

A MODEL FOR IMPROVING TEACHER ENGAGEMENT THROUGH  
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

by

James C. Campbell

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Doctor of Philosophy

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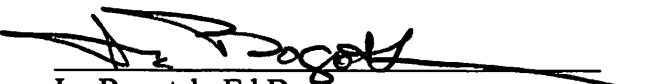
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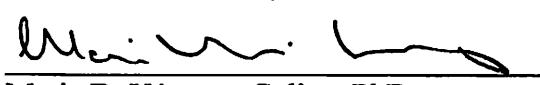
James C. Campbell

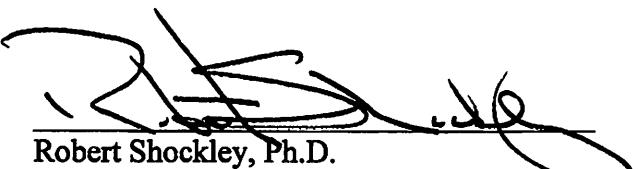
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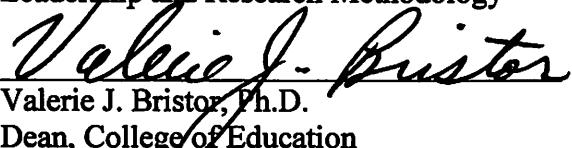
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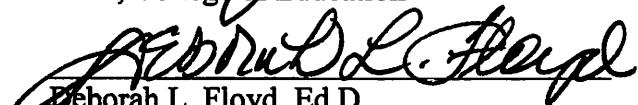
  
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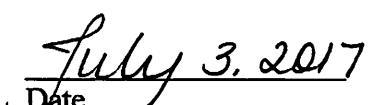
  
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## ABSTRACT

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School leaders in the elementary and secondary levels are continually in search of ways to raise student achievement. It is acknowledged that a quality teacher is the most effective means to ensure student success. However, school leaders cannot stop at hiring quality teachers. They must take steps to provide support for those teachers so they will remain engaged in their jobs. This research study sought to examine how various supportive actions by school principals can affect teacher engagement. It addressed the research questions of “Can administrative support factors predict teacher engagement?” and “Can teacher engagement predict student achievement?” This was accomplished through a literature review of the topics associated with teacher engagement as well as a quantitative analysis of responses solicited from high school teachers in a large urban school district in the Southeastern United States. The results indicate that administrative support factors can predict teacher engagement as the model predicted that a significant

amount (54%) of the variance in teacher engagement was due to the predictor variables. It was found that the social events factor significantly predicted teacher engagement ( $\beta=.419$ ) with the next highest weight being the assessment factor ( $\beta=.246$ ). However, the study did not show a predictive relationship between teacher engagement and student achievement.

## DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation and degree to my loving family. To my dad Sonny, I wish you could be here to see how your example of hard work and determination has impacted my life. Despite the difficulties, I never gave up on this quest because that's how you raised me. To my mom Carol, thank you for always believing in me. No matter how discouraged I got throughout this endeavor, you always told me that I could do it. To my son Jacob, I hope you will remember my example of always wanting to learn more and better myself. Remember that you can never have too much education. I always want the best for you, but I also want you to know that often you must go out and work for what you truly desire. And finally, to my wife Amy, thank you for your unending support. Throughout the years of classes and dissertation hours, you were always understanding when I needed time to work regardless of the situation. Having you behind me along the way has meant more than you will ever know.

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## CHAPTER ONE. INTRODUCTION

The 2013-2014 school year marked the 17<sup>th</sup> and final year of the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) administration in the state of Florida (Postal, 2012). Many educators had been calling for its abolition since its inception (Fitzpatrick, 2012; Kinsey, 2011; Nahirny, 2012; O'Connor, 2012). However, the announced end of the FCAT did not mean those educators could celebrate. This was because FCAT was just one of the many policy levers in an age of accountability. Therefore, the demise of the FCAT did not serve as a harbinger to the end of high stakes testing and accountability measures. School leaders still are tasked with providing the best educational experience possible for students while simultaneously ensuring that they are prepared for these tests (O'Connor, 2014).

In 2014-2015, the FCAT was replaced by the Florida Standards Assessments (FSA), a set of tests based on the new Florida Standards, Florida's version of the national Common Core Standards (StateImpact, n.d.). Much like FCAT, the FSA is administered to all students in grades 3 through 10 (StateImpact, n.d.). Given that the era of accountability continues despite the end of the FCAT, it is unlikely that the leadership styles of school leaders will change. Principals and other school administrators will continue to experience the same level of pressure to show success on high stakes assessments.

According to the 2012 MetLife Survey of the American Teacher, only 44% of teachers stated that they were very satisfied with their jobs (Heitin, 2012). This represented the lowest level of job satisfaction since 1989 and a 15% decrease from 2009. The decrease in job satisfaction has led to an increase in teachers planning to leave the profession (Heitin, 2012). In 2009, 17% of teachers planned to leave the profession in five years, whereas 29% of teachers in 2012 plan to leave in five years (Heitin, 2012). Chang (2009) painted an even bleaker picture with data showing that 25% of teachers leave within their first two years and that nearly 40% leave within the first five years. Reasons for such low levels of job satisfaction included inadequate support from administration, student discipline issues, managing the workload and time constraints, student motivation, assessments, conflict with parents and other adults, availability of needed resources and materials, limited input into school decisions, and low salaries (Fantilli & McDougal, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005).

It should be noted that this is not a problem limited to the United States. Countries with varying educational systems, such as Norway, Australia, China and England, also are experiencing high rates of teacher attrition (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Such low levels of job satisfaction among teachers must be addressed due to the positive aspects resulting from a teacher who is satisfied with their job. Tickle (2008) asserted that satisfied teachers are less likely to leave the profession, more likely to engage in collegiality, and exhibit overall improved job performance, which results in improved student achievement. Untangling the relationship between job satisfaction, teacher engagement, and improved student achievement was the purpose of this study.

## **Administrative Support**

The current era of accountability leads many school leaders in search of a quick fix (DuFour & Mattos, 2013). An eternal hope exists for finding a program that once implemented in schools will cure all their ills. Rather than search for programs, school leaders must find ways to support teachers, increase morale, and raise job satisfaction if they hope to increase teacher engagement with children despite continued high stakes testing, as these actions clearly have been proven to increase student learning (Leithwood, 2010; Rockoff, 2003).

As in any field, when teachers are dissatisfied in their jobs, they are much more likely to leave the profession (Liu & Meyer, 2005). The most prevalent reason for teacher job dissatisfaction is an area that most school leaders cannot control, compensation (Liu & Meyer, 2005). Poor compensation was given as the reason for departure of over 75% of beginning teachers (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Because school leaders typically are not in control of compensation outside of providing opportunities for extra pay through awarding of stipends for additional duties such as sponsorship of clubs, principals must focus on areas in their realm of control.

An area that is discussed frequently in studies of teacher job dissatisfaction and teacher attrition is the lack of administrative support (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994; Prather-Jones, 2011; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005; Tickle, 2008). Teachers experience high levels of stress in their jobs and need to feel supported by their school administrators. Administrative support can take many forms: emotional, professional, organizational, and behavioral (Barth, 2006; Bogotch, Williams, & Hale, 1995; Evans, 2011; Fullan, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001; Louis, 1995; Wagner, 2001).

Administrative support that speaks to improving job satisfaction also may lead to an improvement in teacher engagement. Increased levels of teacher engagement have been found to have substantial impact on student achievement (Louis, 1995). Specifically, teachers who are engaged with the school can positively impact several critical aspects of the school including student attendance, motivation, and dropout rates (Kruse & Louis, 2009; Louis, 1995; Marzano, Picketing, & Pollack, 2001; Moller, Stearns, Mickelson, Bottia, & Banerjee, 2014). Clearly, the quality of the teacher is significant. Whereas a highly effective teacher can dramatically impact student motivation and learning, a poor teacher can produce equally adverse effects. In a broad sense, engagement describes the active involvement in the educational experience (Lesko, 1986).

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to identify administrative support factors that had the greatest impact on high school teacher engagement and if those factors indirectly impacted student achievement. The study defined administrative support factors and proceeded to identify specific variables related to teacher engagement. With respect to administrative support, a curricular and instructional model developed by Bogotch (1989) for measuring teacher engagement was modified and adapted.

That model delineated the managerial process into two dimensions: structural and discretionary (Bogotch et al., 1995). It described how school leaders “control” schools through their social interactions with the structure of the organization to accomplish their goals (Bogotch et al., 1995). An organization’s structure includes standards, assessments, evaluations, and teaching practices. The manner in which a school leader exercises

discretion within the structure and presents it to a faculty impacts the overall functioning of the school and ultimately student achievement as positive administration-teacher relationships lead to positive teacher-student relationships (Barth, 2006).

The way in which a school leader utilizes managerial control influences how supportive he/she is perceived to be by faculty and staff. In a study by Cancio, Albrecht, and Johns (2013), administrative support was seen to be how a leader provides guidance and feedback, encourages opportunities for growth, shows appreciation, and demonstrates trust in teachers. This adapted model also tested how administrative support (AS) and teacher engagement (TE) were related to student achievement.

### **Research Questions**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to identify administrative support factors that had the greatest impact on high school teacher engagement and if those factors indirectly impacted student achievement. The research questions guiding this study were:

1. Can school principal leadership behaviors predict teacher engagement?
2. Can teacher engagement predict student achievement?

The conceptual framework for the study is shown in Figure 1.

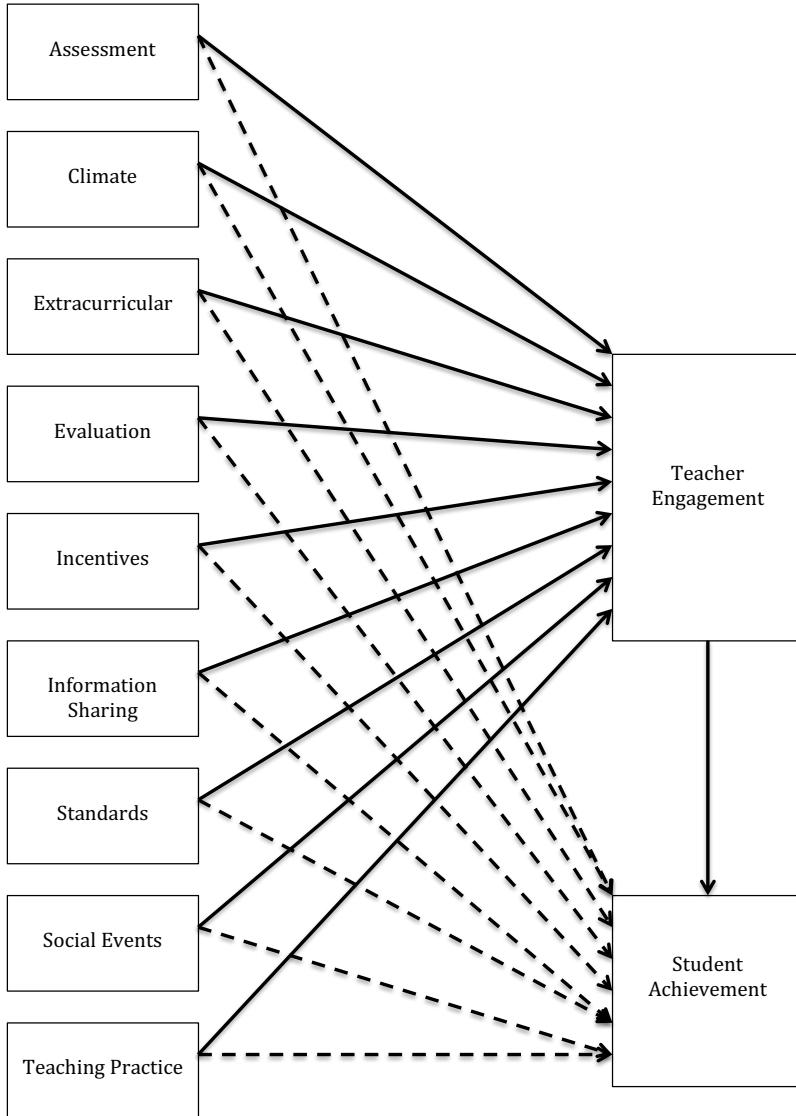


Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

### Significance of Study

School leaders are under increasing pressure to raise student achievement. The researcher is a high school principal in a southeastern state with numerous statewide assessments that are utilized to rate schools. In the state of Florida, public schools have received school grades based on their students' performance on the FCAT and now FSA since 1998. In recent years, other components besides test scores have been added to the

criteria for determining school grades at the secondary level; however, the importance of those scores has not decreased. Parents, community members, and civic leaders all desire highly graded schools.

Additional pressure has been caused by the rise of charter school system in the state (Silvernail & Johnson, 2014). Charter schools provide an alternative to parents who may be dissatisfied with their assigned public school. A common reason for such dissatisfaction is a school's grade (Travis, 2015). Public schools in the state of Florida have been impacted greatly by parents exercising their right to choose charter schools over traditional public schools. In the 1996-1997 school year, Florida's charter school program began with five schools statewide. That program increased exponentially to encompass 578 schools serving 203,240 students in the 2012-2013 school year (Florida Department of Education [FLDOE], 2016b). Those students represented a loss of over \$728 million to Florida public schools based on the 2012-2013 Base Student Allocation per pupil funding of \$3,582.98 (FLDOE, 2013). Public schools are in direct competition with charter schools for students, which ultimately equates to dollars.

The reasons for parents opting for charter schools over public schools include more than school grades. Generally, parents send their children to charter schools because they do not feel that the public school can meet their child's needs in terms of size, academics, and personal educational needs (Finn, Caldwell, & Raub, 2006). Regardless of the reasons, the reality is that traditional public schools must compete with charter schools for students. In addition to addressing other perceived deficiencies in public schools, school leaders are continuing to ask themselves how they can raise the achievement of their students.

One may ask any school leader how they make decisions, and they inevitably will respond that they always consider what is in “the best interests of the students.” While certainly a laudable sentiment, it may not be enough. It is important to know who will be acting on those decisions and who has the ability to successfully implement or impede the implementation of a new program. School leaders are decision-makers, but it is the school faculty who must act upon and carry out those decisions. Therefore, it is incumbent on school leaders to consider how decisions will benefit students as well as how teachers will perceive them. After such consideration, the leader then must determine how they can support teachers as they work to execute the decisions that have been made. This research study sought to examine the various forms of administrative support and their possible impact on teacher engagement or the degree to which teachers were satisfied with and connected to their school and profession. Findings may guide school leaders on ways in which to improve the engagement of their teachers.

### **Limitations and Delimitations**

Delimitations were the researcher-selected characteristics, which served as the boundaries of the study. For this study, the delimitations were

1. A school district in a southeastern state, and
2. Teachers in traditional (non-alternative or charters) public high schools.

Limitations are those elements over which the researcher has no control.

Limitations for this study were

1. Response rate of survey participants, and
2. Honesty of the participants given that many survey items are opinion based.

## **Chapter Summary**

Chapter 1 included an introduction to the problem school leaders face to continually improve test scores in an age of accountability. The significance of this study was to uncover the relationship between administrative support and teacher engagement. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on teacher engagement as well as addresses the structural and informal components of administrative support. Chapter 3 explains the study including the quantitative design techniques. Chapter 4 presents findings and data analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the findings, draws conclusions, and proposes recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER TWO. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of the literature validates what educators have known for decades: A quality teacher is the most important factor in determining student achievement (Allen et al., 2013; Cheng, 1996; Goe & Stickler, 2008; Hitt & Tucker, 2016; A. Jacob, 2012). Understanding and influencing teacher engagement may be one key to increasing student achievement. Teachers who feel supported by their administrators likely will be satisfied in their jobs and become more engaged in their school and profession.

### **Accountability**

Education in the United States is currently in what has been termed the “era of accountability.” B. Jacob (2017) described accountability as a system with “clear, measurable, and ambitious performance standards” (p. 470), where curriculum is aligned to those standards and students are tested to determine if they are meeting those standards. Many people point to the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002) by then President George W. Bush as the beginning of the era of accountability. While this did usher in accountability on a national scale, the state of Florida has accountability measures that predate NCLB by a few years. Florida has been issuing letter grades to schools since the passage of its A+ Plan in 1999 (FLDOE, 2014). Schools receive a grade of A, B, C, D, or F based primarily on the performance of its students on the FCAT, which has been replaced by the FSA (Thompson, 2014).

According to the state of Florida Department of Education’s web site,

The FCAT began in 1998 as part of Florida's overall plan to increase student achievement by implementing higher standards. When in full implementation, the FCAT was administered to students in grades 3-11 and consisted of criterion-referenced assessments in mathematics, reading, science, and writing, which measured student progress toward meeting the Sunshine State Standards (SSS) benchmarks. (FLDOE, n.d.)

Other components such as graduation rates and college readiness metrics have been added to the school grading formula over the years, but the original idea behind the A+ Plan remains. Schools are held publicly accountable for the performance of their students.

Florida's current grading system for high schools includes 10 components: four achievement components in the areas of English language arts, mathematics, science and social studies; two learning gains components for English language arts and mathematics; two additional in those areas for learning gains with the lowest 25% of students; one graduation rate component; and a college and career acceleration component, which addresses the percentage of graduates who pass an acceleration exam (Advanced Placement, International Baccalaureate, or Advanced International Certificate of Education), a dual enrollment class, or an industry certification exam (FLDOE, 2016c; K-20 Education Code, 2016b). All components except graduation rate and college and career acceleration are calculated based on student performance on the FSA.

In addition to labeling public schools, Florida's A+ Plan included a provision mandated by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002), which allowed parents of students at schools graded with an "F" in two out of four years to receive vouchers to send their children to private schools or to transfer to higher performing

public schools (Green, 2001). If the Florida A+ Plan could be considered an accountability system with teeth, then the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002) sharpened its bite by adding provisions for gains with subgroups of students and penalties for failing to meet the established benchmarks (Hall, Weiner, & Carey, 2003).

While opinions of the merits of school accountability system may differ greatly, policies such Florida's A+ Plan and NCLB (2002) do outline clear expectations for schools to meet. It then becomes the responsibility of the individual school leaders to share those expectations on their campuses (Barth, 2006). The result of such policies is that schools are provided with specific measures of student outcomes (Bauer & Bogotch, 2006). Meeting the goals set forth in such policies becomes the driving focus of school leaders. All stakeholders are to be made aware of said goals and the steps being taken to meet them. In fact, school leaders are required to share this information with teachers, parents, and community members.

Although school leaders are required to outline their school's goals and to communicate the importance of meeting them, the stakeholders are under no obligation to support those goals. When deciding whether to support these goals, stakeholders must consider what they feel is the purpose of education. The answer varies between states, school districts, communities, schools, and parents. Sloan (2012) stated that, "the purpose of education is to support children in developing the skills, the knowledge, and the dispositions that will allow them to be responsible, contributing members of their community" (p. 1). Opinions will vary as to what knowledge should be considered necessary and how to ascertain whether students have gained the agreed upon level of knowledge. The educational policymaking entities are in the position to set those levels

and more often than not have decided that a test is required to assess the acquisition of that knowledge (Matthews, 2006). An emphasis on accountability issues can make it appear that test scores are the only concern of schools and school leaders. Parents may feel that schools only want to “teach to the test,” meaning that they are only concerned with information specific to their state accountability measures (Jennings & Bearak, 2014) and in so doing neglect other areas of the educational experience that the parents deem important (Bogira, 2013).

In such situations, conflict may arise. School leaders may find themselves being held accountable to multiple groups. Federal, state, and district policymakers establish criteria such as student achievement scores on various accountability measures. Members of the community have their own expectations of schools such as providing a qualified workforce. Schools that are deemed successful can impact the local economy as those schools are desirable to parents, which boosts the real estate values and subsequently the other aspects of the economy (Kane, Riegg, & Staiger, 2006). Parents want to know that their children are attending the “best” schools and, in many instances, take an active role in ensuring that goal (Zeehandelaar & Northern, 2013). Heitin (2012) found that parent engagement in schools has increased in the past 25 years. Having so many groups with a vested interest in the success of schools places a heavy burden on school leaders to continually improve their school’s performance on accountability measures.

The groups mentioned previously are all external forces in play in this era of accountability. School leaders also need to address the thoughts and desires of a major internal force, its teachers. While school leaders feel the burden of accountability, it is teachers who ultimately bear the brunt of the efforts to improve student achievement.

Principals can develop plans to raise test scores, but it is the teachers who must implement such plans and who are the determinants of their success or failure.

Wagner (2001) outlined the conflict that can arise between teachers and administrators because of the pressures of accountability. School leaders are tasked with improving accountability results, yet teachers are not motivated by principals whose focus is to provide them with strategies to get students to pass a test (Wagner, 2001). Frequently, in attempting to improve student performance, school leaders will look to change various aspects of the school including instructional practices, curriculum offerings, and teaching assignments. This desire by administrators to change can lead to conflict with teachers, as most teachers do not want change (Wagner, 2001). A common personality trait among teachers is that they are not risk takers and chose the teaching profession in part for the stability it provides (Wagner, 2001). Yet maintaining the status quo is not an option for school leaders, as even the most successful schools must continually improve.

Wagner (2001) expertly outlined the dilemma that school leaders have in regard to their work with teachers:

Leaders must provide learning opportunities that enable teachers to ‘construct’ a new understanding of the world, their students, and their craft - and so enable them to ‘own’ both the problem and the solution rather than being coerced into ‘buying’ someone else’s. (p. 380)

In affecting change in their schools, principals should consider the four conditions for educational change, or the S-U-R-E Approach, suggested by Wagner (2001):

1. Shared vision of the goals of learning, good teaching, and assessment;

2. Understanding the urgent need for change;
3. Relationships based on mutual respect and trust; and
4. Engagement strategies that foster commitment over compliance. (p. 380)

Numerous researchers have supported the impact of these conditions. Kurland, Peretz, and Hertz-Lazarowitz (2010) found that school leaders who provide a clear mission are effective at motivating teachers to work towards achieving said mission and that a vision is a key element of transformational leadership.

In many instances, the era of accountability has made communicating the urgent need for change easier for school leaders. The wealth of data on student achievement from school to school naturally leads to comparisons between schools. Staffs in lower performing schools readily see the need to improve. While a sense of urgency may be less in higher performing schools, it is necessary for continued school improvement. Effective school leaders can instill the capacity for change by promoting and modeling a culture of continuous improvement (Hallinger, 2005). An effective means of modeling continuous improvement is through continual data analysis (Zmuda, Kuklis, & Kline, 2004). Once a vision is established, schools should monitor data points to determine if the school is accomplishing the goals it has set for itself.

The need for trust in the school leader was illustrated by Tchannen-Moran (2014) in her book, *Trust Matters: Leadership in Successful Schools*. The author shared the stories of two principals, each striving to lead school improvement by contrasting approaches. One principal was extremely focused on student achievement to the point of ignoring relationships. The other worried too much about relationships and avoided

conflicts in an effort to keep positive relationships. In both cases the schools failed to improve because the leaders neglected to earn the trust of their teachers.

A common-sense approach tells us that commitment is favored over compliance. One would assume that someone who does something because they want to would outperform someone doing it because they must. In schools, a strong correlation has been found between teacher commitment and teacher efficacy (Sezgin, 2009). When teachers are committed to their school's goals, they act as driving forces towards efforts to achieve those goals (Park, Henkin, & Egley, 2005).

Each component of the S-U-R-E Approach presents challenges and opportunities for school leaders. Agreeing on a shared vision requires an acceptance that while the assessment matters a great deal, it is not the sole reason for teaching and learning (Gurley, Peters, Collins, & Fifolt, 2015). However, in schools where student performance on assessments is much lower than expected, it may be easier for everyone to understand the need for a change. Navigating such changes can be accomplished successfully when respectful, trusting relationships exist between all stakeholders (McAlister, 2013). Finally, school leaders need to engage stakeholders in the change process due to their belief in its desired outcome rather than simply to comply with a mandate. Leaders need to remember that research suggests that their leadership impacts classroom instruction and student learning (Spillane, 2015).

### **Teacher Retention**

The pressure created by accountability systems results in another issue for school leaders, teacher retention. Quality instruction requires quality teachers. When principals identify strong teachers, they must work to keep them satisfied in their positions at their

schools. The New Teacher Project (TNTP, 2012) found that schools and school districts do not do enough to keep their best teachers. In fact, even when teachers were so successful that they could be considered irreplaceable, schools often treated them as expendable (TNTP, 2012). The TNTP (2012) report stated that schools not only fail to keep quality teachers, but they also fail to get rid of poor teachers and show “a near total indifference to which teachers stay and which ones leave, no matter how well or poorly they perform” (p. 4). The result is that the retention rates for high- and low-performing teachers are roughly equal.

School leaders must work to retain their top teachers and improve or move struggling teachers. To do so, administrators need to understand the reasons why teachers leave their positions. The movement of teachers takes one of two forms. The first form is teacher attrition in which teachers simply choose to leave the education profession (Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). The second form, while not as harmful to education as it is to individual schools, is teacher migration (Hahs-Vaughn & Scherff, 2008). Teacher migration is when a teacher chooses to move from one school to another; this accounts for half of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). Both forms can be harmful except in cases where a low-performing teacher chooses to leave the profession.

While teacher attrition and migration can negatively impact schools, the good news is that they can be reduced greatly by leader actions. Ingersoll (2001) identified the most common reasons for teacher turnover as poor administrative support, issues of student discipline, lack of input into the school decision-making process, retirements, and low salaries. Ingersoll also noted that factors impacted attrition and migration rates equally, illustrating that teacher attrition and teacher migration are related. Of these

factors, lack of administrative support is the most common reason given for teacher turnover (Cancio et al., 2013). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2016) found that lack of administrative support is negatively correlated to a teacher's self-efficacy, which can be a predictor of a teacher's desire to leave the profession. Outside of retirement and low salaries, administrators can have significant impact on these areas and therefore may be able to substantially lower the rates of teacher turnover. Principals who show support for teachers, whose values and actions engender a positive school culture, and who foster a collegial atmosphere among their faculty have been found to increase teacher retention (Cancio et al., 2013) and lower teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001).

Although administrators can have a significant impact on teacher retention, it is common for schools to have no retention policy at all (TNTP, 2012). One teacher, quoted in *The Irreplaceables*, illustrated the lack of effort by administrators, stating, "If he would have said, 'what's it going to take for me to get you to stay?' that's all he had to do" (TNTP, 2012, p. 1). The data from their study revealed that one-third of "irreplaceable" teachers left within three years and almost half left within five years. Only 30% left for personal reasons while more than 75% left because their main concern never was addressed (TNTP, 2012). Two-thirds indicated that they never were encouraged to return for another year.

School leaders must begin to make retention of quality teachers a priority. This begins with working to see that teachers are satisfied in their jobs, as teachers who are dissatisfied in their jobs have been shown to have higher levels of stress and greater rates of turnover, absenteeism, and illness (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Macdonald, 1999; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). It should be noted that teacher job satisfaction has been suffering of

late (You & Conley, 2015). In an analysis of the 2012 MetLife Survey of the American Teacher, Heitin (2012) found that only 44% of teachers identified themselves as “Very Satisfied” with their jobs, which was down from 59% in 2009 and at its lowest level since 1989. The MetLife Survey also showed that 29% of teachers plan to leave the profession within five years versus 17% back in 2009 (Heitin, 2012). Schools that have been categorized as low-performing or having a high proportion of at-risk students are impacted to a greater extent by teacher turnover and retention due to the increased demand to raise student achievement (Watlington, Shockley, Guglielmino, & Felsher, 2010). The correlation between the data is clear. As teachers become increasingly dissatisfied in the jobs, they are more likely to want to change careers.

Fortunately, administrative action can help. Principal actions have been found to have a direct correlation to teacher job satisfaction (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Such actions begin with creating a supportive atmosphere. Many early career teachers leave the profession because they find that their experience simply did not meet their expectations (Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). A teacher experiencing such circumstances could hardly be expected to have a high degree of job satisfaction. By simply reassuring teachers that they are not alone and that they have support of both the administration and their fellow teachers and by establishing effective mentoring programs, school leaders can ameliorate the feelings of desperation for struggling teachers, improve their job satisfaction, and increase the likelihood that they will remain in their position (Buckley, Schneider, & Shang, 2005).

Helping teachers to be more satisfied in their jobs is step one. Step two is to motivate them to be committed to it. Regardless of the job, someone who is committed to

their organization is less likely to pursue positions elsewhere, will perform better, and be less likely to miss work (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Urick & Bowers, 2013). Someone who is committed to their job is a person who has a strong belief in the goals of the organization, is willing to put forth extra effort, and has a strong desire to stay with the organization (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Given such positive outcomes, it is incumbent upon administrators to improve the organizational commitment of its teaching staff. The positive news for school leaders is that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are related, so many of the actions that can be taken to improve job satisfaction also will enhance job commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Darley-Baah, 2010; Hulpia, Devos, & Van Keer, 2009).

So, what actions can administrators take to improve job satisfaction and commitment? Billingsley and Cross (1992) found that the commitment of teachers was higher when principals provided feedback, encouragement, and acknowledgement as well as opportunities for shared decision-making and collaborative problem solving. Similarly, Cancio et al. (2013) reported four factors that influence a teacher to stay in the profession: guidance and feedback, opportunity for growth, appreciation, and trust.

Teaching is a skill and, as with any skilled profession, teachers want to improve and refine their skill. Such improvement requires feedback from a knowledgeable source. While the students can give teachers an accurate gauge about whether a particular strategy is effective, they cannot inform the teacher about how to correct or develop a strategy. That is why the feedback of another educator is vital (Gersten, Carnine, Zoref, & Cronin, 1986; Rosenholtz, 1989). Through classroom walkthroughs and visits, school leaders can observe a teacher's practice and provide the necessary feedback (David,

2007). Principals also can develop mentoring and coaching systems where teachers are observed by fellow teachers who can provide opinions in a collegial, supportive role (Ambrosetti, 2014; Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen, & Bergen, 2011). Lack of input can have disastrous consequences as teachers who do not receive meaningful feedback from administrators experience higher rates of attrition (Cancio et al., 2013).

Providing encouragement and acknowledgement of a job well done is beneficial to teachers as most go into the profession because they are service-oriented and did not go into the career for the financial rewards (Buckley et al., 2005). Tickle, Chang, and Kim (2011) found that administrative support was “the most significant predictor of teacher job satisfaction” (p. 347). By acknowledging a teacher’s work, administrators remind teachers that they are not alone and that what they do matters. Providing an encouraging word to someone who is struggling can be a powerful motivator.

Administrators striving to improve the quality of instruction on their campuses should note the finding of Bogotch et al. (1995): “what people say and do creates immediate and reciprocal perceptions in others which affect performance” (p. 47). A principal who leads their school in a positive, supportive manner and trusts teachers to perform their responsibilities results in a positive, committed faculty (Duyer & Normore, 2012).

Involving teachers in the decision-making process of the school is an effective strategy to enhance job satisfaction and commitment. Ingersoll (2001) found that an employee’s perceived influence over organizational policy is an important factor in determining employee motivation, commitment, and turnover. School administrators are faced with a barrage of decisions on a daily basis that impact the overall functioning of the school. Often these decisions must be made in a short time frame, which does not

allow input from others. However, many issues with longer-term consequences can be shared and discussed with others. Most schools place teachers in leadership positions typically as grade level or department chairs. These teachers are selected to represent their colleagues in varying capacities. The department chairs along with the administration may comprise the school's leadership team. The extent to which a principal involves this group in the decision-making process can determine a faculty's perception of the trust their principal has in them. Administrators with a strong belief in shared leadership and distributed leadership make extensive use of their teachers in making decisions that impact the school (Elmore, 2002; Spillane, 2009).

When teachers participate in making decisions for the school, they become vested in the results of those decisions; they take ownership in what is happening (Stegall & Linton, 2012). In cases where the decision has a favorable outcome, those teachers will be more satisfied in their jobs because they were involved in the decision. While utilizing shared decision-making allows an administrator to show support for their faculty, it also improves the quality of the decisions being made (Stegall & Linton, 2012). Including teachers in the decision-making process is beneficial because the "lived experiences of administrators and teachers as well as the added demands of accountability have made decision-making and communication practices more important to quality education than ever before" (Bauer & Bogotch, 2006, p. 447). It is important to note that shared decision-making does not remove the responsibility of leadership from the school principal. Major changes or reforms require substantial promotion from the principal as Weiss (1995) found that even in schools where shared decision-making is strongly supported, teachers opted to continue the status quo.

A school's faculty represents a substantial knowledge base, which should not be overlooked. In addition to the formal structure of a leadership team, principals also can involve teachers in decisions by asking their opinions through one-on-one conversations. Individual teachers can be empowered when their principals ask for their advice on a situation. Over time, using this strategy allows principals to exercise shared decision-making with a larger number of teachers than possible through the established leadership team.

The previously discussed actions are positive behaviors that leaders could exhibit to enhance teacher job satisfaction, commitment, and, ultimately, school culture. There are additional actions that administrators should exercise, which, while initially negative, will lead to positive outcomes for the faculty. Interviews with effective teachers found that administrators often do very little to address low performing teachers (TNTP, 2012). Such inaction by school leaders may have the unintended consequence of making high-performing teachers feel devalued and may decrease their motivation. Teachers want administrators to treat great teaching as their main priority. Doing so leads to a positive instructional culture and a faculty belief that they are working at a good school. Conversely, a lack of feedback can lead to a poor instructional culture. Two-thirds of low-performing teachers believe they are above average or high performing because they did not receive administrative feedback to the contrary (TNTP, 2012). However, when low performing teachers are informed of their deficiencies, they are three times as likely to leave the school as uninformed teachers (TNTP, 2012). Principals must set high expectations for teachers, monitor their progress, and counsel them throughout the process. While establishing high expectations, schools must be conscious of what those

expectations are and how teachers meet them. When schools require more work that teachers view as non-essential as well as increase the scrutiny on teachers, it can make the school a less desirable place to work (Watlington et al., 2010).

High quality teachers will remain in schools where administrators make quality instruction a priority (TNTP, 2012). This requires school leaders to work towards retaining high performers and removing low performers. In *The Irreplaceables*, TNTP (2012) provided eight low cost strategies for principals to accomplish this goal:

1. Provide regular, positive feedback,
2. Help identify areas of need,
3. Give constructive feedback informally,
4. Provide public recognition of accomplishments,
5. Tell teachers they are high performing,
6. Provide opportunities for teacher leadership,
7. Entrust important tasks, and
8. Provide classroom resources. (p. 16)

As school leaders continue to search for ways to improve their schools, the area of effective teacher retention should be a priority.

### **Principal-Teacher Relations (Climate)**

The degree to which a person can be satisfied in their organization is greatly determined by the climate or culture of the organization, which is impacted by the principal (Cameron & Lovett, 2015). Additionally, Liu and Meyer (2005) found that levels of satisfaction are different depending on whether a school is public or private. Private schools may be smaller and less tolerant of faculty who have views that are not in

line with the school whereas large public schools can be more open to various viewpoints (Liu & Meyer, 2005). “Principals who are emotionally supportive and provide informational support are more likely to have teachers who are satisfied with their work” (Bogotch et al., 1995, p. 89). It is difficult for an individual to be positive about their position if they work in a negative environment. Therefore, school leaders must be cognizant of the principal-teacher relations on their campuses and in the classrooms. If principals desire to see their schools meet high expectations, they must establish a climate of success and then support teachers as they work to meet those expectations (Arends, 1982). Billingsley and Cross (1992) found that teachers with supportive principals are more satisfied in their jobs and more committed to their schools, which results in the added benefit of lower teacher turnover.

When establishing a climate of success, school leaders must remember to include all stakeholders. Ingersoll (2001) wrote, “A sense of community and cohesion among families, teachers, and students is important for the success of schools” (p. 501). Issues of climate impact the entire school community. As mentioned earlier, having dissatisfied teachers causes increased teacher turnover (TNTP, 2012). Teacher turnover impacts the school’s sense of community and consequently its overall performance (Ingersoll, 2001). While individual teachers have the main impact on classroom learning, all stakeholders affect school climate, which plays a large role in student willingness to learn. Getting all stakeholders to work towards a climate of success should be the goal. The effort of students and teachers is stronger when both groups feel a part of something important that they helped build (Wagner, 2001).

Before discussing how to build a positive principal-teacher relations, the topic of leadership style needs to be mentioned. Goleman (2000) discussed six leadership styles: “Coercive leaders demand immediate compliance. Authoritative leaders mobilize people toward a vision. Affiliative leaders create emotional bonds and harmony. Democratic leaders build consensus through participation. Pacesetting leaders expect excellence and self-direction. And coaching leaders develop people for the future” (p. 80). Urick and Bowers (2013) wrote about the different types of principals and their leadership styles; specifically, whether they are instructional or transformational leaders. Transformational leaders actively engage in building culture by sharing a mission, empowering teachers, and enhancing the sense of community (Urick & Bowers, 2013). Instructional leadership has similarities to transformational leadership in that it calls for leaders to define the mission (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). However, instructional leaders do not attempt to build climate but see a positive climate as “an indirect result of a common and successful focus on instruction” (Urick & Bowers, 2013, p. 6). The following research focuses on choosing the route of the transformational leader.

In *The 6 Keys to Teacher Engagement: Unlocking the Doors to Top Teacher Performance*, West (2013) shared steps for building an organizationally engaged culture. First is to share the vision. All stakeholders should know what is valued. Bogotch et al. (1995) promoted setting only one goal for school improvement as staff may struggle to maintain focus on multiple goals. They also cautioned school leaders to understand that agreement on a goal is more difficult with larger staffs.

Once all stakeholders know and understand the vision, the school leader must support work towards that vision, such as providing teachers with the basic supplies and

materials they need to accomplish their job (West, 2013). The next task is to address the physical environment. Make the school appear as an inviting, soothing place to work and learn. The author has seen schools accomplish this by hanging student-created artwork. It enhances the look of the area, showcases the talent of the students and the ability of the teachers to nurture their gifts, and does so at little to no cost.

While addressing the physical environment is important, a more critical aspect is the social and emotional well-being of the teachers. School leaders must ensure that teachers feel valued and respected for their efforts (West, 2013). Teachers want to know that their administrators care about them as people, not just as teachers. This means being tuned in to personal issues such as health, divorce, etc. (West, 2013). In addition to being aware of personal problems, principals need to recognize the accomplishments of teachers both personal and professional. Celebrate births, marriages, graduations, and the like (West, 2013). Such actions help to build trust in the organization, which is essential for sustainable success of an organization (Wilson, 2012).

Outside of the vision, most of the areas discussed have been non-instructional. While all those actions will enhance the culture of the school, the primary focus of a school leader always must be the quality of instruction. Administrators should encourage a culture of growth and improvement for all stakeholders (Bogotch et al., 1995). They should encourage collaboration among teaching staff (West, 2013). For collaboration to impact the entire faculty, school leaders need to protect teachers who are collegial by setting an environment in which they are comfortable sharing with the whole staff (Barth, 2006). Some teachers may be uncomfortable stepping forward to present to staff for fear of being viewed as a someone who thinks they know more than their colleagues. Rather

than asking if anyone is willing to share, principals can assign teachers to present rather than volunteer.

Teachers want to know that their leaders appreciate their hard work. Everyone wants to know that their boss thinks they are doing a good job. However, recognizing outstanding teachers can be the easy part of instructional leadership. Leaders need to be equally adept at praising quality teaching as at addressing less effective or, at times, outright bad teaching. Ignoring poor teaching will weaken school culture (TNTP, 2012; Wilson, 2012). When hard-working, effective teachers see leaders ignoring those teachers who are not pulling their weight, they can become disheartened, which may eventually lead to decreased effort and engagement. All teachers need to be held accountable.

Making all teachers accountable for student achievement leads to a shared sense of purpose, which has been found to be important in successful organizations (Fullan, 2008). Louis (1995) found that in successful schools, all teachers exhibited strong commitment to working towards the clear mission of student success. There was a culture of respect among all members of the school. Such a culture starts with a staff who supports colleagues not just professionally, but also personally (Louis, 1995). Barth (2006) told us that culture is determined by the relationships of the educators in the building. In fact, Barth stated, “the nature of relationships among the adults within a school has a greater influence on the character and quality of that school and on student accomplishment than anything else” (p. 8).

In schools with high levels of teacher engagement, the students feel respected and cared for by their teachers (Louis, 1995). Teachers are sensitive to individual student needs and understand the student’s need to interact with their peers (Allen et al., 2013).

This requires teachers to build positive relationships with students. Positive relationships can be built by simply standing at the door to greet students as they enter and utilizing that time to discuss their lives outside of the classroom (Allen et al., 2013; Wong & Wong, 1998). By doing so, teachers show students that they value them as individuals. When teachers exercise these actions, students feel more comfortable and are more ready to learn. Teachers at the secondary level can find such relationship building more difficult due to the increased number of students per teacher, student lack of desire to be in school, and the standardized curriculum mandated in many schools (Lesko, 1986). Larger class sizes can cause more effort to be spent on classroom management and fewer opportunities for positive student-teacher interactions (Lesko, 1986).

Consider society's view of school and students today. A common complaint is that students are disrespectful of teachers and adults in general. Wagner (2001) found that the number one criticism of schools is lack of respect. Students did not feel that teachers respected them and often they did not respect their fellow teachers. If students do not feel respected by their teacher, they will not work for them. It is the responsibility of the school leader to set the tone of respect among students and teachers alike (Wagner, 2001). Wagner presented three strategies to establish the respectful culture. First, model respectful behavior in all interactions. Second, seek the critical feedback of the teachers on the performance of the administrator. Third, provide resources of materials and time to teachers. Clearly, it is the responsibility of the leader to set the tone for the school. West (2013) and Whitaker (2002) both reminded school leaders that even the mood of teachers and staff takes its cue from the principal.

## **Student Achievement**

In this era of accountability, student achievement overwhelmingly dominates all aspects of education. The job of administrators and teachers seemingly has moved from teaching students and preparing them for their adult lives to raising student achievement. Recent research by Allen et al. (2013) reinforced the importance of school culture on student achievement. These researchers found that students are highly sensitive to the emotional relationships formed with teachers and that students who have strong connections with their teachers are more likely to experience long-term success in school. Teachers who establish a positive climate, who are sensitive to individual needs, and who structure opportunities for peer interaction show higher student achievement (Allen et al., 2013). These findings are particularly important given the powerlessness many teachers feel today. Data from the 2012 MetLife Survey of the American Teacher found that 43% of teachers are pessimistic that student achievement will rise in the next five years, and they do not feel they can affect an increase (Heitin, 2012). The research of Allen et al. (2013) suggested that teachers should not feel so powerless when it comes to helping their students and that administrators will reap the benefits of empowering their teachers.

Others have reported on the effect of connecting with students to improve learning. In some of the earliest work on teacher engagement, Lesko (1986) emphasized the need for teachers to have a holistic view of students and to avoid labeling students. Lesko encouraged teachers not to simply disseminate information but to structure human interactions between students and the content. Louis (1995) promoted the benefits of teacher engagement on student achievement, showing its effect on improving student attendance and decreasing dropout rates. Louis went further by saying that teacher

engagement should play an important role in the overall goal of raising student achievement.

While impacting student achievement is a driving factor behind the previously discussed research, it also noted an additional benefit for the teachers themselves. An engaged teacher is one who truly cares about how well they perform their job. Thus, the engaged teacher is more likely to reflect upon their practice and look for ways in which to improve the ways they deliver instruction and interact with students (Lesko, 1986). Essentially, engaged teachers continually strive to improve themselves, which ultimately benefits their students and themselves.

As administrators continually search for ways to improve their schools, they would be wise to focus their efforts on developing growing their staff and helping them to improve as teachers. Urick and Bowers (2013) referred to this as transformational leadership. By supporting improved instruction, administrators ultimately support improved student achievement. Transformational leaders actively promote the engagement of their teachers (Urick & Bowers, 2013). While working to improve instruction, school leaders need to ensure that the focus is on student learning rather than simply on instructional practice (West, 2013). A teacher may believe that they have written the greatest lesson plan; developed the most engaging, hands-on activities; and delivered the instruction on the best way possible, but if student do not achieve the desired outcomes of the lesson something is wrong. Leaders should keep student outcomes as the goal while supporting their teachers' desire to improve their instructional strategies. Great teaching should be the priority (TNTP, 2012), but in order for it to truly be great teaching, learning must occur.

Improving instructional practice is a major task especially given the numerous strategies, tools, and approaches available to teachers today. The duty of the school leader should be to guide teachers towards strategies shown to be the most effective. Allen et al. (2013) found that “teachers who use strategies that focus students on higher order thinking skills, give consistent, timely, and process-oriented feedback, and work to extend students language skills, tend to have students who achieve more academically” (p. 92). Although the teachers should be aware of these are strategies, it is interesting to note that the focus of these strategies is what the students are doing. The teachers need to monitor their students thinking, the products they produce as result of that thinking, and give productive feedback about that thinking. This aligns with the research of West (2013) that the student outcomes should be the main focus of teachers.

Allen et al. (2013) also found that student achievement was positively impacted when lessons were designed to generate active participation of students along with high levels of analysis and problem solving. While the Allen et al. study focused on teaching strategies, it also noted the importance of the emotional makeup of the classroom. Louis (1995) stated that engaged teachers understand “the links between students’ emotional well-being and their readiness to learn” (p. 25). Allen et al. (2013) also found that the most successful teachers are those who develop positive relationships with their students. They interact with students during class. All of these high-yield strategies are at odds with traditional teaching practices. The classroom teacher who still teaches as the “sage on the stage,” lecturing to a quiet, compliant group of students, will not promote improved learning among the students (Hake, 1998).

## **Teacher Engagement**

The literature shows that teacher engagement leads to improved student achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). However, what does it mean to be an engaged teacher? Merriam-Webster defines engagement as emotional involvement or commitment (“Engagement,” 2017). One of the earliest works on teacher engagement defines it as having commitment and enthusiasm (Rutter & Jacobson, 1986). Thus, teacher engagement means that the teacher cares strongly about the job they perform and is very attached or connected to it. Lesko (1986) saw engagement as a positive descriptor of active involvement in learning. West (2013) characterized the engaged teacher as one who knows the what, how, and why of what is happening in their classroom; who can discuss all aspects of education with their colleagues; who are contributing members of a team; and who prefer to lead change rather than allow it to happen to them.

However, there is more to it than a teacher simply liking their job. Louis (1995) wrote about the multi-faceted nature of teacher engagement. She described four types of teacher engagement including being engaged with school as a social unit, with the whole child, with academic achievement, and with their body of knowledge (Louis, 1995). Teachers are not necessarily engaged in all four types; however, those who are truly can impact student achievement (Louis, 1995).

Being engaged with the social unit means that the teacher sees their students and colleagues as friends and family. They share personal events and information with them and want to know about their lives outside of school (Pogodzinski, 2014). The teacher who is engaged with the whole child does not see students simply as vessels to be filled

with knowledge. These teachers work to elicit thoughts and ideas from their students and support them educationally and personally. Emotional support can be particularly impactful in adolescents (Allen et al., 2013). Simply talking to students, laughing with them, and discussing events outside of school life can easily provide such support.

In order for a teacher to be engaged with academic achievement, they must practice a great deal of collegiality. They work with fellow teachers to improve themselves and others. Such collaboration may lead to positive changes in teaching practices (Lesko, 1986). Barth (2006) found that relationships among teachers are improved when they share knowledge with each other. An excellent way to do this is for teachers to observe each other and provide feedback regarding what is observed (Barth, 2006). Teachers who are engaged with academic achievement also hold high expectations of their students.

In the fourth type of engagement, the teacher is engaged with a body of knowledge. They are enthusiastic about their content, work to stay up-to-date with their subject and share their knowledge passionately with their students. Ultimately, the engaged teacher strives to constantly improve as a professional (Lesko, 1986).

A common way for teachers to improve their practice is by observing other teachers and by being observed by others (Bell & Mladenovic, 2008). By watching another teacher, one may pick up strategies for use in their own instruction. In addition to learning by watching colleagues, teachers also can choose to be observed by fellow teachers who agree to provide critical feedback (Jacques, 2013). While the goal is to improve one's practice, it can be unnerving knowing a colleague is looking for your flaws (Lomas & Nicholls, 2005). Barth (2006) outlined a few ground rules to make such

observations productive for all parties. First is that the visits need to be reciprocal so each teacher has a turn observing and being observed. Second is that there is strict confidentiality. The teachers being observed cannot be worried that the observer is going to share their perceived weaknesses with other teachers, so trust is critical (Hamilton, 2013). Next is to establish the parameters including the date and time as well as the length of the visit and what will be the focus of the observation. This requires the teacher being observed to identify their area of concern such as questioning techniques. Finally, and possibly most difficult, is always to discuss the observation after it is completed. The observer must be prepared to provide specific, constructive feedback on the positive and negative aspects of their observation and the observed teacher must be open to receiving such feedback (Louis, 1995). The importance of this collaboration was reiterated by West (2013), who wrote “Engaged teachers take part by teaming with fellow faculty members striving to improve and demonstrating attitudes, beliefs, and actions that strengthen not only their own effectiveness but that of their colleagues” (p. 2).

While collaboration is a desirable trait in schools, it is not commonly found. The goal should be for a group of teachers to view themselves as a team working together to improve instruction for their students. However, Wagner (2001) wrote “Teamwork is now the dominant mode of work nearly everywhere – except in education” (p. 379). Because teachers spend so much of their time alone with students and separated from other adults, they may feel more like craftsmen working in isolation rather than members of a team (Wagner, 2001). It is the responsibility of the school leader to minimize those feelings of isolation by structuring opportunities for collaboration and learning. This may include providing a common planning period for teachers of the same subject area and

participating in those meetings to ensure they occur and are productive. Even though it goes against the norm, getting teachers to work as a team should not seem like an unreasonable goal if the leader remembers that most teachers chose their profession due to a personal desire to make a difference in the lives of children (Wagner, 2001).

Administrators need to make it clear to teachers that this goal can better be accomplished by leveraging the combined talents of a group of engaged educators. Such teamwork also creates a sense of accountability (Louis, 1995). Fellow team members know accomplishments and failures so everyone works to secure the respect of their colleagues and to avoid their scorn. Additionally, school leaders must be prepared that forcing teachers to collaborate could be viewed as taking away their autonomy, which many teachers value. However, successful collaboration can result in pride in the accomplishment of the team (Wagner, 2001) as well as an increase in teacher retention (Shockley, Watlington, & Felsher, 2011).

These four types of engagement can be summarized as the interactions between teachers, students, and the curriculum (Lesko, 1986). These interactions can be seen in the discussions between teachers and students as well as teacher and other teachers (Lesko, 1986).

In the book, *The Six Secrets of Change: What the Best Leaders Do to Help Their Organizations Survive and Thrive*, Fullan (2008) found a correlation between qualities of healthy school cultures and engaged teachers. There also are correlations with the four types of engagement discussed by Louis (1995). Leaders in these successful school cultures love their employees (engaged with the social unit), connect peers with a purpose (engaged with academic achievement), promote capacity building, make learning the

focus of the work (engaged with a body of knowledge), ensure transparency, and see that the whole system learns (Fullan, 2008).

As schools strive to succeed in the era of accountability, there is a danger that the social aspects of school will be neglected and forgotten. Schools increasingly are data driven and can be overwhelmed with data analysis (Reeves, 2009). All educators must remember that behind all of their data are students whose performance is impacted by much more than classroom instruction. Lesko (1986) focused extensively on the relationships between teachers and students being a predictor of academic success. She wrote that “an engaged teacher is likely to establish satisfactory relationships with a wide variety of students, both slow and bright, although relationships with some students might be only respectful and adequate, rather than exciting and deep” (Lesko, 1986, p. 7). Lesko continued by stating that engaged teachers treat students as equal partners in the learning process, which leads to complex, interactive relationships. Students respond more favorably to such relationships than to those in which the teacher simply exercises their positional authority over students. While Lesko encouraged productive relationships with students, she also warned that showing favoritism towards some students could drive others away, which would affect achievement negatively.

Keep in mind that this focus on relationships and equality is not about teachers being friends with their students. While there is a definite social aspect and there will be personal discussions, the purpose of such relationships is to find areas of student interest in order to engage students in personal connections between themselves and the topic (Lesko, 1986). Increased awareness of student backgrounds allows teachers to design instruction that more closely aligns with students’ interests, which will increase their

engagement and ultimate understanding of the content. Unfortunately, the structure of schools can create roadblocks to the formation of strong student-teacher relationships (Lesko, 1986). Teachers and students may only come into contact in the classroom where there is an inherent imbalance of power. The class schedule also can be a hindrance. A typical class in secondary schools lasts 50 minutes to one hour. Given such a short time frame, many teachers elect to utilize that time for instruction and not relationship building. Additionally, the era of accountability has led to a more prescribed structured curriculum where teachers do not have the power to adjust their instruction to their students' interests. They may be forced to teach content that neither they nor the students enjoy.

West (2013) found that there are many traits in common between engaged teachers and engaged students. An engaged teacher is actively involved in their profession whereas an engaged student is actively involved in their learning. Engaged teachers and students seek out new knowledge in their area of interest. Group work is a common characteristic of both groups. Each seeks to improve themselves either as students or teachers. Based on these similarities, it should be clear that student engagement has been acknowledged as an effective way to raise student achievement (West, 2013).

The good news for school leaders is that getting engaged teachers should not be difficult because most teachers are excited and engaged at the beginning of their careers (Louis, 1995). The real trick is to keep them engaged. The demands of the profession can have both positive and negative impacts on their level of engagement. When students request additional assistance such as after school tutoring from teachers, it can improve

teacher engagement as teachers have positive one-on-one interactions with those students about the content. They reinforce the teacher's reasoning for entering the profession. Reciprocally, the positive interaction with the teacher could increase the student's engagement. However, the demands of the job can affect teacher engagement negatively (West, 2013). The pressure to raise student achievement can cause a teacher to wonder if it is truly worth their efforts. Additionally, personal and family issues can cause stress, which hinders engagement. A teacher's level of engagement also is affected by their work setting. Teachers in schools with higher percentages of students with lower economic status are more likely to be disengaged (Louis, 1995). While research has shown the benefits of teacher engagement, it should be noted that disengaged teachers do not improve their practice, can create additional stress on fellow teachers, and ultimately hinder student achievement (West, 2013).

Teacher engagement extends beyond their classroom. An engaged teacher is interested in aspects of the school outside of their particular students and content. They are involved in decision-making at the school level (Lesko, 1986). This includes problem solving and school improvement strategies (Louis, 1995). Louis (1995) quoted an engaged teacher who stated, "Everything that happens is everybody's business" (p. 15). These teachers understand that providing a high quality educational experience for students is everyone's responsibility. That responsibility extends to improving instruction so engaged teachers tend to be highly involved in planning professional development for the school.

The Louis (1995) study found that while having involved teachers is an effective means of school improvement, it requires an organization structure that allows such

involvement. The school leader must provide opportunities for teachers to be involved in vision setting, decision-making, curriculum writing, and lesson planning as well as fundamental issues such as the interview and hiring of teachers and the setting of school policies. Allowing teachers to develop and shape the curriculum increases the likelihood of student engagement since teachers will have the best understanding of what interests their students (Louis, 1995). Furthermore, having the ability to participate in so many areas of the school builds a sense of ownership and pride in the overall functioning and reputation of the school. Urick and Bowers (2013) found that the leaders who were most effective at structuring such involvement opportunities for teachers, which subsequently increases teacher engagement and empowerment, were transformational leaders. The transformational leader expects and values active involvement of their teachers (Urick & Bowers, 2013).

### **Administrative Support**

Due to the significant impact teacher engagement can have on school culture (Carrington & Robinson, 2006), teacher achievement (Anwaruddin, 2015), and student achievement (Klem & Connell, 2004), school administrators should strive to foster a strong sense of teacher engagement on their campuses (MacTavish & Kolb, 2006). They must take deliberate actions that facilitate an increase in teacher engagement. As with virtually all projects in schools, increasing engagement cannot succeed without the active support of the administration (Arends, 1982). The support of the teachers and parents by the principal frequently has been shown as a positive indicator of a successful school (Arends, 1982). That support also leads to teachers being more satisfied with their jobs (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Support begins with lending voice to the project and

attending any events associated with the project (Arends, 1982). There will be times when the principal must speak in defense of a project (Arends, 1982). It is also important to be available to teachers when they need the principal (Arends, 1982). The school leader needs to be open, ethical, and approachable and to show that they value their teachers (Fullan, 2008).

Administrative support can be viewed as how leaders exert managerial control in their schools. Bogotch et al. (1995) defined control as “how individuals accomplish their professional and personal goals through social interaction” (p. 44). While the term control may lead to a negative connotation, it is quite the opposite. Control is not about the structure defined by the leader. In this article, it deals with how principals work and interact with their staff to manage a school. Bogotch et al. examined how school leaders used political, social, and psychological processes to lead their schools. They found that administrators can use their control or influence on the more qualitative dimensions of their school, yet not all school leaders choose to do so. Ignoring the qualitative dimensions of schools is a mistake. There are numerous relationships at play in school: teacher-student, student-student, teacher-administrator, student-administrator, teacher-parent, administrator-parent, and student-parent. As a result, teaching involves numerous emotions that must be recognized and managed (Evans, 2011). School leaders need to remember that in addition to all the interactions listed previously, the emotions of the teachers themselves impact their performance. This does not mean to focus only on struggling teachers. All professionals want to be acknowledged for their work and teachers are no different (Evans, 2011). Even engaged teachers require positive reinforcement that is meaningful and rewarding (Louis, 1995).

Continual professional development for teachers and administrators is an essential tool for school improvement (Volante & Cherubini, 2010). Even high-performing teachers need to stay up-to-date with the latest trends in education. In fact, high performing engaged teachers seek to continually update their knowledge base in their content and practice (Louis, 1995). Therefore, it is incumbent upon school leaders to provide a wealth of professional development to their staffs. Doing so will influence the teacher's desire to improve. However, administrators can have a negative impact on teacher motivation if the professional development is not relevant, informative, and useful to the faculty (Bogotch et al., 1995). No one wants to sit in a workshop if they cannot perceive any benefit from the information being presented. Such a negative experience can decrease their desire to attend subsequent training opportunities. It can even impact their desire to remain in the profession. Teachers who rate the professional development provided by their schools as inadequate are more likely to exhibit low job satisfaction (Heitin, 2012). Therefore, providing administrative support through quality professional development actually can lower teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). Administrators must ensure that professional development is engaging, relevant, and correlated to the vision of the school.

Principals can support engagement efforts through providing funds for materials and training and also by providing status such as recognizing a member of the team as the project leader (Arends, 1982). Resources include small matters such as a convenient time and place to meet (Arends, 1982).

Successful schools establish a vision for where they want to be, and the principal is key in establishing that vision and clarifying the roles of everyone associated with that

vision through their actions and behaviors (Arends, 1982). Principals must remember that stakeholders, especially staff members, are very aware of the actions of the principal and are more likely to support projects when the principal shows their support (Whitaker, 2002). Conversely, if a school leader speaks poorly of a project or those involved with the project, it is almost certainly bound for failure (Arends, 1982). School staff is cognizant of the actions and behaviors of their leader and have been found to be the best judges of those actions in relation to both administrative and instructional effectiveness (Bogotch et al., 1995).

The vision of the school will affect how it functions and how effective control systems are. Control systems are more effective in schools where the vision aligns to concepts of learning and development of students and faculty (Bogotch et al., 1995). When teachers know that their principal wants them to grow and improve, they will be more willing to try new and different approaches without fear of repercussions from administrators for failure. Wilson (2012) called this creating a “fail-free zone.” School leaders can show support for teachers by encouraging them to improve their practice by connecting to their intrinsic desire to succeed.

Engaged teachers collaborate with fellow teachers and it is up to the principal to establish a school culture where such activity is supported (Barth, 2006). Teachers should be encouraged to collaborate on both lesson development and instructional delivery. Lesson planning may be the most commonly practiced means of collaboration in schools. Teachers in the same content area discuss topics to cover and ways to assess the content (Dunne, Nave, & Lewis, 2000). Those teachers may even utilize a common assessment, which ensures that all the students are being assessed on the same topics by the same

means (Psencik & Baldwin, 2012). Collaborative planning makes a great deal of sense in this era of accountability as it assures that students receive instruction in the content necessary to succeed on the accountability measures (Phillips, 2003).

A less utilized yet probably more powerful means of collaboration is in the area of instructional delivery; specifically, teachers observing fellow teachers in an effort to provide critical, meaningful feedback on instructional delivery (Ning, Lee, & Lee, 2015). For this to be truly effective there needs to be a high level of trust and confidentiality between the teachers (Bryk, Camburn, & Louis, 1999). The observer must be comfortable critiquing their colleague, and the teacher being observed must be willing to hear unfavorable comments about their instructional delivery (Brownell, Yeager, Rennells, & Riley, 1997). Principals can assist by establishing that the school is a place for learning, both for teachers as well as for students (Louis, 1995).

Once teachers are comfortable with the ideas of planning together and observing each other, the main obstacle is time (Riordan, 1995). This is where the administration can have the greatest impact on collaboration. It is up to the administration to provide time (Akhavan, 2015). A simple way is to schedule common planning periods for teachers. This provides a specified time when teachers can meet and plan together. Administration also needs to establish times when teachers can observe each other. This may necessitate providing substitute teachers to cover classes for the observer. Each of these actions is relatively easy for principals to accomplish but go a long way in showing teachers that they have the support of administration. School leaders must consciously work towards developing a collaborative environment for teachers (MacTavish & Kolb, 2006). When school leaders support the learning of their teachers, students become the

ultimate beneficiaries (Louis, 1995). School leaders must keep in mind that creating a collaborative culture is not an overnight process; it takes years of deliberate actions (Wagner, 2001).

An engaged teacher is involved in many aspects of the school outside their classroom (Louis, 1995). School leaders can enhance that involvement by providing opportunities for teachers to participate in making decisions that affect the school (Bauer & Bogotch, 2006). This process can be termed shared decision-making or shared leadership. Involving teachers in shared decision-making creates a sense of ownership in the teachers because they have a voice in how the school is run. It establishes that the principal is not the sole leader of the school (Urick & Bowers, 2013). School leaders and teachers work together to solve problems (Wagner, 2001). When teachers are involved in determining the goals and processes of the school, their individual growth as a professional is supported (Bullough, 2007).

Practicing shared decision-making does not absolve principals of the responsibility to lead schools. Ultimate responsibility still lies with the principal. However, shared leadership not only empowers teachers but also can improve the instructional program (MacTavish & Kolb, 2006). The principal provides the support and direction for the program but places the responsibility for planning in the hands of the instructional experts, the teachers (Urick & Bowers, 2013). This would be a form of shared instructional leadership in which principals and teachers collaborate around instruction (Urick & Bowers, 2013). It shows teachers that their leader values their opinion, which in turns makes them more supportive of the leader. This can be particularly valuable in change situations where staff may need to be convinced that the

impending change is in the best interests of all. The teachers who help make the decision to change become the cheerleaders for its implementation. When a school leader is supportive of their teachers, they find that ultimately their teachers are more committed to the school and its goals (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Furthermore, Urick and Bowers (2013) found that shared leadership has the largest effect on student growth.

Showing support of teachers is one of the most required behaviors of school leaders as such support positively impacts teacher motivation, involvement, morale, stress, and job satisfaction, which are all components of teacher engagement (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Conversely, a lack of support can lead to disengagement of teachers. It is important for administrators to note that a lack of support does not need to be overt or purposeful to be detrimental and, in fact, may be unconscious. The wide-ranging responsibilities and competing priorities placed upon administrators can make it difficult to be open and available to teachers when needed. However, being unavailable, inattentive, or unresponsive to teachers results in their feeling unsupported (Cancio et al., 2013). There will be times when an administrator cannot make themselves available and teachers can appreciate that as long as the administrator shows them that they value their concern. This can be accomplished by setting a time to meet with the teacher in the very near future. Offering to meet in the teacher's classroom will show that the administrator values the teacher's time by preventing them from using their planning time to walk to the office and wait for the administrator. Additionally, the teacher's classroom is a more comfortable setting for the teacher than the administrator's office.

Another benefit of utilizing teachers for shared decision-making is in the relationships between teachers and administration. Effective shared decision-making

allows all parties to express their opinions. When teachers have the opportunity to express their opinions to administration in an open, non-judgmental forum, they feel more valued (Berry & Farris-Berg, 2016). Furthermore, when a decision is made in which teachers played a major role, it reinforces that sentiment and establishes a feeling of equality with the administrator, which results in a more positive, interactive relationship (Lesko, 1986; MacTavish & Kolb, 2006).

A combination of vision, collaboration, shared decision-making, and professional development yields a professional culture, which facilitates teacher engagement (Louis, 1995). Such a culture is the result of specific actions by the principal. The actions discussed by Louis (1995) include promoting respectful relationships between the school and community, working to minimize the negative impact of demands placed upon teachers by the district and state, allowing teachers to focus their efforts on students, making teachers feel “protected” to try new things, being visible and available, interacting with students, attending numerous school activities, delegating tasks to teachers to empower them, holding unengaged teachers accountable, and confronting poor teaching.

Urick and Bowers (2013) provide a list of effective leader behaviors that mirror those of Louis (1995), including establishing goals; promoting and participating in teacher development; planning, coordinating and evaluating instruction; managing resources; and creating a safe and orderly environment. Wagner (2001) found that most schools function as bureaucracies, which rely on compliance to accomplish goals. By utilizing the actions listed previously, school leaders may transform their schools from

bureaucracies into communities that succeed due to the commitment of the individuals towards the school's goals.

School principals cannot eliminate many of the negative factors of being a teacher. They cannot raise salaries, increase parental support, abolish accountability systems, or minimize the pressure to raise student achievement. Even if they could, it would not be enough. Herzberg found that eliminating the dissatisfying aspects of a job does not lead to job satisfaction but that an employee's tolerance for the negative aspects of a job can be increased when their motivational needs are tended to (as cited in Shockley et al., 2011).

### **The Model**

This study modified and adapted a model developed by Bogotch (1989) for use in Miami-Dade public schools. It addressed the management actions or administrative support factors in schools falling into one of two dimensions: structural or informal. It sought to determine what impact, if any, the structural and informal dimensions of school management have on teacher engagement.

The structural dimension encompasses the more formal, operational components of schools including standards, information sharing, assessments, and incentives. Anything that schools are required to do falls into this category. The assessments that schools must administer to students to measure student achievement are based on standards typically published by boards of education at the district, state, or federal level. Such assessments are mandatory for public schools. The other two areas that lie within the structural realm are information sharing and incentives. These are areas in which

school and administrators tend to have more flexibility, yet are still operational and therefore in the structural dimension.

The informal dimension addresses those activities and events in schools that are not mandated but are commonplace in schools. The informal dimension comprises activities that are more relational in nature and, not necessarily but frequently, are non-curricular events such as attending extracurricular activities and social events, sharing information, and principal-teacher relations. School leaders have tremendous influence on the informal dimension in terms of quantity and frequency.

While many in education may argue that the assessments are the driving force behind all that occurs in schools, the reality is that the mission of schools begins with standards. Standards or benchmarks delineate what needs to be taught. Doyle and Murphy (1998) called standards “the tool of choice to identify and measure the ‘value added of schooling’” (p. 2). Standards indicate what students are supposed to learn in school. Like states across the nation, Florida is undergoing a transition with its standards (Dunkelberger, 2014). In fact, Florida recently adopted its fourth set of standards since 1996 (FLDOE, n.d.). In 1996, Florida adopted the Sunshine State Standards (SSS) in all content areas. Those standards remained in effect until 2007 when they were updated to become the Florida Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (NGSSS). Shortly thereafter in 2010, the state adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in English/Language Arts and Mathematics, which are a set of national standards developed by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices (NGA Center) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2017). The adoption of the CCSS has been controversial nationwide and, as a

result, in 2014 Florida adopted a modified version of the CCSS called the Florida Standards (Dunkelberger, 2014).

Once standards are in place there needs to be a way to determine if the standards are being met, which is where assessments come into play. Standards indicate what a student should be able to accomplish, while assessments measure a student's performance in accomplishing the task (Doyle & Murphy, 1998). Therefore, standards and assessments go hand-in-hand. The omnipresent goal of improving student achievement, then, is to improve student performance on meeting standards, which may be why Elmore (2000) wrote that the key to school reform is embracing standards and accountability measures. An important point that is lost on many educators is that standards inform what should be taught, but they do not specify how it should be taught. While schools have no choice in what content to teach, school leaders can exercise discretion in how the instruction of that content occurs. A common fallacy is that since all students need to learn the same thing, then all teachers should teach them the same way. Telling a teacher exactly how to teach their subject is not empowering and will only diminish teacher engagement. Administrators who allow teachers to plan instruction that they believe as the instructional experts will benefit their students are seen as supportive administrators. School leaders who wish to improve teacher engagement must remember that "quality control and standardization are contradictory terms" (Bogotch et al., 1995, p. 59). Teachers do not have an issue with high standards. In fact, teacher satisfaction is higher in schools where the administration focuses on high standards (TNTP, 2012). Teachers simply want flexibility in how to teach those high standards.

Although standards and assessments are closely interrelated, school leaders have no flexibility in the area of assessments, which are used to measure student achievement. States develop assessments, establish testing dates, and provide assessment data without input from schools. The only way that a principal can impact assessments in their schools is in the attitude. A principal can see testing as the most important event of the year or they can choose to see it as the time when the truly important days (those spent instructing students) are proven successful.

Information sharing is an area in which school leaders can truly engage staff. Sir Francis Bacon is credited with writing that “knowledge is power” back in 1597. The more people know, the more prepared they feel. Information sharing is very similar to shared decision-making in that it allows teachers to feel involved with the school. Because of the wide variety of information and data in schools today, information sharing can take many forms. It can simply be sharing upcoming calendar events so teachers can adjust their curriculum accordingly or it can be as deep as providing data that compare their school’s performance against other schools for the purpose of school improvement planning. A school leader may use information to update staff on school reform efforts (Arends, 1982). Information sharing is not limited to administration and teachers. School leaders should discuss all important aspects of the school with all stakeholders including parents and community members (Barth, 2006).

The power of information should not be overlooked. Bauer and Bogotch (2006) found that communication and decision-making practices were more important to survey participants than support. In their study of school managerial controls, Bogotch et al. (1995) found information sharing to be the most pervasive school control process. They

also stressed the importance of the quality of the information. In order for information to be useful to staff, it must be adequate or as complete as possible and it must have utility (Bogotch et al., 1995). Wagner (2001) stressed the use of communication as a means of school improvement. Administrators can improve teacher engagement through information sharing. West (2013) wrote of the need to set organizational expectations or the vision to nurture engagement. McEwan (2009) described the vision as

the driving force that communicates an instructional leader's image of the future and is based on personal values, beliefs, and experiences. A vision stretches the imagination and requires the ability to see the future in a way that others may not.  
(p. 55)

While it is important for the principal to know the direction for the school, it is meaningless unless that vision is shared in varied, interactive ways (West, 2013). Sharing information shows teachers that the school leader trusts them. As administrators work to build trust in their schools, Wilson (2012) stated that it is permissible to over-communicate, although Bogotch et al. (1995) found that the frequency of information was not as important as its quality.

As has been noted, teacher engagement has a correlation to the teacher's job satisfaction. Discussions of teacher job satisfaction frequently involve teacher salaries (TNTP, 2012). However, teacher salary is an area in which school administrators typically have very little authority. Therefore, administrators must focus on school-level incentives (Bogotch et al., 1995). While money is often the most favorable inducement, incentives do not have to be strictly financial. Teachers also can be motivated by being able to choose their classroom or office location, being selected to lead a project or a

department, or even receiving simple notes of encouragement or gratitude from the administration (Arends, 1982; West, 2013). Incentives simply need to be meaningful, equitable, and have value to their recipients (Bogotch et al., 1995). Although incentives are issued to improve teacher morale, teacher satisfaction can decrease if they are not equitable (Bogotch et al., 1995) and meaningful (TNTP, 2012). Incentives can be motivating to teachers but should not be perceived as the motivating factor. School leaders who use incentives to bribe or threaten teachers to improve student achievement risk being viewed as disrespectful and out of touch as most teachers enter the profession with a goal other than financial gain (Wagner, 2001).

Probably due to its lack of structure, much less has been written about the informal dimension. While the structural dimension addresses the operational mechanisms of school, the extracurricular activities and social events of the informal dimension give insight into the school's culture. The informal dimension speaks to engagement with school as a social unit where students and colleagues are viewed as family and friends (Louis, 1995). Therefore, a teacher's attendance at extracurricular events can be seen as a measure of engagement. When a teacher attends a performance or game, it is usually to watch their students. Any educator who has attended an extracurricular event can tell you that students love to see their teachers and administrators at such events. It certainly improves the teacher-student relationship, which may have benefits down the line for student achievement. School leaders can encourage teacher attendance by simply talking positively about the events, such as informing them of an upcoming playoff game and the desire to fill the stadium or sharing that they have seen the rehearsals for the school play and are certain it will be enjoyable.

Another way for principals to impact the informal dimension is through social events. Education is an increasing difficult and stressful profession. School leaders can minimize the stress of the staff through social events. Build a positive culture through activities designed to boost morale and have fun (West, 2013). While it is important for administrators to recognize events such as teacher appreciation week, it may be more impactful to recognize teachers at various other times of the year when it is not expected. This may include having breakfast for teachers or scheduling a staff happy hour at the conclusion of a big event such as testing. Administrator participation in social events is equally important in difficult situations such as funerals. Being there to support teachers during such difficult times shows that the principal sees them as more than an employee, which helps increase their engagement in the social realm.

Although this study was modeled on Bogotch's (1989) work, there were different variables assessed. Table 1 provides a side-by-side comparison of each of the models.

Table 1

*Model Comparison*

Bogotch (1989)	Current Study Model
Standards	Assessments (Structural)
Clarity (Structural)	Principal-Teacher Relations (Informal)
Difficulty (Discretionary)	Evaluation (Structural)
Information Sharing	Extracurricular Activities (Informal)
Adequacy (Structural)	Incentives (Informal)
Utility (Discretionary)	Information Sharing (Informal)
Assessments	Standards (Structural)
Worth (Structural)	Social Events (Informal)
Fairness (Discretionary)	Teaching Practices (Structural)
Incentives	Teacher Engagement (Structural/Informal)
Meaningful (Structural)	
Equity (Discretionary)	

## **Chapter Summary**

Chapter 2 provided a literature review of the various topics associated with teacher engagement including accountability systems, teacher retention, school climate, student achievement, and administrative support. According to the literature, a school leader can positively influence student achievement, teacher job satisfaction, school climate, and teacher engagement by being a supportive administrator. Teachers are more engaged in their profession when they feel valued and supported by the administrator. Such engagement leads to improved content knowledge and delivery and, subsequently, improved student achievement.

## CHAPTER THREE. METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 presents the design and methods of this study, specifically quantitative methodology utilizing a survey instrument. Data from the survey were analyzed to determine to what extent a relationship exists between the variables of administrative support and teacher engagement as well as between teacher engagement and student achievement.

### **Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework for this study operationalized administrative support and teacher engagement. This framework was based on a curricular and instructional school managerial control model originally developed and tested in Miami-Dade County schools (Bogotch, 1989). The study utilized an analytical framework composed of structural and informal dimensions analyzed according to how school leaders address the six structural domains of assessments, evaluations, incentives, information sharing, standards, and teaching practices. The informal dimension addressed whether the school leaders' actions affected areas such as climate, teacher attendance at extracurricular events, and school social functions. According to Bogotch et al. (1995), "what people say and do creates immediate and reciprocal perceptions in others which affect performance" (p. 47). This study further tested that assertion by focusing on the following research questions:

1. Can school administrative support factors predict teacher engagement?
2. Can teacher engagement predict student achievement?

## **Demographics**

This study examined the school administrative support factors in the Ocean County School District (OCSD). Ocean County consists of 187 schools serving 188,000 students. OCSD is the largest employer in the county with 21,656 regular employees, of which 12,898 are teachers. A total of 106,945 students (56%) receive free/reduced lunch benefits; 21,180 students (11%) are classified as English Language Learners (ELL); and 27,928 students (15%) participate in Exceptional Student Education (ESE) programs. Students come from 197 countries and territories and speak 145 languages. The ethnic breakdown is as follows: 33% White, 28% Black, 31% Hispanic, 3% Asian, 1% American Indian, and 3% mixed race. Services provided to students come from the district's \$2.3 billion operating budget.

## **Sample**

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Florida Atlantic University and the targeted school district reviewed and approved the research design and instrument (Appendix A and Appendix B). The researcher chose to limit the survey to public high schools in Ocean County, a large, urban school district in the southeastern United States, in an effort to ensure teacher respondents faced somewhat similar circumstances in their daily work experiences. There are 23 high schools in Ocean County. Furthermore, because respondents were asked to answer items regarding principal behaviors, only schools who have had the same principal for at least two years were included. This left 16 high schools in the sample. Every teacher at those schools was invited to complete the survey.

## **Instrumentation**

This study utilized the Administrative Support Instrument (ASI) to survey teacher perceptions of various actions by school leaders. The ASI is based upon Bogotch's (1989) School Managerial Control Questionnaire (SMCQ), which consists of 50 Likert-type items. The items from the SMCQ were reviewed to determine if they addressed the nine domains addressed in the literature review for the current study. Seventeen items were retained in their entirety. Eight items were reworded to align with current practices such as Marzano evaluations while 25 were dropped as they were not applicable to this study. The researcher developed 25 additional items based on the literature on teacher engagement. The ASI includes a total of 50 Likert-type items, five in each of the nine domains, five for teacher engagement, plus a final informational item to identify the school in order to correlate school student achievement data with individual responses. The items were grouped together by variable in order to capitalize on retrieval gains by respondents before changing topics (Wolf, Joye, Smith, Smith, & Fu, 2016). In items 1-50, teachers were asked to answer based upon their perception of their principals' behavior in relation to each of the nine domains. Responses were based on the following Likert-type scale: 5 – Strongly Agree, 4 – Agree, 3 – Neutral, 2 – Disagree, 1 – Strongly Disagree, and 0 – Not Applicable. The complete instrument can be found in Appendix C. Table 2 provides an explanation of the order and structure of the instrument.

Table 2

*Administrative Support Instrument Structure*

Items	Domain	Category	Variable
1 – 5	Assessment	Structural	Independent
6 – 10	Principal-Teacher Relations (Climate)	Informal	Independent
11 – 15	Evaluation	Structural	Independent
16 – 20	Extracurricular	Informal	Independent
21 – 25	Incentives	Informal	Independent
26 – 30	Information Sharing	Informal	Independent
31 – 35	Standards	Structural	Independent
36 – 40	Social Events	Informal	Independent
41 – 45	Teaching Practices	Structural	Independent
46 – 50	Teacher Engagement	Informal/Structural	Dependent

**Methodology**

Correlational research methods were used to describe the relationship between administrative support of teachers and teacher engagement. Correlational research was not utilized to identify a causal relationship but to determine if a predictive relationship existed. In a prediction study, variables are examined to establish if a high relationship between variables can have predictive qualities (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011). This study examined if administrative actions can directly predict high levels of teacher engagement and indirectly predict high levels of student achievement. Schools leaders control standards, information sharing, assessments, and incentives both formally (formal curriculum and instructional practices) and informally (e.g., attendance at extracurricular and social events, etc.). Multiple regression analysis measured the predictive relationships of these variables. The multiple regression approach was necessary given

that more than one variable may affect the outcome and those separate, independent variables can be interrelated. With respect to teacher engagement, this measure was correlated against the measures of school leadership control in terms of the strength of the correlations.

Additionally, schools were categorized by their 2015-2016 school grades to determine if a correlation existed between the school administrative support factors and student achievement data. Simple regression analysis was utilized to examine any potential predictive qualities in the data.

Florida public schools are rated A, B, C, D, or F by the Florida Department of Education using a school grading formula that focuses on student success measures of achievement, learning gains, graduation, and college credit and/or industry certifications (FLDOE, 2016a). The high school model includes 10 components (Figure 2), each of which is a percentage of students meeting the mark of that component. There are four achievement components. Achievement components show that percentage of students at a given school who earn a passing score on state tests in the areas of English, mathematics, science, and social studies. For high schools, the tests included in these components are the Grade 9 and 10 English Language Arts Florida Standards Assessments and the End of Course exams in Algebra 1, Geometry, Algebra 2, Biology, and United States History (FLDOE, 2016a). There are four learning gains components, two each in English Language Arts and mathematics. Two of the components show the learning gains for all tested students and two are only for the lowest 25% of students based upon their prior year test scores.

One component displays the percentage of students who graduated with their four-year cohort. The final component calculates the percentage of graduates who successfully achieved a college or career acceleration measure. Acceleration points are achieved by any of three methods: earning college credit by passing an Advanced Placement (AP), International Baccalaureate (IB), or Advanced International Certificate of Education (AICE); earning college credit by passing a dual enrollment course with a grade of C or higher; and/or passing an industry certification test (FLDOE, 2016a).

Each of those 10 components yields a percentage from 0-100. Those percentages are summed and divided by the total number of components to result in a school grade. For 2016 school letter grades were based on the following scale: A = 62% or higher of the total points, B = 54 to 61%, C = 41 to 53%, D = 32 to 40%, and F = 31% and below (FLDOE, 2016c).

English Language Arts	Mathematics	Science	Social Studies	Graduation Rate	Acceleration Success
Achievement (0% to 100%)	Achievement (0% to 100%)	Achievement (0% to 100%)	Achievement (0% to 100%)	4-year Graduation Rate (0% to 100%)	High School (AP, IB, AICE, Dual Enrollment or Industry Certification (0% to 100%)
Learning Gains (0% to 100%)	Learning Gains (0% to 100%)				
Learning Gains of the Lowest 25% (0% to 100%)	Learning Gains of the Lowest 25% (0% to 100%)				

*Figure 2.* School grades model.

Approval to conduct research was granted by the Florida Atlantic University Instructional Review Board (IRB) and the sample district's research committee. Following the approval process, a total of 1,991 teachers at sixteen public high schools were invited by email (Appendix D) to complete the Administrative Support Instrument. Additionally, an email was sent to the principals of the sampled schools requesting that they encourage their teachers to complete survey. Eight days after the initial email, teachers in the sample were emailed a survey reminder. The survey was available to teachers for one month after which time no additional responses were collected. Upon closure of the survey, 404 responses were received.

### **Data Analysis**

Upon completion of the data collection, means and standard deviations were calculated to identify items that may have had issues preventing further analysis. There were nine variables tested to determine their predictive power on teacher engagement. Each of the nine variables was measured by five items. Subscores were generated for each of the nine variables by summation. The five items on teacher engagement also were combined into a subscore. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to determine what, if any, predictive value the nine variables being tested had on teacher engagement. Multiple regression analysis is a useful tool in determining if a dependent variable can be predicted from two or more independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This analysis addressed research question 1. Variables with high, positive predictive values on teacher engagement will be ones that principals take that may influence stronger teacher engagement. Such a relationship between two variables can be presented as a bivariate correlation.

A bivariate correlation shows the amount of correspondence between two quantitative variables (Rice University, n.d.). Pearson correlations are calculations that show the strength of the relationship between two variables (Rice University, n.d.). Values range from 1 to (-1), where 0 indicates no relationship and + or - 1 indicates a perfect correlation. Positive values display that as one variable increases so does the other, whereas negative values demonstrate that as one variable increases the other decreases (Trochim, 2006). The strength of a correlation increases as its Pearson correlation approaches + or - 1 (Trochim, 2006). A positive Pearson correlation shows the likelihood that an increase in one variable will result in an equal increase in the other variable. For example, the Pearson correlation between standards and extracurricular activities was .870. Thus, there is an 87% chance that a change in standards will display an equal change in extracurricular activities. There was a strong positive relationship between those variables.

Teacher engagement was based on scores for items 46-50 as these items were developed to measure teacher engagement based on the literature review. Student achievement was based on points earned towards school grades calculated by the Florida Department of Education. These grades are published annually by the Florida Department of Education. Calculations account for several factors including student performance on state assessments, participation and performance in accelerated courses, graduation rates, and postsecondary readiness (FLDOE, 2015). A simple linear regression analysis examined the predictive nature of teacher engagement on student achievement addressing research question 2. Simple regression analysis is useful in measuring the impact of a single variable on a certain result (Zou, Tuncali, & Silverman, 2003). The review of

literature suggests that a highly engaged teacher is more likely to result in higher student achievement.

### **Pilot Study**

As noted earlier, only 17 of the original 50 items from Bogotch's (1989) SMCQ were left in their original form for the ASI. To determine the content validity of the new and revised items, a pilot study was undertaken (Haynes, Richard, & Kubany, 1995). The pilot study involved 14 high school teachers from a single school that was not included in the final study because its principal was in his first year at the school. The researcher administered the ASI to the teachers and then discussed each question with them. Participants were asked if they fully understood what each question was asking and if there were any suggestions to improve the wording of individual items. The final version of the ASI utilized in this study reflects the changes suggested by these pilot participants.

## CHAPTER FOUR. RESULTS

Chapter 4 presents the results and analysis of the data. Statistical analysis of the survey responses was computed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 24.

Data analysis began regarding research question 1, can school administrative support factors predict teacher engagement? All analyses examined the structural and informal categories of administrative support factors, which were comprised of nine administrative support predictor variables. The structural variables were assessment, evaluation, standards, and teaching practices. The informal variables were principal-teacher relations (climate), extracurricular activities, incentives, information sharing, and social events. The dependent variable was teacher engagement. Initial calculations involved determining the internal reliability of the items. Each subscale was composed of five items. A summative score was calculated for each of them. Subsequently, a multiple regression analysis was computed to determine simple correlations between the variables.

For the purposes of this study, the administrative support variables were defined as follows. Assessment referred to how the leader handles issues relating to testing of students, specifically state-mandated testing. Principal-teacher relations asked about how the leader provides for a positive working environment. Extracurricular activities sought to determine if the teacher and/or leader attends school-related events outside of the normal school day. Evaluation addressed the leader's actions related to teacher evaluation. Incentives items asked if the leader looks for ways to provide additional inducements such as supplemental compensation or materials for teachers that may

impact their motivation and engagement. Information sharing asked teachers if they feel well informed by their principal. Standards items referred to how focused the leader is on curriculum and instructional standards. Social events inquired about the teacher and leader's involvement with colleagues and students in non-school specific ways. Teaching practices referred to the ways leaders monitor and assist teachers with instructional strategies. Finally, teacher engagement queried teachers to determine their overall level of engagement academically, professionally, and socially with colleagues and students. Therefore, teacher engagement is both structural, with the academic and professional parts, and informal, referring to the social part.

### **Pilot Study**

The Administrative Support Instrument (ASI) was administered to 14 high school teachers in order to provide content-related validity evidence. These teachers were members of the leadership team at a high school in Ocean County that was not being included in the full study sample. In addition to actual survey responses, the pilot respondents provided feedback on the working and meaning of each item. Thirty-one of the 50 items were revised based on teacher input. Twenty-nine of those items originally referred to the principal and other school administrators or simply school administration. All those items were revised to include only the principal. As an example, item 8 originally read, "I am satisfied with the job my school administration is doing." The revised item read, "I am satisfied with the job my principal is doing." Respondents indicated that their responses may be different if the entire administrative team was included versus only the principal.

Additionally, item 6 was changed from “hiring substitutes to cover classes” to “class coverage” as respondents stated that the words hiring substitutes muddled the question’s intended meaning. The words “in my opinion” were deleted from item 34 as all items were opinion items. Item 40 was reworded from “I work as a coach or club sponsor because I understand the value of getting to know students outside of the classroom setting” to “I understand the value of getting to know students outside of the classroom setting by working as a coach or club sponsor.” Finally, item 43, “Time and effort devoted to the evaluation of professional development and training workshops given at my school are worthwhile” was changed to “The evaluation of professional development and training workshops given at my school is worthwhile.”

For the pilot study, the dependent variable, teacher engagement, yielded the highest mean ( $M = 4.8000$ ,  $SD = .35082$ ) followed by extracurricular activities ( $M = 4.3714$ ,  $SD = .53122$ ) and incentives ( $M = 4.1231$ ,  $SD = .61394$ ). The reliability of variable was calculated to determine the consistency of the items related to a particular variable. The reliability of a variable is shown with a Cronbach’s alpha value. Cronbach’s alpha values range from zero to one where 0.90-1.00 is very high, 0.70-0.89 is high, 0.30-0.69 is moderate and 0.00-0.30 is low (Babbie, 1992). Only four of the nine independent variables yielded an alpha greater than 0.7. The alpha values were as follows: principal-teacher relations = .921, evaluation = .833, assessment = .793, incentives = .721, teaching practices = .593, information sharing = .478, extracurricular activities = .454, standards = .362, and social events = .322. Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics for each of the variables in the pilot study.

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics for the Pilot Study*

Variable	Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Assessment	Structural	4.1000	.72111
Evaluation	Structural	3.7857	.72096
Standards	Structural	4.0333	.36013
Teaching Practices	Structural	3.6286	.55391
Principal-Teacher Relations (Climate)	Informal	3.7143	.98828
Extracurricular Activities	Informal	4.3714	.53122
Incentives	Informal	4.1231	.61394
Information Sharing	Informal	3.9429	.51098
Social Events	Informal	3.9286	.56354
Teacher Engagement	Structural/Informal	4.8000	.35082

*Note.* N = 14.

### **Full Study Sample**

The target population for this study included 1,991 teachers at 16 public high schools in a large, urban school district in the southeast. All 1,991 teachers at those 16 schools were invited to complete the survey instrument. The instrument did not ask the teachers to provide any demographic information such as age, gender, or years of experience as those items were not applicable to the research questions. A total of 404 responses were received, yielding a 20.3% response rate. However, not every respondent answered every item. There were 347 surveys in which items 1 through 50 were answered and, therefore, were used for analysis of research question 1. In those 347 responses, there were 35 where the respondent did not provide their school number;

therefore, only 302 surveys could be utilized for research question 2. Table 4 shows the response rate for each school in the study. All statistical calculations were performed with the listwise function to address the missing data.

Table 4

*Response Rates of the Schools*

School	Surveys Sent	Responses	Response Rate
1	63	13	21%
2	168	21	13%
3	120	11	9%
4	65	7	11%
5	165	24	15%
6	156	24	15%
7	146	18	12%
8	113	15	13%
9	154	24	16%
10	121	12	10%
11	150	23	15%
12	118	45	38%
13	116	18	16%
14	86	13	15%
15	128	23	18%
16	122	11	9%

*Note:* Rate indicates the percentage of teachers at a school who completed the survey.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the 10 variables and are displayed in Table 5. These include the number of responses ( $N=347$ ), the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and variance. It should be noted that the values in Table 5 address the

10 variables not the 51 individual items because the variables address research question

1. The descriptive statistics for items 1 through 50 are shown in Appendix E should future research consider the specific actions addressed by each item. Item 51 is not included because it was used only for identification purposes.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for the Model*

Variable	Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Assessment	Structural	4.06	.80
Evaluation	Structural	3.76	1.05
Standards	Structural	3.85	.99
Teaching Practices	Structural	3.51	.99
Principal-Teacher Relations	Informal	3.80	1.09
Extracurricular Activities	Informal	4.16	.85
Incentives	Informal	3.82	1.96
Information Sharing	Informal	3.80	1.02
Social Events	Informal	4.03	.76
Teacher Engagement	Structural/Informal	4.5	.59

*Note.* N = 347.

The dependent variable, teacher engagement, yielded the highest mean ( $M = 4.5$ ,  $SD = .59$ ). Three of the nine independent variables showed means above 4, with extracurricular activities ( $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = .85$ ) being the highest, followed by assessment ( $M = 4.06$ ,  $SD = .80$ ) and social events ( $M = 4.03$ ,  $SD = .76$ ).

The reliability of each variable was calculated to determine the consistency of the items related to a particular variable. A Cronbach's alpha of  $> 0.7$  is considered

acceptable (UCLA Institute for Digital Research and Design, 2017). Nine of the 10 variables yielded an acceptable alpha as displayed in Table 6, with social events just barely below the acceptable value.

Table 6

*Reliability Scores*

Variable	Category	Cronbach's Alpha
Assessment	Structural	.825
Evaluation	Structural	.885
Standards	Structural	.904
Teaching Practices	Structural	.872
Principal-Teacher Relations	Informal	.922
Extracurricular Activities	Informal	.745
Incentives	Informal	.902
Information Sharing	Informal	.899
Social Events	Informal	.691
Teacher Engagement	Structural/Informal	.784

### **Research Question 1**

This question sought to determine if school administrative support factors could impact teacher engagement. It examined if there was a relationship between a teacher's perception of their principal's actions and a teacher's level of engagement.

Multiple regression analysis was used to test if administrative support factors significantly predicted teacher engagement. The results of the regression model indicated the nine predictors together explained 54% of the variance ( $R^2 = .550$ ,  $F(9) = 45.733$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In regard to the individual contribution of each of the nine predictors, standard coefficient betas display the weight of each variable on the model. These b-values also

indicate to what degree each predictor affects teacher engagement if the effects of all other predictors are held constant (Field, 2009). It was found that social events significantly predicted teacher engagement ( $\beta = .419$ ), with the next highest weight being assessment ( $\beta = .246$ ), with all other variables present. Therefore, the model shows that administrative support factors can predict teacher engagement.

For research question 1, the first column of Table 7 displays the relationship of each variable to teacher engagement. Social events had the highest correlation (.654), while the lowest value was with teaching practices (.506). All bivariate correlations to teacher engagement are closely grouped with less than a .15 difference in the range. Table 7 indicates that all the variables are positively correlated to one another at a significant level ( $p < .001$ ).

Table 7

*Bivariate Correlations*

	TE	AS	CL	EV	EX	IC	IS	ST	SE	TP
TE	1.000									
AS	.591	1.000								
CL	.507	.841	1.000							
EC	.587	.669	.663	1.000						
EV	.528	.777	.829	.664	1.000					
IC	.539	.797	.863	.677	.794	1.000				
IS	.581	.787	.826	.646	.849	.833	1.000			
ST	.575	.791	.851	.679	.870	.843	.874	1.000		
SE	.654	.550	.530	.588	.477	.538	.560	.548	1.000	
TP	.506	.724	.806	.617	.841	.785	.862	.862	.563	1.000

*Note.* All correlations yielded a significance of < .001. Variables were abbreviated as: TE = Teacher Engagement, AS = Assessment, CL = Principal-Teacher Relations, EC = Extracurricular, EV = Evaluation, IC = Incentives, IS = Information Sharing, ST = Standards, SE = Social Events, TP = Teaching Practices.

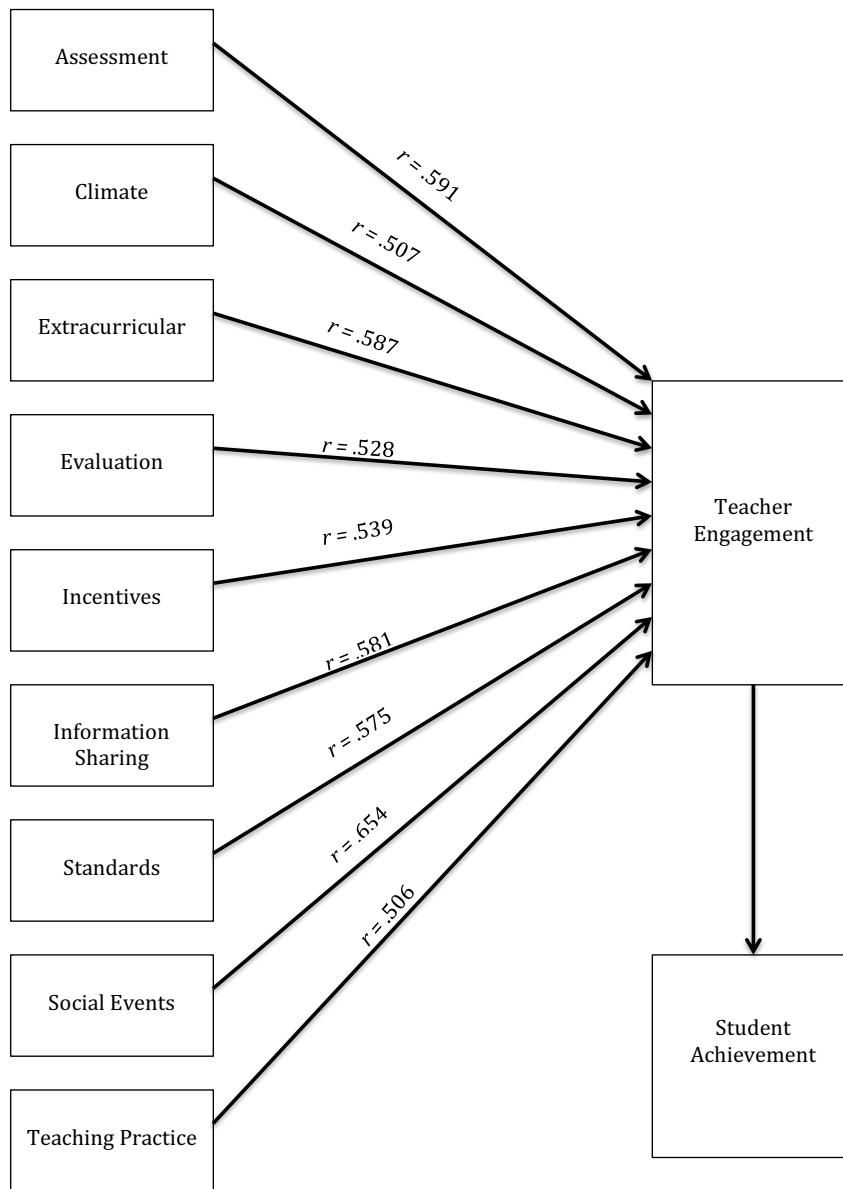
Table 8 shows that bivariate correlations are strong in both the structural and informal categories. The highest value, social events (.654), is informal, yet the second value, assessment (.591), is structural. The table is sorted by the bivariate correlation to show that the correlations do not tend to favor one category over the other. Figure 3 adds the bivariate correlations to the original study structure.

Table 8

*Bivariate Correlations to Teacher Engagement with Model Category*

Variable	Category	<i>r</i>
Social Events	Informal	.654
Assessment	Structural	.591
Extracurricular Activities	Informal	.587
Information Sharing	Informal	.581
Standards	Structural	.575
Incentives	Informal	.539
Evaluation	Structural	.528
Principal-Teacher Relations	Informal	.507
Teaching Practices	Structural	.506

*Note.*  $N = 347$ ,  $p < .001$ .



*Figure 3.* Model with bivariate correlations.

Table 9 shows that social events had the greatest impact on the model when holding other variables constant, nearly 16% higher than principal-teacher relations. Beta weights are ranked by their absolute values to show the total effect of each variable on the model regardless of direction (Nathans, Oswald, & Nimon, 2012).

Table 9

*Beta Weights with Model Category*

Variable	Category	$\beta$	Significance
Social Events	Informal	.419	<.001
Principal-Teacher Relations	Informal	-.263	.004
Assessment	Structural	.246	.001
Information Sharing	Informal	.215	.020
Teaching Practices	Structural	-.208	.015
Standards	Structural	.197	.045
Extracurricular Activities	Informal	.161	.004
Evaluation	Structural	.070	.420
Incentives	Informal	-.002	.986

Initially, it appears that the informal categories have more impact on the model, with three of the four highest ranked variables being informal. However, a closer look shows that the second-ranked (principal-teacher relations) and the seventh-ranked (extracurricular activities) variables display similar weights with a range barely over a tenth of a decimal. Among the variables of principal-teacher relations, assessment, information sharing, teaching practices, standards, and extracurricular activities, the distribution of structural versus informal is equal, at three each. Outside of the informal variable, social events, the structural and informal variables have equal overall impact on the model and statistically similar levels of importance. It should be noted that this aligns with the distribution of the categories in the bivariate correlation data. Social events shows the highest correlation and the most weight on the model, yet structural and informal categories display similar effects.

A second multiple regression was run to test the overall categories for structural and informal. The subscales of assessment, evaluation, standards, and teaching practices were summed into a subscale for structural to perform the multiple regression. The same process yielded a subscale for informal from the combination of principal-teacher relations, extracurricular activities, incentives, information sharing, and social events. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicated that approximately 43% of the variance in teacher engagement was explained by the predictor variables, structural and informal ( $R^2 = .430, F(9) = 129.634, p < .001$ ). The bivariate correlations for structural (.590) and informal (.654) were significant ( $p < .001$ ). The informal category had the most influence on the model ( $\beta = .780, p < .000$ ), while the structural category ( $\beta = -.136$ ) was not significant ( $p = .221$ ).

## **Research Question 2**

The second research question asks if teacher engagement can predict student achievement. Linear regression analysis indicates that 0% of the variation in the school grade is a result of teacher engagement and that the results are not significant ( $R^2 = .000, F(1) = .003, p = .958$ ). These results clearly do not support the hypothesis that teacher engagement directly impacts student achievement.

In order to test if the individual administrative support factors showed an indirect impact on student achievement, multiple regression analysis was run for the 10 variables against the school grade variable. Results showed that only 9% of the variation in school grade could be attributed to the 10 variables of assessment, principal-teacher relations, extracurricular activities, evaluation, incentives, information sharing, standards, social events, teaching practices, and teacher engagement ( $R^2 = .092, F(10) = 2.952, p < .002$ ).

## CHAPTER FIVE. FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### **Restatement of the Problem**

K-12 school leaders in the state of Florida have been under pressure to raise student achievement since Florida's school grading system began in 1998 (FLDOE, 2014). Over the years, the components and school grade calculations have changed, but the end results have not. K-12 public schools receive grades of A through F, based on the performance of their students in various areas, but mostly heavily on state-developed tests administered each spring to students in grades 3 through 10 (FLDOE, 2014).

While there are numerous factors that impact student achievement, research indicates that teachers should be the focal point of any effort to effect student success. In *The Art and Science of Effective Teaching*, Marzano (2007) cited numerous studies to assert that “the single most influential component of an effective school is the individual teachers within that school” (p. 1). Based on that knowledge, the question for school leaders then becomes “How can I positively impact my teachers’ performance?”

### **Review of the Purpose**

School leaders, and particularly building principals, carry out many actions that impact teachers in numerous ways including performance and job satisfaction. A review of the research identifies a common descriptor that encompasses many traits of a successful teacher. Teacher engagement includes a wide range of traits such as commitment, enthusiasm, collegiality, emotional connection, social connection,

pedagogical improvement, and active involvement in learning that describe a successful teacher (Barth, 2006; Jacques, 2013; Lesko, 1986; Louis, 1995; Pogodzinski, 2014; Rutter & Jacobson, 1986; West, 2013) This study sought to determine if a relationship exists between the actions of principals and their teachers' level of engagement. It specifically identified principal actions into categories of structural or informal and sought to determine which of those categories and related independent variables were correlated to teacher engagement. That relationship was determined through a survey of teachers using the Administrative Support Instrument (ASI), which was based upon Bogotch's (1989-check year) School Managerial Control Questionnaire (SMCQ), which had been validated by Duncan (1994). The structural category was measured by the variables of assessment, evaluation, standards, and teaching practices, while the informal category encompassed the variables of principal-teacher relations, extracurricular activities, incentives, information sharing, and social events, with teacher engagement being the dependent variable.

### **Summary of the Findings**

Table 10 presents the three findings from this study, which are examined in the paragraphs that follow.

Table 10

*Research Findings*

Study Findings	
Finding 1	The Administrative Support Instrument is a reliable instrument.
Finding 2	A model of administrative support factors can predict teacher engagement.
Finding 3	Student achievement at the school level cannot be predicted by teacher engagement.

**Finding 1**

In developing the ASI, the researcher needed an instrument that could reliably capture the opinions of the teachers in the sample. The items ask the respondents questions about themselves and their views about the actions of their principals. The SMCQ upon which the ASI was modeled is a reliable instrument but did not completely align with all the variables to be studied or the current terminology used in schools today. Changes needed to be made to the SMCQ to tailor to the target population.

The items were grouped to address the nine independent and one dependent variable. The pilot study utilized teachers to ensure content or face validity of the items. Upon completion of the data collection, item reliability was calculated using SPSS. Nine of the 10 variables displayed high reliability, with Cronbach's alphas above .7, while the items for social events fell slightly below into the moderate range at .691 (Babbie, 1992).

**Finding 2**

The main goal of this study was to determine if principal actions could impact teacher engagement. The work of Louis (1995) illustrated the power of an engaged teacher, which led this researcher to question whether a school leader could improve

teacher engagement through supportive actions and behaviors. Essentially, the researcher asked “Does leadership matter?”

Statistical analysis of the data indicated that, yes, it does. Teacher engagement did vary with respect to the predictor variables ( $R^2 = .550$ ). All nine predictors showed a significant relationship ( $p < .001$ ) with teacher engagement. The most impact was seen in the areas of social events, principal-teacher relations, and assessment. Social events and principal-teacher relations are both in the informal category, which should at least encourage school leaders to put more effort into informal areas than structural ones. This finding tells us that if principals want engaged teachers, they need to act in ways to promote that engagement.

### **Finding 3**

Analysis of the data as it relates to research question 2 was not favorable. This study was not able to demonstrate a relationship between teacher engagement and student achievement. The model predicted that 0% of the variance in school grades was due to teacher engagement. On the surface this is a surprising finding but one that the researcher attempts to explain in the discussion section later in this paper. It should be noted, however, that although a relationship was not shown as with research question 1, an analysis of the administrative support factors and school grade displayed that social events once again showed one of the higher beta weights in the model ( $\beta = .234$ ), the highest for research question 2.

### **Discussion**

The job of a school principal is multifaceted. Some may argue that it is more complex than it ever has been. In 2014, The Center for American Progress wrote that the

job of today's principals is vastly different than those in the 1970s, 80s, or 90s (Alvoid & Black, 2014). Alvoid and Black (2014) listed the following duties/expectations of current principals: aspirational leader, team builder, coach, agent of visionary change, effective building manager, disciplinarian, and public relations expert as well as being an expert in data, curriculum, pedagogy, and human capital management. It is curious, however, to read Davis's (1921) description of the duties of a principal from 1921: "his task is to formulate policies, suggest modes of procedure for executing them, lead his assistants into new realms of thought and action, and guide, articulate, and co-ordinate individual and group efforts" (p. 338). Other than technology, the overabundance of testing would be the most notable absence from this description.

Since this study was built largely upon the Bogotch (1989) model, it is important to compare his model with the new adapted model. Bogotch tested his model across four school leader tasks: teacher evaluation, staff development, curricula development, and the selection of textbooks. At the time, it was a different era where principals had more discretion than principals at the time of the current study, given the absence of accountability systems seen today. While there are similarities in the variables studied, Bogotch saw every administrative process as both structural and discretionary whereas this researcher separated the administrative support factors into either structural or informal. Bogotch sampled elementary, junior, and senior high schools, while this study was restricted to high schools. For Bogotch, information sharing and incentives were significant. Bogotch's study also occurred at a time when assessments and accountability did not dominate schools.

While there were differences between the studies, similarities existed as well. Where the two studies align is to quote Bogotch (1989), “except for the managerial control process of incentives, teacher perceptions were more in agreement with the presence of discretion [informal in the current study] quantities than with structural frequency of managerial behaviors” (p. 331). With respect to academic performance, higher correlations occurred between managerial control processes at the more effective schools, which would be the A or B schools in the current school grade plan. Bogotch therefore concluded that the managerial control processes are relevant to teacher and school performance. Both studies, however, support the Shakespearean notion that principals are challenged every day to “make a virtue of managerial necessity” (Bogotch, 1989, p. 354).

The overall data from this study can be summed up by a quote from Whitaker (2002), “it’s people, not programs” (p. 7). All nine of the predictor variables showed a significant relationship with teacher engagement, yet there was only a difference of .148 between the highest and lowest Pearson correlations. This indicates that all school leader actions impact teachers relatively equally. A closer look shows that social events had the highest correlation at .654 with the next highest, assessment, being just .591. That difference of .073 may not appear large at first until one remembers the total spread of .148. This shows that social events stand out from the others. The survey items for social events, which Bogotch et al. (1995) called discretionary or qualitative leadership behaviors, had no connection to pedagogy, standards, or instructional materials. The items explored a teacher’s connection to colleagues, students, and administrators outside the classroom in non-curricular situations. Why does a teacher get together with other

teachers after school or attend a student drama performance in the evening? Because they have a social connection to those people and ultimately to their jobs.

Assessment had the second highest correlation to teacher engagement. In this era of accountability, testing understandably has a major impact on teachers. Ask any high school teacher today about testing and the response probably is that there is simply too much of it. States like Florida have even gone to including student achievement data as part of a teacher's annual evaluation. The Florida K-20 Education Code (2016a) calls for at least one-third of a teacher's performance evaluation to include "data and other indicators of student performance." Assessment is an inescapable part of teaching today, an assertion that is supported by the ASI data. Therefore, in the era of accountability, social relations may be even more important to balance the work life of teachers. Or, to view it in terms of the model, the informal social category is needed to counteract the structural assessment category.

Adamo (2015) wrote that "leadership has typically been understood as a process of social influence enacted through leader actions" (p. 74). Clearly, the social aspect of leadership long has been recognized. However, it must continue to be emphasized to school leaders due to its effect on teacher engagement. Principals must recognize that every action they perform has the potential to impact teacher engagement. Making decisions "in the best interests of students" is a commonly repeated maxim, yet one that this researcher believes is missing a key component to reach its ultimate effect. While the school leader sets policy and issues directives, it is the teacher who typically is tasked with carrying out those decisions. In order to be most effective, school leaders should make decisions in the best interests of students, yet examine those decisions through the

lens of a teacher's viewpoint. Whether the decisions are major, such as selecting curriculum materials, to minor, such as choosing an adjusted bell schedule for a special event, principals always should consider how it impacts the teachers because they mediate how it affects students. Frustrated teachers do not result in happy, effective classrooms.

Principals wishing to address the social aspects of the position can look to the survey items from the ASI for ways to do so. They can work to build strong, positive relationships with teachers and encourage teachers to do so with each other. They can promote ways to spend time with colleagues outside of work, such as attending holiday parties and happy hours. Emphasizing the importance of supporting students at events such as games and performances provides additional opportunities for teachers to interact socially. Finally, principals can urge teachers to get to know students outside the classroom setting by sponsoring a club or coaching a sport. In fact, this study demonstrated the importance of tending to all informal variables ( $\beta = .780$ ). A school leader who nurtures and attends to the social domain of leadership will reap the benefits in the future (Arends, 1982; Barth, 2006).

Figure 4 presents a new version of the study model. Variables are listed in rank order from the top. This revised model also reflects the structural and informal category of each variable. Structural variables are shown in boxes as these variables are predefined for school leaders. Informal variables are represented by clouds due to the increased flexibility school leaders have in controlling them. The linkages between the variables and student achievement have been removed since the study was unable to produce data proving those relationships. However, the literature review did show the relationship

between teacher engagement and student achievement so that linkage remains.

Recommendations for future research address ways in which another study could yield more useful data for research question 2.

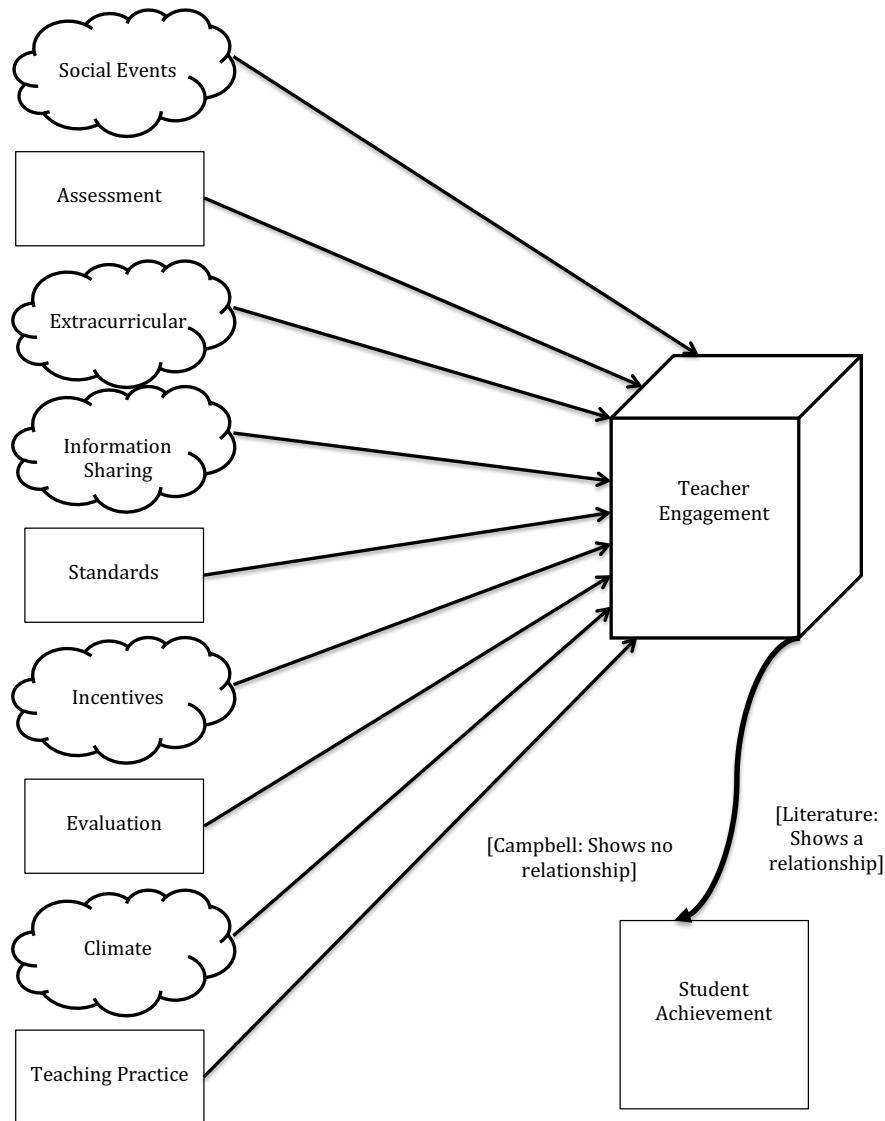


Figure 4. Revised study diagram based upon study results.

## **Recommendations**

Given the impact we have seen that a principal has on a school's faculty, it is important that policy and decision makers in schools recognize this effect when training and choosing school leaders. University principal preparation programs must examine themselves. According to a report from The Wallace Foundation, many of the current university programs are not preparing principal candidates adequately (Mendels, 2016). The report identified five themes, the most concerning being that these programs do not "reflect principals' real jobs" (Mendels, 2016, p. 5). This means that such programs are not meeting their intended purpose. States such as Illinois have mandated reviews of their principal preparation programs and specified what should be included in them (White et al., 2016). Training on how administrators can support teachers, both structurally and informally, should be included in any program recommendations and redesigns.

While states and universities can address how to prepare new school leaders, districts must work to support those leaders once they enter the position. Even principals who are products of excellent university and district principal preparation programs could use professional development on their leadership skills from time to time. Districts can provide leadership development to principals that reemphasizes how to work with teachers in ways that foster engagement. Reminders can be less formal than actual workshops. Sometimes it only takes a few words from a superintendent for a new practice to take hold (Isger, 2015). While it is important for principals to model behavior they expect of their faculties (Bogotch et al., 1995), it is equally important for district leaders to model behavior for principals. If district leaders agree with this study and value

the attendance of their principals at student and social events, they should make that expectation known.

School leaders need to make a concerted effort to address the social aspects of their jobs. Showing an interest in the lives of teachers helps to build those all-important principal-teacher relationships. Often even the simplest gestures such as remembering to wish someone “Happy Birthday” in person or asking how their family members are doing build strong connections. Generally, when a principal functions as a leader for whom they would like to work, their staffs will respond positively. It is hard to go wrong by following the Golden Rule - treat others as you want to be treated.

### **Future Research**

Although the literature review detailed that teacher engagement impacts student achievement, the data collected from teachers in this study did not. This researcher believes this was due to the study’s design and suggests some changes for future researchers wishing to utilize the ASI. Teacher engagement can be measured at the individual level or for an entire school. This study surveyed individual teachers but used statistical means to determine engagement at the school level. This was done so that correlation could be made to school grade data. The flaw here was that not all teachers who impact the school grade took the survey. Every teacher at the school was invited to participate regardless of their individual contribution (or lack thereof) to the school’s grade. For example, a physical education teacher whose students do not test and an English teacher whose students take state-mandated tests were treated equally even though their inherent connection to the school’s grade was not equal.

Additionally, survey participation was voluntary. This may have led to a greater percentage of engaged teachers responding than less engaged teachers since an engaged teacher has a strong interest in improving themselves and the profession of education (Louis, 1995). This is supported by the descriptive statistics, which showed teacher engagement with the highest mean of all 10 clustered variables ( $M = 4.5441$ ). The average response rate for all schools surveyed was 15%, hardly sufficient to get an accurate measure of the engagement of the entire faculty. A school's engagement level may have appeared high when, in fact, only a small percentage of more engaged teachers responded, which makes it difficult when correlating that faulty data to an overall school grade.

Future researchers should consider ways to ensure higher response rates and possibly utilizing student achievement data that can be directly correlated to the teachers being surveyed. It would be necessary to structure the study in a way that allows teachers to maintain anonymity so they are comfortable giving true opinions yet still be able to correlate to their student achievement data. This might be accomplished by only sampling teachers whose students all took the same test such as the Grade 10 Florida Standards Assessment for English Language Arts and sorting teachers into groups based on student performance categories. It also may be instructive to use a mixed methods study to include an interview component. Interviews with teachers about their principal's actions and behaviors may provide greater insight into which actions foster or dissuade teacher engagement. Additionally, this study only sampled high school teachers; therefore, the study needs to be replicated at the elementary and middle school levels.

## **Limitations**

This study was limited in the following ways, which must be considered before drawing additional conclusions or attempting further research:

1. Survey participation was voluntary and therefore response rates may have impacted the data reliability.
2. The sample included teachers in all subject areas even those in which it can be difficult to ascertain their contribution to student achievement data.
3. The model needs to be validated.

Limitation two could have been addressed by collecting certain demographic data with the instrument. Such data could have included what subject a teacher taught, whether their students took state required tests, student achievement data specific to the respondent, and the socioeconomic status of the students with achievement scores. In this study, teacher engagement scores were calculated from individual classroom teachers while the dependent variable of student achievement was largely a function of standardized scores. Future research should conduct the analysis on a school-by-school basis. However, school districts are mindful of not wanting to identify participants in research and, therefore, this researcher and his advisor made the decision to simplify the design in order to secure IRB approval. Additionally, if school districts are truly interested in improving their leadership programs, they must be more open to thorough study and examination of their programs.

## APPENDICES

## Appendix A. University IRB Approval



**Institutional Review Board**  
Division of Research  
777 Glades Rd.  
Boca Raton, FL 33431  
Tel: 561.297.0777  
[fau.edu/research/researchint](http://fau.edu/research/researchint)

Michael Whitehurst, Ed.D., Chair

DATE: May 23, 2016  
TO: Ira Bogotch  
FROM: Florida Atlantic University Social, Behavioral and Educational Research IRB  
PROTOCOL #: 852715-2  
PROTOCOL TITLE: [852715-2] A Model for Improving Teacher Engagement Through Administrative Support  
SUBMISSION TYPE: Response/Follow-Up  
REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # A1  
ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS  
EFFECTIVE DATE: May 20, 2016

Thank you for your submission of Response/Follow-Up materials for this research study. The Florida Atlantic University Social, Behavioral and Educational Research IRB has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM FEDERAL REGULATIONS. Therefore, you may initiate your research study.

We will keep a copy of this correspondence on file in our office. Please keep the IRB informed of any substantive change in your procedures, so that the exemption status may be re-evaluated if needed. Substantive changes are changes that are not minor and may result in increased risk or burden or decreased benefits to participants. Please also inform our office if you encounter any problem involving human subjects while conducting your research.

If you have any questions or comments about this correspondence, please contact Ximena Levy at:

Institutional Review Board  
Research Integrity/Division of Research  
Florida Atlantic University  
Boca Raton, FL 33431  
Phone: 561-297-0777  
[researchintegrity@fau.edu](mailto:researchintegrity@fau.edu)

\* Please include your protocol number and title in all correspondence with this office.

**This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations,  
and a copy is retained within our records.**

## Appendix B. District IRB Approval

[REDACTED]

June 9, 2016

Mr. James Campbell  
[REDACTED]

Dear Mr. Campbell:

The Superintendent's Research Review Committee has approved your request to conduct research entitled, "A Model for Improving Teacher Engagement through Administrative Support", in the School [REDACTED] (the District). According to documentation submitted, the purpose of this study is to identify which, if any, particular administrative practices have the greatest impact on teacher engagement. This research is approved and limited to the study, scope, and methods outlined in the proposal. The study will utilize surveys completed by teachers through email communication.

As this study is conducted, please be governed by the following guidelines and policies as outlined in [REDACTED]

- Teacher participation is strictly voluntary. Obtain written informed consent from teacher participants.
- Contact NO school or department other than Department of Communications. District policy provides that no one has the right to access students, staff or data, and prohibits researchers from requesting data directly from schools or departments.
  - Teacher email addresses will be obtained through Department of Communications only.
- Summarize findings for reports prepared from this study and do not associate responses with a specific school or individual. Information that identifies the District, schools, or individual responses will not be provided to anyone except as required by law.
- This research study must be concluded by May 31, 2017, when the IRB expires.
- If the study requires the use of additional resources or change in participants in the future, a written request must be submitted to this office. Please wait for an approval before proceeding.

Please submit one copy of the study results to the Department of Research and Evaluation no later than one month after completion of the research.

Thank you for your interest in our District.

[REDACTED]

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[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

## **Appendix C. Administrative Support Instrument**

### **Administrative Support Instrument**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

#### Informed Consent:

Thank you for your interest in participating in this research study. The purpose of the study is to help the researchers measure what effect administrative support has on teacher engagement. Please answer the survey questions as honestly as possible. These questions concern your personal perception of various actions undertaken by your school principal. It should take you no more than 15 minutes to complete this survey. Your participation in this study is your choice. You may skip any questions that make you feel uncomfortable and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. There are no foreseeable risks for your participation in this study. This survey is anonymous. The only data that could be viewed as identifiable is your school number, which will be used to correlate responses with school grade data. All teachers at your school are being invited to complete this survey and the data will not be shared with your current supervisor. Potential benefits that you may receive from participation could be seen in the future once principals are presented with data showing which supportive actions on their part lead to more highly engaged teachers.

If you experience problems or have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact the Florida Atlantic University Division of Research at (561) 297-0777. For other questions about the study, you should contact the principal investigator: Dr. Ira Bogotch ([ibogotch@fau.edu](mailto:ibogotch@fau.edu) or 561-297-3558). By clicking the link below and entering the survey, you give consent to participate in this study. You acknowledge that your participation is completely voluntary. Feel free to keep a copy of this email for your records.

Please answer each question using the following scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

### **Administrative Support Instrument**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

	<u>Questions</u>	<u>Rating</u>
1.	The principal takes action to minimize the disruption that required assessments have on classroom instruction.	
2.	The principal provides relevant updates to teachers that can impact student performance on required assessments.	
3.	The principal emphasizes the importance of preparing students for state assessments.	
4.	The principal provides data on my school's performance as it compares to other schools data in the district.	
5.	I believe that my principal is more concerned with graduating productive citizens than preparing students to succeed on required state assessments.	
6.	Providing me with planning time and class coverage are meaningful ways in which my principal shows their support of my courses.	
7.	In my opinion, the principal equitably rewards teachers whose performance is well above average and treats fairly teachers whose performance needs improvement.	
8.	I am satisfied with the job my principal is doing.	
9.	I would say that the principal has an accurate assessment of the professional needs of teachers.	
10.	I am generally satisfied working at my school.	
11.	My principal encourages teachers to attend extracurricular events such as performances, competitions, and athletic events.	
12.	The principal attends performances, events, and athletic contests.	
13.	The principal shares news of accomplishments from performances, events, and athletic contests.	
14.	I have attended at least 1 extracurricular event or athletic contest, which I was not required to in the past year.	

### **Administrative Support Instrument**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

15.	I have attended more than 4 extracurricular events or athletic contests, which I was not required to in the past year.	
16.	The principal frequently provides me and the other teachers with information about Marzano and other effective teaching behaviors.	
17.	The principal regularly monitors what I am teaching through a variety of ways (e.g. lesson plans and objectives, class visits, etc.).	
18.	The process of evaluating teachers occurs at my school more often than just for my formal evaluation.	
19.	The principal frequently recognizes my strengths as a classroom teacher, and, if needed, offers to get me help in areas in which I could improve.	
20.	Time and effort devoted to classroom observations, both formal and informal, have been worthwhile to me as a teacher.	
21.	The principal does not favor one grade level or department over another when it comes to distributing resources and money for program development and curricular improvement.	
22.	The principal frequently finds ways to meet my requests for more and better instructional materials and books.	
23.	My principal's efforts to encourage my continued growth as a teaching professional (e.g. finding substitutes to cover classes, sending me to workshops) are meaningful.	
24.	The principal makes accommodations for staff who perform duties outside their teaching responsibilities.	
25.	The principal provides various opportunities for additional compensation through tutoring, club sponsorship, coaching, etc.	
26.	The information I obtain from staff meetings and professional development activities held at my school give me an adequate understanding of how to do my job well.	

**Administrative Support Instrument**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

27.	The principal frequently communicates school-wide objectives for meeting state and district curricular goals.	
28.	My principal frequently sends me information regarding professional development opportunities and activities.	
29.	My principal frequently sends me information on new ideas in curriculum and instruction.	
30.	My principal ensures that I receive information that impacts my job in a timely manner.	
31.	The principal makes it clear how state and district curricular requirements are to apply to my school, my students, and to the courses I teach.	
32.	The principal keeps raising the standard of performance expected of me as a teacher.	
33.	My principal uses teachers' ideas in developing and/or implementing curriculum.	
34.	The principal states clearly the classroom teaching behaviors that she/he values most.	
35.	The principal frequently evaluates each staff development work or in-service session offered at my school.	
36.	I build strong, positive relationships with colleagues and view them as friends.	
37.	I enjoy spending time with colleagues outside of work.	
38.	My principal participates in staff social events such as holiday parties and happy hours.	
39.	In the past year, I have attended student events (games, performances, dances, etc.) for which I was not directly responsible.	
40.	I understand the value of getting to know students outside of the classroom setting by working as a coach or club sponsor.	

### **Administrative Support Instrument**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

41.	The principal frequently reviews effective teaching practices with teachers.	
42.	The principal makes it clear how in-service workshops and professional development opportunities offered at my school relate to my classroom teaching.	
43.	The evaluation of professional development and training workshops given at my school is worthwhile.	
44.	After I attend a professional development workshop or training session, the principal will frequently support my efforts to incorporate new ideas into my classes.	
45.	The teaching behaviors that my principal would like most to see in the classroom are more difficult than those in Marzano.	
46.	I strive to stay current in my content area in order to provide the best instruction to my students.	
47.	I feel that it is important to provide personal and emotional support to students in addition to educational support.	
48.	I enjoy talking with students about topics outside of their academic lives.	
49.	My principal emphasizes the importance of positive relationships with students in order to promote their academic success.	
50.	I value the ability to collaborate with my colleagues and understand the positive impact it can have on my own instructional practice.	
51.	In order to correlate with student achievement data, please provide your school's number.	

Thank you for your valuable contribution to this study.

## **Appendix D. Survey Completion Emails**

### **For Principals (initial email)**

To: Select Principals

From: James Campbell (jcampb52@fau.edu)

Subject: Research Request

Dear Colleagues,

I am pursuing my doctorate at Florida Atlantic University. For my study, I am surveying teachers about their opinions of various actions by their principals to see if those actions improve the teacher's level of engagement in their job. I have already emailed a link to the study to all teachers who ended the year at your respective schools. I would greatly appreciate if you could also encourage your teachers to complete the online survey. I am including the link below in case they need it again. This study has been approved by the District.

Teachers who complete the survey do so anonymously. The only identifying data is the school at which they work in order to correlate teacher engagement with school grades. They have been instructed to answer the questions based on their principal last year so it does not matter that some schools have new leaders. Thank you for your assistance.

Take the Survey

Sincerely,

James

**For Teachers (initial email)**

To: Select Teachers

From: James Campbell (jcampb52@fau.edu)

Subject: Research Request

Dear Teachers,

My name is James Campbell, doctoral student at Florida Atlantic University and principal of Seminole Ridge Community High School. The purpose of this email is to request your assistance for my dissertation study. I am researching the subject of teacher engagement and specifically how actions by school principals may improve teacher engagement. Additionally, I will examine how levels of teacher engagement correlate to school grades.

I am asking you to complete the online survey at the link below. The survey should take between 10-15 minutes to complete. Your responses are anonymous. The only identifying information requested is your school number in order to correlate school grade data. Schools included in the study will be identified as "School A, B, etc." in the final paper. This research will be part of my dissertation, "A Model for Improving Teacher Engagement through Administrative Support." Your responses should reflect your principal for the 2016 school year.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel to contact me at jcampb52@fau.edu. Thank you for assisting with my study and possibly identifying areas in which principals can improve your daily experiences as an educator.

[Take the Survey](#)

Sincerely,

James Campbell

**For Teachers (follow-up email)**

Dear Teacher,

If you have already completed the online survey I emailed you on July 30, thank you. If you have not, please consider this a reminder. Your participation is vital to my research and your time is greatly appreciated. The survey can be accessed at [Take the Survey](#).

Sincerely,

James Campbell

## Appendix E. Descriptive Statistics

Table E1

*Descriptive Statistics for the Model*

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	404	3.82	1.177
2	401	4.05	1.063
3	403	4.51	.850
4	404	4.56	.827
5	404	3.40	1.257
6	400	3.78	1.263
7	400	3.49	1.315
8	402	3.96	1.217
9	401	3.74	1.251
10	404	4.11	1.143
11	404	3.96	1.136
12	402	4.30	1.038
13	403	4.36	1.014
14	400	4.47	1.078
15	401	3.72	1.595
16	404	4.22	1.078
17	404	3.88	1.258
18	402	3.87	1.199
19	403	3.62	1.339
20	404	3.33	1.362
21	402	3.73	1.343
22	402	3.78	1.213
23	401	3.81	1.283
24	402	3.79	1.236
25	402	4.10	1.101

Table E1 (cont.)

<i>Question</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
26	403	3.44	1.358
27	403	4.28	1.009
28	401	3.86	1.249
29	404	3.53	1.278
30	403	3.95	1.159
31	401	4.08	1.073
32	402	4.11	1.051
33	400	3.68	1.241
34	402	3.99	1.162
35	396	3.45	1.249
36	401	4.17	.985
37	401	3.63	1.255
38	397	3.80	1.219
39	399	4.15	1.219
40	400	4.48	.861
41	402	3.81	1.184
42	402	3.69	1.168
43	398	3.35	1.280
44	399	3.67	1.245
45	396	3.01	1.238
46	402	4.67	.671
47	402	4.70	.663
48	402	4.55	.773
49	403	4.38	.966
50	403	4.49	.818

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