moderators, the results of the planned analyses would be unreliable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Due to limitations in sample size, the research questions involving moderation analyses were revised to focus on the relationship between principal leadership style and teacher motivation and retention. The proposed initially moderating variables were included demographic covariates to control for potential variability that may be explained by factors other than leadership style (Field, 2013). Moderations required a larger sample size than the researcher was able to collect (Aguinis, 2004). However, removing the moderator variables from the analyses entirely would remove any variability in the criterion variables associated with the moderators (Field, 2013). Rather than assessing moderating effects made unreliable by the small sample size or completely removing the ability to determine any relationships involving age, experience, or gender, the researcher included those variables as covariates (Pourhoseingholi, Baghestani, & Vahedi, 2012).

Additionally, for the second research question, the survey design created another problem. The demographic question of *How many more years do you plan to teach?* Did not translate in Survey Monkey the way the researcher anticipated. It was initially conceived, the question would be answered by having the participant enter a number reflecting how many years the participant planned to continue teaching, with zero meaning that the participant was not planning to teach the next year. This format would

have provided a ratio scale of measurement. Instead of this format, participants viewed an ordinal scale that provided a range of choices for how long they planned to teach. None of the options included zero, so the format of the responses did not provide adequate data on teacher retention. Because a majority of the teachers indicated that they were planning to teach at least three more years. Thus, the teacher retention variable did not yield enough variability in the data. However, the demographic survey did include a question asking “If you had the opportunity to start a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?” This variable provided an alternative way to answer a modified version of RQ2, which would examine the teachers’ commitment to teaching rather than teacher retention. Thus, the criterion variable for RQ2 ended up being dichotomous (i.e., with two categories), necessitating a binary logistic regression. Logistic regressions model logit functions rather than linear relationships, making clear and precise interpretation of moderating interaction effects difficult (Dawson, 2014). Modified research questions and analyses are described below.

Results of the Data Analyses

Each research question and analysis are described and examined below.

Research Question 1

To what extent is principal leadership style related to teacher motivation?

H_{a1} : Principal leadership style is related to teacher motivation.

H_{01} : Principal leadership style is not related to teacher motivation.

The research question was assessed through one multiple linear regression.

Regression is the appropriate analysis to perform when the research aim is to assess the

relationship between a series of predictor variables and a single continuous dependent variable (Field, 2013). The purpose of the regression was to determine the relationship between leadership style and teacher motivation measured by the Basic Needs at Work subscale of autonomy. The continuous independent predictor variables were transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The continuous dependent variable was autonomy.

Assessment of assumptions. First, I evaluated the assumptions of the multiple linear regression. These include normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. I visually assessed normality through a Normal P-P plot (see Figure 1). The Normal P-P plot showed data that conformed to the diagonal normality line, indicating that the assumption was met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Similarly, I visually assessed homoscedasticity through a scatterplot of the residuals (see Figure 2). The residuals showed a random distribution, indicating that the assumption was met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I assessed the absence of multicollinearity through the variance inflation factor (VIF) values. VIF values fell below 10 (see Table 3), indicating that absence of multicollinearity can be assumed (Stevens, 2009).

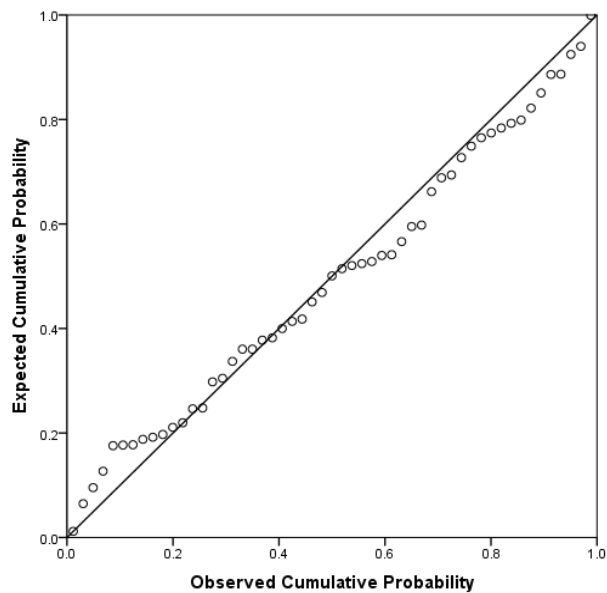


Figure 2. Normal P-P plot for the multiple linear regression involving autonomy.

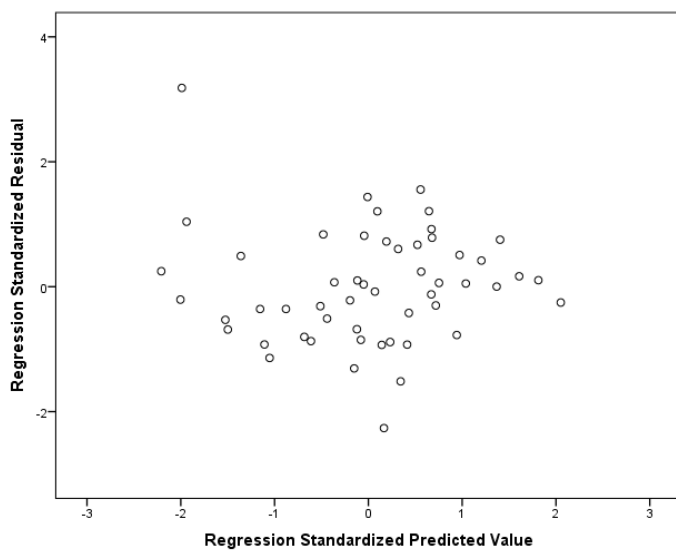


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the residuals for the multiple linear regression involving autonomy.

Results for RQ1 and RQ1a. As noted above, the small sample size prevented the use of moderation analysis for RQ1a. Instead, I included age, gender, and years of experience as covariates. Because age and experience were categorical variables with more than two categories, I used dummy-coding. First, the variable of age was re-coded so that categories with small frequencies were combined, resulting in three categories: *25-30*, *30-45*, and *over 55*. Dummy coding age resulted in two dichotomous (i.e., with two categories) variables: *45-55*, and *over 55* with *25-30* as the reference category for each. Dummy coding for experience resulted in three dummy coded variables: *5-15*, *15-20*, and *over 20 years of experience*, with *1-5* as the reference category for each.

The results of the overall regression were significant, $F(9, 43) = 5.19, p < .001$, $R^2 = .42$, suggesting that, when combined in the linear model, the predictor variables significantly predicted variance in autonomy scores. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that approximately 42% of the variance in basic needs at work scores is associated with the predictor variables. Overall the model was significant, so the individual predictor variables were assessed. Transformational leadership emerged as the only significant predictor ($B = 0.86, p = .011$), indicating that for every one unit increase in transformational leadership scores, the model predicts a corresponding 0.86 unit increase in autonomy scores. As transformational leadership was significantly predictive, the null hypothesis for RQ1 was rejected. Table 3 presents the full results of this analysis.

Table 3
Multiple Linear Regression Results

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	VIF
Age (25-45)						
45-55	0.25	0.39	0.09	0.64	.524	1.67
55 and older	0.72	0.53	0.19	1.35	.183	1.75
Experience (1-5)						
5-15	0.14	0.47	0.05	0.29	.774	2.24
15-20	0.18	0.52	0.06	0.34	.733	2.43
Over20	0.57	0.60	0.16	0.96	.342	2.44
Gender (male)						
Female	0.31	0.38	0.11	0.83	.409	1.44
Leadership styles						
Transformational	0.86	0.32	0.62	2.66	.011	4.87
Transactional	0.16	0.33	0.10	0.48	.632	3.88
Laissez-faire	0.20	0.24	0.14	0.81	.422	2.78

Research Question 2

Due to problems with the wording of the teacher retention question on the demographic questionnaire and the small sample size the teacher retention variable could not be measured meaningfully. Instead, the original research question was changed to: To what extent is principal leadership style related to teachers' commitment to teaching?

H_{a2} : Principal leadership style is related to teachers' commitment to teaching.

H_{02} : Principal leadership style is not related to teachers' commitment to teaching.

Binary logistic regression is the appropriate analysis to perform when the research is to assess the relationship between a series of continuous or categorical predictor variables and a single categorical criterion variable (Field, 2013). For question 2, the purpose of the regression was to determine the relationship between leadership styles and

teacher retention. The continuous independent predictor variables were transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The categorical dependent variable was teachers' commitment to teaching, measured by the variable "would you teach again?" This variable was coded as 0 = *no* and 1 = *yes*.

The binary logistic regression is a non-parametric test, meaning that it does not require the same stringent assumption testing as the linear regression (e.g., normality and homoscedasticity). However, the analysis does require that the dataset be free from outliers or that multicollinearity is not present. There were no outliers in the dataset, as described in the *Data Collection* section of this chapter. The absence of multicollinearity was assumed, as VIF values for the predictor variables were below 10.

The overall logistic regression model was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(9) = 15.22, p = .085$. This indicates that the combined set of predictor variables did not predict membership in either group of the dependent variable better than chance alone, and thus, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The model correctly classified cases 76.4% of the time. The Nagelkerke $R^2 = .32$ indicates that a relatively small amount of variance was associated with the predictor variables.

Individual predictors in the survey were assessed. In this model, those who were aged 45 to 55 were 9.36 times more likely to want to teach again than those aged 25 to 45 ($OR = 9.36, p = .017$). In other words, those aged 45 to 55 were 936% more likely to want to teach again than younger teachers. No other demographic variable was significant. Transformational leadership was a significantly predictive variable ($OR = 4.76, p = .042$). This model predicts that a one-unit increase in transformational

leadership score would mean a 4.76 times higher chance of wanting to teach again. In other words, participants would be 476% more likely to want to teach again for every one-unit increase in transformational leadership score. Table 4 presents the full results of this analysis.

Table 4
Binary Logistic Regression Results

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>p</i>	<i>OR</i>
Age (25-45)					
45-55	2.24	0.94	5.72	.017	9.36
55 and older	1.44	1.08	1.77	.184	4.22
Experience (1-5)					
5-15	0.56	1.00	0.32	.573	0.57
15-20	1.21	1.07	1.28	.258	0.30
20 and older	2.52	1.31	3.71	.054	0.08
Gender (male)					
Female	1.46	0.81	3.29	.070	4.32
Leadership Styles					
Transformational	1.56	0.77	4.15	.042	4.76
Transactional	1.13	0.74	2.36	.125	0.32
Laissez-faire	0.53	0.61	0.74	.391	1.69

Summary

To answer Research Question 1, I used multiple linear regression. The model indicated that transformational leadership significantly predicted increases in autonomy, and as such, the null hypothesis was rejected. Binary logistic regression was used to answer Research Question 2. The model suggested principal leadership did not significantly predict teachers' commitment to teaching, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. The model did suggest that those aged 45 to 55 were more likely to

want to teach again when compared to those who were aged 25 to 35. How these results relate to the relevant literature will be discussed in the following chapter, along with the strengths and limitations of the study. Finally, recommendations for future research and implications for social change will be offered.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative, non-correlation study was to investigate whether there was a relationship between principal leadership style, teacher motivation, and teacher retention. Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (STD), Burns' (1978) leadership theory, and Bass and Avolio's (1994) transformation and transactional leadership theory served as the theoretical foundation for the study. Two research questions framed this study, and three instruments were used to answer the research questions: the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (5xshort; MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (2004), the Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work (BNSW) scale developed by Deci and Ryan (2000) and a demographic questionnaire. This study employed multiple linear regression and logistic regression to investigate the relationship between principal leadership styles, teacher motivation, and teacher retention. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the results, interpretations of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, implications for social change, and conclusions.

Summary of the Results

I surveyed teachers in three rural public schools in a southeastern state. The minimum number of participants required for significant study effect was 82 determined by power analysis (Faul et al., 2007). Recruitment occurred between May 2017 to July 2017 and involved an initial e-mail to prospective teachers, a reminder e-mail, a second recruitment e-mail, and a final reminder. The original dataset for this study consisted of 84 participants. However, 21 of these initial respondents did not answer any questions—their survey was missing all the data. Additionally, eight cases were missing data for the

variables of interest. These missing cases were removed, resulting in a final dataset of 55 participants.

The first research question examined the principal leadership style about teacher motivation, and the question was assessed through one multiple linear regression. The data showed transformational leadership as a significant predictor of teacher autonomy motivation. Because transformational leadership was significantly predictive, the null hypothesis was rejected. Aydin, Sarier, and Uysal (2013) found a negative correlation between the transformational behavior of school principals and the necessary work agreement and length of time teachers remain committed to continuing to teach. The research explained the reason for the inverse correlation is due to a “superficial expression of loyalty and the first stage of commitment” (Aydin et al., 2013 p.809). According to Buluc (2009), school principals who use transformational leadership skills may influence employees more efficiently and direct them to perform organizational goals. According to Aydin and colleagues (2013), argued that there is still a need for transactional leadership style in combination with transformational leadership.

The second research question examined principal leadership style and its relationship to teacher retention, and the question was examined using binary logistic regression. The demographic question used to measure teacher retention read, “How many years do you plan to teach?” As originally planned, participants were to write the number of years they planned to teach, including zero if they did not plan to continue teaching. Thus, this variable would have had a ratio scale of measurement. However, when answering this question in Survey Monkey, the participants only had a list of

options to choose from that did not include a zero scale option, nor did they have the option of writing in their response in numeral form. Despite this, the demographic survey did present information that allowed the researcher to look at teachers' commitment to teaching. Thus the second research question was modified to "Is principal leadership style related to teachers' commitment to teaching?" The finding in this study indicated no correlation; principal leadership behavior did not predict teacher commitment to teaching, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Furthermore, the model did suggest that teachers with more than 15 years of experience were significantly more likely to plan to teach 15 more years when compared to those with only 1-7 years of experience.

Interpretation of the Findings

The results from the multiple linear regression of the MLQ subscales for each leadership style as perceived by the teachers indicate that principal leadership style was related to teacher motivation. This study found that transformational leadership significantly predicted autonomy. Previous research conducted on leadership style found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and school achievement (Mills, 2008). Ross and Gray (2006) found that schools that had higher levels of transformational leadership had higher collective teacher efficacy, greater teacher commitment to school mission, school community, and school-community partnerships, and higher student achievement. Gagne and colleagues (2010) found positive, meaningful relationships between autonomous motivation and job satisfaction. Eyal and Roth's (2011) study sought to establish a relationship between transformational leadership and autonomous teacher motivation. Grisson (2011) found that principal leadership practices

might assist in decreasing attrition rates from the teaching profession. According to Bass (2000), the transformational leadership style enhances the effectiveness of leadership beyond the levels achieved with transactional leadership. Thus, the components of transformational leadership—including idealized attributes and behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration—are supported by research provided in the review of the literature.

Binary logistic regression was used to answer Research Question 2, which addressed the extent to which the principal leadership style related to teacher commitment to teaching. The finding in this study indicated no correlation; principal leadership behavior did not predict teacher commitment to teaching. This finding was not consistent with previous research. Marinell and Coca (2013) found that strong leadership styles of principals are linked to lower teacher turnover. Teacher turnover was lower in schools in which principals were perceived as trusting, supportive of teaching staff, and knowledgeable instructional leaders. Majeed et al. (2010) concluded that teachers' autonomous motivation has the potential to increase teacher retention when leaders are supportive. Principal leadership sets the tone for a school building and for cultivating a stable, committed core of teachers (Marinell & Coca, 2013). Research by Baker (2005) found 46.6% of teachers stayed in teaching because of positive principal support. Also, Tickle (2008) found principal support is the top indicator for identifying teacher job satisfaction and predicting if teachers will stay in the profession. Several studies have concluded 42% of teachers leave the profession due to job dissatisfaction

stemming from low salaries, lack of support, student motivation, and discipline (Perie & Baker, 1996; Ingersoll, 2001; Tickle, 2008).

Research on teacher motivation emphasizes the essential and social aspects of work is motivation for entering and remaining in the profession (Guarino et al., 2006; Roness & Smith, 2009). Other research indicates salary and availability of permanent employment opportunities are fundamental components of retention for younger teachers, whereas workloads have a negative impact on retention among experienced teachers (OECD, 2005; Van Droogenbroeck & Spruyt, 2014).

Teachers in this research study with 15 plus years of experience indicated a desire to continue teaching longer than teachers with one to five years of experience. This finding is consistent with the literature on teachers commitment and the finding on the phases of teachers' careers 10% of new teachers in 2007-08 left the first year, increasing to 12% in three years, 15% in four years, and 17% in the fifth year (Gray & Taie, 2010). These percentages also included teachers who were let go and taught in another district (Gray & Taie, 2015). Marincell and Cocoa (2013) studied of urban middle school teachers in the district of New York City for ten years found 27% of new teachers leave in the first year, 55% of beginning teachers leave within three years, and 66% beginning teachers leave in five years. An underlying assumption of research on teacher attrition is that individuals will remain in the profession if teaching represents the most attractive activity to pursue among available alternatives (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006). Sammons and colleagues' (2007) study on the resilience of teachers found professional resiliency is a mixture of individual characteristics and environmental support.

Furthermore, teachers with credentials are more likely to leave, especially teachers who have earned master degrees or a degree in science (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Chevalier, Dolton, & McIntosh, 2007; Mastekaasa, 2011).

Smith and Smith (2006) found that the retention of teachers has a direct effect on student achievement and performance. Teacher demographics of gender, age, years of experience, academic ability, and race are attributed to turnover in the United States. This study had more male participants, which is at odds with the literature. Currently, the United States females make up the majority of the teaching profession (Feistritz, 2011). Sparks (2012) claims that males are not entering the teaching profession because of sexism, the tarnished status of teaching and low pay. Teachers' years of experience and age in this study are consistent with the literature. The NCES (2016) survey found that 76% of public school teachers were 44% female, under the age of 40, and 56% of female teachers have earned a master's degree or higher.

Moreover, female teachers continue teaching longer than male teachers (Loewus, 2017). Public school populations in the United States consisted of 17% male, 83% female with 88% White, 9% African-American, 1.5% Hispanic, and 1.5% other. Roughly 80% of the teacher is White, a decrease from 82% in 2012, Hispanic teachers have increased from 8% to 9%, 7% are African-American, and 2% Asian that has changed since 2012 (NCES, 2016).

Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of this study resulted from the limited number of participants responding to both the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire and Basic Needs

at Work scale. Several teachers did not fully complete the survey resulting in the missing data, and one school teachers did not participate in the survey. Consequently, the use of a small sample size is a significant limitation of this study. The small sample size reduced the statistical power of the study, inhibiting research ability to find relationships that may exist. The small sample size of teachers further limited the researcher's capacity to generalize to the population, reflecting another limitation in the study.

Another limitation of the study was the web-based survey design. The design of the survey in Survey Monkey, specifically the wording of the demographic part, did not provide teachers with the opportunity to enter answers in numeric form. Instead, the teacher had to choose between several different categories, thus requiring a change in Research Question 2. Also, more moderate variables were not used because of the low number of participants in the study that reduced the power of the study and did not detect the nearly significant finding.

The novice design of the survey by the researcher did not allow participants to elaborate on questions. Providing participants with forced-choice responses, such as in the *MLQ*, prevented researchers from probing for the reasoning behind the responses (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Multiple methods offer the potential for overcoming limitations of any single method error (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Adding open-ended questions may have yielded more information from participants than was produced from questionnaires only.

Another limitation is that even with the assurance of anonymity, teachers may have felt uncomfortable rating their principals, and this may have led to the low number

of teachers completing and submitting surveys. The introduction date of the survey in May could have been problematic, for teachers at public schools may have been wrapping up standardized testing, and the timing of the survey may have been problematic for that reason. Teachers may have had problems navigating between the two different surveys on leadership style and basic needs at work, teachers degree of subjectivity, and their actual behavior may have differed from the respondents' perception.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although the sample requirements were not met and did not allow for generalized results to the greater teacher population, this study, if repeated with larger sample size, could lend credibility to the research study I conducted. Future research could focus on the complex topic of the influence of leadership styles on teachers' motivation.

Additionally, the random selection of districts in separate geographic areas would add to the fidelity of the study and provide for more accurate generalization of the findings. A higher number of teachers from multiple schools or school districts could provide a richer description of factors that influence teacher motivation. Research has shown that transformational leadership approaches have a positive effect on teachers. There is a significant amount of research that uses the quantitative methodology to investigate leadership styles; however, pairing quantitative and qualitative approaches would allow researchers to glean a complete understanding of principal leadership style connection to teacher retention and to uncover other descriptions that may influence teacher motivation. Morse and Niehaus (2009) stated that developing mixed-methods

designs occurs when a second approach (quantitative or qualitative) is added after the study is underway because one method is found to be inadequate. Furthermore, futures studies might also focus on the connections between gender and teacher autonomy.

Implications for Social Change

Research related to teachers in the workplace has strongly suggested that autonomous motivation is related to positive outcomes (Gagne' et al., 2010). The information gained from this study may benefit principals and teachers by informing leadership approaches for organizational change that may enhance teachers' motivation. School communities across the United States are growing larger; consequently, schools and districts are struggling to maintain standards for quality instruction and attracting and keep highly qualified teachers (Carroll & Foster, 2010; Guavino et al. 2006). Principals could learn which factors teachers perceive as critical to job satisfaction, then learn to modify their style of leadership or behavior to more appropriately create and maintain an active system of support for their teachers. There was insufficient data collected to answer the second research question regarding the relationship of principal leadership style to teacher retention. Instead of teacher retention, the revised second research question focused on the relationship of principal leadership style to teachers' commitment to teaching, but no significant findings emerged.

The study also adds to the current research on leadership styles and teacher motivation. Ingvarson (2009) asserted that employee commitment fosters the success of an organization. Principals may learn which factors teachers perceive critical in maintaining high levels of job satisfaction, which could help them adapt their style of

leadership or behavior to develop and maintain a healthy support system for their teachers. Doing so may help improve retention, particularly among early-career teachers, for whom support from administration and colleagues has been found to be particularly important (Pomaki, DeLongis, Frey, Short, & Woehrle, 2010).

Conclusions

Ever since Horace Mann established common schools in Massachusetts in the 1850's; there has been a call to reform K-12 public schools in the United States (Marshall, 2006). From the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 to the Race to the Top competition of 2010, policymakers have focused their attention on teachers (Johnson et al., 2011; Marshall, 2006). Teachers' commitment to teaching is a critical factor in the success and future of education. Potential causes cited for teachers leaving the profession are low pay, the decline in public respect for education, increased workloads, challenging working conditions, and declining teacher autonomy (Price, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Smethem, 2007; Webb et al., 2004).

Additionally, studies have focused on teacher motivation in the beginning stages of their careers. However, the teaching workforce in many settings includes teachers in their mid or late-career stages (U. S. Department of Education, 2009). Leadership as a component of teachers' working conditions is the most relevant factor influencing teachers' decisions to stay in or leave their schools (Price, 2010).

A review of the literature points to the principal leadership style as a significant factor in teacher retention. Simon and Johnson (2015) identified six research studies that examined the relationship between the dimensions of the school setting and teacher

turnover (Allensworth et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2012; Marinell & Coca, 2013; Boyd et al., 2011; Ladd, 2011; Loeb et al., 2005). Although these may differ in scope, they consistently appeared to be the most influential predictors of teacher turnover as well as the quality of school leadership, the degree of order and discipline in a school, and the support of other staff members. These studies are stronger measures and predictors of teacher turnover than individual teacher characteristics and the average characteristics of students in a school. Additionally, principals have a considerable impact on the motivational factors of teachers by providing strong leadership (Brown & Hughes, 2008; US Department of Education, 2010). Betteille and colleagues (2009) found that more active principals can recruit and retain more effective teachers and remove fewer effective teachers. Most principals have some teaching experience before becoming administrators, and this experience is likely to serve them well. However, most principals have limited experience managing complex organizations before becoming principals at their schools (Grissom & Loeb, 2009). School districts seeking to identify the best candidates for open principal positions in their school districts or to recruit candidates to their schools may need to consider candidates with organizational management competencies, such as those needed for adequate teacher hiring and budget allocation (Grissom & Loeb, 2009).

A principal's job is complicated and multidimensional, and the effectiveness of principals depends, in part, on managing their time across daily responsibilities (Rice 2010). According to Northhouse (2018), for a company or organization to achieve success, it must allow its employees to operate somewhat autonomously. Research

findings indicate teachers are more satisfied with their jobs when their school principals exhibit transformational leadership style dimensions, including idealized attributes and behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. It is important to note in concluding this chapter that the front page headline of the local newspaper sounds the alarm about the crisis of southeastern teachers that they are walking out of the classroom and migrating to surrounding states to take jobs (Schechter, 2018). The teacher shortage in the southeastern sector of the United States has caused state to hire teachers from abroad to help address the exodus of teachers that will retire at the end of June 30, 2018. The Teacher and Employment Retention Incentive program, which allowed teachers to continue working while retired will end. As of July 2017, 1,955 teachers were participating and earning a full salary and full retirement benefits (Self & Dulaney, 2018). After June 30th, retired teachers will be allowed to earn no more than 10,000 dollars and still draw retirement benefits.

Teachers interviewed by the local newspaper echo the points cited in the review of the literature as reasons why teachers are leaving the teaching profession, i.e., low pay, heavy workloads, teaching-to-the-test culture, and the lack of support from principals and parents (Self & Dulaney, 2018). The CERRA (2018) reported that at least 6,705 teachers quit their jobs, 5000 left the profession altogether. Fewer students are aspiring to become teachers. During the school year of 2015-2016 appropriately 1,898 students completed the South Carolina teacher education program compared to the 2012-2013 numbers of 2,447 forcing school districts to other ways to meet their hiring needs to include alternative certification programs and teachers

(CERRA,2016). The teacher shortage in South Carolina according to the CERRA (2018) is not expected to get better, and in 2027-2028 the teacher shortage is projected to be 6000, which includes guidance counselors. Math, science, special education, and social studies are still the hardest areas to fill, with a projected 2,500 vacant teaching positions (CERRA,2018; Self & Dulaney,2018).

Therefore, it is in the best interest of schools to ensure the commitment of teachers beyond the requirements of the job. School districts seeking to identify the best candidates for open principal positions in their school districts or recruiting candidates to their schools will need to consider candidates' organization management competencies are needed for adequate teacher hiring and budget allocation. "It is neither teachers alone nor principals alone who improve schools, but teachers and principals working together" (Schmidt-Davis & Bottoms, 2011, p. 2). Richardson et al. (1993) asserted, "Without teachers who are motivated to teach, the search for excellence will be in vain" (p. 171).

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Appendix A: Permission to use Self-Determination Questionnaires



Research on Self-Determination Theory has included laboratory experiments and field studies in several different settings. In order to do this research, we have developed many questionnaires to assess different constructs contained within the theory. Each questionnaire page will typically include not only the scale itself, but also a description of the scale, a key for the scale, and references for articles describing studies that used the scale.

***** Please note that all questionnaires on this website, developed for research on self-determination theory, are copyrighted. You are welcome to use the instruments for academic (non-commercial) research projects. However, you may not use any of them for any commercial purposes without written permission to do so from Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan. (To inquire about a commercial request, please email info@selfdeterminationtheory.org)**

Basic Psychological Needs Scales (BPNS)

Self-determination theory posits three universal psychological needs and suggests that these must be ongoingly satisfied for people to maintain optimal performance and well-being. The BPNS is a set of questionnaires that assess the degree to which people feel satisfaction of these three needs.

Appendix B: *MLQ* 5x Short

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**Multifactor Leadership questionnaire
Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)
and Scoring Guide (Form 5X-Short)
by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass**

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Appendix C: Basic Need Satisfaction at Work

The following questions concern your feelings about your job during the last year. (If you have been on this job for less than a year, this concerns the entire time you have been at this job.) Please indicate how true each of the following statement is for you given your experiences on this job. Remember that your boss will never know how you responded to the questions. Please use the following scale in response to the items.

Not at all True			Somewhat True			Very True
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done.
2. I really like the people I work with.
3. I do not feel very competent when I am at work.
4. People at work tell me I am good at what I do.
5. I feel pressured at work.
6. I get along with people at work.
7. I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work.
8. I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.
9. I consider the people I work with to be my friends.
10. I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job.
11. When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.
12. Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.
13. My feelings are taken into consideration at work.
14. On my job, I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am.
15. People at work care about me.
16. There are not many people at work that I am close to.
17. I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.
18. The people I work with do not seem to like me much.
19. When I am working, I often do not feel very capable.
20. There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work.
21. People at work are friendly towards me.

Appendix D: Teacher Demographic Questionnaire

DIRECTIONS: For each item, please indicate your response by a circle or check the appropriate response.

What is your gender?	Male		Female			
What is your ethnicity?	African American		Caucasian	Asian American	Hispanic American	Other
What is your age?	18-24	25-30	30-45	45-55	Older than 55	
Including the current school year, how many years of teaching experience do you have?	1-2	3-7	8 -15	15 or more		
Which best describes your current school level?	Middle School	High School	Freshman Academy			
If you had the opportunity to start a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?	Yes		No			
How many more years do you plan to teach? (Please provide a number.)	1-2	3-7	8-15	15-25	30 or more	

Thank you for taking part in this research study.