

AN ANALYSIS OF SUCCESSFUL INDUCTION PROGRAMS FOR EARLY
CAREER TEACHERS IN RURAL CENTRAL WASHINGTON STATE SCHOOLS

by

ROBERT T. DARLING

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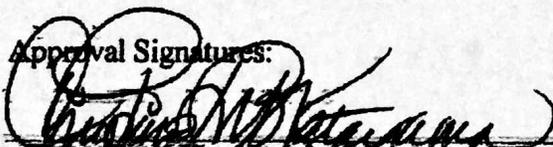
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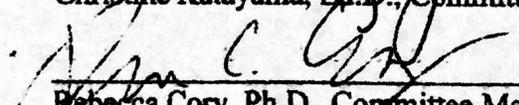
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Approval Signatures:


Christine Katayama, Ed.D., Committee Chair

06-25-2016

Date


Rebecca Cory, Ph.D., Committee Member

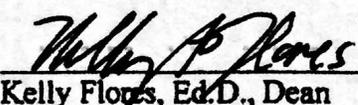
06-25-2016

Date


Arron Grow, Ph.D., Committee Member

06-25-2016

Date


Kelly Flores, Ed.D., Dean

06-25-2016

Date

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative applied research study addressed the challenges public school principals in rural school communities face with regard to retention of provisional teachers. The two research questions that guided this study were: (a) What are principals in some rural schools in Educational Service District 105 in Central Washington State doing to successfully retain provisional teachers? (b) What support did provisional teachers from those schools in ESD 105 report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools? Principals and teachers from five schools with high retention rates for provisional teachers were interviewed to identify components implemented in their schools to support provisional teachers. The teachers revealed the impact that induction program components had on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools beyond their provisional status years. Relationships between induction program components and teacher retention were identified. Teachers also identified other factors that influenced their decisions to continue working in the same school. Responses were categorized using the constant comparative method and categorized by themes: professional development, time to interact with colleagues, supportive school leadership, positive school culture, and location and community. Teachers identified common leadership style among the five principals that can be classified as Responsive Leadership. The singular factor unrelated to induction or principal impact identified by teachers was their desire to work and reside in the same rural community.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Induction programs for new teachers have been shown to increase teacher retention (Wechsler, Caspary, Humphrey, & Matsko, 2010); yet, new teachers in public education are leaving at an alarming rate (Henry, Bastian, & Fortner, 2011; Kaiser, 2011). New teachers face the pressures of learning new curriculum and working with new colleagues and administrators (Beavers, 2011). They may have the frustrations of not feeling adequate or competent that come with starting a new career and the constant demand to increase their efficacy (Parkay, Stanford, & Gougeon, 2010). New teachers are expected to be vigilant with their communication to parents, attend before- and after-school meetings, learn how to administer state-mandated testing, address special education requirements and student accommodations, and plan for unfamiliar lessons (Butcher, Bezzina, & Moran, 2011). They bear the task of using their emerging skills and content knowledge to show substantial growth in each of their students (Jackson, 2014).

Schools with under-performing student populations experience the greatest teacher turnover, with teachers either leaving the profession within five years or seeking positions with other schools whose students perform better (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Henry et al., 2011; Kaiser, 2011). Teacher turnover is a significant issue in rural school districts. School principals in rural districts face the struggle of recruiting, training, and retaining teachers while addressing diminished financial support, a lack of personnel resources, and knowing they are assigning these new teachers in classrooms with at-risk students. Therefore, more than ever, new teachers need support. They need training and access to individualized professional growth opportunities to assure they remain confident in their abilities, current in their knowledge and pedagogy, and feel

valued. To increase teacher retention, research shows that school principals need to establish and sustain a systematic teacher induction program (Richter et al., 2013; Roberts & Pankake, 2012, Weschler et al., 2010).

Study Background/Foundation

Teacher attrition has become a significant issue for educational leaders. Between 33-56% of teachers leave the profession within three years (Allensworth et al., 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2010; DeAngelis & Presley, 2011; Ingersoll, 2012; Martin, Andrews, & Gilbert, 2009), and some researchers found as high as 70% leave teaching within six years (Carroll, 2007).

Of the nearly 300,000 teachers in the workforce, approximately 25% of all U.S. teachers have less than five years of teaching experience. This number is three times the number of new teachers there were in 1987-1988 (Hussar and Bailey, 2013; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Teacher turnover rates are greater than in professions such as lawyers, engineers, pharmacists, and architects; about the same turnover rates as police officers and correction officers; and lower turnover rates than child care workers, secretaries, and paraprofessionals (Ingersoll & Perda, 2010). The teaching profession has an extremely vulnerable clientele with public demands for performance expectations but 25% of the field is made up of new and inexperienced employees (Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Irving, Widdowson, & Dixon, 2010).

Turnover of early career teachers creates a situation where administrators are continually hiring new teachers. This is a problem because new teachers are usually much less effective than veteran teachers, even to the point where new teachers may have a negative impact on student achievement (Chiu & Klassen, 2010; Ingersoll & Strong,

2011). Increasing content knowledge, classroom management skills, and pedagogy of new teachers are ways to minimize the negative impact of new teachers and increase new teacher efficacy (Bullough, 2012; Hattie, 2009; Nasser-Abu & Fresko, 2010; Roberts & Pankake, 2012; Trickett et al., 2012). Mentorship is a key component of induction programs that address early career teacher support and retention (Bleach, 2013).

New teacher induction and mentoring programs also increase new teacher efficacy (Hattie, 2009; Rots, Kelchtermans, & Aelterman, 2012). A teacher induction program may include veteran peer mentorship, collegial collaboration, additional support from administration, individualized professional development, release time for peer observations, ideal job placement, and a professional growth plan (Bullough, 2012; Nasser-Abu & Fresko, 2010; Roberts & Pankake, 2012; Trickett et al., 2012). Components of teacher induction are designed to provide new teachers with extra resources, a colleague-based support network, and increased exposure to teaching and classroom management strategies (Rots et al., 2012). Subsequent sections in the literature review in Chapter 2 identify which components researchers found to have the biggest impact on instructional efficacy.

There have been several research studies on the impact of teacher induction programs. One example of how an induction program had a positive impact on new teacher retention came from a 2011 survey published by New Teacher Center. In 2011, 81% of 917 new teachers surveyed in Chicago Public Schools reported that they believed their instructional abilities improved from receiving induction services. That percentage increased to 99% when teachers had two years of induction support (New Teacher Center, 2011).

Current State of the Field in Which the Problem Exists

The increasing number of new teachers in the field presents negative consequences. When compared to teachers with more than five years of teaching experience, new teachers have the lowest levels of effect with teaching strategies, student engagement, and classroom management (Chiu & Klassen, 2010; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). This means that students of new teachers often receive instruction that is less engaging to meet their broad range of academic and behavioral needs than what they would receive from more experienced teachers.

The impact a teacher has on student academic achievement can be measured and quantified. This impact, or effect size, has been studied in such detail that the impact can be identified by specific teaching strategies (Hattie, 2009). Hattie's (2009) synthesis of 800 meta-analyses, which included over 50,000 studies from the last 20 years, presented a ranking (and corresponding impact) of teaching strategies and other factors on student achievement. These rankings are based on the standard deviation of each strategy and factor. Hattie's (2009) research found that the average student's maturation of one year has a standard deviation of 0.10. This research revealed that one year of instruction from an average teacher has a standard deviation, or the positive impact on the student's academic performance, of 0.40. In other words, the average student can be expected to academically improve 0.40 if he or she regularly attends the class of an average teacher for one school year (Hattie, 2009).

Hattie's (2009) research showed that students in classrooms of effective teachers may have one-half to one full year of growth in school more than students with low-effect teachers. This difference between low- and high-effect teachers equals nearly 10

percentile points on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), the difference of two American College Testing (ACT) college readiness test score points, or 50 Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) college readiness test score points. If a student has a low-effect teacher for two consecutive years, s/he could be one to two grade-levels behind a peer in the classroom of a high-effect teacher for those same two years. Experienced teachers can have a greater impact on students than their socioeconomic status, home environment, or parent involvement (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Ronfeldt, & Wyckoff, 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hattie, 2009; Hanushek, Rivkin, Figlio, & Jacob, 2010; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009).

Students from poverty, from homes that lack academic support, or from communities with increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse communities are considered *at-risk*, and are often taught by the least experienced teachers (Buddin & Zamarro, 2009; Donaldson & Johnson, 2010; Watlington, Shockley, Guglielmino, & Felsher, 2010). For the purpose of this research, the definition of *at-risk student* was adapted from work by Professor Arthur Pearl (Laguardia & Pearl, 2009) and refers to a student who is unlikely to graduate on time or leave school with the skills and confidence necessary to implement meaningful options for work, inter and intrapersonal relationships, culture, leisure, and civic affairs (Laguardia & Pearl, 2009; Valencia, 2012). The national teacher turnover rate is 16.8%, but in schools where a significant number of students are categorized as at-risk, the average teacher turnover rate is 20% (Carrol, Fulton, & Doerr, 2010).

Teacher turnover and the consequent increase of new teachers often has a negative impact on school culture and grade-level team efficacy (Roberts & Pankake, 2012; Rots et al., 2012). This is, in part, because new teachers are less effective,

especially when working with at-risk populations, and less effective teachers are more likely to leave the profession than effective teachers (Goldhaber, Gross, & Player, 2011; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010).

Urban districts are not the only ones impacted by teacher turnover. Teacher retention is an issue in isolated and rural districts as well (Banville & Rikard, 2009; Beesley, Atwill, Blair, & Barley, 2010; Maranto, & Shuls, 2012). National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) defines rural as: all territory, population, and housing units outside of urbanized areas and urban clusters (Schneider, 2006). School leaders in rural schools face the challenge of having their most inexperienced teachers in classrooms with high poverty, or culturally and linguistically diverse student populations, a situation shown to increase teacher turnover.

Washington State school districts are classified or coded as urban, suburban, or rural based on their geographic relationship to a metropolitan area and its population (Schneider, 2006). These codes are called *urban-centric locale codes* (Education Research & Data Center [ERDC], 2010; Schneider, 2006). Of the 295 school districts in Washington State, 162 are classified as distant or rural districts (ERDC, 2010). Although they may represent an overall smaller number of teachers and students than urban and suburban schools, they make up 55% of all school districts in Washington State.

Historical Background

Nationwide, teacher turnover has been an issue. Past research showed similar data in Washington State as well. In a 2005 study of 20 Washington State school districts, researchers found that only 58% of teachers who were teaching in 1998 were still teaching in the same schools in 2003 (Plecki, Elfers, Loeb, Zahir, & Knapp, 2005). In the

same study, six of seven districts with high-poverty student populations had more teachers leave than in schools with low-poverty student populations. Working with high-poverty student populations, also identified as high-risk student populations, poses significant challenges and struggles to teachers and principals (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Principals in high-poverty schools struggle to attract and retain high-quality teachers. (Ingersoll, 2012). Teacher turnover is impacted by frustration with low student academic performance, and unfavorable working conditions (Diyen, 2013; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012).

There is currently no statewide-funded induction program for new teachers in Washington State. In 2002, legislation was passed that required each district to provide a New Teacher Induction Program (Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction [OSPI] Teacher Assistance Program, 2016). The legislation identified specific components of the induction program, and Washington State created the Beginning Educator Support Team (BEST) (Bullough, 2012). These components are identified in greater detail in Chapter 2. By 2009, BEST was not available to all new teachers and by 2010-2011 funding for the program was eliminated.

However, in 2014, Washington State legislature reinstated the BEST Grant Program for one year. Funding was made available for new teacher induction programs for 37 districts. This equates to 12.5% of school districts in Washington State receiving financial and professional support for teacher induction programs from OSPI (OSPI Teacher Assistance Program, 2016). These districts were required to complete a grant application process that addressed their eligibility, described their current induction

program, and outlined how the district would meet program expectations and requirements.

Deficiencies in the Evidence

According to research by Plecki et al. (2005), for The Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy at the University of Washington, 58% of teachers from 1998 to 2003 remained as classroom teachers in the same school, 13% transferred to another school in the district, 9% left for another district, and 20% left the education system in Washington State. During this five-year span, 42% of teachers left their schools. The researchers studied 20 districts because these 20 districts represented nearly 30% of the state's teaching workforce and over 25% of the state's student population (Plecki et al., 2005). Their research from 2005 showed that the three largest urban districts had the lowest rates of movement outside the district.

The research did not, however, focus on teacher turnover in rural districts. There were 20 districts studied for the research and four were classified as rural (ERDC, 2010). The research did not address the extent to which induction programs were available to new teachers, but Plecki et al. (2005) found that novice teachers had the highest rate of changing schools within their respective districts. Research did not address how many of these districts received state funding for induction programs, which districts provided support systems for new teachers, and to what extent they were implemented. Although Plecki et al. (2005) found results that were *not as bad* as they had been reported nationally regarding new teacher attrition, state funding for induction programs began to diminish after the 2005 research was reported (Bullough, 2012).

Problem Statement

While the attrition of early career teachers is a problem for school principals, complicating the overall retention of teachers is the trend of retiring teachers. In 1988, the average teacher was 40 years old and had 15 years of teaching experience. In 2008, the average teacher was 57 years old and the most common teacher was a first year teacher (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). The number of new teachers is projected to grow over 380,000 by 2022 (Hussar & Bailey, 2013). Due to the trend of retiring teachers and early career turnover, support needs to be provided. One common system of supporting teachers is an induction program.

Washington State legislation once required school district leaders to organize and sustain induction programs, but with reductions in state funding, superintendents, human resource directors, directors of teaching and learning, principals, and teacher-leaders became responsible for the induction programs (Bullough, 2012). The overall turnover for new teachers nationally is projected to increase over the next ten years, but there are no clear projections on what the turnover issue may look like in rural districts. There are no projected state-level funding initiatives in Washington State to provide induction programs. The lack of state-wide funding perpetuates the struggle for school district leaders and principals to retain new teachers.

Audience

School and district leaders will find results from this study valuable because they will identify what their peers in similar financial and personnel-related situations are able to do to retain new teachers. Principals will have access to information about what

current and former provisional rural Washington State teachers reported as having the greatest impact on their decisions to remain working in the same school.

Washington State education leaders and legislators may also find value in the information provided from this study. They may be able to identify gaps in the current program or an increased urgency to support new teachers, especially in rural settings. This research study is valuable for new teachers. New teachers enter the profession with the most current pedagogy (Beetham & Sharpe, 2013), up-to-date educational technology (Harris, Mishra, & Koehler, 2009; Leary, Lee, & Recker, 2014) and are young in age and career to devote decades to student learning as well as their own professional growth (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010).

School district personnel involved in mentoring or supporting new teachers were a targeted audience for this research because comprehensive induction programs should include capable instructional mentors and multiple support structures for beginning teachers, strong program leaders, and ongoing program evaluation (Carrol et al., 2010; Donaldson & Johnson, 2011; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010; Maranto & Shuls, 2012). Information from the research may impact the responsibilities of mentor teachers, building coaches, and content facilitators, as well as district and regional leadership from Educational Service Districts (ESDs).

Specific Leadership Problem

Principals in rural schools face the increasing challenge of hiring and retaining new teachers. According to Bullough (2012), financial and systematic support for providing induction programs from the state-level has diminished. The lack of funding and resources places the responsibility of supporting new teachers on principals and

district leaders. Often times, in rural areas, the district leadership is the school principal. Rural schools do not have the large candidate pool available to urban or suburban schools. When a job is available in a rural school, it is most often filled with a new teacher because rural school leaders struggle to attract veteran teachers. The process of hiring takes time, requires extra hours of work, and places a financial burden on school leaders (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010). The dilemma that school principals face is that if they do not provide adequate support for their new teachers, these new teachers may also leave, starting the hiring process again.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify what principals in five rural Central Washington State schools, whose early career teacher retention rates were noticeably higher than other schools in their geographic region, are doing to successfully retain provisional teachers. The induction strategies and their components were identified from two perspectives: (a) what principals reported as being provided for new teachers; and (b) what new teachers reported as having the greatest impact on their decisions to continue teaching in the same school.

This study addressed the problem by identifying how rural school principals successfully retained provisional teachers with limited resources and without comprehensive induction programs. Principals were interviewed to determine what they were doing to overcome the obstacles that impact retaining teachers in rural schools. Provisional teachers who remained in the same school were interviewed to discover why they continued working at their respective schools.

Methodology Overview

Basic qualitative research design was used for this study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Basic qualitative research methodology often involves using open-ended surveys or interview questions to understand how meaning is constructed, and how people make sense of their situations (Creswell, 2012; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Merriam and Tisdell (2015) stated that the primary goal of a basic qualitative study was to uncover and interpret meanings.

Data was gathered from interviews with five principals and 13 teachers from school districts in ESD 105. Participant responses were recorded verbatim. Interview responses were read a number of times and with each reading, the participants' words, phrases, actions, or concepts were underlined or highlighted. The sections that were underlined and highlighted were then coded, using the open coding method (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

The open coding method involved assigning words or short phrases to summarize responses from the interviews, without a preconceived hypothesis or agenda (Saldana, 2009; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Codes were assigned when information was repeated, when a response was unique, or when the interviewee articulated that it was important. Once the codes were articulated, the constant comparative method was used to group data into themes. The constant comparative method involved an analysis of the codes to identify similarities, differences, and variations within the data (Fram, 2013; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Unlike other data analysis methods, constant comparative does not include a preconceived hypothesis, rather, it involves using the data to generate theories

or themes (Hallberg, 2006). Through this process, responses to the interview questions were gathered which answered the two fundamental research questions.

Research Questions

There were two research questions that served as the foundation for the research:

- What are principals in some rural schools in ESD 105 doing to successfully retain provisional teachers?
- What support did provisional teachers from those schools in ESD 105 report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools?

Study Limitations

There are two limitations identified within this study. One limitation may have been instances where teachers had more than one principal or administrator while they were provisional teachers. Because of the limited scope of the questions, there is not a specific question that addressed this situation. Any clarification or discussion regarding this situation was only addressed if the information was volunteered by the interviewee.

The study solicited responses from principals of the provisional teachers. One of the principals was new to the school and may not have had firsthand knowledge of what was done for induction programs by the predecessor. The responses from the participants were included in this study because their perspectives about why teachers remained at the school and how they felt were relevant to what their school leadership provided them. The previous principal had established teacher support systems that sustained these teachers, even with changes in school leadership.

Another limitation addresses the survey data being used from the ESD 105 provisional teacher survey. Although district leaders were instructed to report only information for provisional teachers who had three years or less teaching experience, and permission was received from ESD 105 to view, analyze, and use the results from the ESD experience, the accuracy of responses from participants could not be verified. The research study was performed assuming the retention rates reported in the ESD survey followed the reporting guidelines, as explained in the ESD survey.

Definitions of Key Terms

At-risk (or high-risk) students: a student who is unlikely to graduate on-time or leave school with the skills and confidence necessary to implement meaningful options for work, inter- and intrapersonal relationships, culture, leisure, and civic affairs (Baker, Chard, Ketterlin-Geller, Apichatabutra, & Doabler, 2009; Liew, Chen, & Hughes, 2010).

Attrition: the reduction in the number of teachers because they resigned (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Boyd et al., 2011).

Autonomy: Encouragement of independence, as defined by Vansteenkiste et al. (2012). McGrath (2000) stated there are two dimensions of teacher autonomy: others allowing the freedom of control, and action or development that is self-directed. According to Pearson and Moomaw (2005), autonomy can be defined as “the freedom to prescribe the best treatment for their students, as doctors/lawyers do for their patients/clients” (p. 38).

Comprehensive teacher performance evaluation: A Washington State teacher performance evaluation that utilizes the components, criteria, and student growth

requirements outlined in the State Eight Criteria. (Washington State Teacher and Principal Evaluation Project, 2016).

High-poverty: A school where more than 50% of the student population receives lunches at a free or reduced cost. (Boyd et al., 2011; Freedman, & Appleman, 2009; Sass, Hannaway, Xu, Figlio, & Feng, 2012).

Highly Qualified Teacher: The teacher must have at least a bachelor's degree, obtain state certification and licensure, and demonstrate competence in subject area, if applicable (Banks, 2015). In Washington State, all teachers hired prior to December 10, 2015 are required to maintain high-qualified status (Every Student Succeeds Act - Highly Qualified Teachers, 2016).

Induction programs: support programs provided for provisional teachers. These programs may include, but are not limited to, an assigned veteran peer mentor, collegial collaboration, additional support from administration, individualized professional development, release time for peer observations, ideal job placement, and a professional growth plan (Bullough, 2012; OSPI Teacher Assistance Program, 2016; Wechsler et al., 2010).

Job-embedded professional development: teacher learning designed to enhance instructional practice to improve student learning. It is grounded in teachers' daily practice and consists of assessing and identifying solutions for immediate problems of practice (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, & Powers, 2010).

Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA): a county or group of counties that contain a core urban area of 50,000 or more as well as any adjacent counties with a high degree of economic and social integration (Eisenstein, O'Conner, Smith & Xing, 2012). MSA has

five geographic setting categories: large metro, metro suburb, mid-size, urban fringe, and distant (ERDC, 2010).

Provisional, Early Career/New Teachers: According to RCW 28A.405.220 (Washington State Engrossed State Senate Bill (ESSB) 6696, 2015) there are three definitions of a provisional teacher. The first definition applies to teachers new to the profession. Teachers are considered provisional during their first three years working as certificated teachers in their respective districts. The second definition applies to teachers new to the school district but with prior teaching experience outside of Washington State. They are provisional teachers for three years while employed in the same school district. The third definition applies to certificated teachers with two or more years of experience in Washington State but who are new to their current school districts. They are placed in provisional status for only one year. For the purpose of this research *provisional teachers* will hereinafter refer to early career teachers in the first three years of their teaching career and/or new to the school.

Responsive Leadership: a leadership style that “encourages leaders, through a relations and a strengths orientation, to learn about and engage with employee needs, values, goals, and strengths in order to optimize motivation, employee satisfaction, and overall performance” (Lewis, 2015, p. 45).

Retention rates: The number, often times presented as a percentage, of teachers who return and teach from one school-year to the next (Hughes, 2012).

Rural: For the purpose of this research, all Washington State school districts with a NCES urban-centric locale code of 41, rural fringe; 32, town, distant territory; 33, town,

remote territory; 42, rural, distant; and locale code 43, rural remote (ERDC, 2010; Schneider, 2006)

Standard Deviation: a quantity calculated to indicate the extent of deviation for a group of data points (Bland & Altman, 1999).

Student learning outcomes: the expected learning that a teacher intends for students during a specific lesson, unit, or over a specified amount of time (Kuh, Jankowski, Ikenberry, & Kinzie, 2014).

Teacher Effect: the impact a teacher has on the academic growth of his or her students. (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hattie, 2009; Milner, 2010; Richter et al., 2013)

Teacher Retention: when a teacher returns to teach at the same school from one school year to the next (Freedman & Appleman, 2009; Hughes, 2012; Plecki et al., 2005).

Time to collaborate with peers: a set time each week for teachers working together to achieve a collective purpose of learning for all their students. This involves creating structures to promote a culture of collaboration (Dufour, Eaker, & Dufour, 2010).

Time to interact with supportive educational leaders: the availability to talk and/or work with the school principal, assistant principals, and/or instructional coaches.

Under-performing student: student whose academic progress is consistently poor (Dobele, Gangemi, Kopanidis, & Thomas, 2013).

Summary

Induction programs for new teachers, whether they include multiple components or occasional opportunities for professional development, are shown to improve teacher efficacy. These programs require structure, extra time and support from school leaders

and veteran mentor teachers, and funding for training, and for teacher-release time. Washington State does not provide statewide funding for induction programs, leaving districts and principals to create, implement, and sustain induction programs. Rural districts do not have the financial or personnel resources available to other districts.

Rural schools, which are often schools with high poverty and/or high culturally and linguistically diverse populations in Washington State (OSPI, 2016), face challenges with attracting qualified teachers and keeping them long enough to become quality veteran teachers (Books & de Villiers, 2013; Donaldson & Johnson, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2011). Principals are forced to fill a majority of open positions with new and inexperienced teachers (Books & de Villiers, 2013; Donaldson & Johnson, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2011). In general, new teachers have low effect on student growth compared to more experienced teachers. New teachers face the difficult demands of having new jobs in schools unfamiliar to them, with new curriculum and peers. In Washington State, they now have the burden of their overall performance evaluation being directly connected to the academic growth of their students.

This chapter included the background and foundation of the study, discussed the current state of the field in which the problem exists, and provided a historical background. A problem statement was provided and the section included a description of the targeted audience for the study, as well as specific leadership problems. An overview of the purpose and methodology of the study was next, followed by the two specific research questions for the study. Chapter 1 concluded with a description of the limitations of the study, and listed definitions of key terms used throughout the study.

Chapter 2 includes a review of literature related to the study. The chapter is divided into three different topics related to the study, and provides a historical account of the literature, the current state of the field as it relates to the study, and concludes with a description of gaps in the literature, as it relates to this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter is comprised of a review of literature for three main topics related to the study. The first topic is retention of K-12 early career teachers, identifying some of the issues that cause new teachers to leave the profession. The second topic is the impact that early career teachers have on the academic growth of students in their classrooms. The last topic includes a review of literature regarding intervention and induction components that have been shown to have a positive impact with supporting and retaining new teachers. Each section begins with a historical context and discusses the current state of the topic. Each section also identifies gaps in the literature as they relate to the respective topic.

New Teacher Retention

Retaining new teachers has become a major challenge for leaders in K-12 public schools. Research shows that one in five teachers leaves the profession after the first year, and that number increases to half of all new teachers leaving within the first five years (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Teacher turnover impacts the morale of school employees, and places increased stress on school officials responsible for hiring and training teachers. Teacher turnover also has a negative impact on the academic growth of students. Darling-Hammond (2010) stated that there has been concerted effort across the county to recruit and keep highly qualified teachers. However, Ingersoll and Merrill (2012) also found that the teaching force in recent years has become increasingly less and less experienced.

Historical Context of New Teacher Retention

The landscape of teaching has changed over the last 30 years. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (Hussar & Bailey, 2014), in 1988 there were 100,000 teachers in the United States that had less than five years of teaching experience. In that same year, the most common teacher in the United States had 15 years of teaching experience. In 2008, the most common teacher was a first year teacher, and the average age of teachers in 2008 was 57 (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). The teaching field is facing a large number of *graying teachers*, who, in upcoming years, will be retiring (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Their replacements will be new, inexperienced teachers.

Another issue that has been a significant change for teachers is the job performance evaluation process. Studies by Burnett, Cushing and Biyona (2012) and Shakman et al. (2012) represent found that, historically, teachers were typically evaluated on a binary rating scale that provided very little feedback, and required little input or effort from teachers. Research by Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, & Keeling (2009) concluded that 99% of all teachers on a binary rating scale received a satisfactory rating, and that even those using scales with three or more levels, less than 1% received an unsatisfactory rating.

These evaluations were not connected to the academic performance of students. Marzano (2012) stated that districts across the United States are developing new systems in response to reports and initiatives that identified two major failings of past evaluation criteria. First, the evaluation systems failed to discriminate between effective and ineffective teachers. Second, the systems did not increase the number of highly skilled teachers in the workforce. The development of the new evaluation systems and the impact of these changes on teachers are discussed further in Chapter 3

Nationally, turnover for new teachers is projected to increase over the next 10 years, but there are no clear projections on what the turnover issue may look like in Washington State, especially in rural districts. The number of new teachers in public education is at its highest peak and steadily increasing, yet the projected support programs designed to retain these teachers is decreasing (Bullough, 2012; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010). There are several issues currently facing teachers: increasing expectations for rigor and transparency, job performance evaluation requirements, achieving and maintaining highly-qualified status, low job satisfaction, challenging job placement, and lack of support from principals (Sass, Seal and Martin, 2011). These programs will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

Current State of New Teacher Retention

Ingersoll and Merrill (2012) calculated that by 2022 there would be an increase of 80,000 new teachers in education across the 50 states. The number of new teachers in Washington State, however, will increase at a greater rate than other states. This increase is due to 2015 Washington State legislation, Senate Bill 6080, that requires schools to lower classroom size in grades kindergarten through third grade by 2017 (OSPI, 2016). OSPI (2016) predicts an increase of 7,800 new teachers to fill positions, increasing an already existing shortage in teachers and substitute teachers in Washington State. This 2015 legislative action further complicates for school leaders the current issues they face regarding the processes of hiring and retaining teachers.

One issue, according to the OSPI/AWSP Teacher and Substitute Shortage Survey (2015), is the current teacher shortage in Washington State. For the survey, school principals were interviewed and it was reported that in 2015, 45% of Washington State

school districts were not able to hire enough certificated teachers to fill vacancies. With the approaching increase of nearly 8,000 new classrooms, a shortage of certificated teachers is likely to continue.

As the graying generation of teachers retires and the trend of new teachers leaving continues, school administrators face an increasing deficit of experienced teachers in classrooms across the county. While school leaders can predict and plan for replacing veteran teachers, new teacher turnover is difficult to ascertain. However, Sass et al.(2011) revealed that *teacher burnout* is among the common reasons identified by new teachers who decided to leave the profession. The following section will discuss the key issues related to teacher burnout.

Teacher burnout. Teacher burnout, as presented by Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty and Harrington (2014) can be attributed to a number of factors: stress and lack of support, the “overwhelming amount of after-hours work,” low pay, lack of autonomy, lack of respect (Riggs, 2013; Sass et al., 2011). Fisher (2011) found that the expectations and workload of a K-12 teacher have changed significantly over the last 15-20 years.

Increasing expectations for rigor and transparency. Ravitch (2013) penned that teacher and student performance is more transparent. Research by Ballou and Springer (2015) and Thibodeaux, Labat, Lee and Labat (2015) discussed how high-stakes standardized testing has been a national topic of interest, with the increased demand for scores and school ratings to be made public and used to evaluate the efficacy of schools and individual teachers. Rentner (2013) affirmed that the academic rigor required of teachers to help students become *college and career ready* has increased considerably the demand placed on teachers.

With this increased demand for rigor comes an expectation for teachers to find ways to incorporate technology as part of their instructional practice. Tondeur et al. (2012) found that technology can change, update, or become obsolete quickly, and teachers report it is difficult to remain current. Tondeur et al. acknowledged that technology provides teachers with a way to increase student engagement and communication. Washington State Teacher and Principal Evaluation Project (2016) revealed that teachers, in order to achieve a proficient rating in certain components of their evaluations, are expected to provide ongoing, two-way communication with parents, whether through emails, blogs, or other delivery methods. The expectation to maintain up-to-the-minute attendance and academic records for students and parents to access and review online requires teachers to be constantly updating their online gradebooks, and having assignments and projects graded as soon as possible (Siemens, 2005). This requirement for communication is among the new performance requirements for teachers.

Job performance evaluation requirements. Flook, Goldberg, Pinger, Bonus, and Davidson (2013) stated that the demands and expectations of teacher job performance evaluations was identified as another reason that increased the stress and burnout of teachers in recent years. As discussed previously, and reiterated by Hill and Grossman (2013), the teacher evaluation system, specifically in Washington State, changed dramatically in 2015 as a result of new state legislation. Washington State Engrossed State Senate Bill 6696 (2015) changed the teacher evaluation rating system from a binary evaluation system that rated teachers as satisfactory or unsatisfactory to a four-tiered evaluation system. Teachers receive a rating of unsatisfactory, basic, proficient, or distinguished, with the expectation that teachers receive ratings of

proficient or higher. Along with the rating system, the quantity of what is included in the teacher evaluation process has also changed significantly. Teachers in Washington have an evaluation framework with eight evaluation criteria, containing between 27-36 individual elements, depending on which instructional framework the school district has adopted.

Washington State lawmakers also passed legislation that requires a portion of all public school teachers' end-of-year performance evaluations be directly connected to the academic growth of their students. Of the eight criteria for teacher evaluation, Criteria 3, 6, and 8 contain five student growth components (Washington State Teacher and Principal Evaluation Project, 2016). Student academic growth is weighted as part of the teacher's overall job performance, potentially having a negative impact on how a teacher is rated. The evaluation process requires principals and teachers to engage in an observation cycle which involves on-going meetings during the school year to discuss expectations and requirements for the evaluation process, engaging in dialogue around instructional practice, classroom observations, gathering of evidence of the impact the teachers have on students, and using the evidence to rate teachers. Morrison (2012) discussed that this process needs to look different for new teachers compared to the process for veteran teachers to increase retention of new teachers.

Achieving and maintaining highly-qualified status. Adding to the stress level and workload of new teachers is the requirement to sustain their *highly-qualified* status. As identified by Wiseman, (2012) and Bleach (2013), after earning their initial teaching certificate, teachers are required to complete another level of certification to be in compliance with licensure mandates. In Washington State, teachers can earn either the

professional certificate or national board certificate. Both of these certification processes require a minimum of one year of professional development from an approved university support program that includes completion of portfolios in which teachers provide evidence of their positive impact on student learning.

Low job satisfaction. Low job dissatisfaction was identified as a reason for teacher burnout (Sass et al., 2011; Zai & Munshi, 2016; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). According to a 2012 Metropolitan Life survey by Markow, Macia and Lee (2013) of teachers and principals, job satisfaction among school teachers declined from 62% in 2008 to 39% in 2012, the lowest level in the last 25 years. In 1985, 36% of teachers reported feeling *great stress* almost every day or several days a week; by 2012, that percentage increased to 51% of teachers, especially in schools with diminished budgets and increased numbers of students not meeting standards. Parkay, Stanford, and Gougeon (2010) also identified that, for teachers, their ability to help students make academic gains and accomplish their achievement goals in meeting standards is directly connected with their perception of their success as teachers. Zai and Munshi (2016) defined teachers' *sense of efficacy* as their confidence and satisfaction in their ability to increase student learning. Høigaard, Giske, and Sundsli (2012) and Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2014) found the more teachers feel that they are having a positive impact on student achievement, the more satisfaction they feel in their careers. The level of satisfaction teachers experience in their job is not only an important predictor of their functioning in school but also of their intention to remain in or leave the profession. One issue that contributes to their satisfaction is related to job placement.

Challenging job placement. Another issue, identified by Goldhaber, Gross, and Player (2011) and Hanushek and Rivkin (2010) that increases job dissatisfaction is the placement of new teachers in settings with increased numbers of challenging and at-risk students. The least experienced teachers, due to not being hired in affluent or high-performing schools, often start their careers in schools with students classified as high-poverty and high-minority, students with special learning needs or social/behavioral issues schools, or students with high transiency rates or situations of homelessness (Booth & Dunn, 2013; Carver, Lewis, & Tice, 2010; Duncan & Murnane, 2011; Faircloth & Tippeconnec III, 2010; Liew, Chen, & Hughes, 2010). They work with students with truancy issues and drug use, students with low self-esteem, limited social connections at school or have minimal identification with the school. They work with students whose families speak little or no English, or students from single-parent homes. Sass, Hannaway, Xu, Figlio, and Feng, (2012) and Strange, Sheng, Sheng, and Anderson (2011) found that working with students with special learning needs or social/behavioral issues places new teachers in situations where they not only struggle to help students make the necessary academic growth, these students often have increased behavior problems and lack parent support, which add to the stress level and frustration of being new teachers.

Conditions of employment causing teacher burnout were not issues in years past. New teachers have increased stressful experiences due to the *overwhelming amount of after-hours work*, low pay, lack of autonomy, and lack of respect (Flook et al., 2013). Teachers are being held more accountable for achieving student academic growth measures than ever before, and this accountability is public and transparent. New teachers

are often placed in classroom where they work with the most challenging student populations (Booth & Dunn, 2013; Carver, Lewis, & Tice, 2010). They struggle with demands from an ever-changing field of technology, yet use this technology to meet the requirements for constant communication. New teachers are required to sustain their *highly-qualified* status, which means returning to a university program for another year despite already having earned their teaching certificates (Bleach, 2013; Wiseman, 2012). A new job performance evaluation system places additional requirements on teachers, which often increases the struggle of not feeling successful as new teachers. Although there is research focused on why teachers are leaving such an alarming rate (Sass, et al, 2011), research shows that principals can have an impact on improving teacher retention (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012; Nasser-Abu & Fresco, 2012). What the research does not show, however, is what school leaders are doing to address retention issues in Washington State, specifically in rural districts.

Gaps in the Literature of New Teacher Retention

While there is a gap in the literature regarding whether or not there is a correlation between the leadership styles and traits of principals in Washington State and teacher retention rates in their respective schools, Charlotte Advocates for Education (2004) studied strategies and traits of principals within Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools in North Carolina who had the most successful retention rates for teachers while increasing student achievement. Researchers in this study interviewed principals in an attempt to identify common induction strategies, leadership styles, and principal traits. However, all results from this study were self-reported from the principals themselves. The survey did not solicit the perspectives of teachers who continued teaching at the same schools to

determine which specific leadership styles and traits, if any, had an impact on their retention. The main purpose of the North Carolina study, as was the case with many research projects on teacher retention, was to discuss how teacher turnover has a negative impact on the effectiveness of teaching, and ultimately, has a negative impact on student achievement (Charlotte Advocates for Education, 2004).

There is a lack of research on the topic of addressing retention issues in rural districts in Washington State. Studies and research by Bullough (2012), OSPI (2016) and individual ESDs throughout Washington State reveal that school leaders discuss attrition and retention rates, but lack information regarding what is being done by those who have been successfully retaining teachers in rural districts. Elfers, Plecki, McGowan, Kido and Schulze-Oechtering (2006) published findings on teacher mobility in small and rural districts in Washington State. They also identified characteristics of teachers in small and rural districts, retention and mobility rates of early career teachers. In Washington State, only 50% of teachers with five years or less teaching experience continued teaching in the same rural schools (Elfers et al., 2006). Their research did not look into why 50% of new teachers continued teaching in the same school. The next section discusses new teachers and the research that addresses the impact of new teachers on students.

New Teacher Effect

Research from Rothstein (2010) and Goldhaber, Walch, Gabele, and Schools (2012) confirms that teachers are accountable for the academic growth of students in their classrooms. Teacher effectiveness, according to Milner (2010), depends on several factors including: academic background and quality pre-service preparation prior to entry and certification in the grade level or subject being taught. Darling-Hammond (2010)

added that teacher effectiveness depends on other factors that are difficult to quantify. Some of these factors are: teacher knowledge, instructional skills, teacher dispositions and behaviors, the availability of the students for learning, teacher access to learning resources, and the extent to which skills and content are organized and reinforced. One key issue commonly found from research on teacher effectiveness is the correlation between teacher experience and their impact on student achievement.

Historical Context of New Teacher Effect

Research from Klassen and Chiu (2010) found the number of years a teacher has been teaching has an impact on many different aspects of a teacher's efficacy. New teachers base their self-efficacy on how they perceived success and academic growth of their students (Goldhaber, et al., 2011; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010). However, new teachers are, overall, less effective than veteran teachers with five or more years of experience. When compared to teachers with more than five years of teaching experience, new teachers have less effective teaching strategies, have lower student engagement, and struggle with classroom management (Chiu & Klassen, 2010; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

Hattie (2009) and Darling-Hammond (2010) presented research showing that the number of years of teaching has a greater impact on student performance than student socioeconomic status, their home environment, and parent involvement. Research from Chiu and Klassen (2010) and Ingersoll and Strong (2011) showed that teachers who have higher student achievement gains are more likely to continue in the teaching profession than their less effective peers, and to achieve higher student achievement gains, teachers must remain in the field for at least five years.

Researchers and curriculum publishers, according to Creswell and Clark (2011) and Ronfeldt, Loeb, and Wyckoff (2013), emphasized that it takes at least five years of using a curriculum before full implementation, yet a quarter of the teaching workforce never reaches that level of implementation. Teacher attrition has other disadvantages as well. Chetty, Friedman, and Rockoff (2011) and Ronfeldt (2012) found that turnover also affected collegiality and trust among instructional staff members and principals. Ingersoll and Merrill (2012) reported the percentage of the teaching population who may not be providing students with an education as effective as their experienced peers was 26% and the research projects a continued increase if these trends continue.

Current State of New Teacher Effect

There are ways to minimize the negative impact of new teachers. Nasser-Abu and Fresko (2010) and Roberts and Pankake (2012) revealed that training new teachers increases teacher efficacy. Hattie (2009) confirmed that teacher professional development increases teacher effectiveness by a standard deviation of 0.41. This means the impact on the efficacy of new teachers participating in professional development can help their students increase one to two grade-equivalents more than their peers, whose teachers are not participating in a professional development program.

Effective and lasting teacher professional development needs to be sustained, involve teacher training, and not be a *one-shot workshop* (Avalos, 2011; Desimone, 2011; Hunzicker, 2011). According to Darling-Hammond (2010), more than 90% of teachers participated in one- to two-day workshops, and less than half took part in any teacher training, which was collaborative training with other teachers. In fact, in 2008, only 15%

of teachers reported a *great deal* of cooperative effort among instructional staff members. This number was down from 17% in 2004.

Hattie, Masters, and Birch (2015) reported that collective teacher self-efficacy, a group of teachers working together who believe they can have a positive impact on student learning outcomes, has the greatest impact of any instructional component, with the potential of helping students achieve nearly three years' worth of academic growth during one school year. This means the greatest positive impact teachers can have on student academic growth is collaborating as a team. Hattie et al.'s research led them to recommend placing a new teacher in collaborative team of teachers. According to them, this will help their students show noticeable academic growth, much more than if that teacher was to work in isolation. Teachers working in collaboration is discussed in more detail in the following section. Despite the amount of research done in this area, there are gaps in what has and has not been studied.

Gaps in the Literature of New Teacher Effect

There is limited literature addressing how to prepare teachers for the reality of the challenges and frustrations they may face as early career teachers. Research shows that teachers become better at improving student academic growth as they gain experience, work in collaboration with other teachers, and received targeted job-embedded professional development. However, there is a lack of research on how to minimize the negative impact low student academic growth has on early career teachers. Training and guidance prior to beginning their work with specific student demographics within their teaching assignments may help new teachers embrace their struggles and understand the long-term dedication it will take to see their desired results with student achievement.

Research about teacher efficacy by Goldhaber, Liddle and Theobald (2012) focused on whether or not different teaching preparation programs yielded better academic growth in their students. Their research found that early career teachers trained in Washington State within the last five to ten years were more effective than teachers trained more than ten years ago. However, they did not provide information regarding a connection between where or how Washington State teachers received their teacher preparation training and career longevity (Goldhaber et al., 2012).

Typically, students perform better with teachers who have more experience (Chiu & Klassen, 2010; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). The research is clear, however, that too many teachers are leaving the profession before they become experienced, effective teachers (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). The next section provides a review of literature on what principals and district leaders have implemented to increase teacher retention, thus increasing the chances for students to have quality, experienced teachers. One key strategy for leaders to increase teacher retention is to provide induction programs for new teachers

Induction Programs

Despite a gap in literature regarding the extent to which different teacher preparation programs increase teacher retention, there is evidence from research that induction programs for early career teachers increase teacher retention (Wechsler et al., 2010). The literature provided information regarding which specific components that are recommend for successful induction and the frequency and duration of support. This section contains a literature review of induction programs, the history of how these programs have been provided from the state level in Washington, the current status of a

state-provided system, and the role principals and colleagues play in supporting new teachers.

Historical Context of Induction Programs

Induction programs were designed to provide new teachers with resources, teaching strategies, and a peer-based network for support and encouragement (Rots, Kelchtermans, & Aelterman, 2012). Across the United States, induction programs have been increasing. In fact, Darling-Hammond's (2010) study revealed that in 2008, 74% of teachers with less than five years of experience were provided with an induction program, compared to 56% in 1994. However, in Washington State, due to state-wide reductions in funding this is no longer the reality for teacher induction programs.

In Washington State, two pieces of legislation, the 2002 legislative budget provision section 513 and RCW 28A.415.250, were enacted to require each school district to provide a New Teacher Induction Program (OSPI, 2016). These mandates required assistance for mentor teachers, stipends for mentor and beginning teachers, training for mentor and beginning teachers, release time for observations, development and implementation of a professional growth plan, and strong collaboration with the principal.

The Center for Strengthening the Teaching Profession (CSTP), in collaboration with OSPI, published *Effective Support for New Teachers in Washington State: Standards for Beginning Teacher Induction* (Center for Strengthening the Teaching Profession, 2014). This document provided standards for high quality beginning teacher induction programs in Washington State. These standards defined guidelines for: hiring, orientation, mentoring, professional learning, formative assessment for student growth,

and induction program impact. This publication also provided self-assessment guides that principals and school district leaders could use to determine the level of development of each standard.

Bullough (2012) stated that although the Washington's Beginning Educator Support Team (BEST) induction program was designed to support and retain new teachers, funding was not available to all teachers during 2009, and the program was eliminated in 2010-2011. In April 2014, state legislation again allocated funds in the amount of \$4 million for a beginning educator support program, and therefore could offer grants for 5 to 15 districts to last through 2015 (Washington State Engrossed State Senate Bill (ESSB) 6002, 2014). BEST provided funding for new teacher induction for 37 districts through 2014-2015. According to OSPI (2016), this equates to 12.5% of the 295 school districts in Washington State. Bullough (2012) reported that this grant-based induction program was created to enhance the level of support of early career teachers however, funding was not approved to continue beyond 2015. Based on statistics from ERDC (2010) and the OSPI Washington State Report Card (2016), of the 39 districts that did receive 2015 teacher induction grants, only 13 were classified as rural. The current status in Washington State is that if induction programs are provided for teachers, the respective school district leaders determine how to offer induction programs and how they are funded.

Current State of Induction Programs

Ingersoll (2012) and Roberts and Pankake (2012) found that principals can increase teacher retention by implementing a systematic induction program. Nasser-Abu and Fresko (2010) and Trickett et al. (2012) provided research showing that induction

programs, which generally include collegial collaboration and mentor teachers, elevated support and attention from administration, professional development, release time to receive training, ideal job placement, and a provisional professional growth plan that lasts from three to five years.

Charlton and Kristonis (2010) released findings similar to those of Nasser-Abu and Fresko (2010) and Trickett et al. (2012). They identified five key induction components that positively influence teacher retention: (a) time to collaborate with colleagues, (b) job-embedded professional development, (c) sense of autonomy, (d) time to interact with supportive educational leaders, and (e) opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes. Literature regarding these five components is presented in the remainder of this section.

As stated in Bullough's (2012) research, the current support system for new teachers in Washington State is not designed to retain new teachers. This is due, in part, to a lack of funding and a statewide induction system. The BEST grant for 2015 was awarded to 38 school districts and 4 consortia, which encompassed another 32 districts (OSPI, 2016). Of these districts, 15 are classified as rural (ERDC, 2010; OSPI, 2016). School principals are tasked with the responsibility of hiring new teachers and providing them with a support system effective enough to keep them for longer than five years. That responsibility is even more challenging in rural schools where they face the struggle of recruiting teachers to fill teaching positions.

There are no projected funding initiatives in Washington State to provide a state-wide induction program for early career teachers. Washington State legislation once required districts administrators to organize and sustain induction programs but with

elimination in state funding to provide induction programs, school district superintendents, human resource directors, directors of teaching and learning, principals, and teacher-leaders became responsible for the induction programs in most districts (Bullough, 2012). The CSTP (2014) identified specific standards for school leaders to use to strengthen induction programs for new teachers in Washington State. This publication identified research by Charlton and Kristonis (2010) identifying five key components that should be part of a successful induction programs.

Time to collaborate with colleagues. Dufour, Eaker, and Dufour (2010) stated that teachers need a set time each week for working together to achieve a collective purpose of learning for all their students. Dufour et al. defined professional learning communities (PLCs) as a systematic process where teachers work interdependently in order to gain better results for students, teams, and their school. This involves creating structures to promote a culture of collaboration. Collaboration time is often referred to as team collaboration, teamwork, or professional learning communities. According to Kim, Kim, Lee, Spector and DeMeester (2013), having time allocated specifically for teacher collaboration has been shown to have a positive impact on teacher development. Barr (2014) found that teacher and school morale improved. Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2012) stated that school improvement, student achievement, and teacher retention are appear to be outcomes from collaboration time.

As discussed in a previous section, Hattie, Masters, and Birch (2015) found, through their meta-analysis of over 50,000 studies, that the most significant factor in increasing student achievement is teacher collective efficacy, a group of teachers who believe their students can learn, who work as a collective whole to meet the needs of all

of their students. Their research found that this collaborative practice had the greatest potential of increasing student achievement, with students making gains of three years of academic growth during a single school year.

Harmon, Herren, Luke, and Emry (2012) discussed a collaborative effort between the Center for Strengthening the Teaching Profession (CSTP) and the Auburn School District in Washington State. An urban school district located south of Seattle, Washington, it serves 15,500 students. In 2009, the Auburn School District identified a three-year framework for improving student achievement that included implementing professional learning communities and building leadership skills across the district. Harmon et al., discussed the impact of PLCs in supporting new teachers, strengthening teacher leadership, and data regarding the impact of this collaboration on student achievement.

Job-embedded professional development. DeAngelis and Presley (2011) were among several researchers who shared that new teachers expressed feeling frustrated at the lack of support and lack of opportunities for professional development, especially those working with at-risk and rural students. According to a five-year study by Martinez-Garcia and Slate (2012), elementary school campuses with the highest percentages of new teachers had the highest percentages of minority students, highest percentages of economically disadvantaged students, and highest percentages of at-risk students, as opposed to elementary school campuses with the lowest percentages of new teachers.

Job-embedded professional development opportunities provide enhanced instructional practice strategies to improve student learning. It is grounded in teachers'

daily practice and consists of assessing and identifying solutions for immediate problems of practice (Croft et al., 2010). By providing job-embedded professional development that might include strategies for new teachers to use in responding to the diversity of challenges they face with their respective student demographics, school leaders may also contribute to the efficacy of their new teachers to improve student learning.

Sense of autonomy. Research by Vansteenkiste et al. (2012) indicated that another component of a successful teacher induction program is to provide autonomy to teachers. Vansteenkiste et al. defined autonomy as encouragement of independence. According to Pearson and Moomaw (2005), autonomy can be defined as “the freedom to prescribe the best treatment for their students, as doctors/lawyers do for their patients/clients” (p. 38). There were two dimensions of teacher autonomy allowing others the freedom of control, and action or development that is self-directed. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2014) reported that teacher autonomy had positive impact on their motivation, engagement, job satisfaction, and decreased stress.

Time to interact with supportive educational leaders. Teachers, like their students, have personal and professional needs that must be fulfilled for them to feel safe and valued in their careers (Gardner, 2010). Research from Veldman, van Tartwijk, Brekelmans, and Wubbels (2013) found that positive relationships in the workplace have an impact on teacher retention, whereas a weak perceived level of support from principals was a reason for teacher attrition. Sharplin, O’Neill, and Chapman (2011) revealed that less experienced teachers used avoidance coping strategies when faced with a difficult situation or challenge, where more experienced teachers used direct-action problem-solving strategies. This coping strategy of avoidance often increased levels of frustration

and dissatisfaction among teachers, and was generally used because these new teachers had not yet received the necessary training or support.

Price (2012) found that principals' relationships with teachers, not just support systems, increased teacher job satisfaction and levels of commitment. However, Price's study, and similar research by Shen, Leslie, Spybrook and Ma (2012), did not provide specific data on what teachers felt their principals did, how they acted, acted, or their leadership style and personality traits that had an impact of their decision to continue teaching or to resign.

Simon and Johnson (2015) confirmed that teacher job satisfaction and retention is improved, especially in elementary schools, when teachers felt supported by their principals and have positive relationships with their principals. However, similar to the studies mentioned previously, research did not provide descriptions of specific actions principals took nor did studies provide teacher voice to identify specific examples of how principals behaved to establish those positive relationships.

Opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes. Student learning outcomes, as defined by Kuh, Jankowski, Ikenberry, and Kinzie (2014), are statements that identify what it is that students are expected to learn and demonstrate upon mastering a skill or task; what they know and can do because of that knowledge. As discussed previously, a portion of teacher performance evaluations are directly connected to student academic growth. Although in some states student academic growth goals are required to use data from standardized state testing, in Washington State teachers write the student academic growth goals for their evaluations.

Teachers have always used data but its purpose has shifted. Bambrick-Santoyo (2010) reported that in years past, data was primarily used to give scores, complete report cards, or compare and place students. Lacireno-Paquet, Morgan, and Mello (2014) stated that data has taken on a different role in education. Teachers use data, not as an end of the unit measure, but as a formative tool, using smaller, multiple sources of information to assess how well students are approaching their student learning outcomes, and to determine the effectiveness of their instructional practice. Teachers adjust their practice according to what data show their students need to achieve learning goals (Lacireno-Paquet et al., 2014). Teachers value the ability to provide this input into student learning outcomes, and this component has been shown to increase teacher retention, even prior to the implementation of the new evaluation system in Washington State.

Gaps in Literature of Induction Programs

Research shows a correlation between induction programs and principal-teacher relationships for successful retention of new teachers (Roberts & Pankake, 2012; Wechsler, Caspary, Humphrey, & Matsko, 2010). The types and effectiveness of relationships between teachers and principals vary depending on personality traits and the needs of teachers. Induction programs, however, are systematic by design, and implemented differently across school districts and the state. Information from Washington State school districts and Educational Service Districts regarding their induction programs for teachers is limited. The collaboration between the Auburn School District with the Center for the Strengthening of the Teaching Profession is the only recent example that is documented, and their focus is to develop teacher leaders who will

become a cadre essential to the core of the professional development and support systems for all instructional staff.

This effort represents a limited scope of information for school districts in Washington State regarding support for new teachers. Although all ESDs in Washington State provide mentorship classes or make resources available to support new teachers including mentorship programs, there is a gap in information regarding what ESDs are providing for induction support for their member school districts. Each ESD determines what kind of support can be provided contingent upon the funding capacity within each ESD (personal conversation, S. Jennings, May 10, 2016).

Summary

This chapter provided a literature review of three topics: retention issues related to early career teachers, the impact early career teachers can have on student achievement, and induction and support components for early career teachers. It included the content of these three topics, including how the findings connects together to form the foundation of this study, identifying the historical setting of the topic, and the current status of research. Lastly, each of the three sections provided a discussion of the gaps in the literature relevant to these topics.

The first topic discussed was new teacher retention. Research showed that, historically, one in five teachers have left the career after the first year, and that number increased to half of the new teaching force leaving within five years (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). Ingersoll and Merrill (2012) calculated that by 2022 there would be an increase of 80,000 new teachers in education across the 50 states, and the increase of new teachers in Washington State could be higher than other states due to new class size reduction

legislation. There was a lack of literature that discussed retention for teachers in rural schools in Washington State, what principals in rural districts were doing to successfully retain teachers, or whether specific leadership styles or traits of principals had an impact on retention.

Teacher burnout was a key issue addressed in this section. This issue included information on the impact of: challenging job placement, low job satisfaction, increasing expectations for rigor and transparency, job performance evaluation requirements, and achieving and maintaining highly-qualified status (Fisher, 2011; Riggs, 2013; Sass et al., 2011). All of these factors increase the stress levels and job dissatisfaction of new teachers, ultimately having a negative impact on their desire to continue teaching. There was limited literature addressing how to prepare teachers for the reality of the challenges and frustrations they may face as early career teachers. Research showed that teachers become better at improving student academic growth as they gain experience, work in collaboration with other teachers, and received targeted job-embedded professional development (Dufour et al., 2010). However, there is a lack of research on how to minimize the negative impact low student academic growth has on early career teachers.

The second topic addressed in this chapter was the impact new teachers have on student achievement. Research from Klassen and Chiu (2010) found the number of years a teacher has been teaching has an impact on many different aspects of a teacher's efficacy. Literature was presented on what effect new teachers had on student achievement, and how this perceived effect impacted teacher retention. Historically, research showed that the more years of experience teachers had in the profession, their students performed at higher academic growth rates.

Recent studies confirmed the connection between student academic performance and teacher experience. Current studies, such as those from Høigaard et al. (2012) and Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2014), found the more teachers felt they were having a positive impact on student achievement, the more satisfaction they felt in their careers. Teachers base their efficacy and success on how well their students perform and one of the most impactful ways to improve their efficacy is by sustaining their capacity to teach longer than five years. When new teachers improve, their students improve also. When students show academic growth, teacher self-efficacy improves and teacher retention rates increase. As stated by Goldhaber, Gross, and Player (2011) and Hanushek and Rivkin (2010), the level of job satisfaction teachers experience is not only an important predictor of their performance but also of their intention to resign from the teaching profession.

The third topic discussed in this chapter was intervention and induction components for increasing teacher retention. Nasser-Abu and Fresko (2012) released findings similar to those of Charlton and Kristonis (2010) and Trickett et al. (2010) that showed that induction programs can improve new teacher retention rates. Darling-Hammond (2010) explained how teacher induction programs improve and retain new teachers and provisional teachers, a demographic which, according to a survey from OSPI (2016), is projected to increase in the next decade. Despite this projected increase, Bulloughs (2012) revealed that funding for induction programs in Washington State had been reduced, resulting in limited support that funded only 37 out of 295 public school districts through 2015 before funding was totally eliminated.

Research shows that teachers become better at improving student academic growth as they gain experience, work in collaboration with other teachers, and receive

targeted job-embedded professional development. However, there is a lack of research on how to minimize the negative impact low student academic growth has on early career teachers. There was limited literature addressing how to prepare teachers for the reality of the challenges and frustrations they may face as early career teachers. A review of research from Simon and Johnson (2015), Price (2012), Roberts and Pankake (2012), Vansteenkiste et al. (2012), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2014), and others revealed the same outcome: by providing professional development, establishing systems for teacher collaboration, providing autonomy in teaching, allowing for teacher input on student learning outcomes, and having positive relationships with teachers, principals can improve teacher retention. However, these studies also exposed a lack of research regarding principal leadership styles and personality traits that influenced teacher retention. Another gap in the literature was the lack of data relevant to teacher perspective regarding what their principals did that had an impact on their decisions to continue teaching in the same schools, specifically in Washington State.

This literature review presented three main topics relevant to this research study, and issues that defined each topic also uncovered noticeable gaps in the literature: lack of information of how principals in rural schools in Washington are retaining new teachers, the structure of their induction programs for rural teachers, and the leadership styles of principals with successful retention rates, as reported by the teachers themselves.

Each of these topics is addressed in this study, beginning with Chapter 3. It contains a description the methodology of this study. This study was designed to examine what some principals in rural Central Washington have done to have higher retention rates for provisional teachers compared to other schools in their geographic region.

Included in Chapter 3 is a description of the setting for the study, the qualitative design components, how the research was executed, a description of the participants and how they were selected, and how the data from the participant interviews was analyzed.

Chapter 4 presents information from the research, including responses from principals and teachers interviewed for the study. Chapter 5 is comprised of the findings and analysis of the data, themes that emerged from responses, and provides information that addresses the issues identified in the gaps in the literature.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

To address the lack of information on the topic of induction programs and retention of early career teachers, this research study identified what principals in five rural Central Washington State schools, whose early career teacher retention rates were noticeably higher than other schools in their geographic region, are doing to successfully retain provisional teachers. Using a basic qualitative methodology (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), the following fundamental questions were answered:

- What are principals in some rural schools in ESD 105 doing to successfully retain provisional teachers?
- What support did provisional teachers from those schools in ESD 105 report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools

The research data came from interviewing school principals and former provisional teachers who were still teaching in the same school. A sampling of former provisional teachers and their principals in rural schools with retention rates higher than other rural schools in their Educational Service District (ESD) were interviewed.

In this chapter, the setting for the survey is described, and the methodology of how the research proceeded will be explained. Included in the methodology is the data analysis tool and interview process, description of the participants, and issues of reliability and validity. Ethical and sampling issues are also addressed. Identifying what rural school principals were doing to successfully retain new teachers provides school

leaders, district leadership, and state-level leaders with an analysis of how teacher induction components were being successfully provided in rural schools with limited fiscal and human resources.

Study Setting

Public school districts in Washington State are separated into nine Educational Service Districts, or ESDs (OSPI, 2016). These ESDs are designed to oversee the 295 public school districts in Washington State. They provide them with support, resources, and guidance. The schools that were the focus of this research were from ESD 105, located in Yakima, Washington. ESD 105 consists of 25 public school districts in south central Washington, covering Yakima and Kittitas counties, as well as portions of Klickitat and Grant counties (Educational Service District, 2016). ESD 105 was selected for this research because 22 of the 25 public school districts were classified as rural (ERDC, 2010; Educational Service District 105, 2016). In addition, leadership from ESD 105 completed a survey regarding retention of provisional teachers. They identified schools in the region with noticeably higher retention rates for provisional teachers.

The northern school districts in ESD 105, Easton and Cle Elum-Roslyn, are located primarily in upper elevations of the Cascade mountain range along Interstate 90. Portions of eastern districts, Thorp, Naches Valley, West Valley, and Mt. Adams have boundaries that include portions of the Cascade mountain range as well. The majority of the districts, however, are geographically similar, primarily lowland and agricultural, with many of the districts directly in the middle of large fruit orchards of major national and international fruit picking, packing, and distribution companies.

The rationale for choosing this ESD was based on five main factors. First, there were a large number of rural districts within this region whose student demographics and socioeconomic status are comparable. The student demographic of ESD 105 was 61.3% Hispanic, 31.8% Caucasian, and 3.6 Native American. The number of students who qualify for free/reduced price meals 68% of (ESD 105, 2016). Second, these districts were around Yakima, the only metropolitan statistical area in the region. Their relative distance to this major city provided these rural schools with a comparable potential candidate pool.

The third factor was, except for portions of four districts located in the Cascade Mountain range, the school districts had commonality of having their school communities be primarily centered on agriculture. The fourth reason for choosing ESD 105 was because the student population of the 22 rural districts in ESD 105 was 39,439, or 64.3% of the total 63,152 student population of ESD 105 (OSPI, 2016; ESD, 2016). ESD 105 represents 6% of the total student population in Washington State. These rural schools made up the majority of the student population in this ESD. The sampling from ESD 105 was significant, representing almost 14% of the rural districts in Washington State. Individual district and school demographic data is not provided to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

The final reason for choosing ESD 105 was because they had already started the process of developing an intentional support program for new teachers and a support program for principals and mentor teachers. Their initial survey contained data showing that some rural schools in their region were successful in retaining provisional teachers. Information from this study provided data that can be used by other districts and ESDs.

Research Method

Qualitative Design Components

Basic qualitative research methodology often involves using open-ended surveys or interview questions to understand how meaning is constructed, and how people make sense of their situations (Creswell, 2012; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Merriam and Tisdell (2015) stated that the primary goal of a basic qualitative study was to uncover and interpret meanings.

This research design was chosen because the purpose of this study was to determine how principals and teachers interpreted their experiences and support provided them that led to continued retention. Because their experiences were related, as they had similar outcomes, the analysis of the data included identifying repetition in terms, phrases, or experiences of participants to interpret themes. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) stated that in applied fields, such as education and administration, the most common type of qualitative research is basic, interpretive study.

Qualitative research, in general, focuses on interpreting phenomena in a natural setting to understand the unique interactions in particular situations, and how meaning is constructed (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2005). Design for this qualitative research used a small and purposeful sample group (Creswell, 2012). When the research was completed, data compiled comprised detailed statements, feelings, and emotions of the teachers and principals from the successful schools.

Quantitative research was not appropriate for this research because this research did not gather numbers (Maxwell, 2012). Quantitative research uses clearly defined research questions. Data are in the form of numbers and statistics, and collection tools

collect numerical data (Labaree, 2013). There was no hypothesis to guide research; instead, themes, categories, and concepts were identified through analyzing the frequency of answers from open-ended questions (Silverman, 2010).

Research Design

Because the purpose of this research was to find out why principals in some rural Central Washington State school districts had higher retention rates of provisional teachers, principals and teachers from schools with higher retention rates were interviewed. A sampling of principals and teachers from elementary, middle, and high schools participated in the study.

In 2014, ESD 105 surveyed districts to identify which schools in the region were having the most success retaining provisional teachers (S. Jennings, personal communication, September 4, 2014). Several schools reported provisional teacher retention rates from 2010 to 2014 that were much higher than other schools in the region. These retention rates were used to determine which schools would be the focus of this research.

Principals and provisional teachers who began their career from 2010 to 2014, from five schools with high retention rates and whose schools are comparable in size and student demographics to others in the region, were contacted. Initial contact with participants for the study was done either over the telephone or in person.

Participants were provided with an explanation for the research as well as a narrative describing the purpose of the survey. They were also informed of how their answers and identities would remain anonymous and confidential. When participants agreed to be part of the study, they signed a consent form which advised them of their

rights, the interview protocol, as well as how issue of confidentiality would be addressed. Participants were provided, via email, an explanation that described the focus of the study, defined the parameters of each participant's role, and provided the survey questions. Once permission was obtained and the confidentiality agreement was signed, participants were asked the pre-determined research questions. The interviews were primarily focused on two open-ended questions for the principals, and three for the teachers. According to Hunt (2011), this could provide more relevant and deeper information than if participants were asked a series of closed questions.

Instruments

The interview guide consisted of using a structured interview process. This process involved asking the same series of questions, with questions and follow-up questions and their order created prior to the interviews (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Interviews were done over the phone, with one participant requesting to complete the interviews via electronic mail exchanges. In the situation of the email exchange, questions and follow-up questions were asked following the same order and guidelines as the phone interviews (see Appendix A). Responses from participants were recorded verbatim. When necessary, participants were asked to repeat a response or to clarify.

Participants

Purposeful Selection

Principals and teachers for this study were selected using purposeful selection. Maxwell (2012), and Cohen and Crabtree (2006) stated that purposeful selection, or purposeful random sampling, is a way to identify a targeted population and create a systematic way of selecting cases that is not based on knowledge or hope of what the

outcomes may show. Purposeful selection requires intentionally selecting people and settings to gather information that may not be available using other choices (Maxwell, 2012).

Participants were selected based on retention rates for provisional teachers from 2010-2014. Superintendents from 11 rural districts participated in a 2014 ESD 105 survey, providing retention information for 32 schools. Data from eight of the 32 schools were not considered for this study because these schools had fewer than three provisional teachers between 2010 and 2014. Information for the remaining 24 schools were evaluated, and five schools with noticeably higher retention rates were selected to be part of this study: one high school, one middle school, and three elementary schools. These five schools were located in four rural school districts.

The rationale for selecting these schools was: (a) they had higher retention rates for provisional teachers than other rural schools in their geographic region, and (b) they had a large enough sample of provisional teachers during those years to provide enough participants for the study. Once the schools were identified, the five principals were contacted by phone or by email and asked if they were willing to be part of the study. All five principals agreed to participate.

Within these five schools, the study only focused on teachers who were in provisional status on or before 2010 and are still teaching in their respective schools. Maxwell (2012) defined purposeful selection as a way to identify a targeted population and create a systematic way of selecting cases that is not based on a knowledge or hope of what the outcomes may show. Purposeful selection requires intentionally selecting

people and settings to gather information that may not be available using other choices (Maxwell, 2012).

Patton (2005) stated that selecting a small number of important cases can "yield the most information and have the greatest impact on the development of knowledge" (p. 236). The research used critical-case sampling and cases that dramatically illustrated phenomena (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Maxwell, 2012). For this study, even a small sampling size could increase credibility (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The use of a large study size may have implied the intent of "representing" (Maxwell, 2012) all rural schools in Washington State. That was not the purpose of this research. The purpose was to perform an applied research with the hope of solving a school leadership problem (Agarwal, Bain, & Chamberlain, 2012).

The schools were selected using three criteria: First, they reported having higher retention rates for provisional teachers than other schools in the region. Second, they were classified as rural schools. Third, the five schools were similar in student demographics and enrollment. They had similar rates of students receiving free or reduced lunches and similar student demographics.

Altogether, five principals and thirteen teachers were interviewed. These schools were selected by rank order based on the 2014 survey results. If a minimum of twelve teachers had not volunteered to participate, the protocol was to contact the next school with the next highest retention rates, as reported in the ESD 105 survey, to interview the principal and teachers.

Data gathered from participants in these five schools provided information of what principals did to successfully retain provisional teachers. Once interview results

were compiled and analyzed, the data was used to address two leadership issues: First, identify what principals in specific rural schools were doing to successfully retain provisional teachers without state funding for induction programs or personnel support; second, identify which induction components or support frameworks teachers reported had the biggest impact on their decision to remain teaching at those schools. The results provided a conclusion that identified which induction components and/or framework of support should be included in a comprehensive induction program.

Sampling Size

As identified by the 2014 ESD teacher retention survey, there were 11 rural schools who had at least three provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014 whose retention rates were noticeably higher than other schools: one with 86%, one with 94%, and the rest with 100% retention rates for provisional teachers. There were five rural schools in Central Washington that had higher retention rates than other rural schools in the same geographic region and whose number of returning teachers was high enough to yield a sufficient sampling size.

This research focused on a specific demographic of teachers and principals in a centralized geographic location in Washington State. With this narrowed focus and a small number of candidates who met the guidelines for the interview, it was determined that a sampling size of 12-20 teachers would be sufficient. The principals from five schools were interviewed. As part of their interviews, they were asked to identify teachers to participate in the study. If these five principals were not able to identify 12-20 teachers to participate in the study, more principals would have been interviewed until a large enough sampling size was obtained.

Confidentiality

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained prior to proceeding with the study. Participation in the study was invitational and voluntary, and participants were asked to complete a City University of Seattle informed consent document. To protect confidentiality, an identification number was assigned to each teacher and principal who provided responses. Principals were identified as Principal 1 through Principal 5. Teachers were identified as Teacher 1 through Teacher 13. Only the student researcher, Rob Darling, and doctoral dissertation chair, Dr. Christine Katayama from City University of Seattle, had access to the names of the teachers and principals who participated in the study.

Data Analysis Methods

Qualitative Analysis

Interview responses were read a number of times and with each reading words, phrases, actions, and/or key concepts were identified. These words, phrases, actions or key concepts were coded, using the open coding method (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Open coding involved assigning words or short phrases to summarize responses from the interviews, without a preconceived hypothesis or agenda (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Saldana, 2009). Codes were assigned when data was repeated in several places, when a response was unique, or when the interviewee articulated that it was important.

Once the codes were identified, the constant comparative method was used to group the codes into themes. The constant comparative method involved an analysis of the codes to identify similarities, differences, and variations within the data (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Fram, 2013). Using this approach identified which induction components

were most commonly provided by principals, and what provisional teachers felt had the biggest impact on their decisions to continue working in their schools.

Limitations

There may have been instances where teachers had more than one principal while they were provisional teachers. Because of the limited scope of the questions, there was not a specific question that addressed this situation. Any clarification or discussion regarding this situation would have only been addressed if the information was volunteered by the interviewee.

Another limitation was the survey data for provisional teacher retention being used from the ESD 105 provisional teacher survey. Although districts were instructed to only report information for provisional teachers who had three years or less teaching experience, there was no way to verify the validity of their reported retention rates. Permission was received from a representative of ESD 105 to view, analyze, and use the results from the ESD's internal provisional teacher retention survey. These results were never published publicly. The research study was performed assuming the retention rates reported in the ESD survey followed the reporting guidelines, as explained in the ESD survey.

The study solicited responses from principals regarding the provisional teachers they supervised. There were instances where those principals were new to the building and may not have had firsthand knowledge of what was done for induction programs in the years prior to their administration. It should be noted that the ESD 105 survey data shows that every school with high retention rates in 2010 consistently had high retention rates every year since.

Validity

Different strategies were used to address validity issues. First, the interview questions were designed with low inference descriptors, description that is phrased very similarly to the participants' accounts and the researchers' field notes (Green, 2015; Maxwell, 2012; Willig, 2013). Responses and answers from interviewees were reported verbatim, using direct quotes. Another threat to validity in qualitative research is reactivity (Maxwell, 2012; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Willig, 2013). Reactivity relates to how the participants react due to being aware of the study and the influence a researcher on the individuals or setting being studied (Maxwell, 2012; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Willig, 2013). This issue was addressed, in part, by providing questions that were not designed to be leading questions and by having the person performing the study read from the same narrative with every participant when describing the purpose and protocol for the study (Creswell, 2012).

Researcher bias is another threat to validity in qualitative research. A strategy to understand researcher bias is reflexivity (Green, 2015; Maxwell, 2012). This strategy requires the researcher to be aware of and critically reflect on potential predispositions and biases (Green, 2015; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Willig, 2013). A member check, also known as respondent validity or participant verification, was used to address researcher bias (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012). Member checking involves restating or summarizing the information and asking the participant to verify accuracy (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012). This research technique minimized research bias by providing one more measure to assure participants' responses were recorded accurately and not misinterpreted by the researcher.

Reliability

Reliability can be defined as the consistency in which a measuring instrument provides results (Maxwell, 2012; Ritter, 2010) that are consistent over time and accurately represent the population in the study. Reliability can be further established by the replicability of the results or observations (Golafshani, 2003). A constant comparative analysis was used in this study to identify themes from participant responses. Using this method provided a structure for coding and coordinating data. Using a constant comparative methodology addressed reliability because it utilized a method of identifying themes from interview responses that can be consistently replicated (Benton, 1991).

The intentionality of the study and the design of the questions also addressed the study's reliability. The study was not designed to prove a preconceived theory but, rather, to identify perceptions of individual participants (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012). The questions were designed to minimize the need for inferences thus increasing the reliability of response trustworthiness (Cope, 2014; Dolnicar, 2013; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Sullivan & Sergeant, 2011).

Ethical and Sampling Issues

There are overarching principles researchers are responsible to observe when administering a qualitative research study. Participants need to be well informed about: the purpose of the research, any risks that may be involved, what the benefits might be, and able to trust they can provide a response without fearing there would be negative consequences (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). The interview description clearly identified the purpose of the research and explained that there were no perceived

risks to participants because their identities and schools' identities would remain anonymous, other than whether they are a teacher or principal.

Seidman (2012) addressed the ethical issue or potential conflicts of gaining access to study participants. First, the written permission was obtained via email, from the New Teacher/Mentorship Facilitator at ESD 105 who administered the provisional teacher retention survey, to make references to the ESD 105 survey when administering the study and interview questions. Because this study involved participants from schools who were identified by their districts from the data of the ESD 105 provisional retention survey, the topic had already been introduced at the district and school principal level.

Principals of the schools identified were contacted directly by telephone and by email, advising them of the purpose of the study. Once they concluded their interviews, the teachers identified by these principals were contacted by phone and by email, advising them of the purpose of the study. Participant permission was obtained following the outlined protocol set forth when approval was obtained from the City University of Seattle's Instructional Review Board.

The processes and results from the study must be presented in a way that is clear and trustworthy to avoid ethical issues related to misleading the audience (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). By adhering to a constant comparative data analysis method, the responses were recorded and categorized verbatim. Participant responses were read back to them to ensure their answers were recorded accurately. The same study narrative and questions were read to every participant to ensure that responses were comparable and valid.

Although participants in the study had not worked with, nor worked in the same district as the person performing the study, there had been contact with many of the ESD 105 school principals and superintendents through various trainings and events connected with ESD 105. The person who performed the research was a member of the ESD's New Teacher/Mentor Teacher Roundtable Program, which was a collaboration of OSPI and ESD 105 since 2014. Because he may have already been known to participants prior to this study and was a member of the roundtable program with ESD 105, this could have been viewed as a potential conflict of interest. However, participants may have had an increased level of trust, and their participation may have yielded better results because the person may have been known to some participants and participants may have known that he was already connected with the new teacher retention work of the ESD 105 (Morrison, Gregory, & Thibodeau, 2012).

Summary

This qualitative study identified what principals in rural schools were effectively doing in their practice to successfully retain new teachers despite the lack of state funding for a comprehensive induction program. This was done by asking open-ended interview questions to principals and formerly provisional teachers in rural schools whose retention rates for provisional teachers were higher than others in the same educational service district. The setting for the survey was described, and the methodology of how the research proceeded was explained. Included in the methodology was the data analysis tool and interview process, description of the participants, and issues of reliability and validity. Ethical and sampling issues were also addressed. Identifying what rural school principals were doing to successfully retain new teachers provides school leaders, district

leadership, and state-level leaders with an analysis of how teacher induction components were being successfully provided in rural schools with limited fiscal and human resources.

Chapter 4 contains findings from the study. It begins with a review of terminology related the study, the selections process for participants, as well as their profiles. Findings are presented in six themes that appeared in participant's responses.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

Introduction

The problem addressed in this study was the challenges public school principals in rural school communities face when trying to retain provisional teachers. The purpose of this study was to analyze successful induction programs for provisional teachers in rural Central Washington State schools. Part of this analysis identified what five principals did to successfully retain provisional teachers. Their retention rates of provisional teachers between 2010 and 2014 were among the highest in their ESD. There were two questions that guided this inquiry:

1. What are principals in some rural schools in ESD 105 doing to successfully retain provisional teachers?
2. What support did former provisional teachers from those schools report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools?

This chapter begins with a research overview that includes: a review of terminology, the selection process, and profiles of the participants. Presentation of findings includes the themes that appeared in participant responses. This chapter concludes with a summary.

Review of Terminology

For the purpose of this research, *provisional teacher* refers to teachers who were new to the teaching career or new to the school, be it from another district in Washington State or another state. *Early career teachers* are those who were in the beginning years of

teaching. Early career teachers are also considered provisional teachers as they are new to the field and new to the school district.

Induction programs refer to systems or components provided for provisional teachers. These programs are intended to support early career teachers in their professional development. As part of the interviews with principals and teachers, five specific components of induction programs found in OSPI's Effective Support for New Teachers in Washington State: Standards for Beginning Teacher Induction were discussed (Charlton and Kritsonis, 2010; OSPI [BEST], 2014). The key components are: time to collaborate with colleagues, job-embedded professional development, teacher autonomy, input with student learning outcomes, and time to interact with supportive educational leaders.

Time to collaborate with colleagues is a set time each week for teachers working together to achieve a collective purpose of learning for all their students (Dufour, Eaker, & Dufour, 2010). This involves creating structures to promote a culture of collaboration. This collaboration time is often referred to as team collaboration, teamwork, or professional learning communities. Professional learning communities (PLCs) are defined as a systematic process where teachers work interdependently in order to gain better results for students, teams, and their school (Dufour et al., 2010).

Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, and Powers (2010) referred to *job-embedded professional development* as teacher learning designed to enhance instructional practice to improve student learning. It is grounded in teachers' daily practice and consists of assessing and identifying solutions for immediate problems of practice (Croft et al., 2010).

Autonomy was defined by Vansteenkiste et al. (2012) as encouragement of independence. McGrath (2000) stated there were two dimensions of teacher autonomy: allowing others the freedom of control and action or development that is self-directed. According to Pearson and Moomaw (2005), autonomy can be defined as “the freedom to prescribe the best treatment for their students, as doctors/lawyers do for their patients/clients” (p. 38).

Time to interact with supportive educational leaders refers to the availability to talk and/or work with the school principal, assistant principals, and/or instructional coaches. *Student learning outcomes* refer to the expected learning that a teacher intends for students during a specific lesson, unit, or over a specified amount of time (Kuh, Janowski, Ikenberry, & Kinzie 2014). These are also referred to as student growth goals (Washington State Teacher and Principal Evaluation Project, 2016).

The final term, *responsive leadership*, can be defined as a leadership style that “encourages leaders, through a relations and a strengths orientation, to learn about and engage with employee needs, values, goals, and strengths in order to optimize motivation, employee satisfaction, and overall performance” (Lewis, 2015, p. 45).

Selection Process

Principals and teachers for this study were selected using purposeful selection. Maxwell (2012) and Cohen and Crabtree (2006) stated that purposeful selection, or purposeful random sampling, is a way to identify a targeted population and create a systematic way of selecting cases that is not based on knowledge or hope of what the outcomes may show. Purposeful selection requires intentionally selecting people and

settings to gather information that may not be available using other choices (Maxwell, 2012).

Principals and teachers needed to be selected based on successful retention rates for provisional teachers in rural schools. Teacher retention data pertinent to provisional teachers is not reported by Washington State school districts to state education agencies. However, in 2015, ESD 105 surveyed the 25 superintendents of public school districts within its boundaries to gather data about retention rates of provisional teachers employed in their schools between 2010 and 2014. Of the 25 districts, 22 were classified as rural.

Superintendents from 11 rural districts participated in the survey, providing retention information for 32 schools. Data from eight of the 32 schools were not considered for this study because these schools had fewer than three provisional teachers between 2010 and 2014. Information for the remaining 24 schools were evaluated, and five schools with noticeably higher retention rates were selected to be part of this study: one high school, one middle school, and three elementary schools. These five schools were located in four rural school districts.

The rationale for selecting these schools was: (a) they had higher retention rates for provisional teachers than other rural schools in their geographic region, and (b) they had a large enough sample of provisional teachers during those years to provide enough participants for the study. Once the schools were identified, the five principals were contacted by phone or by email and asked if they were willing to be part of the study. All five principals agreed to participate.

At the conclusion of their interviews, each principal was asked to provide names of teachers in his/her school who met the following criteria: (a) the teacher was in provisional status on or before 2010 in this school, and (b) the teacher was still teaching in the same school. Principals identified 19 teachers from their schools who met these criteria. All 19 teachers were contacted and 13 agreed to participate in the study. One teacher asked if she could communicate via email and the remaining 12 were interviewed by telephone.

Participant Profiles

The principals interviewed had between two and 33 years of experience working as principals in the same school during the time of the interview. One of the principals worked in a school that had 86% retention for provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014, having 18 of 21 provisional teachers return during that time span. The other four principals worked in schools with 100% retention of provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014, according to the ESD 105 survey. There were four male principals and one female.

The profiles of the teachers were as follows: two high school teachers, one middle school teacher, and ten elementary school teachers. Their years of experience ranged from five to 13. Every elementary grade was represented, and the subjects taught by the middle school and high school teachers were mathematics and English. All of the teachers were female.

Presentation of Findings

This section includes findings from the interviews. In addition to the information gathered from participants about the components of successful induction programs, the frequency of common or similar responses was used to group responses into themes. The

themes that were identified are: professional development, time to interact with colleagues, supportive school leadership, positive school culture, and location and community.

Components of Successful Induction Programs

Of the five principals, one principal reported that, as part of the induction program, he provided four of the five components (Charlton and Kritsonis, 2010). Job-embedded professional development was the component not included. This principal's retention rates from 2010 to 2014 was 86%, having 18 of 21 provisional teachers return over these five years. The remaining four principals reported they provided all five components for their provisional teachers. One principal shared that several of these components were provided as support from the district level, and provisional teachers were eligible to participate in these professional development opportunities for the duration of up to their fourth year of teaching in the district. Another discussed how using the evaluation process and feedback cycle was something he considered as a component of his induction program. These four principals all had 100% retention rates for provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014.

One finding that emerged from principal responses was that implementing all five components can have a positive impact on retention of provisional teachers in rural schools. Another finding, based on discussing these components with principals, was that most of the principals felt they did not provide these components as part of an induction program specific to provisional teachers but that these were practices they strived to provide for all teachers.

Professional Development

Job-embedded professional development, as a component, was the Charlton and Kristonis (2010) induction component that was discussed the least. The comments that were offered suggested that teachers were uncertain about its impact. When asked if job-embedded professional development had a significant impact on their decisions to continue teaching at the same school, responses included, “Sure,” or “Yeah, I guess so,” or “Ummm.... [pausing] yes.” In summary, most of them took noticeably longer to think about and provide a response to questions about professional development than they did with their other responses.

When teachers were given the opportunity to talk specifically about their principals and could offer a list of traits or strategies their principals provided that had an impact on their retention, professional development was only mentioned by two teachers. One teacher said, “[Principal] has been supportive with parents and in professional development.” Another said, “Oh, [principal] encourages professional development and individualized PD [professional development] to meet our needs.” Neither teacher, however, provided any further specific information or examples related to their professional development experiences. Despite the fewer number of responses offered, professional development was still a theme that was common among principals and some teachers.

Time to Interact with Colleagues

Working together in teams or teaching partners, and being part of a professional learning community (PLC) were common responses among teachers. One principal shared, “The staff, as a whole, is so supportive. They work collegially. Also, I provide

ongoing collaborative time, including one hour a week for PLCs and scheduling common prep periods.” Another principal also discussed giving provisional teachers “valued support from within their team.”

Initially, only three teachers identified team collaboration or professional learning communities as something their principal did that encouraged them to continue working at the same school. But in the final question that asked what “other factors” had an impact on their retention, nine of the 13 teachers mentioned their school’s sense of community, and how they worked together, collaborated, and supported each other. For some of the teachers, all of their responses were centered on the support of their professional learning communities. One teacher said, “I’d say the PLC time to work with grade-level teams during the week. [Principal] provides us with 30 minutes, four days a week to collaborate with our teams. The work with my team makes my job so much easier.”

Teachers responded that the people they worked with had a significant impact on their decision to continue teaching in these rural schools. One teacher shared that, “I’m staying because of my team.” A second teacher also discussed the negative experiences she has had, but pointed out, “My team has been my main reason for staying.”

Supportive School Leadership

A prevalent theme throughout the responses was *support*. Participants identified several key components that make up this theme: autonomy and trust, input with student learning outcomes, authentic relationships, effective communication, and support, though the definitions and examples of support differed between teachers and principals. Discussions with teachers about the support they received from their principals revealed

that they were positively impacted by a leadership style referred to as responsive leadership.

A responsive leader makes connections with teachers. When teachers described their principals, they indicated that they created relationships with them. Several teachers talked about the sense of community that their principal had created. “[Principal] really focuses on making the school a community, a big family.” [Principal] builds relationships, I know [principal] cares.” Because of these connections teachers want to continue working for them. Another shared, “My principal has realistic expectations and shares our work load to the best of [his/her] ability.”

Teachers defined feeling supported as being empowered by their principal with decision-making, autonomy to teach, and feeling supported to take risks. “[Principal] trusts and supports teachers, listens to teachers.” Another teacher said, “[Principal] trusts us to do our job and is supportive and not judgmental. I know I can go to [Principal] with issues and feel safe doing so.” One teacher stated, when discussing the components her principal provided, “I felt important. My principal made me feel valued and that I mattered.”

Not only did teacher participants state that their principals were being supportive and positive, they described how their principals interacted and behaved in a manner that made them feel trusted and empowered. Teachers shared that their principals treated them like professionals and, as one stated, “...trusts teachers to make best decisions for kids and gives us space to make those decisions and gives us the freedom to do that.” A teacher said, “I feel trusted, by my principal and by my team. My principal trusts and supports [his/her] teachers.” Another teacher simply stated, “Our principal trusts us.” One

teacher stated, when discussing components her principal provided for her as a provisional teacher, “I felt important. My principal made me feel valued and that I mattered.”

Another frequent component, repeated by 10 of 13 teachers, was *opportunities to provide input regarding student-learning outcomes*. Teachers shared that their principals trusted their input and suggestions when it came to student-based decisions. Teachers reported feeling valued, and that they were *treated like experts*. When asked if these opportunities had an impact on their retention, responses included, “Oh, yes.” “Absolutely” and “Yes, this is very important.”

The collective comments revealed that these principals modeled a responsive leadership style because they had the capacity to listen and communicate effectively, and checked in often to ensure that the teachers were feeling supported (Aponte-Soto et al., 2014; Johnson, 2014; Lewis, 2015). Being a good listener and communicator was repeated five different times by different teachers. Their responses included having a principal who was available to talk with and who listened. One teacher shared that her principal “provided clear communication and always seemed to be aware of what was going on, without being controlling.”

The theme of support from one’s principal emerged as participants discussed the value of mentors, teammates, and/or the implementation of professional learning communities as a practice that helped them as early career teachers. However, the type of support that principals discussed was different than the type of support teachers reported receiving. Principals shared that they tried to pair provisional teachers with “great mentor teachers,” “someone that the administrators trusted.” One principal responded that the

district provided teachers with an induction program that lasted for the first four years after the teacher is hired. They become part of a district-wide cohort and receive professional development and training together. Principals commonly defined supporting teachers as providing mentor teachers, being part of strong teaching teams, and utilizing PLCs.

While principals identified the importance of mentors and creating a system of support, teachers did not talk about mentor teachers, district-level cohorts/induction program, or anything systematic. Teachers shared that their desire to continue working in the same school was positively impacted when their principals supported them with challenging parents and/or students. Feeling supported to one teacher meant that the principal did not seem to be judgmental, but had created a relaxed atmosphere. This teacher continued to say, “I am comfortable in the sense that I know I have the support from my administrator to be a successful teacher. I also know that [Principal] has experience in the classroom and is very aware of the every-day struggles teachers can face.”

Teachers talked about feeling comfortable going to their principal when they needed help with a problem. One teacher described her principal as “a coach,” someone who helped “improve her skills and supported her with professional development.” Principals felt they were effective because they were placing provisional teachers with the right people to support them, but provisional teachers continued working for these principals because of what the principals did for them.

Positive School Culture

A theme that was most consistent between principals and teachers was having a positive school culture and work environment. Research has found that teachers in schools with positive school environments had improved perceptions of self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Collie, Shapka, and Perry, 2012; Kelm & McIntosh, 2012). One principal said, “We have a positive work environment and I provide them with tons of support.” Other responses included how “great the kids in the school” were and that “the school community was a great place.” A reason why one principal felt his/her teachers chose to continue teaching in the same school was because, “I help them be successful by giving them a good working environment.”

Teachers cited positive school culture as a significant reason for their decisions to continue teaching at their respective schools. There were 10 of 13 teachers who directly connected having a positive school culture with the positive leadership style of their principals. One teacher shared that she left a previous school because the leadership had created such a negative environment but that at her current school she felt “encouraged, welcomed, and valued.” Some examples of positive school environment from teachers were phrases such as: “sense of family,” “positive interactions with my principal,” and “the principal always has a positive demeanor.” Another teacher, when asked what her principal did that had a significant impact on her decision to continue teaching in the same school, said, “[Principal] has created a positive environment, within staff and whole school.”

Location and Community

There was one theme that did not have any direct correlation to principals. For nine of the teachers, their decision to continue working in their rural schools was impacted, in part, because their school was located in the same community where they resided. “Geographic location – it’s my own community, I live here,” was one teacher’s response. Another stated, while discussing why she continued working in the same school, “It was the people I work with and the community. I live in the community and it’s really supportive of the school.”

Teachers who reside in rural communities understand the struggles and challenges their students face. When discussing this factor, one teacher said, “It’s a smaller community with great parent involvement. [City] is my hometown. I know this place.” One teacher shared that she did not reside in the same community but “loved the school environment” and working for the principal so much that “it was worth the drive.” It is unknown if the other three teachers did or did not reside in the same community because they were not specifically asked where their residence is located.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to analyze successful induction programs for provisional teachers. There were two key questions guiding this study:

- 1) What are principals in some rural schools in ESD 105 doing to successfully retain provisional teachers?
- 2) What support did former provisional teachers from those schools report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools?

Participants provided answers to interview questions intended to seek responses to these two fundamental research questions. Themes emerged from the frequency of participant responses, and these themes were specifically defined from the perspectives of both principals and their teachers. Participants also identified the successful induction programs these principals provided for provisional teachers.

Summary of Findings

- Of the five specific components presented to teachers, the components that teachers most commonly reported having an impact on retention were: opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes, time to interact with supportive educational leaders, and a sense of autonomy.
- Principals believed one reason they successfully retained provisional teachers in their rural schools was because they paired new and provisional teachers with strong mentor teachers. However, there was no mention by any teacher that having mentor teachers had an impact on his/her decision to stay.
- Only one principal felt that establishing professional learning communities and having common preparation time to support team collaboration had an impact on retention. However, one of the most frequent response from teachers was being part of a professional learning community, the teachers they worked with, and/or having time allocated in their work schedule specifically for collaboration. There were two teachers who reported they had contemplated leaving their schools, but their teaching teams were the reason they were still there.
- When asked what their principals did that had an impact on their retention as provisional teachers, almost all teachers reported that their principal had

established a positive school and work environment. Four of the five principals also reported that establishing a positive school culture was one reason why they felt they were successful.

- The type of support that principals felt had a positive impact on retention of provisional teachers included mentor teachers, district-level training and cohorts, and using the teacher performance evaluation system to provide feedback and guidance. For teachers, support from principals included having autonomy and feeling trusted, having input with student learning outcomes, and having an authentic connection and relationship with their principal. Feeling supported with decision-making, and with challenging parents and students were other meaningful forms of support. While teachers reported that they felt supported when principals listened to them, none of the principals mentioned that being a good listener or helping teachers feel trusted had an impact on teacher retention.
- For nine of 13 teachers, one of the most significant factors that contributed to their decision to remain in their respective rural schools was that they teach in the same communities where they resided and/or were raised.

Chapter 5 includes a discussion and analysis of these findings and conclusions, the application of these findings as they relate to the problem statement, and an application of these findings to leadership. Chapter 5 also includes recommendations for actions and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze induction programs for provisional teachers in rural Central Washington State schools and what principals whose retention rates of early career teachers that were higher than others within the same geographic region were doing to successfully support and retain teachers. There is significant research regarding teacher turnover and retention struggles in urban schools with high numbers of students who are culturally, linguistically, and socioeconomically diverse. However, principals in urban schools are not uniquely struggling to retain teachers.

Rural schools, which often have culturally, linguistically, and socioeconomically diverse student populations in Washington State (OSPI, 2016), face significant challenges with attracting qualified teachers and retaining them long enough to become quality veteran teachers (Books & de Villiers, 2013; Donaldson & Johnson, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2011). High turnover forces principals in rural schools to fill a majority of open positions with new, less experienced teachers (Books & de Villiers, 2013; Donaldson & Johnson, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2011) to then replace them within a few years which coincides with the period of time when early career teachers are in provisional status.

Nevertheless, there are principals in rural schools in Central Washington State who have been successful in retaining early career teachers. Investigating the leadership practices of principals in these schools was one focus of this study in an effort to identify why these early career teachers continued teaching in the same rural schools.

This study was focused on principals whose retention rates for provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014 were noticeably higher than other rural public schools in ESD

105. Principals from five schools were interviewed, as well as 13 teachers who had been provisional teachers in these same schools. Only teachers who had taught for five or more years were included as participants because research showed that over 50% of teachers leave the profession within five years, and as much as 70% leave within six years (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2010; DeAngelis & Presley, 2011; Ingersoll, 2005; Martin, Andrews, & Gilbert, 2009). The perspectives and experiences of these teachers provided insight into what their principals did that worked, because these teacher participants were among the 30-50% of early career teachers who chose to continue working in the same rural schools beyond their years in provisional status.

Responses were collected through email and telephone interviews. They were then analyzed to identify what these rural principals did that had a noticeable impact on teachers' decisions to continue teaching at the same school. The first part of the study consisted of single-response questions regarding whether or not principals implemented any of the five components of an induction program identified by Charlton and Kritsonis (2010), and which of these components teachers felt had an impact on their retention.

The open-ended interview question for principals asked them to identify why they felt they had higher success rates retaining provisional teachers. Teachers were asked to identify what their principals did that had an impact on their decision to stay in the teaching profession at their respective schools. Teachers were also asked to explain "other factors" they felt had an impact on their decisions to continue to teach at the same schools, outside of the support provided by their principal. Chapter 4 presented findings from the interview responses of principal and teacher participants.

This chapter includes a discussion of key findings and conclusions as related to the two questions guiding the study, application of findings and conclusions to the problem statement, applications to leadership, recommendations for action, and recommendations for further research.

Discussion of Findings and Conclusions

This section contains two sections, divided specifically to discuss findings that address the two questions guiding this study:

1. What are principals in some rural schools in ESD 105 doing to successfully retain provisional teachers?
2. What support did former provisional teachers from those schools report as having the biggest impact on their decisions to remain teaching at their respective schools?

What are Principals in Some Rural Schools in ESD 105 Doing to Successfully Retain Provisional Teachers?

There did not appear to be a common induction framework being used among the different schools. Because of this, five components found to increase teacher retention when used in induction programs (Charlton & Kritsonis, 2010) were used in this study to establish a consistency in assessing and evaluating the induction programs the principals in the study implemented. Of the five principals, four reported providing all five components. These four principals also had 100% retention of their provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014. The fifth principal who reported providing four of the five components had 86%, or 18 of 21 provisional teachers return from 2010 to 2014.

All five principals felt they were successful in retaining provisional teachers because they provided support to new staff. This support was explained by the principals as being mentor teachers and district-level cohorts. Supporting teachers also included having time for teacher collaboration and working within professional learning communities.

Principals stated that they were intentional in making teachers “feel valued.” Teachers also talked about feeling supported by their principals. However, they did not talk about mentor teachers or cohorts. They did, however, provide a list of components and principals’ traits that fit under the definition of responsive leadership. One characteristic of a responsive leader is having a desire for self-growth, as well as ensuring the professional growth of his/her employees (Lyman, 1988). Job-embedded professional development was one component that principals felt had a significant impact on teacher retention. Job-embedded professional development can be individualized to address specific needs or concerns of a provisional teacher. The principals interviewed for this research appeared to have understood this. They recognized the need to support new and provisional teachers through targeted professional growth opportunities.

There is research that shows a correlation between professional development and teacher retention (Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemeyer, 2000) and there is research that did not find any correlations (Reynolds, Ross, & Rakow, 2002). The key finding may not have to do with what professional development was provided for the provisional teacher. The key finding may be that these principals knew the needs of their provisional teachers and acted on that knowledge. Responsive principals recognized the needs of the teachers and that one way to support them was by providing opportunities

for job-embedded professional development. It is unclear whether the impact on the teachers' retention came from the actual learning they gained from the professional development opportunities, or whether it was due to the fact that their principals knew them well enough and cared about them enough to provide them with these opportunities.

Another reason why responsive school leaders in rural schools had high retention rates for provisional teachers was that they allowed teachers to provide input with their student learning outcomes. In Washington State, student learning outcomes are called student learning goals, and are now part of the teacher job performance evaluations (Lacireno-Paquet, Morgan, & Mello, 2014). Providing input was nearly unanimous among all the teachers as having a significant impact on their retention, even prior to it being part of their job performance evaluations. The key finding with this component is that, even before student learning goals were part of the teacher evaluation, both principals and teachers reported that having input in student learning goals increased teacher retention. There is research that supports the correlation between goal setting in education, by both the teacher and the students, and its impact on the academic success of students.

The leadership traits, "good listener" and "trusting," are traits of a responsive leader who knows his/her teachers and is able to meet their individual needs (Bredeson, Klar, & Johansson, 2011; Lyman, 1988). Noted in this study is that only elementary school teachers mentioned the positive impact of having a principal who trusted them or was a good listener and communicator. It could be concluded that having a principal who is a good listener and trusting has more of an impact on teachers of elementary schools than those working in middle schools or high schools.

Consistent with many of the previous components, responses from principals indicated that many of them did not correlate the positive school environment as being directly impacted by their leadership or leadership styles. Several of the teachers, when asked what “other factors” had an impact on their retention, shared that their school had a positive school culture or sense of community, indicating that they, too, did not connect this component directly to their principals. Successful principals have a profound impact on their school's environment (DuFour & Marzano, 2015; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). But one finding from this study is that principals and teachers may not make a direct connection between having a positive school environment and the influence of the principal on that environment.

What Support did Former Provisional Teachers from Those Schools Report as Having the Biggest Impact on Their Decisions to Remain Teaching at Their Respective Schools?

Just over half of the teachers, when asked about the five components, said yes, job-embedded professional development had an impact on their retention. However, throughout the interviews there were only a few responses where professional development was mentioned by teachers. Teachers did not share any specific professional development that was provided for them. They only acknowledged that it had an impact.

There were eight teachers who responded that having a principal who supported them with parents, difficult students, and decision-making had an impact on their retention. However, none of the principals identified this as a reason for successful teacher retention. A possible reason why principals did not identify this theme could be that they may not have recognized that their natural leadership traits are viewed by

teachers as support. There were seven teachers who shared that their principal helped them feel trusted and confident, and that having principals who were also good listeners and communicators had an impact on their retention. However, none of the principals in the study identified any of these factors.

Another finding from this study related to feeling valued and trusted emerged from responses provided by four elementary school teachers who stated that having a principal who was a good communicator and/or a good listener had an impact on their decision to stay. There were no high school or middle school teachers who shared any responses related to communication or being a good listener. Also, no principals provided responses related to being a good listener or good communicator. One possible reason why principals did not identify these factors could be that the job performance evaluations of principals do not require principals to be evaluated on how well they communicate with staff or how willing they are to listen to staff.

One teacher responded that the team she worked with had such an impact on her as a provisional teacher that it “has been [her] main reason for staying.” Research shows that a principal’s leadership style and expectations greatly impact the working environment (Hallinger, 2011). Principals are responsible for hiring, for teacher job placement, setting expectations, and providing support for teacher and team collaboration. The teaching teams and/or colleagues that teachers work with, and the community within the school, may have a significant impact on how long provisional teachers remain teaching in that school. Although almost all of the teachers viewed this as impacting their retention, only one principal discussed collaboration or the impact on their teams.

Initially, only two teachers discussed colleagues, teaching teams, and/or professional learning communities when asked, “What did your principal do to encourage you to continue teaching in the same school?” However, nine teachers identified these same reasons when asked if there were any “other factors that had a significant impact on their decision” to remain teaching in their respective school. This may suggest that teachers do not connect effective teaching teams and teacher collaboration as something directly impacted by their principals.

Providing provisional teachers with a positive school culture and work environment was another theme from participant responses. All three of the high school and middle school teachers, and seven of the nine elementary school teachers who responded to this question reported that principals who create positive work environments had a positive impact on their retention. Only two of the principals identified having a positive school environment or positive school culture as a component of successfully retaining provisional teachers.

Location and Community

The final open-ended interview question for teachers was, “What were other factors that had a significant impact on your decision to continue teaching in the same school?” There were nine teachers who responded that working in the same community where they resided or were raised had a significant impact on their retention. One teacher stated that she accepted teaching positions in another district to begin her career but returned to her home community as soon as the opportunity arose, even though her home community school was a highly diverse, high poverty school. Research revealed that

where teachers reside or the ties they have to the community correlated strongly with their desires to continue teaching in the same rural schools (Monk, 2007).

Application of Findings and Conclusions to the Problem Statement

Responses from teachers provided insight on why their principals had a significant impact on their decisions to continue teaching at the same school. There were similarities between why principals felt they were successful in retaining provisional teachers and what principals did that teachers identified as having an impact on their retention.

First, if a principal intends to increase retention rates for provisional teachers s/he should provide an induction program for provisional teachers that includes all five Charlton and Kristonis (2010) components: time to collaborate with colleagues, job-embedded professional development, autonomy, having input with student learning outcomes, and time to interact with supportive educational leaders.

Next, one component that had the most consistent responses from 12 of 13 teachers revealed that providing input on student learning objectives, or having a role in creating student learning goals, had an impact on their retention as provisional teachers. A part of teacher performance evaluations now includes requirements for teachers to create and track student learning goals. The implication of this finding is that principals can utilize this portion of the teacher's performance evaluation as a positive way to support teachers, since teachers view this component as a positive component of successful induction programs.

Third, to address the historically problematic issue of limited time and resources available to school principals for supporting teachers new to the profession, findings

suggest that if principals are strategic in focusing on creating a positive school culture and sense of community within the school while also aligning the establishment and sustainability of support for professional learning communities, the outcomes appear to have positive impact in retaining teachers. Both teachers and principals agreed that having a positive school culture, the amount of teacher collaboration, and a sense of community within the school were reasons why provisional teachers continued working in their schools.

Fourth, principals implement and monitor the educational systems in their schools. Professional learning communities were frequently mentioned by teachers as having a significant impact. In this regard, the present findings support research on the impact PLCs can have on student achievement. Through his most recent publication and meta-analysis, Hattie, Masters and Birch (2015) reported that collective teacher efficacy, a team of teachers believing that by working together they will make a difference in student learning, has an effect size on student learning of 1.57 standard deviation. Hattie's research stated that an effect of 0.40 standard deviation equates to a typical year of student growth with a teacher of average ability. This implies that principals who effectively implement professional learning communities within their teams may have a significant impact on the academic growth of students whose teachers work collectively to improve student learning. Successful student growth increases teachers' self-perceptions of efficacy. This, in turn, can increase their desires to continue teaching in the same school.

The last similarity was related to professional learning communities. One teacher reported that the professional learning community the previous principal established had

created a culture that supported her enough to continue teaching at the school. It had become a sustainable system, regardless of who the school leader was. This implies that principals can create, model, and implement an environment of collaboration where the positive impact of the supportive teaching teams can outweigh other negative forces that may cause teachers to resign or leave the profession.

There were also differences between what principals viewed as having an impact on retention and what teachers felt had an impact. First, there appeared to be a disconnect between how principals viewed the impact of mentor teachers and cohorts of provisional teachers and how teachers viewed these programs. Principals assigned mentor teachers to support early career teachers, to give the teacher another contact person and peer-instructional coach. This implies that providing a mentor teacher may not have as big of an impact on teacher retention as principals believe. If principals want to provide mentoring for their provisional teachers, a more effective way teachers want to be supported is through belonging to strong, collaborative teaching teams.

Another finding identified by teachers but not principals was that the principals provided an ongoing presence of support when dealing with parent and student issues, helping teachers feel trusted and valued. Teachers felt encouraged by principals who supported them through active listening, being available for counsel, and finding opportunities for growth rather than focusing on challenges that might have otherwise made the teachers feel criticized. This finding implies that school principals can increase retention by intentionally focusing on being active listeners, being available to counsel with and advise teachers, and nurturing teacher efficacy. Another implication is that

principals who struggle with retention may need to understand and increase their own dispositional capacities so that they can become practitioners of responsive leadership.

There was one finding that was unrelated to any support or leadership disposition of principals. Teacher participant responses imply that teachers who work in the communities where they reside continue to stay in their schools as teachers because they want to serve the communities in which they reside or were raised. Principals and school district leaders may want to consider ways they can partner with local colleges or universities to support hometown graduates to return and teach in the community.

Application to Leadership

All school principals who are certified to practice in Washington State have “met or exceeded” the state’s approved leadership standards. These standards are governed by the Professional Educator Standards Board (PESB) which is responsible for policies related to, and overseeing, the state’s systems for educator preparation, certification, continuing education, and assignment (Washington State Professional Educator Standards Board [PESB], 2014). Without certification, principals are not allowed to practice in Washington State (see Appendix B).

Principals must demonstrate proficiency in six Principal Benchmarks to obtain and maintain their principal certification (PESB, 2014). These benchmarks are: Standard One, Visionary Leadership; Standard Two, Instructional Improvement; Standard Three, Effective Management; Standard Four, Inclusive Practice; Standard Five, Ethical Leadership; Standard Six, Socio-Political (see Appendix B). Within each of these standards are strands that define these six standards into smaller components as they relate to advancement in career levels of principal certification.

There are applications to leadership as a result of this research and the paragraphs that follow connect these applications to the six Washington State Leadership Standards. Based on the frequency and analysis of responses from principals and teachers, there are at least five ways these findings can be directly applied to school leadership practice.

First, leaders need to place a significant emphasis on helping teachers feel trusted. Teachers expressed the importance of feeling trusted in their decision-making, being treated like professionals, and not feeling micro-managed. For educational leaders, this implies that there need to be clear expectations and guidelines in place in their schools regarding what and how teachers are expected to perform; they need to provide teachers with appropriate support for them to have autonomy to meet those expectations and guidelines.

Helping teachers feel trusted can be related to Washington State Leadership Standard Five, Ethical Leadership, specifically Strand 2: Acting with integrity, fairness, and courage in upholding high ethical standards. Principals aspiring to advance to the professional level certificate from the residency certificate level must demonstrate they can act responsibly within legal, ethical, and moral frameworks. Specific descriptors for this strand are defined as: Respond to moral dilemmas using personal values and beliefs to guide actions. Treat people fairly, equitably, and with respect and dignity (see Appendix B, p. 8).

Second, leaders need to create a positive working environment where teachers feel valued. Teachers reported that having positive interactions with their principals and receiving positive constructive criticism increased their desire to continue working for their principals. One teacher reported that she knows her principal cares and strives to

build relationships. Several teachers said that the positive interactions and support from the principal made them feel valued, created a positive school culture, and made them want to work harder for their principal.

In Washington State Leadership Standard Two, Instructional Improvement, principals are asked to show they are educational leaders who can lead through “Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining an effective school/program culture,” as stated in Strand 1. For nine of the 13 teachers interviewed, working in a positive school culture, where they felt supported and sustained, was a key reason for their retention.

Third, as revealed by the theme of Ongoing Presence of Support, providing support for teachers with difficult parents and students is essential. When teachers are asking for help it is often for one of two reasons: they do not want to deal with the issue alone, or they do not know how (Fiore & Whitaker, 2013; Riveros, Newton, & Burgess, 2012). The teachers reported that having their principals’ support when dealing with a difficult parent or student had a significant impact on their decision to continuing working for their principals.

This leadership application can be connected to Washington State Leadership Standard Five, Ethical Leadership. Strand 2, Acting with integrity, fairness, and courage in upholding high ethical standards, states that a principal must be able to “serve as a role model of fairness, equity, and respect to the educational community and the community at large” (see Appendix B). There are many instances when teachers are questioned, challenged, opposed, or confronted by a parent or guardian. New teachers can be especially unprepared to handle these types of situations alone (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). Teachers in this stud shared that they valued and needed the support of principals, and

appreciated how the principals worked respectfully and fairly when supporting them with community members.

Fourth, it is important for school leadership to organize and place provisional teachers within professional learning communities. Being with the right teaching team and right group of colleagues, who are engaged in the right work, had such a significant impact on one teacher that her teaching team was the reason she decided to stay. Some teachers referred to these as teaching teams or partners, and some called them professional learning communities. Dufour et al. (2010) stated that this type of collaboration is a systematic process where teachers work interdependently in order to gain better results for students, teams, and their school. Principals implement, sustain, and support these types of collaborative systems in their schools.

Washington State Leadership Standard Three, Effective Management, addresses a principal's capacity to manage the organization, operations, and systems within a school to ensure the success of each student. Strand 1 states that principals create and sustain a culture of continuous analysis, and coach and mentor emerging staff in an effort to improve structures and procedures that positively impact student learning.

Washington State Leadership Standard Two, Instructional Improvement, Strand 2, Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining student learning, can also be directly connected to this leadership application. Hattie (2009) identified effective teacher collaboration as the most impactful instruction practice to increase student learning. Teacher responses frequently stated the positive and profound impact their teams and collaboration had on their retention.

Lastly, to elevate provisional teacher retention rates in rural schools, the findings from this research study suggest that principals and district administrators identify options for partnering with higher education to create opportunities for hometown students to obtain their teaching degrees.

Washington State Leadership Standard Three, Effective Management, can be related to this leadership application. According to Strand 3, a principal must be able to ensure efficient and effective management of the operations. In most public school districts, the principal is responsible for screening, interviewing, and hiring teachers. Results from this study suggest that principals in rural schools may increase teacher retention by increasing the number of candidates who reside in or were raised in the community where the school is located.

Recommendations for Action

There are four recommendations for action based on findings from this study: partner with higher education to increase the number of hometown candidates; utilize professional learning communities; utilize the five components of a successful induction program, as identified by Charlton and Kritsonis (2010), and be a practitioner of responsive leadership by nurturing, supporting, empowering, and helping teachers feel trusted.

First, teachers from rural communities continued working in their hometown schools. A way to increase retention rates is to increase the number of hometown teaching candidates. To do this, principals can contact local colleges and universities, visiting their teacher education programs, introducing themselves to higher education providers in an effort to building relationships between the teacher preparation programs

and the rural school district. Principals can also actively pursue teacher interns who they know are from the local community. This provides the principal with firsthand knowledge of the abilities of the teacher interns and gives the principal opportunities to provide feedback and instructional support as well as develop relationships with the teacher interns and their respective university preparation programs. Principals also should attend local job and career fairs in an effort to recruit potential candidates.

Second, principals should become more knowledgeable about and create school-wide systems to implement professional learning communities. Teachers discussed the positive impact of being part of a strong teaching team or professional learning community, and it may be more beneficial for principals to focus efforts on strengthening and supporting the teams of the new teacher, and careful consideration of which team they are placed on, rather than focusing on mentor-teachers. Professional learning communities have been shown to have significant positive impact on student growth and teacher efficacy (Dufour et al., 2010) and collective teacher efficacy was identified by Hattie's (2009) research as having a positive effective size of 1.57 on student academic growth, greater than anything else he found in his research.

Third, when prioritizing initiatives and allocating funds, principals and school district officials may want to align resources that will facilitate the establishment and sustainability of intentional induction program components that teachers reported having the most significant impact. The principals in this research study who implemented all five of the components identified by Charlton and Kritsonis (2010) reported 100% retention for provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014.

Lastly, consistently support and empower provisional teachers when they are dealing with challenging parents and students. Feeling that they received ongoing support from their principals had a significant impact on several teachers' decisions to continue teaching at their schools. Along with supporting them with their challenges, principals will also be modeling strategies for teachers to use with disgruntled parents and difficult students. This instructional leadership strategy has been found to have a positive impact on student growth (Hattie, 2009).

The principals in this study who had a significant impact on teacher retention not only focused on the systems and operations in the school setting that would support early career teachers, they were also responsive to meeting the emotional needs of their teachers. These principals knew when to step in and support teachers when they had an issue with parents, knew how to establish positive and uplifting learning environments, and were able to help early career teachers feel supported with decision-making and risk taking.

Recommendations for Further Research

Improving retention rates for new teachers was the impetus for this research. But rather than determine why schools are struggling to retain new and provisional teachers, this research study was designed to identify why some rural schools are having success. Responses to interview questions from five principals and 13 former provisional teachers were recorded, themed, and analyzed. Using this data as a starting point, the following are recommendations for further research:

1. Using the themes identified from this study, create a survey to do quantitative follow-ups with a larger number of principals and teachers in rural schools in

Washington State, as well as rural schools in other states, to determine whether or not the reasons those principals were successful in teacher retention are consistent with those interviewed for this study.

2. All of the teachers in this research were female. Further research might seek out male teachers in rural schools, and compare their responses to those provided by female teachers. Research could also be done to determine if there were different retention rates for teachers based on their gender, and if there are findings relevant to the gender of the school principals.
3. Data was disaggregated based on the collective responses, although participants represented elementary, middle, and high schools. Further research should be done to determine if there are different induction components or significant factors that impact retention of teachers at the different grade/school levels.
4. This research study did not identify the depth, consistency, or frequency to which the Charlton and Kristonis (2010) five components were provided by the principals for the teachers. Further research could quantify implementation or could have teachers rank the components based on what they felt were more or less significant, possibly using a Likert scale.
5. Research should be done to determine if there is a correlation between induction components and hometown resident teachers compared to teachers who were not raised in or reside in the same communities in which they teach.

Concluding Statement

In this study there was a relationship between the number of components a principal reported providing for provisional teachers in their induction program and the

increased retention rates in these rural schools. The principals who reported providing all five induction Charlton and Kristonis (2010) components had 100% retention of provisional teachers from 2010 to 2014. Teachers varied on which of these components they felt had an impact on their retention however all but one teacher agreed that “opportunities to provide input for student learning outcomes” had an impact on their retention. Additionally, teachers identified factors outside of the five induction components that impacted their retention rates. Some of these factors were directly connected to the principal, and some were not.

Aside from implementing support systems for provisional teachers, principals with high retention rates demonstrated they had a nurturing and responsive leadership style. They created school environments that were positive and provided teachers with positive constructive criticism. Teachers reported they continued working at the same school because their principal made them feel supported with difficult parents and students. The teachers stayed because their principals made them feel trusted to make decisions, not micro-managed.

Being part of a professional learning community, and having time specifically allocated in their schedule to work with their teaching teams was a frequent response that teachers reported as having a significant impact on their retention. School principals are responsible for instituting and enforcing these collaborative systems and expectations for collaboration in their schools.

This study identified what these principals have done to support provisional teachers, what teachers felt had a significant impact on their retention, and factors outside of the school that had a significant impact on teachers remaining at the same schools. If

principals implement or strengthen professional learning communities, they may increase their retention rates for provisional teachers. If principals can identify teacher candidates who reside in the school's community, those teachers may become experienced, more effective teachers.

The capacity of principals to be responsive leaders impacted the professional needs of their provisional teachers. Through communication and listening to teacher needs, principals were able to help them feel safe. Principals met with and were visible to teachers, providing them with consistent and positive leadership. Teachers reported that their principals made them feel welcomed, made them feel like they belonged and were included in a school family or community. Principals who had higher levels of teacher retention in rural schools were able to help provisional teachers by responding to teacher needs during the early stages of their careers. Subsequently, teachers started to feel successful, gained respect from others, and pushed themselves to increase their teaching efficacy. Aside from residing in the same community in which one teaches, the professional satisfaction with being in teaching teams, and feeling supported by responsive leaders emerged as answers for the two questions guiding this study.

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Appendix A

Interview Questions for Principals and Teachers

Interview Questions for Teachers

Researchers identified five key areas of support for provisional teachers that influence teacher retention. They are: time to collaborate with colleagues, job-embedded professional development, sense of autonomy, time to interact with supportive educational leaders, and opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes.

1. *How long have you been teaching?*
2. *(For middle and high school teachers) What subject(s) do you teach?*
3. *Which, if any, of the five components had the biggest impact on your decision to continue at your school?*
 - a. Time to collaborate with colleagues
 - b. Job-embedded professional development
 - c. Sense of autonomy
 - d. Time to interact with supportive educational leaders
 - e. Opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes.
4. *What did your principal(s) do to encourage you to remain teaching at your school?*
5. *What were other factors that had a significant impact on your decision to continue teaching in the same school?*

Interview Questions for Principals

Researchers identified five key areas of support for provisional teachers that influence teacher retention. They are: time to collaborate with colleagues, job-embedded professional development, sense of autonomy, time to interact with supportive educational leaders, and opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes.

1. *How long have you been a principal at _____ School?*
2. *Which, of any, of the five components, have you included in supporting early career teachers in your school?*
 - a. Time to collaborate with colleagues
 - b. Job-embedded professional development
 - c. Sense of autonomy
 - d. Time to interact with supportive educational leaders
 - e. Opportunities to provide input regarding student learning outcomes.
3. *Why do you think you have been successful in retaining provisional and early career teachers?*

Possible follow-up or clarifying questions to be used during the interview may include:

- Can you give more details about that?
- When you say “_____” what do you mean?
- Let me read back what I wrote to make sure I understood you correctly. Does that sound correct?

Appendix B

Washington State Leadership Standards Certification Levels: Residency, Professional, And Career

Principal and Program Administrator Benchmarks - Residency Level Effective Aug. 31, 2013 and Professional & Career Levels Effective Nov. 1, 2013

Note: The residency level benchmarks were updated to include the new evaluation system and to align with the professional and career levels. Residency benchmarks are effective August 31, 2013 per RCW 28A.410.278(1).

There are three levels of the career continuum (residency, professional, and career) for the principal and program administrator.

Definitions

Community stakeholders: Includes students, staff, families, and community members.

Cultural competence: Is the set of beliefs, practices, and behaviors that allows us to maintain and support appropriate, fair, and effective interactions with individuals from all ages, abilities, socio-economic backgrounds, race/ethnicities, languages, cultures, and life circumstances. Includes knowledge of student cultural and linguistic histories and contexts, as well as family norms and values in different cultures; knowledge and skills in accessing community resources and community and parent outreach; and skills in adapting instruction to students' experiences and identifying cultural contexts for individual students.

Culturally responsive: Practice that incorporates cultural elements in a way which reflect the school as a social system and dynamic relationship between teachers, families, and students for the purpose of increasing student achievement.

Diversity: Includes race, socioeconomic class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, religion, and language.

Equity pedagogy: Teaching strategies and classroom environments that help students from diverse racial, ethnic, linguistic, and cultural groups attain the knowledge and skills needed to function within and help create and perpetuate a just, humane, and democratic society (Banks & Banks, 2005).

Learning community: Includes students, staff, families, community members, community resources, program(s), school, and district.

Staff: All employees including teachers, education staff associates, paraprofessional, administrators, office workers, cafeteria workers, custodial workers, bus drivers, and all other district-based support personnel.

Standard One

Visionary Leadership: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by leading the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by school/program and community stakeholders.

Strand 1 – Advancing a school- or program-wide shared vision for learning.

Residency

Articulate purposes and rationale for a site-specific vision for learning consistent with the district-wide vision. Demonstrate how schools develop an inclusive shared vision that promotes success for each student.

Professional

Develop the vision with stakeholders at a specific school/program. Build vision to include consideration of site demographics, components of research-based instruction, student achievement and other relevant data, and to identify barriers and promote the success of all. Ensure the vision aligns with the broader district-wide vision.

Career Level

Continually review and restructure the vision to address changing circumstances based on relevant data, including student cultural histories and contexts. Guide others in furthering the vision. Enhance the vision to include cultural competence of the district and region.

Strand 2 – Putting the vision for learning into operation.

Residency

Identify objectives and strategies to implement a school vision. Analyze how systems are affected by a shared vision and suggests changes to an existing system. Demonstrate ability to develop school improvement plans that align structures, processes, and resources with a vision.

Professional

Use the vision to create a School/Program Improvement Plan that in collaboration with the district shapes education programs, systems, and resources. Use action plans and timelines to communicate the school/program vision to all stakeholders. Evaluate the effectiveness of the School/Program

Improvement Plan in moving the school/program community toward the vision of promoting success of all students.

Career Level

Implement the vision across multiple stakeholder groups and settings. Use data to continually monitor and revise systems to reflect the vision. Solicit from and give feedback to other administrators to analyze the effectiveness of the school/program vision in shaping education programs, systems, and resources to positively impact student learning.

Strand 3 - Developing stewardship of the vision.

Residency

Demonstrate understanding of the leader's role as keeper of the vision while establishing a means to involve stakeholders in keeping the vision. Evaluate how the vision serves the needs of students, staff and community. Demonstrate understanding of how to use the vision to facilitate effective communication, nurture and maintain trust, develop collaboration among stakeholders and celebrate efforts and achievement of the vision.

Professional

Accept responsibility as keeper of the vision. Communicate the vision through a variety of media. Model vision to all stakeholders, focusing priorities on student learning. Systematically engage stakeholders in carrying out the vision through an atmosphere of collaboration and vision ownership. Evaluate alignment between the vision and progress toward promoting success of all students within the learning community. Facilitate, guide, and celebrate progress toward the vision.

Career Level

Continually evaluate alignment between vision and progress toward promoting success of all students within the learning community. Expand base and empower stakeholders to participate in shaping education programs, systems, and resources to move the learning community toward the shared vision of promoting success of all students. Design a system of shared responsibility for renewing the vision, as well as acknowledging and celebrating progress toward the vision.

Standard Two

Instructional Improvement: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by leading through advocating, nurturing, and sustaining district/school/program cultures and coherent instructional programs that are conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

Strand 1 – Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining an effective school/program culture.

Residency

Demonstrate understanding that student learning is the fundamental purpose of schools. Identify features of organizational cultures promoting student learning. Use a variety of skills and strategies to design systems that respect and support diverse cultural perspectives and customs in order to promote success of each student. Engage in the creation and/or implementation of a School Improvement Plan that supports a culture of continuous learning. Promote classroom communities based on acceptance, respect, and civility.

Professional

Identify the school/program specific culture within the broader context of the district wide culture. Create a School/Program Improvement Plan that utilizes skills and strategies to assure students and parents from diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups work together cooperatively to promote the success of all students. Use understanding of the school/program and district culture to analyze the ways current systems and programs, including technology, are affecting student learning.

Career Level

Empower the stakeholders to define, maintain, and monitor the ways in which the school/program specific culture is affecting student learning. Collaborate with other administrators to give and receive feedback on effectiveness of expectations, implementation, respect, and fairness in improving the overall systems and programs reflective of the school or program learning culture.

Strand 2 – Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining student learning.

Residency

Demonstrate understanding of how to engage and support each student in meaningful learning that is regularly assessed to improve instruction. Supervise instruction and knows how to use a continuous cycle of assessment to improve instruction and ensure that each student has equitable and sufficient opportunities to learn and to meet high standards. Work with staff to align curriculum, instruction and assessment with state and local learning goals. Manage learning systems to assure their responsiveness to students' cultural, cognitive, and linguistic needs. Understand the Washington teacher and principal evaluation criteria, four-tiered performance rating system, and the preferred instructional and leadership frameworks used to describe the evaluation criteria including self-assessment, goal setting, and reflective practices; evidence gathering over time; classroom observation skills; bias training; rater agreement on the four-tiered system; use of student growth data and multiple measures of performance; evaluation conferencing; development of classroom teacher and principal support plans resulting from an evaluation; and use of an online tool to manage the

collection of observation notes, teacher and principal-submitted materials, and other information related to the conduct of the evaluation.

Professional

Use state and locally adopted standards, research, assessment data, and district recommendations to help make district wide curriculum decisions as well as school/program specific curriculum decisions. Use classroom-based assessment, district achievement data, state measures, and demographic data to identify the barriers to student learning and strategies to ensure that all students move towards meeting standards. Establish processes through which research-based, culturally responsive instructional strategies, and cycles of inquiry are implemented to improve instructional practice and student learning.

Career Level

Facilitate the understanding and implementation of research-based teaching and assessment along with equity pedagogy that empowers students to take ownership of and to monitor their learning processes in every classroom, every day. Build greater capacity for system support for student learning in collaboration with families, stakeholders, and district staff.

Strand 3 – Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining coherent, intentional professional development.

Residency

Use evidence of student learning to create professional development systems. Use a continuous cycle of analysis to create and monitor professional development systems that have a positive impact on student learning. Understand that professional development increases the instructional and leadership capacity of staff. Use district-wide and school improvement plans to support professional development, including the use of technology. Know processes for coaching staff, conducting staff evaluation, and for using a professional growth plan to improve student learning. Demonstrate understanding of how to build leadership capacity to improve student learning.

Professional

Use a continuous cycle of analysis to create and monitor professional development systems that have a positive impact on student learning. Take responsibility for supervising and coaching staff to ensure only effective educators and support staff are in the classroom. Support staffs' capacity to analyze student learning data in order to establish school/program goals and associated professional development. Use cycle of inquiry-identified area(s) of professional growth within the staff evaluation process.

Career Level

Facilitate systems that focus staff on reflection, collaboration, and peer mentorship to support successful professional development. Build staff

leadership in creating and maintaining student-centered achievement goals. Learn from and with peers to gather and interpret data to build greater capacity for professional development support using resources from community stakeholders as well as state-funded initiatives.

Standard Three

Effective Management: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Strand 1 – Uses a continuous cycle of analysis to ensure efficient and effective systems.

Residency

Use a continuous and repeating cycle of analysis for evaluating the effectiveness of school programs, systems, and issues. The continuous cycle of analysis includes problem framing, data collection and interpretation, synthesis, use of data to outline options for action, implementing chosen action, and gathering evidence to check progress and to judge effectiveness.

Professional

Use the continuous cycle of analysis for evaluating multiple programs, systems, and school/program issues. Model and inspire others in the learning community to use the cycle of analysis to examine difficult school/program issues and to improve student learning.

Career Level

Create and sustain a culture of continuous analysis in every aspect of the learning community. Coach and mentor emerging staff, student, and community leaders. Collaborate with other administrators and education staff associates to use the continuous cycle of analysis to improve structures, procedures and resources to positively impact student learning through professional development, the family community, and community at large.

Strand 2 – Ensuring efficient and effective management of the organization.

Residency

Use organizational theory to create and support structures within a building that promote school safety, behavior management, and other site-specific issues. Demonstrate understanding of developmentally appropriate behavior expectations and discipline policies that are balanced with students' emotional and personal needs. Assure that school policies and practices result in equitable treatment of each student.

Professional

Design and implement structures for effective and efficient operations including scheduling, classroom, and school- or program-wide progressive discipline, and other school/program specific issues specifically targeted to improve student learning opportunities. Create a School/Program Improvement Plan that provides for monitoring and supporting these structures. Monitor the effective implementation of the school/program safety plan.

Career Level

Align organizational elements of the school/program with the School/Program Improvement Plan ensuring an effective and positive learning environment. Develop a school- or program-wide student self-regulation program. Use data to adjust the effective implementation of the school/program safety plan. Seek feedback from and give to other administrators. Share organizational expertise with others and actively mentor other educational leaders.

Strand 3 – Ensuring efficient and effective management of the operations.**Residency**

Demonstrate understanding of knowledge and skills necessary for effective building-wide operations, including, including awareness of legal and ethical issues, problem-framing and problem-solving, bargaining and other contractual agreements, and group process and decision-making.

Professional

Establish procedures to ensure compliance with legal issues, bargaining agreements, maintaining confidential information, and records retention requirements. Implement effective communication plans with all stakeholders. Extend the cycle of inquiry to management operations. Collaborate with other administrators to seek and give feedback to improve the effectiveness of management procedures system-wide.

Career Level

Establish a culture where everyone accepts shared responsibility for management operations. Collaborate with all stakeholders to seek and give feedback to improve the effectiveness of management procedures system-wide.

Strand 4 – Ensuring management of the resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.**Residency**

Demonstrate understanding of procedures necessary for management and maintenance of a safe and orderly learning environment. Identify the responsibilities related to financial, human, and material resources as required by state law, Board policy, and employee contracts. Engage in the creation and/or

implementation of plans to ensure responsible and equitable management of resources.

Professional

Manage and align school/program equipment and schedules to use human, technological, material, and fiscal resources responsibly. Collaborate with district staff and local educator preparation programs to determine workforce needs and focus educator and education staff associate development and recruitment efforts. Collect the relevant data needed to effectively monitor use of resources. Monitor procedures that assure the school/program facility is a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Career Level

Maximize the use of human, fiscal, technological, and material resources based on data analysis and forecasting. Act creatively to support continuous school/program improvement in response to the changing environment. Collaborate with other administrators and stakeholders to increase and distribute available resources equitably for your school/program and district.

Standard Four

Inclusive Practice: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

Strand 1 – Collaborating with families and community members.

Residency

Demonstrate understanding that family support affects student success in school. Demonstrate understanding that sustaining successful family partnerships is challenging, and knows the critical partnership issues that must be addressed, the barriers to success, and ways to overcome them. Demonstrate collaboration skills with diverse students and families in support of student academic performance.

Professional

View families as full partners in the education of their children. Identify the diverse family groups within the school/program community and actively invite them into the various roles families should play in their student's learning process, involve them in school/program decision-making, and utilize family resources for the benefit of student growth. Use a variety of culturally responsive means to communicate with families and stakeholders.

Career Level

Regularly seek information and respond to families' and stakeholders' concerns, expectations, and needs. Validate differences in values, opinions, and views, acknowledging that families, stakeholders, and educators have the best interests of the children and community in mind, leading to common goals for providing learning opportunities for all students.

Strand 2 – Collaborating with and responding to diverse communities.**Residency**

Recognize the diversity within the school and the district. Understands the complex characteristics of ethnic, racial, and cultural groups and the challenges faced by immigrant communities. Understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects the personal experiences and the social, political, and economic contexts in which students live and work. Demonstrate understanding of the importance of each student having opportunities to participate in co-curricular activities that are congruent with the academic and interpersonal goals of the school.

Professional

Ensure that the school/program is an inclusive learning community that develops mutual respect among students, staff, families, and all other stakeholders. Model mutual respect towards students, staff, families, and all other stakeholders. Ensure students are taught about stereotyping and other related biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations; values shared by virtually all cultures, such as justice, equality, freedom, peace, compassion, and charity; and social skills that are needed to interact effectively with students from other racial, ethnic, and cultural groups. Students are provided the opportunity to interact with students from different racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups under conditions designed to promote acceptance of diversity.

Career Level

Lead staff in examining the personal, social, and cognitive consequences of policies and practices on equity in the schools/programs. Develop programs that promote mutual respect and understanding among students, staff, families, and all other stakeholders. Work to assure that policies encourage the use of research-based assessments appropriate for individual linguistic and cultural groups. Advocate development and recruitment of a racially, culturally, and ethnically diverse staff.

Strand 3 – Mobilizing community resources.**Residency**

Recognize the importance of funding and distribution of resources to ensure that each student has equal opportunities to access learning. Engage in the creation and/or implementation of plans to obtain adequate resources, including technology. Investigates potential community resources appropriate to the plan.

Professional

Utilize funds and distribute resources, including technology, to ensure that all students have equal access to learning. Value resources of diverse community groups. Identify and nurture relationships with community leaders. Prioritize high visibility, active involvement, and regular communication, using technology, to facilitate the school/program and community serving one another as resources.

Career Level

Develop strategies to ensure that all schools/programs, regardless of their locations in the district, are funded equitably. Advocate state and district level officials to provide additional funding for schools/programs with low-income populations. Develop and maintain effective media relations. Establish mutually beneficial relations with businesses, higher education institutions, agencies, and community groups that support the implementation of the School/Program Improvement Plan.

Standard Five

Ethical Leadership: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

Strand 1 – Using the continuous cycle of analysis for self-assessment of professional leadership.**Residency**

Understand and exemplify the standards, responsibilities, and indicators for the principal's role in a democratic school. Create a professional growth plan, identifies needed growth, plans professional growth activities, and gathers evidence to document that professional growth leads to school improvement and increased student learning. Engage in self-analysis of own values, behaviors, and dispositions, including awareness of own ethnicity/culture as it relates to others.

Professional

Use the continuous cycle of analysis to assess personal progress and revise professional growth plan to include increasingly complex goals. Continually gather evidence that professional growth has led to increased student learning. Seek feedback from others about professional leadership and performance.

Career Level

Use the professional growth plan to collaborate with other professionals to identify and sustain needed professional growth. Coach and mentor emerging

instructional leaders. Contribute to the advancement of the profession through sharing experience, advancing best practice, and extending learning beyond the ISLLC and Washington State standards.

Strand 2 – Acting with integrity, fairness, and courage in upholding high ethical standards.

Residency

Understand the career expectation for leading within legal, ethical, and moral frameworks. Articulate and use personal values and beliefs to guide actions. Treat people fairly, equitably, and with dignity.

Professional

Act responsibly within legal, ethical, and moral frameworks. Respond to moral dilemmas using personal values and beliefs to guide actions. Treat people fairly, equitably, and with respect and dignity.

Career Level

Serve as a role model of fairness, equity, and respect to the educational community and the community at large. Respond to moral dilemmas in a manner that inspires others to demonstrate integrity and exercise ethical behavior.

Standard Six

Socio-Political Context: A school or program administrator is an educational leader who has the knowledge, skills, and cultural competence to improve learning and achievement to ensure the success of each student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Strand 1 – Understanding the role of schools or programs in a democracy.

Residency

Demonstrate understanding of the role of education in renewing a democratic society and the leader's responsibility in influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context. Advocate for equitable and inclusive policies that benefit children, families, and caregivers. Act to influence local, state, and national decisions affecting learning. Adapt leadership strategies to reflect emerging trends and initiatives.

Professional

Establish equitable systems within the school/program that value diversity and prepare citizens for participation in a democratic society. Support district efforts to ensure fairness throughout the school/program system. Participate actively in political and policy-making contexts at the local level (e.g., levy, community organizations, and PTSA within the district.)

Career Level

Promote student civic involvement which prepares them for active participation in a democratic and global society. Actively participate in influencing the quality of a democratic education beyond the local level (e.g., state and federal policy and legislation, professional associations, share knowledge and experience through workshops and written work, or mentor fellow educators through a continuing dialogue around educational issues). Empower others to create school- or program-based accountability models using the continuous cycle of analysis that goes beyond state standards for improvement.

Appendix C

Organization Informed Consent Form



Organizational Informed Consent Form

Name of Organization
Address
City, State, Zip
Telephone

By signing this consent form, I understand that Rob Darling is a candidate for an advanced degree. I understand that the researcher is conducting a study entitled "An Analysis of Successful Induction Programs for Early Career Teachers in Rural Central Washington State Schools". The purpose of this research is to identify out why provisional teachers in some rural central Washington State school districts continued teaching in the same school the researcher will survey teachers and principals from schools with the high retention rates..

I understand the findings of this research study are solely the responsibility of the researcher. It is understood that any and all information/data the researcher collects from contacts within and/or about our organization outside the research protocol will not be part of the research findings. I understand the researcher may publish findings following completion of this study. Any information published will be limited to the findings of the research. No research participants will participate in this study without organization and City University of Seattle Institutional Review Board (IRB) knowledge and approval.

- I grant the researcher permission to contact members of the organization for the purpose of requesting participation in the study as required by the research design.
- I grant the researcher permission to use organizational premises as necessary to conduct the research.
- I grant the researcher permission to collect, use, and store documentation related to the project under study. I understand that in granting permission to access program documentation, the researcher may store copies in a secure manner outside of the organization.
- The researcher will maintain all documentation and findings regarding this organization in confidence and confine its use to this research study.
- On behalf of the organization, I request a final copy of this research report.

4/20/15
Date