Teachers’ Understanding of School Finance and the Impact on Job Satisfaction

by

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Dedication

The work throughout this dissertation is dedicated to the most important people in my life. First to the teachers that educate our future, I hope the words throughout this study improve the way our schools' function and increase your ability to reach our children. Then to my family, the most important thing in my life. Kris, you have been with me through this whole process, keeping me motivated and pushing me along when I did not want to finish. Thank you for standing by me and helping me complete my goals. Jack and Max, you make me happier than you will ever know. There have been times that I have had to step away from my fatherly duties to work on this study. I am excited to get that time back and help you reach your goals just as you help me reach mine.

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List of Abbreviations

ARRA	American Recovery and Reinvestment Act
AYP	Adequate Yearly Progress
CCSS	Common Core State Standards
ESEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
NCEE	National Commission on Excellence in Education
NEA	National Education Association
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
LEA	Local Education Agency
PSA	Public School Academy
RTTT	Race to the Top
SAF	School Aid Fund

Abstract

To determine if a teacher's understanding of school finance impacts their overall job satisfaction, this study used a mixed methods approach to investigate a Michigan metropolitan school district's teacher's understanding of school finance and their overall job satisfaction. The study utilized an initial survey to determine the level of job satisfaction of the staff. This was then followed by qualitative interviews that established the knowledge base of each respondent.

Data collected showed that kindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers who express low job satisfaction also exhibited a poor grasp of school finance. Conversely, the staff who demonstrated high job satisfaction within the survey also showed a higher level of understanding of school finance. As funding for schools continue to change, the study's findings reveal the importance of educating and including teaching staff in financial decisions within the district.

Keywords: foundation allowance, job satisfaction, school finance, school leadership, efficacy, education reform, No Child Left Behind, Every Student Succeeds Act

Chapter 1

Introduction

The job satisfaction of teachers is impacted by a variety of variables ranging from student discipline to administrative support (DuFour, 2015; Hess & Osberg, 2010; Lewis et al., 2011). As the United States started to emerge from Great Recession in 2009, education has continued to see a changing landscape of academic requirements, teacher training, and educational funding. Declines in population and birth rates, new requirements on school districts, and reductions in funding created an alarming scenario for learning environments. School districts were hemorrhaging money and forced to restructure how they educate children. As changes were made to balance the budget, students were not the only people affected. The teaching staff felt the stress of financial cuts both in their classroom and within their personal lives.

Teaching is widely recognized as a stressful occupation that places numerous challenges on individuals. Administrative burdens, long hours, classroom management difficulties, and a lack of autonomy begin to highlight the pressures that are placed upon teaching staff (McCarthy et al., 2019). These demands take a toll on teachers and often result in job dissatisfaction, workplace fatigue, burnout, and reduced occupational commitment (Goldstein, 2015). Research has shown that between 9% and 30% of new teachers leave the field within the first five years of teaching, which can negatively affect student learning (Kraft & Papay, 2014). Though teaching is often an isolated profession with less than 5% of the day spent collaborating with peers, the main stressors can be attributed to the social and political scrutiny that has forced our education system to alter its path (Allegreto & Mishel, 2016). These changes come through the utilization of a top-down approach to leadership. Educational decisions begin at the federal level, move to the states and finally to district and school leadership. This regularly leaves school staff on their own to create hypotheses as to why changes are being made as well as the financial implications of these modifications.

The United States contains 13,500 traditional public schools that receive and deploy over $650 billion annually (Cornman et al., 2018). Schools and the financial resources available to them have worked to adapt to the changing needs of society. Education has faced reform efforts such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) which were gauged at improving student performance, while increasing accountability for all stakeholders. Prompted by parents, educators, and legislators, these policies have been enacted throughout the United States to address achievement gaps. As the government created legislation to address teaching and learning, teachers and unions have felt a direct attack on collective bargaining and employee rights (DuFour, 2015). While policy worked to shrink achievement gaps, federal and local governments also looked to market-based reform measures to create competition, pitting schools against each other as they try to attract and retain students and simultaneously increase performance. These market-based reform measures have also increased teachers' accountability with student performance on state mandated tests as well as pulled funding from school districts as students leave for charter schools or other school-of-choice programs.

The legislation that opened the doors for students to attend schools outside of the neighborhood boundaries and government agencies additionally included funding reform requirements that attached allocations to specific achievement targets. Within the 2009 American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, Race to the Top was created to improve student results through long-term increases with school effectiveness (Manna, 2010). This program focused on an application process that required school districts to meet specific targets in order to receive the additional funds (Education Week, 2011; Mead, 2010). This funding program came on the heels of NCLB and before the reauthorization of ESSA.

As each of these policies and programs influenced education and educational funding on a national level, Michigan went through a dramatic change its allotment process. In 1994, Proposal A was created to level the playing field regarding educational funding in Michigan. Prior to the passing of Proposal A, Michigan relied on property taxes to fund its school systems. This directly tied school funding to the land values within each local school district's boundaries (Knittel & Haas, 1998; Kruth, 2015; Lewis, 2015). After its passing, school funding in Michigan was directly tied to state sales tax (Kruth, 2015). This limited the discrepancy of the base funding each school district received however, school districts still saw inconsistencies in funding as exemptions such as the hold-harmless clause allowed districts to levy mills to make up the difference between pre-Proposal A funding and the new base funding amount (Arsen & Plank, 2003; DeGrow, 2017).

While well intended, Proposal A in Michigan has missed the mark of stabilizing educational funding. Districts continue to see unequal funding across the state which places teachers in the middle of government policy and the students that schools are designed to serve. (Hess & Osberg, 2010; Payne, 2010). The inequity has put teachers in a difficult place. With teachers on the front line of education their job satisfaction and morale has been linked to increased student performance, higher levels of community engagement, and longer tenure of teacher careers (Allen, 2005; Black, 2001; Chapman & Lowther, 2014; Ondrich et al., 2008). Working conditions, salary, leadership, advancement, and autonomy have a dramatic impact on a teacher's job satisfaction (Barnes et al., 2007; Black, 2001; Brown, 2007; Lewis et al., 2011;

Spector, 1985; Stuit & Smith, 2012). These characteristics have allowed researchers to determine the level of teacher job satisfaction when variables within the control of the local LEA are changed. Scheopner (2010) for example found that when variables are changed, teachers who have positive relationships with their colleagues as well as parents experience higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to those who are unable to build these relationships. In addition, Klassan & Chiu (2010) determined that school and organizational characteristics determine the level of teacher job satisfaction. While research on teacher job satisfaction has addressed changes that happen within the structure of the organization or relationships, it has not adequately determined what happens when funding formulas for school districts are altered or funding amounts change.

In Michigan, school districts are facing changes in financial instability, loss of student populations and an increased complexity of formulas used to determine the cost of educating a child (DeGrow, 2017; Leachman et al., 2016; Ravitch, 2010). Consequently, a school district's ability to adapt to economic change combined with the level of understanding of financial formulas in Michigan have impacted the way teachers are perceived among the greater population (DuFour, 2015; Hess & Osberg, 2010). Often teachers are regarded as part-time employees who enjoy summers off, extended holidays and compensation adequate for their schooling and work (Hess & Osberg, 2010). Publicly, teaching is viewed as a trade rather than a profession (DuFour, 2015). All of this creates an environment that is full of angst and uncertainty as school districts are continually asked to alter how they operate in order to meet the changing financial climate. Teachers are often left to their own devices to understand how and why decisions within the school district are made regarding curriculum, operations, and staffing. These changes are directly related to the changing finances of a district. As financial availability varies, it is important to understand how the perceptions and understanding of change affects the job satisfaction of the most influential members of a school district: the teachers.

Statement of Problem

High teacher morale has been linked to many benefits including positive student attitudes and an overall infectious school environment, as well as, increased student academic performance (Black, 2001; Kyriacou, 2001; Martin & Dowson, 2009; Miller, 1981). Because teacher job satisfaction is directly linked to student performance and growth, it is important that all variables that impact teachers are understood. This study builds on current research and investigates the gap in relation to teacher job satisfaction and the understanding of school finance (Baker, 2016; Béteille & Loeb, 2009; Finnigan, 2012; Ingersol, 2001; Kokkinos, 2007; Ladd, 2011).

Topical research has evaluated and made conclusions on both the positive and negative stressors related to job satisfaction. In a study conducted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015), seven categories of stressors were identified by more than half of teachers: disruptive student behavior, workload and time pressure, student diversity and working to adapt teaching to students' needs, lack of autonomy, lack of shared goals and values, problems and conflicts related to teamwork, and lack of status. While also researching teacher stress, Kyriacou (2001) drew upon the research of Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman (1984) and determined that teacher stress is better understood as a result from a mismatch between the pressures and demands made on educators and their ability to cope with those demands. The model developed by Kyriacou (2001) has become a governing model of the balance of stressors in any workplace not just with teachers (Meurs & Perrewé, 2001).

Workplace conditions alone are not sufficient to determine why some teachers are highly stressed and others are not (McCarthy, 2019). Relationships, community involvement, leadership support, autonomy, and demographics also alter the way teachers approach their work (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). Each of these areas impact the way the teaching staff approaches their job and influences the learning that is happening within the classroom. Research has shown that teachers with high job satisfaction bring more enjoyment and motivation to both schools and students, which results in increased student success (Demirtas, 2010). Though Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) determined the specific areas within the school environment that impact teacher job satisfaction and morale, they did not include the changing dynamics of the educational climate, specifically the impact of legislation that has altered the financial structure and financial stability of public education.

To keep up with the changing economy and global competition, policy makers have utilized legislation to create levels of accountability for school districts. The accountability has come in the form of increased demand on teachers and an intensified need for student performance. From these policies, initiatives such as school of choice, vouchers, and standardized assessments have been geared to create options for parents and opened the ability to compare public school performance. Each of these policies contribute to the stress that is felt by teaching staff as their schools are forced to compete for students and individual performance within the classroom can now be compared across classrooms and districts. In combination with these policies, reforms regarding the funding available to schools have also changed over time. With this, governance of school districts has increasingly moved away from the local municipalities and gravitated toward centralized state control.

Research by Jacobsen and Saultz (2012) determined that conventional wisdom shows that education is a matter for local control; and as time passes, states' authority over education policy has grown, including states' ability to intervene in school districts' finances. As control of a school district moves increasingly farther away from the local municipality, the complexity of school funding has become increasingly muddled. Being able to understand the funding changes that effect education is just as important as recognizing the stressors that impact teacher job satisfaction and performance. Our educational system in Michigan has transitioned through funding changes, specifically cuts to foundation allowance and the increase of market-based reform measures. These changes have caused the current models of job satisfaction evaluation to become obsolete.

As school districts dedicate themselves to creating a harmonious work environment under a financially sound plan, the ability of the teaching staff to understand funding sources and the deployment of those funds to enhance student learning cannot be lost. The focus of this study is to examine the understanding of school finances by the teaching staff. The level of understanding will be utilized to determine if funding knowledge has an impact on job satisfaction within a small, middle-class, suburban school district.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to determine if a teacher's understanding of school finances impacts their overall job satisfaction. The job satisfaction of a teacher effects the experience that students feel within the walls of their school. Our education system is designed to serve our communities and enhance the future for our youth. Teachers, being on the front lines of education and having the greatest amount of contact with students, are the most influential piece of our system. Unfortunately, less and less are entering teacher preparatory programs and those who are teaching are leaving the profession at astounding rates (Peters & Passanisi, 2012). This can be attributed to the policies being put in place and the satisfaction felt by teachers (Peters & Passanisi, 2012).

Job satisfaction is determined via multiple variables and is directly tied to a teacher's want or intent to remain in teaching (Millinger, 2004). The intent to stay in or leave one's position is a good indicator of actual job satisfaction (Lee & Mowday, 1987; Perrachione et al., 2008). This intent can increase based on opportunities presented to staff members and training that puts them in a position of success (Hermsen & Rosser, 2008). Though school leaders can use growth opportunities and training to increase teacher job satisfaction, today's educational climate, particularly the reductions in funding, alter teachers' emotions in ways not yet understood.

As the financial stability to of the country and state has faltered over the past decade, districts have been forced to anticipate the instability and adapt to changes. The Michigan Department of Education (MDE) requires all school districts within the state to maintain a positive fund balance at the end of each fiscal year (Michigan Department of Treasury, 2017). Like with any initiative, some school districts have been able to adjust and others have struggled. Due to the influence finance has on the education system and the lack of overall understanding of funding that is found within the educational ranks, it is important to understand the repercussion it has on teacher job satisfaction.

Research Questions

This study is designed to determine if a teacher's understanding of the school financial system impacts their overall job satisfaction. To do this, the following questions must be answered.

1. Does a teacher's understanding of educational finance affect their overall job satisfaction?
2. What do teachers identify as factors that cause changes in the financial climate within education?

Summary

With a shift in educational funding and an increased focus on market-based reform systems, school districts have been forced to continually adapt to student needs while facing increased competition, reductions in capital resources, and standardized academic accountability (Peters & Passanisi, 2012; Shaw & Newton, 2014; Skaalvic & Skaalvic, 2016). Lawmakers have utilized policies such as NCLB and ESSA to change the way schools educate our children and determine success. These policies have been in conjunction with revisions to school funding formulas, creating additional stress on school leaders and teaching staff. The stress that these changes and reforms have placed on school staff have caused teachers to leave the profession at high rates, making it important to understand all the variables that impact teacher job satisfaction (Bialopotocki, 2006; Hughes, 2014).

Current research completed on teacher job satisfaction has focused on working conditions, student development, and salaries. For example, Ondrich et al., (2008), found that teachers within districts who offer higher salaries relative to non-teaching salaries in the same county are less likely to leave teaching; also a teacher is less likely to change districts when they work in a district near the top of the teacher salary distribution in their county. Research has shown that salaries influence teacher satisfaction and job retention; however, the ability for staff to understand funding is lacking (Allen, 2005; Black, 2001; Chapman & Lowther, 2014; Ondrich et al., 2008). This research has continued by determining that teachers who work in a well-supported environment that offers opportunity for professional growth have higher job satisfaction than those who do not (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Ondrich et al., 2008).

With the continued changes in the structure of our educational system and variables that impact teacher job satisfaction, educational leaders need to understand the aspects that impact the teaching staff and in turn the students they serve. Educators are continuously left battle a balance of adequate funding and student achievement. The decisions of lawmakers and educational leaders do not just impact the fiscal stability of a school district but also alter professional development opportunities, hiring, maintenance, and many more arms of the education system.

By evaluating spending constraints and reductions, a potential harm to the teaching quality flows from leveling down or reducing spending; however, this has not been evaluated when looking into teacher job satisfaction (Baker, 2016). This study will define the variables of teacher job satisfaction, highlight the policies that impact our education system and explain Michigan's educational finance formula. It will determine if a teacher's understanding of educational finance affects their overall job satisfaction.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Policy makers and legislatures expect the staff and administration of our nation's schools to work within the changing dynamics of our public-school system, therefore we must evaluate the impact of the reform measures they set forth. Focus needs to be placed on those reforms that impact funding and the stress it puts on our teaching staff. Teachers have the most direct contact with students and therefore have the greatest ability to impact student learning. To ease this stress, leaders need to look no further than Simon Sinek's (2011) *Start with Why* to help create an atmosphere where staff feels fulfilled with their career choice. Teaching staff is often left out of decision-making processes, leaving their understanding of funding formulas to hearsay and watercooler conversations. While districts and states face a fiscal decline and are forced to tighten their financial belts, it is important to understand how decisions to restructure educational systems impact the morale of our teaching ranks.

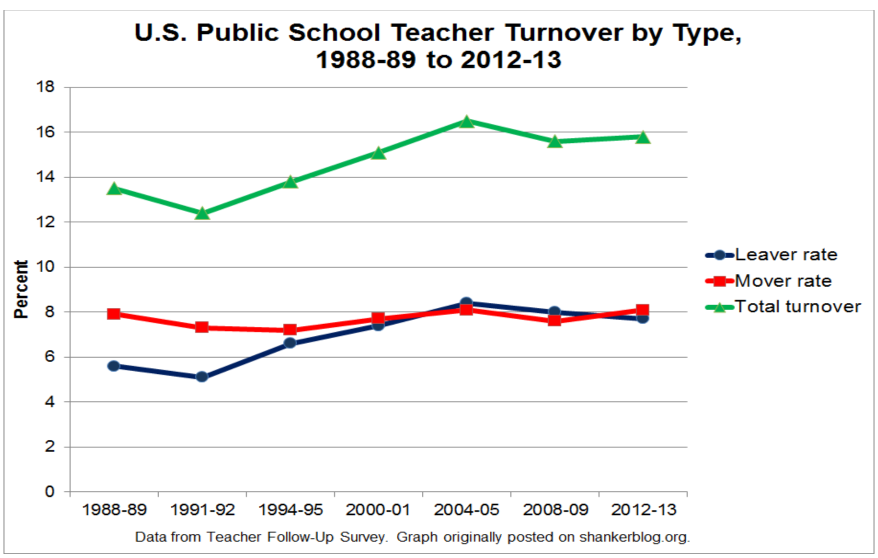
Education reform has been an ongoing, ever changing task within our country since the first school opened in 1635. The Boston Latin School started a tradition that is unique to the United States in that we continue to attempt to match the learning of today to the work of tomorrow (Baden, 2014). Over time our economy and our education system has transformed from an agricultural base to manufacturing and finally to the technological age. With this transition, U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (2011) proclaimed the need for public education reform as real and desperately urgent; "Whether you look at it as a civil rights issue, an economic imperative, or as a matter of national security, we have to get better faster than ever before in education" (Duncan, 2011, p. 1). The fundamental importance of quality education has led to the creation of policies focused on the continued improvement of our school systems. In recent history, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and the reauthorization of Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) combined with initiatives such as Race to the Top (RTTT) and funding changes like Proposal A in Michigan, have worked to increase the depth and thoroughness of education, improve the quality of teachers in the classroom, and level funding gaps that are present within our schools.

Out of these policies, it is evident that the nucleus of educational reform lies with the classroom teacher. According to Shaw and Newton (2014), "if the most precious product developed in education is the student, then our most prized commodity should be the classroom teacher" (p. 101). It can be concluded that the best idea for transforming public education in America is to develop and retain highly qualified teachers. To build the capacity for transformation, schools must build the capacity of teachers. Increasing the capacity of the teaching staff takes time and is handicapped by the abundance of teachers, particularly newly hired teachers, who leave the profession inhibits a school district's ability to place qualified teachers in front of students.

There is an abundance of factors that affect student performance and education reform. By adjusting the deployment of human resources, capital resources and community resources, schools can alter the way curriculum is delivered and change the way students learn. However, the fulcrum for making major educational change is dedication to the success of the classroom teacher (Shaw & Newton, 2012). Success comes down to a firm, supportive foundation in every single classroom. This foundation is created by a harmony of the human, capital, and community resources supporting the teacher in the facilitation of learning. With each change to one of the pillars of the education system, the foundation begins to erode. The erosion takes its greatest toll on the human aspect of education. Teaching staff and administration feel the biggest burden, leading to an increase of attrition. According to research from Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017), teacher attrition in the United States has increased from 5% in the early 1990s to a current level of nearly 16% today. As market-based reform models have taken hold of our education system in the latter part of the 20th century, Figure 2.1 details the percentages of teachers who have either left the profession or moved to a new role outside the classroom.

Figure 2.1

U.S. Public School Teacher Turnover by Type, 1988-89 to 2012-13



Note. The Shanker Institute, by M. Di Carlo, 2015. http://www.shankerinstitute.org/blog/update-teacher-turnover-us.

This chapter is designed to review literature from a variety of scholarly journals and articles related to the theories of job satisfaction, job satisfaction within the teaching profession, and funding Michigan's of K-12 education. It focuses on three sections: Job Satisfaction, Educational Policy and Economic Decline.

Job Satisfaction

Historically, research on job satisfaction has demonstrated it to be a composite of the attitude or emotional response toward one's job (Coon, 1980; Lawler, 1973). According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the self-appraisal of one's job or job experience. Satisfaction is found in the perceived relationship of what one wants from their job and what it is offering. Though there is substantial research on job satisfaction, Bogler and Somech (2004) suggest that there is a need for further research into the effects of variables on teacher's job satisfaction.

Prior to understanding job satisfaction among teachers, the history of job satisfaction research needs to be explored as it is a large category that is made up of many stressors, all which have repercussions on educators. Hoppock (1935) designed one of the first and simplest measures to determine job satisfaction, the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank. Within the study, Hoppock (1935) was able to quantify an individual's perception and satisfaction within their job. The work allowed researchers to begin to study the relationships between overall job satisfaction and the variables that alter it. This began a foundation for further studies into job satisfaction. Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Human Needs and Herzberg, Mauser and Synderman's (1959) Motivator-Hygiene Theory are viewed as the cornerstones of job satisfaction research. Others have contributed to the advancement of the research, specifically McGregor's (1960) XY Theories and McClelland's (1984) Need for Achievement Theory.

In the Hierarchy of Human Needs, Maslow (1943) argued that people are motivated by unmet needs. He did this by focusing on five basic categories of human needs: (a) physiological needs like water, food and air; (b) safety needs like freedom from physical harm and economic security; (c) belongingness and love needs like positive associations with others (d) esteem needs like self-respect and a sense of achievement; and (e) self-actualization needs such as maximum self-development and accomplishment (Maslow, 1954). He indicated that most people were both partially satisfied and dissatisfied at the same time. The less satisfied a need was, the more power it had to be a motivating factor to the person (Maslow, 1954).

Maslow (1954) deduced that there is one category of need that is more important to satisfaction that any other category, calling it the ultimate need category. The ultimate need category was determined to be self-actualization. Self-actualization later defined by and became the foundation of McGregor's (1960) Theory Y. Extrapolating off of Maslow's (1954) work, McGregor (1960) defined self-actualization as self-direction, self-control, motivation and maturity. Behaviors such as liking work, seeking responsibility, ingenuity, and self-actualization fall under Theory Y (McGregor, 1960). Within Theory Y, McGregor (1960) assumes that effort within work comes as natural as it would at play or rest. McGregor (1960) believes that people are not inherently lazy. He also believes that under proper conditions the employee will seek and accept responsibility; if a job is found to be satisfying, the outcome will be a commitment to the organization in the way of ideas and suggestions that will improve organizational effectiveness (Chapman, 2005; Heil et al., 2000; McGregor, 1960).

In contrast to Theory Y, McGregor (1960) posited Theory X, often seen as conventional managerial assumptions. Theory X is based upon the belief that employees are lazy and incapable of self-direction or completing autonomous work (Chapman, 2005; Heil et al., 2000; McGregor, 1960). These employees have little to offer the overall improvement or well-being of the organization. According to McGregor (1960), there are two ways to implement Theory X within the workplace, the hard approach and the soft approach. The hard approach relies on close supervision, intimidation, and immediate punishment. The soft approach focuses on leniency and less strict rules in the hopes of creating high workplace morale.

Through the evaluation of an autocratic approach to management in Theory X and the enlightened, empowering approach to management of Theory Y, it became apparent that these two approaches fell on opposite sides of spectrum. To fill the gap that was prevalent, Ouchi (1981) developed Theory Z. Theory Z poses that job satisfaction comes from a strong company-based philosophy, a distinct corporate culture, long-range staff development and collaborative decision making (Ouchi, 1981). Much like McGregor's theories, Ouchi makes assumptions of workers in order to fit them into his theory. Ouchi (1981) assumed that workers want to build happy, intimate, working relationships. They need to be supported and highly valued by the company and they can be trusted to do their job within their ability if they are supported by management (Ouchi,1981). Though this theory makes assumptions of employees, it requires that to work within an organization management must have a high degree of confidence in the workers because this theory relies on participative management, requiring staff to be part of the decision-making process (Ouchi, 1981).

Also utilizing the foundational understanding created by Maslow, McClelland (1967) developed a theory arguing that societies experience economic growth or decline due to three motivational factors, the need for achievement, need for affiliation, and a need for power. McClelland named this theory the Learned Needs Theory. According to McClelland (1967), the dominant motivator for a person will differ based on their individual characteristics. It was also determined that an individual's dominant motivator is dependent on their culture and life experiences. Based on the individual characteristics of a person, their dominant motivator will differ.

McClelland (1967) identified three types of workers within the Learned Needs Theory. The three types are achievers, who like to solve problems and reach their goals, workers with a need for affiliation and do not like to stand out our take risks, and individuals with a strong power motivator who need to oversee situations. This theory and the description of workers is comparable to more current research, specifically Sirota's (2005) Three-Factor Theory. Siorta's (2005) Three-Factor Theory exclaims that employees start a job with enthusiasm and the motivation to do well; then, over time, company policies, poor work conditions and inadequate relationships lead to a loss of that motivation. Both theories assume that people begin their job with a high level of enjoyment and satisfaction, however if certain individual needs are not met, the level of satisfaction declines over time.

Maslow allowed one avenue of job satisfaction research to develop, however Herzberg established a separate set of core beliefs that became a basis of future research. When Hoppock began his study of job satisfaction in 1935, it involved working adults in industrial occupations and school teaching thus opening the door for Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivator-Hygiene Theory. This is also known as the Two-Factor Theory. The Motivator-Hygiene Theory states that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction result from two different causes (Herzberg et al. 1959).

Through the analysis of research participants, Herzberg extrapolated two sets of factors that impact job satisfaction. One set was intrinsic and the other extrinsic. The intrinsic factors involved the actual work that is being done and the content in which it entails; he labeled these as motivators. Motivators include achievement, recognition, and the work itself. Each of these variables will cause satisfaction. The extrinsic factors focus on the conditions that surround the job. Herzberg labeled these as hygiene factors. They consisted of co-worker relationships, salary, working conditions, and the supervisor; all which can lead to dissatisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that the ideal situation for employees is one where there is high hygiene and high motivation; the employees are highly motivated and have few complaints. He created a foundation of knowledge through researching working conditions and how supervision impacts job satisfaction. This foundation allowed the researchers who came after him to build a deeper understanding of the importance of the supervisor and work group relationships (Homans, 1950). An example of the continued research and refinement is the work of Sergiovanni. Sergiovanni (1967) continued research into the Two-Factor Theory, finding that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tend to be mutually exclusive.

Over time, Herzberg et al., (1959) continued to refine the meaning of employee satisfaction to include the work itself. He found that true job satisfaction comes from allowing individuals to have the responsibility and opportunity to grow mentally. Critics of the model contend Herzberg's model contends that the same factors that cause job satisfaction can cause dissatisfaction (Brunetti, 2001). As an example, the amount of money an employee is paid can be a component that leads to job satisfaction if it is adequate for the work or dissatisfaction if they feel they are being underpaid.

Derived from Herzberg's (1959) work, Locke (1961) created three major categories related to employee job satisfaction: physical-economic, social (human relations), and the work itself. Each fit neatly into the belief that job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1961). According to

Locke (1961):

> Job dissatisfaction is the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing.

Out of this, Locke's (1976) description of content theory explains that job satisfaction pertains to human needs. Locke's (1967) commentary on human needs determined that they must be satisfied or the individual's values must be attained for a worker to feel job satisfaction. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is based on the difference between what is wanted from a job and what is received form the job. The valuable parts of the job, according to the person completing the job, are the things that alter satisfaction. When valued items are positively present and expectations met, an individual's satisfaction is raised. Conversely, when valued items are not present or are negatively affected, satisfaction lessons (Locke, 1976). According to this theory, satisfaction is based on the individual finding valued aspects in their job. These valued aspects allow their experiences to fall within Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Human Needs and Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory. Herzberg et al., (1959) describes these needs as things such as achievement, potential for advancement and the work one is doing, while salary, working conditions and supervision produce hygiene.

Vroom (1962) continued to describe job satisfaction as an affective orientation on the part of an individual toward roles which they are presently occupying. Positive attitude toward the work is conceptually equivalent to job satisfaction and negative attitudes toward the job is conceptually equivalent to job dissatisfaction. Through his research, Vroom challenged assumptions that people report different levels of job satisfaction based on differences in the nature of the job being performed. Instead, he proposed an expectancy theory of motivation.

Within Vroom's (1962) theory, the probability of a person performing an act is a direct function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valence of outcomes and expectancies that they will occur given the act. Vroom's theory deviates from Herzberg in that Vroom regards job satisfaction not solely as a function of passive job roles, but a mixture between a person's expectation of a desired outcome and their attainments. This is important when evaluating the job satisfaction of teaching staff as Vroom adds the dimension of human values to the overall theory of job satisfaction.

Much like Vroom, Weitz (1952) developed a satisfaction theory that relied more on the worker and less on the job being performed. The Dispositional Theory states that one's disposition will be the determining factor when evaluating job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. (Weitz, 1952). When applying this theory, job satisfaction tends to be stable throughout a lifetime, regardless of the job or age (Weitz, 1952). Weitz (1952) Dispositional Theory was further explained by Judge's research completed in 1993. Judge continued expansion of the worker's experience by stating each person has four core self-evaluations that factor in a person's disposition: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and neuroticism (1993). Self-esteem is the value one sees in him or herself. Self-efficacy is the belief in one's own competence. Locus of control is the feeling of internal control over one's life. Neuroticism is a prolonged period of negative emotions. Judge (1993) discovered that people with high self-esteem, high self-efficacy and high locus of control tend to have high job satisfaction. Additionally, people with low neuroticism tend to have high job satisfaction (Judge, 1993).

Hackman and Oldman (1976) moved beyond the individual's impact on their job satisfaction and evaluated how the characteristics of the job affect one's job satisfaction. The five core job characteristics include skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Each of these characteristics can have an impact on the three psychological states that are described by Hackman and Oldham (1976), experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of actual results. According to Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model, these three psychological states influence an individual's job satisfaction.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a reaction to an individual's work situation. It can be defined as an overall feeling about one's job or career or in terms of specific facets of the job or career such as compensation, autonomy, coworkers. It can also be related to specific outcomes, such as productivity (Perie & Baker, 1997). Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue since it is associated with teacher effectiveness, which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Carnegie Task Force on Teaching, 1986). Ostroff (1992) believes that job satisfaction among teachers is directly correlated with higher student academic achievement, greater student satisfaction and lower levels of discipline problems. Further, job satisfaction is a leading cause of teacher turnover, which again impacts student learning (Barnes et al., 2007; Brown, 2007; Chapman & Hutcheson, 1982). Dissatisfaction with working conditions causes teachers to change schools or leave the profession altogether (Marvel et al., 2007; Stuit & Smith, 2012). As observed by Guin (2004) and Stuit and Smith (2012), increased turnover is a sign of a troubled educational system.

There are both intrinsic and extrinsic factors that shape teacher job satisfaction. These variables make teacher job satisfaction a difficult but important research topic as the teacher drives the education of students. Twenty to thirty percent of beginning teachers are leaving the profession within the first 5 years (American Federation of Teachers, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Stuit & Smith, 2012; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017), therefore, understanding the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that transform teacher job satisfaction has become a focal point of educational leaders. According to Sahlberg (2011), teaching is a profession which is typically driven by values, ethical motives, or intrinsic motivations.

As found with theories of general job satisfaction, literature on teacher job satisfaction provides many definitions. For teachers, satisfaction can come from classroom activities, daily interactions with students, and teacher control of the learning environment (Perie & Baker, 1997). A variety of extrinsic factors have been associated with teacher satisfaction, including salary, perceived support from administrators, school safety, and availability of school resources (Choy et al., 1993). A positive school climate and social support clearly relate to teacher satisfaction and motivation while negatively related to burnout (Scheopner, 2010). These factors play a role in motivating teachers to enter the profession and impact the rate of turnover within the teaching profession. Though these factors help drive people to the teaching profession, there are other factors that wear down the influence of intrinsic motivators regarding job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Choi & Tang, 2011). However, increased work assignments, a more hectic workday and therefore less time for rest and recovery create an extrinsic factor that negatively affects satisfaction (Scheopner, 2010).

Teachers strive for and rely on positive relationships with colleagues and parents, an abundance of resources, and self-motivation to increase their level of job satisfaction (Scheopner, 2010). Research has clearly pointed to a connection between relationships, resources and self-motivation and how a staff member perceives their job (Scheopner, 2010; Chaplain, 2008; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2012). When Lortie (1975) completed a social portrait of America's teachers, teacher stress became a topic of interest for researchers and educational stakeholders (Chaplain, 2008).

Stress is often defined as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions from aspects of their work (Collie et al., 2012; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2012). Kyriacou (2001) continues by defining teacher stress as, "the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher" (p. 28). Most of these emotions surface when a teacher is placed in a situation where their ability to adequately respond is not enough for the demands they are facing. Teacher stress is inversely related to teacher self-efficacy and positively related to poor teacher-student rapport and low levels of teacher effectiveness (Abel & Sewell, 1999; Kokkinos, 2007).

Lortie (1975) believes that the level of teacher satisfaction is an individual's assessment of rewards that are gained in return for his or her teaching. He describes three types of rewards in teaching: extrinsic rewards, ancillary rewards, and psychic or intrinsic rewards. When comparing teaching to other occupations, the culture of the profession and the structure of its rewards deemphasize extrinsic rewards and encourage intrinsic rewards. Research within empirical studies have identified stressors on teachers in areas of time pressure and workload, poor student motivation, large student diversity, discipline and behavior problems, administrative support and value conflicts (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016). Teaching has been consistently viewed as a highly stressful occupation across a range of cultural contexts, yet teachers continue to face burnout and reforms that do not get at the heart of the issue (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016).

Job related stress is inevitable regardless of one's career. Hoy and Miskel (1991) regard teacher job satisfaction as a present and past-oriented affective state of like or dislike that results when an educator evaluates their work role. Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) believe job satisfaction describe how teachers feel about coming to work every day. Despite differences in definitions provided by researchers, they all agree that teacher job satisfaction is an affective reaction to work and other aspects pertaining to work. One of the most impactful aspects of teacher's daily work is the stressors that are involved.

Research also has shown that teachers are more satisfied when they work in elementary schools or smaller community schools; these specifics create harmony among organizational participants, thus raising levels of satisfaction (Chen et al., 2012). Proper communication among staff as well as a strong staff of collegiality within the school setting allows teachers to lower their level of stress and increase their job satisfaction and commitment (Klassen et al., 2010). This is often fostered through strong leadership.

Teacher stress and job satisfaction has led to an evaluation of the causes and outcomes of teacher burnout (Hultell et al., 2013). This is a concept distinct from stress itself. It is defined as the by-product of prolonged stress, where individuals experience emotional, physical and attitudinal exhaustion (Motseke, 1998). Negative emotions experience by teachers often lead to work related stress and then burnout. Klassan, Usher, and Bong (2010) suggest that the influence of teachers' attitudes and performance affect burnout. Teachers are at a high risk of burnout, the most vulnerable of those being the ones who are unsuccessful in coping with stress over a long period of time (Hultell et al., 2013). By being responsible for the day-to-day care of their students, teachers tend to have a heavier emotional investment in their occupational role when compared to other professionals (Greenberg et al., 1984). The emotional investment is increased in schools as staff demands increase. Higher percentages of students who receive free or reduced lunch, high levels of misbehavior and staff that are racially mismatched with their peers all add to the emotional investment and stress found in education (Renzulli et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012).

Stress is not the only indicator of job satisfaction. Across the nation, research on motivation has shown that student learning outcomes are directly related to teacher job satisfaction (Dolton & Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2011; Rebore, 2001). Pink (2010) described the three important factors for motivation in the workplace as autonomy, mastery, and purpose. Within a school setting, teachers find purpose in working with their students and seeing success. Motivation, morale, and job satisfaction is continued through the autonomy that is given within their classroom to deliver curriculum and the extended training teachers receive to master their craft. Though these are proven factors in staff motivation and morale within a school setting, these factors are being stripped away from teachers with the guise of greater accountability (Peters & Passanisi, 2012). Job satisfaction within a teaching staff also refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward the work roles which they are presently occupying (Kalleberg, 1977). When a staff member takes a role within the school, they will try to reshape the role within the group so their personal needs can be actualized; their choice on how to attempt to reshape their role is based on where they find their motivation (Hoy & Hannum, 1997).

There are significant differences in the way teaching diverges from other professional careers. Unlike other professions, salary increases for educators are not typically based upon merit or production, but rather rely on years of service and continued education. Instead of salary as a way of motivation, teaching staff often rely on intrinsic motivators or other variables such as leadership, relationships, organizational factors and learning programs (Bialopotocki, 2006). Bialopotocki (2006) focused on various types of non-monetary recognition to determine if it influenced a teachers' sense of job satisfaction. By looking at recognition from principals, team leaders, peers, students and parents, it was determined that there is an impact on job satisfaction by these types of appreciations. This recognition assists in balancing the stressors and satisfaction a teacher feels, though is often not able to overcome all the extrinsic struggles associated with teaching. This lack of balance has caused a loss of available candidates for open teaching positions as non-monetary recognition in education is severely undermined by monetary rewards in the private sector (Bialopotocki, 2006).

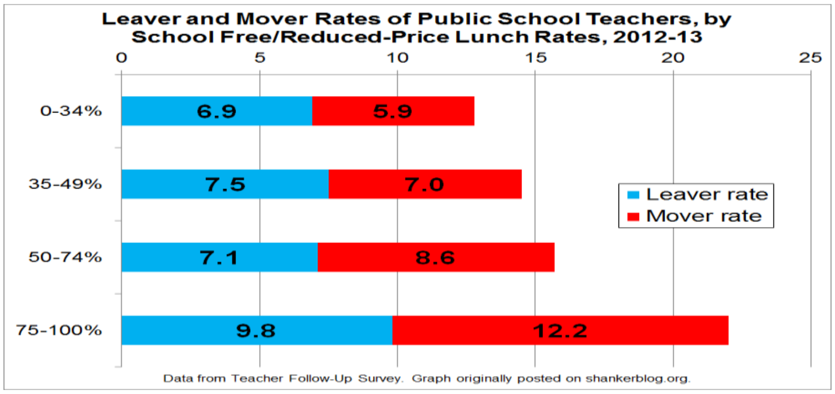
Over time, teachers have been leaving the profession as stressors increases and job satisfaction decreases. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future reported an average national cost of more than eight-thousand dollars to replace a teacher (Barnes et al., 2007). Since 2012, the yearly costs of recruiting, hiring, and training new teachers nationally was $2.2 billion per year in the United States (Hughes, 2014). This cost cuts into the funding that is directed toward classrooms, escalating the decline of resources available within districts. As school districts attempt to alter the direction of public education, the multitude of variables make it difficult to pinpoint what needs to be addressed. Recently, teacher turnover due to low salaries and poor working conditions have been a focus of policy makers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll and Smith, 2003; Millinger, 2004). Salaries and working conditions have been mirrored with the federal and state governments pushing market-based reforms on the issue of improving students' academic performance through increasing accountability (Brown, 2007).

The increase of accountability has added a level of uneasiness within the teaching and administration community. High stakes student assessments, which are tied directly to teacher evaluations, increase the turnover rates of educators (Brown, 2007). The use of standardized assessments to measure a teacher's performance level does not consider all the variables that impact a child. Instead of measuring the growth of the entire child, both academically and socially, these assessments compare same aged peers regardless of previous achievement levels. With funding cuts and increased accountability to achieve an undefined performance level, the rate of turnover of our nation's teachers rank significantly higher than other professions. This is emphasized further by the alarming number of teachers leaving the profession during their first few years of teaching (Ingersoll, 2001).

The turnover rate within the teaching profession increases when looking at districts that serve fringe populations such as low socioeconomic and minority populations. The districts that are within our urban centers and are the focal point of many reform efforts, particularly market-based reform efforts. Improving academic achievement among all students, and narrowing achievement gaps between white and nonwhite students, is consistently cited as reasons for pursuing urban school reform (Vinovskis, 2009). Though these reform efforts are targeted at increasing urban education appeal and shrinking achievement gaps of students, they are doing little to ignite passion within the teaching ranks, leading to increased turnover. Figure 2.2 illustrates the increase in the percentages of teachers who either leave the profession or move from their classrooms as the number of students who receive free and reduced lunch from the school increases.

Figure 2.2

Leaver and Mover Rates of Public-School Teachers, 2012-2013



Note. The Shanker Institute, by M. Di Carlo, 2015, http://www.shankerinstitute.org/blog/update-teacher-turnover-us.

A school's location, student body, poverty level, and level of student achievement affect the likelihood that it will retain qualified teachers (Allen, 2005; Barnes et al., 2007). Schools cannot control these factors, but they can control other elements that influence teacher satisfaction and turnover (Edmunds et al., 2016). As local educational authorities (LEAs) adapt to the changing dynamics of the educational culture, they must also adapt to the changes in and availability of funding. How districts make decisions regarding funding will have an impact on the morale of staff members. These factors are not the only variables that impact teacher job satisfaction. The efficacy felt by staff, both self-efficacy and collective efficacy play a role in teacher job satisfaction.

Findings on Teacher Job Satisfaction

A teacher is the essential medium to transmit knowledge to children (Brackett et al., 2010). This task makes being a teacher a demanding job with work often extending beyond the normal workweek experienced by employees of other professions (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Identifying factors and how the impact of those factors affects the job satisfaction of teachers can help policy makers and administrators understand the needs of current and future teachers as the landscape of education continues to change.

Job satisfaction of many professionals is motivated through extrinsic rewards such as salary and advancement. Teachers however are motivated in different ways. According to Lortie (1975):

> The culture of teachers and the structure of rewards do not emphasize the acquisition of extrinsic rewards. The traditions of teaching make people who seek money, prestige, or power somewhat suspect; the characteristic style in public education is to mute personal ambition. The service ideal has extolled the virtue of giving more than one receives; the model teacher has been "dedicated". (p. 102)

Lortie continued adding:

> It is of great importance to teachers to feel that they have "reached" their students- their core rewards are tied to that perception. Other sources of satisfaction (e.g., private scholarly activities, relationships with adults) pale in comparison with teachers' exchanges with students and the feeling that students have learned. We would therefore expect that much of a teacher's work motivation will rotate around the conduct of daily tasks - the actual instruction of students. (1975, p. 106)

Conclusions such as these demonstrate that teachers are motivated differently than individuals in other occupations. When measuring motivation and satisfaction with teachers, researchers need to recognize and be sensitive to these differences. Understanding what motivates and creates satisfaction with educators will allow for insight into what causes many to leave the profession, a dilemma that costs qualified professionals and financial resources.

Multiple variables effect a teacher on a day-to-day basis, therefore being able to determine the impact of each allow policy makers and educational leaders to ensure the classroom is a harmonious place for learning. Just as there has been much research on job satisfaction across other fields, job satisfaction within education has been a topic of much interest. Though there is an increased interest in the job satisfaction of teachers, the volume of studies on the topic pale in comparison to other fields. Almost all the existing studies related to job satisfaction have been performed in organizational and industrial settings with few researchers investigating job satisfaction within the education field. Only 13.7% of all studies on satisfaction are related to teacher satisfaction (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). Teacher job satisfaction has not been given its due attention because it is presumed that job satisfaction does not occur in the academic setting (Pearson & Seiler, 1983). Findings from the studies that have been completed assist in the development of the educational policies and the reform measures we are experiencing today.

Research on teacher job satisfaction began when Sergiovanni (1967) adapted Herzberg's (1964) two-factor theory to the field of education. Sergiovanni's inquires included whether there are two sets of factors, one of which performs a function of satisfying teachers and the other dissatisfying them within education. To test, he utilized Herzberg's (1964) original design with minor additions and modifications, focusing on a sample population consisting of 3,682 teachers in the school districts of Monroe County, New York. Of those teachers, 172 were randomly selected from the submitted employee lists and 70 of them consented to participate in the study. His analysis found that the factors that account for high and low job satisfaction were mutually exclusive, proving the existence of the two factors: Herzberg's motivators and hygiene (Sergiovanni, 1967).

Dinham and Scott (1998) have also completed research evaluating teacher job satisfaction utilizing Herzberg's hygiene and motivators. Their research determined there is a third domain of teacher satisfaction that sits outside of the hygiene and motivators. To a large extent their study verified the two-factor model showing that teachers and administrators are more satisfied by the intrinsic aspects of teaching such as student learning, discipline, relationships, self-growth and knowledge (Dinham & Scott, 1998). It also identified a third factor which sits on the outside of a hygiene and is a major source of teacher job dissatisfaction. The amplified expectations, increased accountability, and expanding responsibilities put on the shoulders of teachers during reform movements as well as the level of workloads have been identified as dissatisfiers. These are found outside the control of teachers and schools, instead found within the domains of society and governments.

Herzberg's theory is one of the most influential behavioral approaches to job satisfaction to date. However, Hackman and Lawler (1971) highlight limitations of the theory when applying it to education:

> Despite its considerable merit, there are several difficulties with motivation hygiene theory that compromises its usefulness. Researchers have been unable to provide empirical support for the major tenets of the two-factor theory. The difficulty compromises the degree to which the presence or absence of the motivating factors can be measured for existing jobs. Finally, the theory does not provide for differences in how responsive people are likely to be enriched through jobs. (p. 262)

The divisions between hygiene factors and motivators can also be dependent on how it is viewed. The two can appear more intertwined rather than completely exclusive. An example would be salary. It is traditionally viewed as a hygiene factor within the professional world.

When it is regarded as a form of recognition of good performance, it becomes a motivator for the worker (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). In education, however, salary is not tied to performance, often negating its ability to be a motivator. Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) concluded that there was an overall dissatisfaction with salary, responsibility, recognition and the possibility for growth within the teaching profession. Discrepancies such as this make it difficult to apply findings from other job satisfaction studies to studies focused on education.

Compensation is a widely researched area within teacher satisfaction literature; however, it is not necessarily a strong predictor of job satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000; Perie & Baker, 1997; Simonson et al., 2009). It is important to remember however that compensation is not simply the teacher's salary; it also includes benefits such as healthcare, retirement plans, paid sick leave, and other fringe benefits. These additions bolster the compensation a teacher receives and helps to offset non-reimbursed monies spent on materials and compared to other professions; a low salary relative to their level of education. This has a negative impact on job satisfaction. Teachers must receive a salary to cover their educational requirements and expenses otherwise they risk a decrease in job satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000). Teachers who receive compensation that they feel adequately reflects the effort and time that is put into their job, they have a higher level of satisfaction compared to those who do not (Cockburn, 2000).

Though there is a relationship between compensation and satisfaction, it is only modest. This is expected due to the impact of intrinsic rewards as opposed to extrinsic rewards on teaching staff. Perie and Baker (1997) notes that the teacher compensation, which includes salaries, benefits, and other opportunities within the school for income such as coaching or mentoring were only moderately related to teacher job satisfaction. Lortie (1975) notes that teaching is a special but shadowed profession that limits the impact of extrinsic rewards:

> Unlike extrinsic and ancillary rewards, the psychic rewards of teachers fluctuate; the teacher's enjoyment of his work can vary. Effort will not make much difference in the flow of extrinsic and ancillary reward, at least in the short run. Effort, on the other hand, might increase task-related satisfaction. The structure of teaching rewards, in short, favors emphasis on psychic rewards. The culture emphasizes service. (p. 98)

Choy and Tang (2011) also found that individuals do not enter the teaching profession for financial gain. This is evident with research showing the differences in the impact of intrinsic verse extrinsic motivators on teacher job satisfaction. Intrinsic rewards such as student growth, relationships and continued learning are a better gauge of teacher job satisfaction (Choy & Tang, 2011). The lack of high variability on compensation makes it difficult to find a statistically significant relationship between teacher compensation and job satisfaction (Conley, 1989).

Recognition and opportunities for advancement are also important institutional characteristics that alter job satisfaction (Bower, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Simonson et al., 2009). Legislation in the United States requires teachers to be evaluated every year. In Michigan, evaluation, now a non-bargainable entity, has become increasingly important when determining satisfaction. Typically, evaluation is completed by administrators while looking at teacher's moral standing, teaching competence, and professional achievements (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). This ranking system is the formal way that school districts recognize teachers for their skills and competence; those who are recognized for this and their achievements have higher levels of job satisfaction (Simonson et al., 2009; Sloan Consortium, 2006).

Continuing the research on teacher job satisfaction through the past two decades, scholars have identified specific sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teaching staff. The literature produced based on teacher characteristics, school characteristics and organizational characteristics articulates a woven together understanding of teacher job satisfaction (Klassan & Chiu, 2010). It is important to note that each of these categories overlap. Ideally, studies would be able to exclusively identify each factor to adequately understand its impact, however the multiple variables of the teaching profession such as intrinsic motivations, relationships, overwork, awareness of how teachers are viewed and valued in society, and poor pay does not allow for this to happen (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Viel-Ruma et al., 2010; Wagner & French, 2010;).

With so many stressors, satisfaction is often difficult to find within teaching and turnover has become an increasing issue within the education system. A study conducted by Hall, Pearson, and Carroll (1992) investigated why teachers choose to leave the profession. A random sample of 6,500 teachers from a large urban school district in Florida were surveyed with 22 percent indicating they were going to quit teaching (Hall et al., 1992). The teachers placed an emphasis on insufficient rewards and recognition, limited opportunity for advancement, and stressful working conditions as their reasons for choosing to leave (Hall et al., 1992). This study was on the heels of a similar investigation done by Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) which studied the differences between teachers who started and stayed in the profession and those that left. It evaluated differences in skills and abilities of staff as well as the criteria that is used to judge these differences. This was used to find reasons for leaving the profession.

Lee, Dedrick, and Smith (1991), found that personal demographics were overall not significantly related to job satisfaction, though some areas did demonstrate an impact. Through using a Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficients for the association of teacher job satisfaction with gender, minority status, and years of experience in education, Dedrick and Smith (1991) determined the association is 0.03, 0.02, and 0.05. When there is a connection between gender and satisfaction, findings demonstrated that male teachers tend to be more satisfied that female teachers (Callister et al., 2006; Hult et al., 2005). The inconsistencies within the research pertaining to the demographic impact on job satisfaction could be due to the different definitions of satisfaction and the different understandings of what it means to be satisfied.

Moving beyond gender differences, age has showed to be a determiner in job satisfaction among teachers. Young teachers are less satisfied and more likely to leave their schools than their older counterparts (Viel-Ruma et al., 2010). According to Fugate and Amey (2000), most change in teaching status occurs between their first and fifth year of teaching. Marital status has also been proven to have a positive influence on teacher satisfaction, showing that married women over 40 years of age are the most satisfied staff members (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Noordin & Jusoff, 2009). In all, gender, age and years of teaching experience are the only demographic characteristics that were found to be associated with teacher satisfaction, yet it is only significant within elementary school teachers (Noordin & Jusoff, 2009).

Determining the impact of school factors in relation to teacher job satisfaction has also been a focus of researchers. Perie and Baker's (1997) study included workplace variables made up of administrative support, availability of resources, communication with principal, cooperation among the staff, student behavior, decision making roles, staff recognition, control in the classroom, influence over school policy, student absenteeism, parental support, amount of paper work and routine duties, student apathy, and violence. Schools also provide ample opportunity for teachers to isolate themselves from peers, putting a premium on leadership ensuring teachers feel as though they are part of the school process. Meister (2010) found that collaboration among staff ties into job satisfaction. Meister also argued that teachers become inspired, learn and grow professionally, and find their identity within a group, therefore collaboration within a group is a powerful strategy to increase satisfaction. Perie and Baker's (1997) study concluded that administrative support, administrative leadership and school atmosphere, all cultural characteristics found in a school with a transformational leader, have the greatest impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Stoll (1992) also evaluated the importance of leadership in balancing the needs of teaching staff to increase job satisfaction, specifically in relation to the decision-making process within a school. School employees, specifically teachers make hundreds of decisions throughout a day, however they are often excluded from the decision-making process that directly affects them. When this happens, a gap is created between the person who made the decision and those affected by it. The gaps and lack of commitment to educational goals that is created promotes teachers working in isolation, making it hard for them to imagine collaborating (Stoll, 1992). The teamwork that comes from group decision making serves as an integral cog in educational growth. When teachers work together, they are provided a built-in support system that enables them to talk about their teaching and learning, form relationships, build culture and increase satisfaction (Meister, 2010).

As teachers gain satisfaction from their work, the autonomy they have within their organization allows for them feed their intrinsic motivators. According to Conley (1989):

> One of the most important issues to consider when examining organizational work characteristics that contribute to teachers' career dissatisfaction is that teachers view themselves as professionals. As such, teachers expect to have a high level of work autonomy, to serve as their own judge, and to be highly involve in decision-making. The

rights that teachers expect as professionals, however, often conflict with their roles as members of bureaucratic organizations. (p. 143)

Organizational features have also been a focus of the research regarding teacher job satisfaction. A component of this includes the community's socioeconomic status, level of diversity and size of schools/district, as well as district-controlled characteristics such as deployment of resources, infrastructure, access to continued professional development and research opportunities. District leadership can influence these attributes by creating policies that allow support for teachers and alleviate stress while developing a sense of trust, collaboration, and culture within the district (Cockburn, 2000; Finnigan, 2012).

The culture within a district is created by the assumptions and beliefs that operate unconsciously within its members. Sharing a common culture with a group, specifically within the teaching staff, can increase each member's sense of belonging and move the group toward a common goal. Ma and MacMillan (1999) used a regression analysis to examine how culture, made up of demographics and workplace conditions affect teacher job satisfaction. Using all 6th grade teachers in the English portion of New Brunswick (N=2,202), it was determined that organizational culture had a statistically significant and positive impact on job satisfaction (significance level of <0.001 and an effect size of 0.11). This study shows that teachers who work in a positive culture and environment have a higher level of job satisfaction. Given the positive organizational outcomes associated with high levels of job satisfaction, as well as the negative consequences of job dissatisfaction, school leaders focus on improving teacher job satisfaction by recognizing their personal needs and praising their successes (Aziri, 2011; Danish & Usman, 2010; Furnham et al., 2009).

Researchers have also evaluated variables that specifically cause dissatisfaction within teacher jobs, specifically increased academic accountability and conflict among people. A major contributor to teacher job dissatisfaction has been reform efforts that increase standardized testing and apply student scores to teacher effectiveness. In 2008, Scheuring-Leipold investigated how high stakes testing impacted job satisfaction across highs schoolteachers in New York. The hope of this study was to help determine how school districts could offer supports to staff to increase job satisfaction and therefore increase student achievement (Scheuring-Leipold, 2008). The study found that the increasing of standardized testing had a negative effect on teacher job satisfaction while identifying ways in which the school district to support staff through the reform measures (Scheuring-Leipold, 2008). The increase of standardized testing is just one area of satisfaction that needs to be understood within education. As a profession that works with other people, relationships are another avenue that must be explored.

Weller (1982) also found that a major cause of teacher dissatisfaction involves people problems. He explained that Maslow's theory can provide a foundation for schools to utilize when attempting to meet teacher needs. This was further demonstrated in Cockburn's (2000) study that showed teachers with low level needs were finding them met, thus have more satisfaction compared to those with high level needs. Both Weller (1982) and Cockburn (2000) confirmed Maslow's (1954) theory with his hierarchy stating that low level needs must be met before higher level needs can be addressed.

Research on teacher job satisfaction has been able to discover variables that can increase or decrease teacher job satisfaction. Unpacking these variables allows for a better understanding of how leaders can create avenues for teachers to reach maximum satisfaction within the workplace. The understanding of self-efficacy, collective efficacy, reform efforts, funding changes, policy adoptions and school leadership builds a foundation to increase job satisfaction.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to accomplish desired outcomes, affect behavior, motivation and success or failure (Bandura, 1997). For a teacher, self-efficacy is further defined as their perceived ability of knowledge and ability to influence student behavior or academic ability. Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009), determined that there is evidence that shows a correlation between a teacher's self-efficacy with the goals that are set, efforts that are invested in their teaching and their persistent response when challenges arise. Gosselin and Maddux (2003) took a different avenue when defining teacher self-efficacy. They believe that it is not a set of competencies or skills rather is an individual's prediction about their behavior or intent to achieve a desired goal (Gosselin & Maddux, 2003).

A person's efficacy determines how environmental opportunities and challenges are viewed, how much time is spent on an activity, and the amount of persistence a person will exert when facing adversity (McCoach & Colbert, 2010). This becomes increasingly important within the teaching profession as it is consistently facing change at a rapid pace. Researching about teacher self-efficacy provides information and actions associated with a teacher's attitude, beliefs and perceptions allows for leaders to have insight into teaching practices, specifically how the teacher creates their working environment, instructional practices and manages classroom behaviors (Yilmaz, 2011). When a teacher has control of their working environment and the autonomy to make decisions within their teaching practices, they have shown to have a higher level of job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Yilmaz, 2011).

Bandura (1997) posited that teachers' perception of self-efficacy is based on the following factors: verbal persuasion, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and their emotional response to anticipating and practicing teaching. Bandura's believes that these factors are specific to the teaching profession due to teachers forming perceptions from their personal strengths without regard to requirements of tasks or initiatives presented to them. Similarly, Clipa (2010) described teacher's self-efficacy as being developed within the experience of teaching through reflecting upon experiences and teaching modalities. Reflecting and analyzing practices as well as moving through the evaluation of experience contribute to the development of self-efficacy and motivation of the teacher; each of which is directly related to the teacher's job satisfaction (Clipa, 2010).

Collaborative learning is also used to build a teacher's self-efficacy. This type of learning involves teachers working together in small groups that focus on enhancing the capacity of both the individual and the group. Ruys, Keer, and Aelterman's (2010) research unveiled that collaborative learning is a key part to engaging staff, specifically the teaching staff in the process of instructional innovations. Learning from peers and reflecting on that learning allows teachers to grow, develop their pedagogy, and enhance their self-efficacy (Ruys et al., 2010). While teachers work within the walls of their classroom, the ability to share and learn with peers increases the collective efficacy of the school. Collective efficacy also has the ability to impact teacher job satisfaction.

Collective Efficacy

A school system is best known for the quality of instruction and the rate of student progress within the individual classroom. Each of these lead to a higher level of job satisfaction within the teaching staff (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016). What is not seen however is the collective work that is utilized to establish their culture and operate under a system of interdependence. Success of students and of the school is a product of the efforts of the teachers within their classroom and the interdependence that exists between groups of teachers and their administrators contribute to a teachers' collective sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1993). Just as important as a teacher's self-efficacy, working together as a group, engaging with peers to adjust to and attack educational changes, increases teacher job satisfaction (Bandura, 1993). Collective teacher efficacy focuses on the development of teacher's collective efforts to contribute to student's academic achievement (Bandura, 1993; Goddard & Goddard, 2001). As research has shown, the ability to form relationships and work toward a common goal, as well as build culture within an organization creates an environment that drives engagement and increases productivity.

The increased district and building-wide accountability systems that were proposed and enacted through No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top promoted the utilization of structures to build teacher capacity to work collaboratively to achieve the goals of the organization. Pressures placed on school districts to analyze performance, create programs to address deficiencies and increase student performance, puts a premium on working collectively as they increase accountability and inherently reduce job satisfaction (Brown, 2007). Building on the role of self-efficacy in individual and group performance, collective efficacy increases the ability of individuals to come to promote achievement for the group.

Findings have shown that teachers likely possess a strong sense of self-efficacy, however, there is a great need for leadership and a culture within their school to produce collective efficacy and promote student achievement. Continuing, collective efficacy is established from nurtured indicators that promote self-efficacy such as vicarious experience, past experience, verbal persuasion and emotional experiences (Klassen et al., 2010). Leadership, specifically transformational leadership, builds staff morale and create an atmosphere that increases job satisfaction.

Leadership's Impact on Satisfaction

Policy is not created to champion schools that are already successful in creating students who are ready to impact our world in a positive way. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), the current governing federal policy regarding education, does however give schools an outline of what determines a successful school (Klein, 2015). A key component within this outline is teachers and staff engaging in ongoing professional development to equip themselves with effective, research-based, strategic instructional practices. Educational policy has moved moving much of the decision making to state and local control regarding the choices in curriculum and the spending of money. With this, it becomes increasingly important that leaders embody characteristics which allow them to find the pulse of the collective whole while maintaining the vision of the district or state that they represent. As the level of leadership gets closer and closer to the classroom, the type of leadership becomes more and more important to ensure the transition of school performance and the satisfaction of its employees.

Researchers and authors have theorized the important role leadership places in creating an empowering environment, promoting teacher satisfaction and self-efficacy (Davies & Wilson, 2000). Leaders nurture intrinsic empowerment through encouraging and establishing positive, collaborative relationships while strengthening personal and professional growth (Darling-Hammond, 2003).

Prior to 1990, research distinguished between two approaches to leadership: task-oriented style (transactional leadership) defined as a concern with accomplishing assigned tasks by organizing task-relevant activities with systematic rewards and punishments, and an interpersonally orientated style (transformational leadership). The interpersonally orientated style is defined as a concern with maintaining interpersonal relationships by tending to others' moral and welfare (Eagly et al., 2003).

A distinction between task and interpersonal styles of leadership was introduced by Bales (1950) and further developed by leadership researchers at Ohio State University (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; House & Aditya, 1997) and the University of Michigan (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Likert, 1961). Both the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies were developed to determine the best type of superior and subordinate relationship to increase production and satisfaction within a company.

Within the Ohio State study, two types of leadership were evaluated for outcomes. Researchers looked at the initiating structure, which is task-oriented leadership, and a consideration model which has a focus on relationships and supportiveness between group members (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). The Michigan study came just after World War II and compared employee-oriented leadership and production-oriented leadership (Likert, 1961). Outcomes from both studies demonstrated that though task-oriented and output focused leadership will create increased production, they have a negative impact on worker satisfaction and turnover. Though not initially defined as a leadership style, these two studies created an understanding that there is more to employee satisfaction than work output. From here, the ideals of transactional and transformational leadership styles were able to develop.

Ensuring that there is an instructional leader as close to the classroom as possible will allow for schools to leverage resources to improve low-performing schools and continue success of the high-performing ones. As with policy, the idea of the type of leader needed to transform schools has changed overtime. Toward the beginning of our country's educational journey, leaders were identified through the possession of specific character traits that allowed them to be the torch carriers in the face of change; these traits are generally found to be psychological in nature (Antonakis et al., 2012; Colbert et al., 2012). Boyatzis (2008) viewed these traits as being embedded in personality, whereas competencies are behavioral skills, influenced by a person's traits. Through the development of policy, it has become less and less important to find people with inherent traits but more and more important to develop a leader's skillset.

The leadership style of a teacher's superior has been found to influence their job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Nguni et al., 2006). According to Burns (1978), leadership is different from power because it is inseparable from the followers' needs. Bogler (2001), concluded that a transformational leader contributes positively to a teacher's relationship satisfaction. To do this, transformational leaders must be able to intellectually stimulate teachers, have charisma and articulate a clear vision, allowing them to elevate the level of morality within others (Bogler, 2001; Burns, 1978; Nguni et al., 2006; Tafvelin, 2013). The transformational leader works with staff to identify organizational needs, creates a vision for guidance and executes necessary change with the help of members of the group (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2014).

According to Yukl (2010), "Transforming leadership appeals to the moral values of followers to raise their consciousness about ethical issues and to mobilize their energy and resources to reform institutions" (p. 261). There are four components of transformational leadership: idealized influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (McCleskey, 2014; Northouse, 2010). Though these components are found within this leadership style, it is important for the followers to adopt the leader's beliefs and attitudes rather than merely superficially imitating aspects of a leader's behavior (Conger, 1989). These four components are mirrored by Collins (2001) research into the skills needed to become a great leader. Collins (2001) explained that a great leader must develop humility, ask for help, take responsibility, develop discipline, find the right people and lead with passion. By honing these traits, one can become a charismatic leader. A charismatic leader ensures workers are given an articulate, inspirational vision that will influence them and allow for internalization of the attitudes and beliefs of the leader (Yukl, 2010). This internalization forms the direction of the organization and create an intrinsic motivation for improvement.

Implementing a transformational leadership style takes time before the leader's influence employees. Tafvelin (2013), showed that leader continuity enhances the effect transformational leadership has on clarity and commitment within the organization. Transforming leaders have a clear, concise vision of the state of and future of their organization (Northouse, 2010). A transformational leader works to motivate their followers to be innovative, analytic and creative, by focusing on an image of an attractive, realistic, and believable future (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Transformational leadership leads to an increase in organizational commitment, intellectual stimulation and inspiration within the workplace (Tafvelin, 2013).

Zineldin (2017) believes that emotions attained by having a transformational leader create more enthusiasm, happiness, and a sense of pride in the workplace leading to greater job satisfaction. By supporting a teacher's intellectual development through infusing excitement and enthusiasm, a transformational leader is able to increase job satisfaction (Celik, 2003). This happens by creating a positive organizational climate, achieving goals, and increasing the organizational commitment of stakeholders through motivating followers and paying close attention to them (Deluga & Souza, 1991; Leithwood & Janetzi, 1999; Rowold & Schlotz, 2009).

While a transformational leader works to build the capacity and collegiality within the organization, a transactional leadership style is one that promotes compliance through a system of rewards and punishments and refers to the bulk of leadership models (Bogler, 2001; Burns, 1978). Contingent reward is the first of two transactional leadership factors (Northouse, 2010). "It is an exchange process between leaders and followers in which effort by followers is exchanged for specified rewards" (Northouse, 2010, p. 181). The second factor within a transactional leadership style is management-by-exception (Northouse, 2010). Management-by-exception takes two forms, active and passive. Within the active form, the leader watches closely for mistakes and then takes corrective action whereas within passive management, the leader only intervenes when a problem has arisen (Northouse, 2010).

This type of leadership can exist because it meets the lower level needs that are identified in Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs Theory. By using a system of rewards for positive outcomes, transactional leaders focus on the lower level needs by stressing the completion of specific tasks (Hargis et al., 2011). Aamodt (2016) discovered that this type of leader focuses on contingent positive reinforcement by giving rewards when goals are accomplished on time, ahead of time, or to keep subordinates working at a good pace throughout completion. Aamodt (2016) continues describing transactional leaderships as management-by-exception; in this, the leader monitors performances and takes immediate corrective action if something goes wrong.

Scholars have combined and idealized the influence and inspiration of motivation that is found within transformational leadership under the heading of charismatic-inspirational leadership, or simply charismatic leadership (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hunt, 1999). This becomes important when identifying differences between transactional and transformational leadership. In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leadership theory ignores the role of individual differences between leaders (Bass, 2008). Charisma, a key pillar in transformational leadership, is one of the individual differences that is ignored. Though both types of leadership continue to contain similarities, it is important to understand the differences that separate the two types of leaders and further impact the satisfaction of their subordinates.

A fundamental hypothesis of transformational-transactional leadership theory that has been often discussed but not thoroughly tested is the augmentation effect (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Bass (1998) described the augmentation effect as the degree in which "transformational leadership styles build upon the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performances of followers" (p. 5). This representation does not mean that transactional leadership can act as a substitute for transactional leadership, rather, transactional leadership theory is the basis in which transformations are built upon (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). In Bass's (1985) description, transactional leadership is a result of followers meeting expectations. When their end of the transaction, or their work, is finished, they are rewarded accordingly. To move beyond completing basic tasks, the augmentation hypothesis suggests that a transformational leader is needed (Bass, 1998). Research has been careful to note however that transformational leadership adds beyond transactional leadership, but not vice versa (Bycio et al., 1995).

The relationship that is created between transactional and transformational leadership offers validity to the usage of transactions to build compliance before transformation can take place. Bass (1998) believes that there are theoretical reasons that transformational leaders will uses transactional leadership, specifically that the "consistent honoring of transactional agreements builds trust, dependability, and perceptions of consistency with leaders by followers, which are each a basis for transformational leadership" (p.11). There are vast differences between transactional and transformational leadership. Though these differences require contrasting levels of leaders to accomplish outcomes, past research dictates that for the best organizations and job satisfaction, a leader must build upon leadership styles to truly move the organization forward (Bass, 1998).

Leadership within a school setting has an important impact on teacher job satisfaction, especially as reform measures begin to take hold of our educational system. Schools are addressed based on their attributes, particularly student performance. With this as a major variable within reform, legislators continually look for policy measures that will shrink achievement gaps while limiting fiscal resources required to meet the needs of our students. This is done through set measures designed to alter learning.

When policy provided specific prescriptions to schools that were low-performing, leaders who held transformational traits were able to guide LEAs. There was less need to dramatically alter the beliefs of workers and ingrain new ideas as government was taking a top-down approach to educational growth. Due to the nature of the education system prior to *A Nation at Risk*, resources were not dedicated to the training and development of staff. Therefore, it was important to utilize the traits that were inherent within people to maximize potential. The utilization of traits extends beyond education to all fields of leadership. Collins' (2001) study identified the effective leader as one who, "catalyzes commitment to a compelling vision and higher performance standards, as well as one who goes beyond to build enduring greatness" (p. 20). By having a transformational leader, greatness can be achieved. According to Collins (2001), "if you don't change you will become irrelevant, you will eventually fail; but if you change too much, if you change without knowing why you are changing, then you risk the same fate" (p 23). Today's legislature has leaned heavily on market based educational reforms to create urgency among our leaders in hopes of enhancing student performance.

Market Based Reform

According to the Program of International Student Assessment (PISA), American schools underperform when compared to their international counterparts. PISA is a test taken every three years to measure reading ability, math and science literacy, and other key skills among 15-yearh-olds in 71 countries across the world (DeSilver, 2017). In 2015, PISA results placed the United States at an unremarkable 38th out of 71 countries in math and 24th in science. As our schools fight with policy, governance, and fluctuations, there have been multiple attempts to restructure and reform our educational system to meet the needs of an expanding economy. These reforms not only impact our communities, families and students, but have a lasting influence on teacher job satisfaction.

A prominent rallying cry for those who demand more autonomy and less government oversight within our school system is a market-based reform measure focused on school of choice. School of choice is not a new initiative or movement. It has taken many variations and was developed from multiple motivations over the course of our educational history. Each derivation of this reform was not only focused on what the student was learning but evaluated and altered how they were learning. Currently, choice in education refers to an individual seeking to improve their life's potential. When applied to education, it has created a platform for businesses and corporations to respond to the government monopoly of education.

School of choice originally began as a response to racial desegregation. It was a work around for families who did not want their children to attend a multiracial school. When *Plessy v. Ferguson* (Supreme Court of the United States, 1895) was overturned in 1954, school of choice became an avenue to continue segregation within our nation's schools. This was the beginning of many unintended consequences the federal government did not anticipate with school of choice and in turn market-based reforms. Parents choosing to not send their children to multiracial schools was first real development in school of choice, but it did not immediately create the mass reform movement we see today.

School of choice remained a regionally located issue within education at this time. It was not until Milton Friedman (1955) published his article on the role of government in education where school of choice became a movement within educational reform. According to Friedman, freedom of the individual took precedence over the needs of society (1955). This was a shift from the goals of traditional school reformers and even the most progressive educators of the time. Friedman argued that the only way to ensure that parents had the ability to choose was to provide the family with a voucher (funded via public monies) that could be applied at the school of their choosing:

> I shall assume a society that takes freedom of the individual, or more realistically, of the family, as its ultimate objective, and seeks to further this objective by relying on voluntary exchange among individuals for the organization of economic activity. (Friedman, 1955, p. 1)

Friedman's beliefs are credited with establishing school of choice as an educational reform movement, though today's understanding of school of choice and voucher systems did not become prevalent until the 1990's. In 2003, New York University Professor and Researcher of Public Policy and Public Administration, Joseph Viteritti explained that "Friedman predicted that competition would lead to the elimination of failing public schools, and that the availability of public dollars for private institutions would increase the supply of new schools" (2003, p. 247). Viteritti's research and commentary on Friedman's opinion would become a common theme within the school of choice movement. Maximizing choice has been seen as the way to meet the demands of families, which took precedence over the needs of the community, the schools and the staff members. Friedman believed that the only way families could truly be free to choose was if a market driven system guided public education. Market principles were seen as the most effective way to run, operate and reform the educational system (Friedman, 1955).

Friedman's ultimate vision of education in America was to supplant the existing school system with a marketplace of schools that were publicly financed and privately run. His plan mirrors the charter school movement that is currently ongoing in Michigan (Ni, 2009). Others have seen his vision as a plan for the demise of public education (Viteritti, 2003). Friedman (1955) believed the best system for education was one where governments would continue to administer some of the schools, but parents would be able to choose where to send their children. These schools would then be paid a sum equal to the cost of providing an education at a government run school, thus removing the "natural monopoly" the government had over the education system and permit the development of competition (Friedman, 1955).

Since the first introduction of school of choice in the segregated south and then a voucher system, choice has increasingly been linked to attempts to generate more equity among places of learning. Michigan has long been a breeding ground for school of choice and charter schools to attempt to provide equity to students. Proponents of these initiatives argue that by giving individuals control, they can choose an educational opportunity that makes sense for them. Educational leaders who have searched for equity through policy and standards see this choice as an avenue to blend the two and fix the direction of American education. Deborah Stone (2002) described educational equity as a policy built around the concept of redistribution of resources. School of choice policies are often designed with equitable distribution in mind, yet they typically lack clarity on what they mean by equality as an educational outcome. What might be considered equal to one individual is not equal to another (Stone, 2002). Simply offering a voucher or a choice to attend a school does not mean that it will provide an equal opportunity for those who are offered it.

The ability to attend a school does not mean the student has access to the school. Creating a school of choice system, especially when utilizing vouchers, often ignores the people that the system was meant to benefit. By allowing students to transfer from underperforming schools, market-based reform measures open avenues to schools that have higher performance. What has been missed by policy makers is that the students who are leaving the poor performing schools are often living in low socioeconomic areas. Ni (2009) found that the locations of charter schools and the families that choose to attend them differ systematically from the students who do not exercise their option or do not have the capacity to move. Being able to attend the higher performing schools does not mean that the family will have the resources available to utilize the voucher or choice program. Families with limited access to transportation can only choose between those schools and school districts that their mode of transportation gives them access to. The inequitable availability of resources such as transportation is often ignored by proponents of school of choice systems. Proponents of school of choice typically ignore the lack of resources that so many families have available to them.

The creation of school of choice and voucher systems have created competition that increases pressures placed directly on the teaching staff (Stone, 2002). By providing vouchers and choice to families, schools are being forced to find ways to become more marketable or face halting operations. (Stone, 2002). Unfortunately, the reality is that schools utilize student performance on state assessments to market themselves. These are the same assessments that decrease job satisfaction among teachers (Lortie, 1975; Noordin & Jusoff, 2009; Wagner &

French, 2010). Increased accountability and less autonomy have been the focus of these market-based reforms.

Ravitch and Vinovskis (1995) reaffirmed the deterioration of teacher job satisfaction by determining:

> The language of equity continues to be deployed by policy makers devising a new national course, state legislators crafting financing formulas, school administrators shaping an institutional mission, teachers designing a classroom environment, parents making decisions about their children's futures, and even fifth graders judging the fairness of their teacher's treatment. But so many and so conflicting are the meanings assigned to equity that the concept cannot be used as a yardstick for appraising school reform. (p. 98)

Though each of these variables fall within the equity we need as a country, the stress of delivering instruction to students within the web of legislation, funding formulas and evaluations increase stress and reduce satisfaction (Ostroff, 1992). In Michigan, this took hold of our school education system in 1993 when it became the eighth state to adopt a charter school. Michigan law identifies a public-school academy (PSA) is a state-supported public school that operated independently under a charter granted by an authorizing body (Ni, 2009). The passing of charter school law, a radical change in funding and drastic curricular policy changes altered the direction of teacher job satisfaction in Michigan.

Funding

Current policies that are shaping education reform are based on market measures that work to create choice for students and parents (Ravitch, 2010). This causes schools to compete to offer programs to students while lowering operational costs. While this happens, the discrepancy of funding between districts combined with the increased workloads on staff, create an environment that is not conducive to long-term employment (Ravitch, 2010). According to a report from the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, Michigan ranks 12th worst in education cuts. Since 2008, Michigan has cut per-pupil K-12 funding by 7.5 percent (Mitchell et al., 2016). This decrease in funding has directly caused reductions in pay for the staff members within our school systems, hindered the adoption of curriculum and limited the resources available to school districts across the state (Kruth, 2015).

Michigan's educational funding underwent a dramatic change in 1994 with the passing of Proposal A. Prior to the passing of Proposal A, Michigan's property tax burden was seventh highest in the United States in 1993 and 61.4 percent of total local school, revenues came from property these taxes; this is compared to a national average of 44.7 percent (Snyder & Hoffman, 1997). As a share of personal income, Michigan's property tax rose from 4.3 percent in 1978 to 5.0 percent in 1991 while the nation worked to reduce dependence on property tax. This trend continued in Michigan even with the government working to reduce property taxes between 1972 and 1993 (Knittel & Haas, 1998). It was not until Michigan Governor John Engler's election in 1990 where property taxes began to shift. In March of 1994, the Michigan legislature presented voters with two alternatives for the current tax system, Proposal A and a statutory plan that would be implemented had Proposal A not passed (Courant and Loeb, 1997).

In November 1994, Proposal A was approved by Michigan voters to reduce property taxes and in turn reduce the funding disparities among school districts across the state (Kruth, 2015; Lewis, 2015). Proposal A was not designed to bring perfect funding equity for all school districts, rather it was a plan to gradually reduce disparities by providing lower-funded districts with larger increases in their foundation allowance compared to their higher-funded peers

(DeGrow, 2017). Through Proposal A, a new approach that utilized a mixture of state and local taxes was established to fund the K-12 educational system was created. Instead of leveraging property taxes to fund education, the state altered its funding source to the state sales tax. While finances were shifting, it was accompanied by an overhaul of the administration and policy making arms of the education system. Local districts began to see a loss of control of the revenue available for their school's operation. Michigan's school finance was now a system highly centralized at the state level (Kruth, 2015). State taxes began to dominate school funding and Michigan saw the beginnings of a recession that has lingered through the current decade (Kruth, 2015; Lewis, 2015).

Created to assist with the funding of Michigan's education system, Proposal A has shown unintended consequences by slowing the growth of the total revenue available to Michigan's public schools (Arsen & Plank, 2003). Proposal A capped annual growth in taxable property values at the rate of inflation or five percent, whichever is less. With adjustment for inflation, statewide per-pupil revenue increased by 13 percent between 1994 and 2002 (Arsen & Plank, 2003). This is less than half of the increase that was seen in the ten years prior to the passing of Proposal A (Arsen & Plank, 2003). Though there has been less of an increase in funding, Proposal A has allowed the foundation allowance gap to close significantly. "The highest funded district in 1994 received a foundation allowance 3.7 times greater than the lowest-funded district, today it is only about 60 percent larger than the minimum received by most districts (DeGrow, 2017).

Proposal A had three major impacts within the finance system of the Michigan Department of Treasury. First, it produced a large reduction in property taxes; "according to the Michigan Department of Treasury, Michigan property taxes were 34.4 percent above the national average before Proposal A" (Arsen & Plank, 2003, p. 5). After implementation, property taxes fell to 14.8 percent below the national average, causing the millage rate on Michigan homes to decline by 44 percent (Arsen & Plank, 2003; Kruth, 2015; Leachman et al., 2016). Second, the change in policy was followed by the centralization of Michigan's school finance system. Prior to voting on Proposal A, two-thirds of Michigan's education funding raised came through the passing of a local millage. This allowed voters within a local school district to set their own property tax rates to support their schools (Arsen & Plank, 2003). Thus, wealthier municipalities were able to approve more mills, giving them the chance to raise more money for the operation of their public schools.

Post Proposal A, school districts with a millage rate over 18 in fiscal year 1993 had their millage rate reduced to 18 and the new law stipulated that districts only impose the millage on non-homestead properties. Homestead property is the place where you have your permanent home; all other property, except for certain qualifying agricultural property, is considered non-homestead property (Michigan Department of Treasury, 2017). The new finance system that was created levies a 6-mill tax on both homestead and non-homestead property. These monies go directly into the School Aid Fund (Warner, 2013). With this, LEAs now became required to levy an 18-mill tax on all non-homestead property (Warner, 2013). The funds collected cannot be boosted by additional taxes as districts are no longer allowed to levy additional mills to support general operations. To increase funds for specific projects, districts must pass bonds that will allow them to support maintenance and technological upgrades but cannot be put toward district personnel. Districts can also generate funds using a voter-approved recreational millage, which would provide revenue for public recreation facilities and playgrounds. These facilities are able to be located within the school or on its grounds as long as they are available for public usage.

In addition to the non-homestead millage, the state allowed the highest-spending school districts to levy a "hold-harmless" millage (Arsen & Plank, 2003). Hold-harmless ensures that districts can use voter approved millage funds to ensure they will not have a lower per-pupil allocation than they had prior to Proposal A. This ensures that districts are guaranteed the same funding they would have received if they were to raise operating funds through property taxes. The state also levied a flat property tax of 6 mills in addition to increasing in the sales, tobacco and real estate transfer fees. Proceeds from these taxes are deposited in the Michigan School Aide Fund (SAF) and distributed to school districts through a per-pupil grant.

Finally, Proposal A attempted to make funding for schools more equitable. "In 1993-1994, per-pupil spending in the highest-revenue school district was more than three times higher than spending in the lowest-revenue districts" (Arsen & Plank, 2003, p. 5). Since its application, the gap within the per-pupil foundation allowance has grown smaller (Arsen & Plank, 2003; Lewis, 2015; Michigan Department of Education, 2002; Warner, 2013). The reduction in the gap between districts comes because of the creation of a per-pupil School Aide Fund. The amount of the grant depends on which district the student resides in, but it is not dependent on the amount of local property taxes that are collected. The monies from the School Aid Fund are deposited in the district's general fund and pay for things such as labor, materials, utilities and maintenance.

School districts also receive revenue from the non-homestead taxes that are done at the local level. These local revenues, compromising of part of the district's foundation allowance, are offset dollar-for-dollar by reductions in the state foundation aid. Average levies on both types of property, homestead and non-homestead, was 34 mills prior to the reform (Murray, 2009; Warner, 2013). The new provisions demonstrate significant tax relief for voters with the reduction of homestead taxes but ultimately created an overall loss of funds with local control for school districts (Cullen & Loeb, 2004). The remaining state-based revenue needed for the foundation allowance comes from the School Aid Fund, which is financed by numerous state taxes. Table 2.1 shows the changes in revenue sources from pre-Proposal A to after its enactment.

Table 2.1

SAF Revenue Sources for K-12 in Michigan Before and After Proposal A

Revenue Source	Prior to Reform	Proposal A
Sales Tax	60% of proceeds from the 4% rate	60% of the 4% rate and 100% of the 2% increase
Use Tax	N/A	Revenue from 2% increase`
Income Tax	N/A	14.4% of collections from the 4.4% rate (down from 4.6%)
Real Estate Transfer Tax	N/A	All revenue from the .75% tax
Cigarette Tax (per pack)	$.02 of the $.25 tax	63.4% of $.75 tax
Other Tobacco Products	N/A	16% tax on wholesale price
Liquor excise tax	Revenue from the 4% tax	Revenue from the 4% tax

Table 2.1

SAF Revenue Sources for K-12 in Michigan Before and After Proposal A

Revenue Source	Prior to Reform	Proposal A
Lottery	Net revenue	Net revenue
State tax on all property	N/A	6 mills
Local homestead property tax	34 mills (average)	0 mills
Local non-homestead property tax	34 mills (average)	18 mills

Note. Michigan school finance under Proposal A; State Control, local consequences by D. Arsen and D. Plank, 2003. The Education Policy Center at Michigan State University.

Proposal A has worked to centralize the control of Michigan educational funds in an attempt to create and promote an equitable playing field for school funding. The alterations of the formulas dramatically changed the direction of education in Michigan in both academic funding and opportunity. As we have moved farther away from the passing of Proposal A, challenges and unintended consequences have appeared as policy is established and the economy changed.

Challenges of Proposal A

Proposal A achieved many of the reforms it was set to conquer, however it is not without its shortcomings. With each district facing unique situations, the centralization of the funding process limits the ability of districts to adjust revenues to meet their specific needs (Izraeli & Murphy, 2007; Zimmer & Jones, 2005). With this, Proposal A has not been able to eliminate discrepancies in state funding altogether. For the 2019-2020 fiscal year, the state minimum per-pupil foundation allowance was set at $8,111 while the state's highest allowance of $15,916 belonged to Bois Blanc Pines School District in Mackinac County (Michigan Senate Fiscal Agency, 2019). Bois Blanc Pines is an outlier within the fund allowance allocations as most schools fall between the $8,111 minimum and the state median of $8,362 (Michigan Department of Treasury, 2019). Though property value is no longer the main resource for school funding, state issues such as the current financial crisis and declining enrollment of across districts have hurt the LEA's ability to operate with a positive fund balance.

For the 2019-2020 school year, Detroit Public Schools Community District, the largest district in the state receives $8,142 per student (Michigan Senate Fiscal Agency, 2019). Comparing the funding that Detroit receives to surrounding districts such as the Grosse Pointe Public School System ($10,224), Farmington Public Schools ($10,405), and Birmingham Public Schools ($12,284) demonstrates the dramatic differences in funding available to school districts, even those that are located in the same geographical area (Michigan Department of Treasury, 2019). Differences such as these allow school districts to direct more resources toward classrooms while ensuring that they continue to operate with a balanced budget.

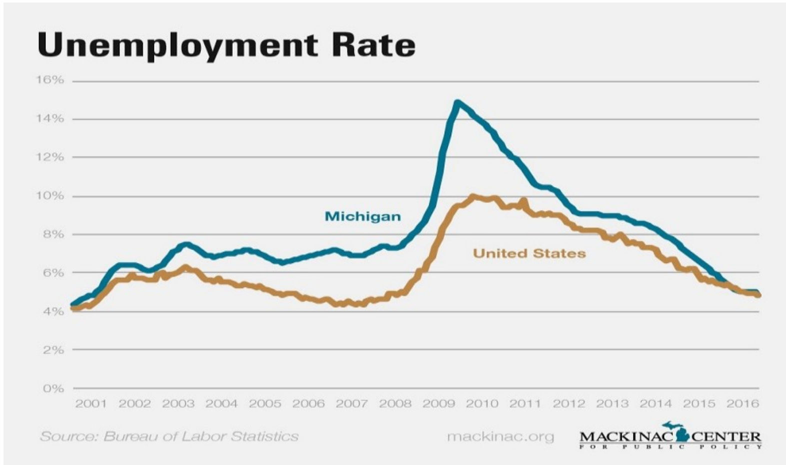
Between 2000 and 2009, Michigan ranked last in the nation for growth in population, real per capita gross domestic product, and employment (Citizen Research Council of Michigan, 2010). The centralization of education finances in Michigan directly linked its stability to the overall performance of the state's economy, making the health of education reliant on the health of the state's financial system (Kruth, 2015; McVicar, 2017; Zimmer & Jones, 2005). During the initial years following the passing of Proposal A, the Michigan economy remained strong and state operating revenue continued to grow (Izraeli & Murphy, 2007). Per-pupil allocation stayed stagnant however as there was a rise in student enrollment. Michigan saw an increase in student population from 1990 to 2000. The amount students rose from 1,584,431 students to 1,720,626 (United States Department of Education, 2013). This is a drastic difference from the economic decline seen at the turn of the century.

The Great Recession began to take hold of Michigan creating a dire situation for local governments. With school capital now directly tied to a mixture of property taxes, income taxes, and sales tax, a decrease in spending and loss of population created a downward spiral of educational funding. Proposal A made sales tax act as the primary funder of Michigan education, however this put Michigan schools in an unstable position as schools were shifted to only state-controlled revenues. The revenue base established for the school aid fund is vulnerable to fluctuations in the economy, especial when sales and income taxes collected fall as the economy dips into a recession. "Because the school aid fund relies so heavily on sales and income taxes, economic downturns can lead to rapid declines in the revenues available to schools" (Arsen & Plank, 2003, p.1).

While Michigan's economy began its downward spiral, it was joined by a mass exodus of the population. Michigan has lost 862,000 jobs since its peak in April 2000 (Flynn, 2012; McVicar, 2016). Experts predicted moderate growth through the fiscal year 2015 although it will continue to remain below the national average (Thompson et al., 2013). Figure 2.3 shows the Michigan unemployment percentages compared to the national average.

Figure 2.3

Unemployment Rate Michigan vs. United States



Note. Michigan Capital Confidential. T. Gantert, 2016, www.michigancapitolconfidential.com/22275

From 2005 to 2008, Michigan lost 89,844 residents and saw its unemployment rate skyrocket to 15.1% in October of 2009 (Bomey, 2009). At its peak in 2008-2009, unemployment during the recession in Michigan mirrored the previous two recessions within the private and public sector. The private sector in Michigan was quicker to recover and rebuild their workforce while the public sector continues to see a decline in employment, specifically in the areas of government and K-12 education (Citizen Research Council of Michigan, 2010).

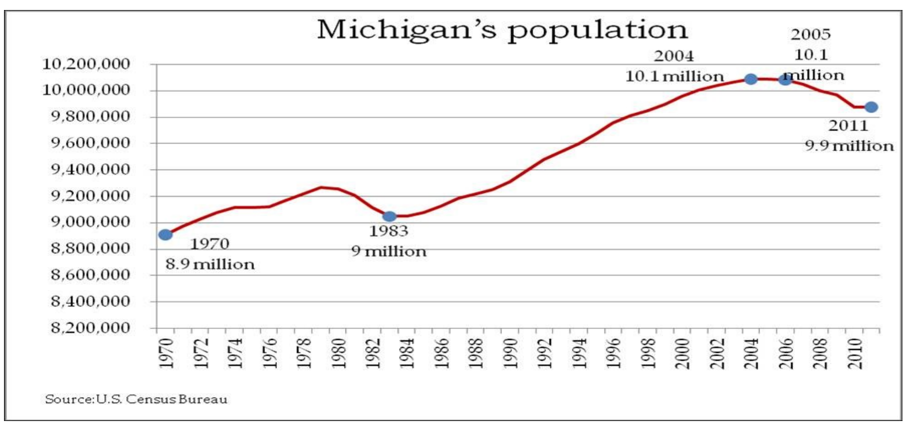
The downturn in the economy reduced the amount of tax collected to support public education. According to a report of the Citizens Research Council of Michigan (2010), the reduction in state dedicated funding in 2009 was partially offset by the availability of temporary funding provided through the 2009 federal stimulus legislation. The Michigan Education Department was able to utilize these non-recurring monies to supplement the shortcomings, specifically legacy costs, such as retirement and chronic revenue losses due to the collapse of the housing market (Izraeli & Murphy, 2007). This onetime stopgap was made possible by the

American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 which required states to fill holes in school operating budgets with federal money (Murray, 2009). Once this money was utilized, the state would again see the holes in school funding appear. With human costs being the highest area of expense within education, things such as legacy costs, insurance and salary continue to be a threat to adequate funding of education. Proposal A has not been able to adequately address the shortfalls in funding caused by the recession.

The unemployment rates were not only impacting the economy but caused a mass exodus of Michigan's population. The loss of employment and its slow growth within the state have forced individuals to seek employment elsewhere. Figure 2.4 shows the population trend in Michigan from 1970 to 2010.

Figure 2.4

Michigan's Population: A Closer Look



Note. Drawing Detroit, C. Flynn, 2012, http://www.drawingdetroit.com/2012/04/

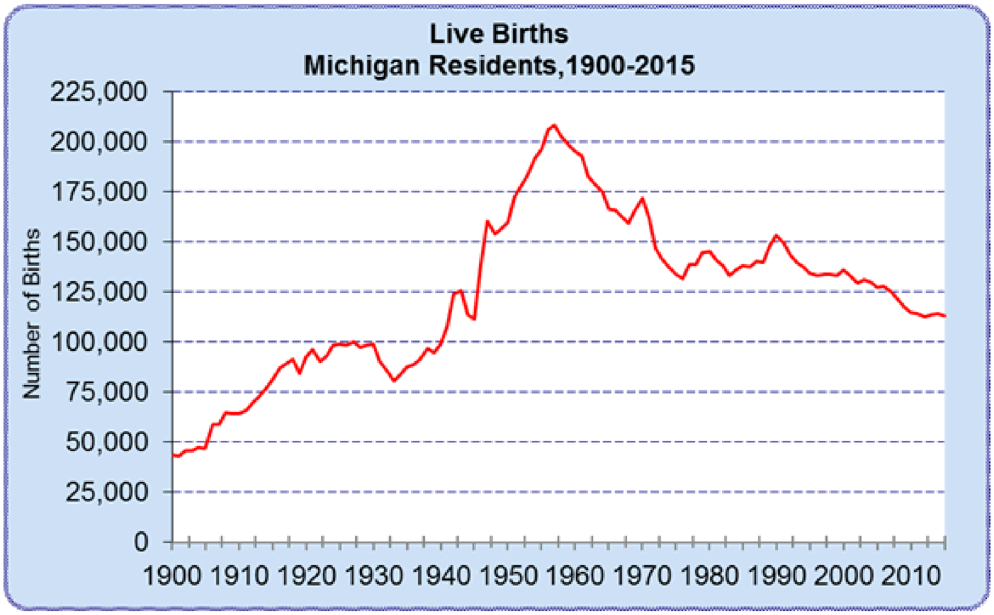
As people moved out of Michigan, their economic activity was taken with them. Michigan's 83 counties collectively lost $2.42 billion in home equity from 2005 to 2008 (Bomey, 2009). During this time, Wayne county alone lost $1.8 billion (Bomey, 2009). These losses added another layer of constraint on the financial health of the state and the future prospects for economic growth (Bomey, 2009). Though Proposal A removed property taxes as the primary source of education funding in Michigan, the loss of this amount of money drained the financial stability of the SAF (Izraeli & Murphy, 2007). Citizens had less money to spend. With Proposal A no longer relying on property tax to fund education, the resources available for the SAF quickly diminished.

This exodus of the working population also caused a reduction of the number of students available to attend schools. Under Proposal A, funding to schools was allocated based on the number of students in attendance. In Michigan, K-12 school enrollment declined over the past decade, leaving many districts with fewer dollars to cover expenses. From 2003-2004 to 2014-2015, K-12 enrollment in Michigan public schools declined 11% statewide, falling from just under 1.7 million to below 1.5 million students (Lewis, 2015; McVicar, 2016). The number of public-school students is on pace to drop by 8.5% by 2028 (Barshay, 2018). With 90 percent of state funding dependent on the number of students in attendance on count day, the decline in population has created a significant problem for Michigan schools (Lewis, 2015; McVicar, 2016).

Finally, a downswing in birthrates across the country has impacted the funding available to schools. Those that have stayed in the state are having children at a lower rate or later in life that previous generations. Michigan has followed the trends of the country, with live births peaking post World War II and steadily declining to present day. Figure 2.5 shows the trends of birth rates in Michigan over the last 100 years.

Figure 2.5

Michigan Resident Birth Files



Note. Michigan Department of Health and Human Services, 2017.

https://www.mdch.state.mi.us/osr/natality/g11.asp

The U.S. birth rate has dipped to an all-time low, having grim effects on schools. Since the Great Recession in 2008, U.S. birth rates have declined due to a few key social factors. It has become increasingly common for women to put off marriage and motherhood to further their education and their careers (Campisi, 2018). This is a shift within U.S. culture that falls along the lines of feminism and equality. With our society evolving and women working outside the homestead becoming more common, it is impacted the amount and frequency of children being born and in turn the number of students attending school.

As student counts continue to decrease and in turn cause funding to LEA's to be reduced, it forces districts into a paradox where non-instructional costs such as infrastructure cannot be decreased to proportionately accommodate the number of students lost. Without being able to close buildings, it continually costs the same for such things as heating, maintenance and basic building needs. In addition, when determining the number of teaching staff needed, it is very likely that the students lost are spread over a multitude of grade levels which does not allow for a reduction of a proportional number of staff members. This creates a potential loss of hundreds of thousands of dollars while still requiring the same amount of staff to instruct. "Accordingly, districts have, when necessary and appropriate, eliminated staff and curricular offerings, reduced their budgets for textbooks and supplies, increased class sizes, outsourced custodial and other services, and closed buildings" (Michigan Department of Education, 2002, p. 14). As districts work to balance their budget, decisions are forced to be made that focus on financial balance and not the learning needs of the students.

Birth rates and population decline is only part of the reason schools are seeing less and less students walk through their doors. With school of choice options and the charter school movement taking hold in many states, parents now could move their child out of their neighborhood school and into one that they feel better meets their needs. This has put increased stress on districts and their employees to take on roles that they traditionally would not have to. Districts and more importantly staff need to work to create a brand that highlights accomplishments and nurtures community perceptions (Kominiak, 2018). If school districts are not telling and controlling their story, someone else will do it for them.

The competition over the students that are available puts a premium on listening intently to students and parents to gain insight into what they are thinking. This can come in many ways but participating in community conversations through easily used channels such as social media allows for the continued evolution of schools in the hopes of attracting more students. The departure of families and low birth rates create a declining enrollment within schools (Thompson et al., 2013). With the departure of families, pupil enrollment in Michigan peaked in FY 2003 at

1,714,705 and has steadily declined to 1,537,400 in FY 2013 (Thompson et al., 2013). The drops in student count and the changes in funding from Proposal A has left 27 Michigan school districts facing budget deficits going into the 2017-2018 school year (McVicar, 2017). Funding changes have not been the only policy changes that have affected education, specifically education in Michigan over the last thirty years. Our country has taken on initiatives that have evaluated and altered learning standards, school district governance and the goals of educational system. As we have tried to regulate and improve schools through legislation, we have continued to erode the trust and professionalism that is needed to ensure teacher job satisfaction.

NCLB, ESSA, and Beyond

Through the last half of the 1900's, our educational system has shifted the decision-making power from the states to the federal government and back to the states. Our current approach to school management is comparable to a marble cake, involving multiple, overlapping layers: the federal government, the states, and local school districts, each with ill-defined responsibilities and often conflicting interests (Manna & McGuinn, 2013). Mayors, state legislatures and departments of education increasingly direct the reform agenda from outside the LEA. We bow to the mantra of local control, yet in fact, nearly every major decision affecting the education of our children is shaped (and misshaped) by at least four separate levels of governance: Washington, the state capital, the local district and the individual school building itself (Manna & McGuinn, 2013). By creating models and policy from the outside district walls, our schools are required to deploy resources in specific areas, limiting the innovation and risk-taking that was originally discussed in *A Nation at Risk*. The squandering of the resources influences the level of job satisfaction felt by school staff just as it does the ability for students to grasp curriculum.

As policy has adapted to the evolution of learning, a prevalent commonality that has arose is the need to tie available funding to the requirements laid out in the political process. In 2015, President Obama signed ESSA reauthorizing the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and replacing President George W. Bush's 2002 No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (Bush Institute, 2017; Charnov, 2016; Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015; Michigan Department of Education, 2017; No Child Left Behind, 2012). This shift in policy made by the federal government is just the most recent attempt to alter our systems of education. With each change, teachers have been faced with adversity, unanticipated challenges and altered requirements. Each of these has had an impact on their overall job satisfaction. Just as ESSA has been the most recent change, President Ronald Reagan brought our country's shortcomings to the forefront of our minds and ignited a renewed passion in our country's legislators to fix our education system.

In 1983, Terrell Bell, President Reagan's Secretary of Education, created the National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE) to study the available research and data on public education and make a recommendation on the direction of education (Borek, 2008; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). That spring, the Commission published a document titled *A Nation at Risk*, highlighting the fall of our preeminence in commerce, industry, science and technological innovation (Meadows, 2007; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). The report was thought to have spurred the greatest national debate on education since the launching of Sputnik in 1957 (Stedman & Smith, 1983). Though the report was meant as a warning of our country's inability to continuously compete with changes in the global economy, it highlighted the state of America's schools, calling for a host of much-needed reforms to alter the direction public education (Graham, 2013).

A Nation at Risk was the first federal exploration into the idea of creating set curricular standards in order to raise the expectations for students. The commission recommended four years of English, three years of mathematics, three years of science, three years of social studies and one-half a school year of computer science for high school students. Remaining credits would be from courses in foreign language, music and physical education (Borek, 2008). By calling for deeper content and higher standards for student learning, especially in secondary and higher education, the report began new discussions based on the shortcomings of our educational system (Birman, 2013).

The commission's report was not only focused on curricular standards, but also targeted teachers. Commissioners described a teacher's ability to inspire or stifle learning. Though it did not quantify what it meant by "many", the report stated that many teachers came from the bottom quarter of students, suggesting that teachers were not qualified to teach the curriculum needed to prepare students (Birman, 2013). To remedy this, they made recommendations for salaries that were "professionally competitive, market-sensitive, and performance-based" and that teachers demonstrate "competence in academic discipline" (National Commission on Education Excellence, 1983, p. 30). To a traditional workplace, compensation is directly related to increased job satisfaction, however in education, research has shown that salary does not increase job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997). Instead, intrinsic rewards have a greater impact on teacher's perception of their work (Choi & Tang, 2011). Teacher education, both perception of and actual, has altered job satisfaction. Teachers do not feel they are adequately valued for their level of learning and society views their work as a career rather than a profession (DuFour, 2015).

A Nation at Risk gave legislators an appetite for better ways to monitor student performance and compare individual states and even nations. The report set the stage for a partial reshaping the federal role in education through strengthening and increasing the presence of federal programs and policies in the nation's schools and laying the groundwork for several decades of state, local, and federal reforms (Birman, 2013). Though *A Nation at Risk* set recommendations and highlighted areas of concern, it did not make explicit declarations on education. It did however set the stage for policies such as No Child Left Behind to be created.

No Child Left Behind

When NCLB was signed into law by President Bush in 2002, it set specific targets with prescriptions for schools that were deemed to be failing. The fundamental principle of the bill was that every child can learn, every child was expected to learn and it would require highly qualified teachers to facilitate that learning (Korte, 2015). NCLB would let schools determine how to show whether every child was learning, but the law did require states to test students on math and reading every year in third through eighth grades, and then again once in high school (Korte, 2015). The goal of the assessments was to monitor the improvement of all students, which was the key focus of the policy. School districts were then required to break down test scores and other measures for minority subgroups to verify minority subgroups were demonstrating growth each year (Korte, 2015). Though this was an achievable task in the eyes of lawmakers, it was a daunting proclamation of public schools and put increased stress on classroom teachers.

To hold states and schools accountable for student growth, funding made available through NCLB was tied to their ability to meet mandates. Though education law sets policy, it is unable to spend money directly (Korte, 2015). The original draft of NCLB authorized up to $32 billion of spending in 2002, however only $23 billion was actually spent (Klein, 2015). States that wanted to receive their part of the federal funding were required to fix schools using specific interventions that were laid out in the legislation.

By the 2013-2014 school year, states were required to bring all students to the “proficient level” on state tests. Policy however allowed each state to determine what “proficiency” should look like and what standardized assessment to use (Klein, 2015). This forced states to set a proficiency target, identify schools with an insufficient number of proficient students, and ensure that specified measures were taken to confirm 100 percent of children would be proficient in reading and math by 2014 (Klein, 2015). States that continuously missed Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) were subject to a cascade of increasing sanctions. These ranged from offering free tutoring to students and specific utilization of Title I dollars to states choosing to close schools, turn schools into charter schools, or simply take them over (Klein, 2015). The law also required that school report cards, a system to rank school performance, disaggregate student test score data for subgroups such as race, economically disadvantaged and special education. Each of these categories impact the teaching staff and their satisfaction by continually breaking apart data and comparing schools to one another, creating unhealthy competition (Wagner & French, 2010).

A school that did not meet the set proficiency level in any one of these subgroups would be placed in a “need for improvement” status which again would require a continuously escalating level of interventions. These ranged from tutoring, technical assistance and restructuring internally and continued to the opening public school of choice programs. This increased the federal government’s attempt to pressure states to undertake systemic change and searched for a way to hold them accountable for the academic performance of their students (McGuinn, 2006).

Another large component of NCLB is the requirement that all schools staff highly qualified teachers. According to NCLB, a highly qualified teacher is fully licensed by the stat and must not have had any certification or licensure requirements waived on emergency, temporary or provisional basis (McGuinn, 2006). Teachers must also demonstrate subject matter competence. In Michigan for example, this came through subject competency assessments. By doing so, NCLB created instabilities in the educational system and negated years of teaching experience as not significant by requiring teachers with years of experience to still meet the guidelines of highly qualified teachers (Gehrke & McCoy, 2007; Houston, 2007). Solving the problem of highly qualified teachers is more complex than NCLB proclaimed (Ingersoll, 2005). Barriers in teacher mobility, differences in pay, poor incentives, and fiscal constraints are an example of the inequities that lead to the hiring of unqualified teachers (Gay, 2007). Teacher education is not a predictor of job satisfaction, but the rift between different demographics and teacher unions would have an impact on student learning and people teaching them.

NCLB began to show a growing divide between civil rights leaders and teacher unions. Each group found themselves engaging in an increasingly heated fight over school reform, especially when evaluating testing, accountability, choice, and teacher evaluation reforms, all which were overwhelmingly opposed by teacher unions (Rhodes, 2011). Civil rights leaders argued that NCLB's testing systems, disaggregated data and required accountability offered an unprecedented tool in the fight for educational equality (Taylor & Rosario, 2009). Those within the education community believed this policy did not address true issues of learning and unfairly held schools responsible for underperforming students. It was argued that a broader scope of society, such as poverty, had a greater impact in student learning and growth (Hartney & Flavin, 2001; Moe, 2011; Taylor & Rosario, 2009).

As NCLB aged, demographics, satisfaction and funding demand increasingly became a challenge. The legislation did not adequately gather the necessary funding to meet the provisions it put in place (Darling-Hammond, 2007). Also, the plan's laser focus on high stakes testing and accountability to enhance performance in language arts and math produced unsuccessful results, increasing the need for more funds. Jahng (2011), described NCLB as intending to close the achievement gap between high- and low-performing children, especially the achievement gaps between minority students, and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers. The specific prescriptions continue to require an ever-increasing amount of funds, taking away the availability of money for other educational goals and programs. It created even greater complexity as schools were unable to meet 100% of the learning targets.

According to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 12th grade reading scores have continued to remain stagnant since the onset of NCLB (Onosko, 2011; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2009). Using the same metric to assess students, 49 of the 50 states did not see an increase in their fourth and eighth grade NAEP reading scores between 2007 and 2009. Further, the achievement gap between subgroups the legislation was designed to reduce was not impacted (Onosko, 2011).

Although NCLB moved schools to achieve the targets set forth by the federal legislature, activity was held at the local levels. Limited empirical evidence on the standards and assessments resulted in more effective schools and higher student achievement (Maxcy, 2011).

Districts now had a heightened awareness of the importance of closing the achievement gap and improving learning among struggling students. This created an opportunity for teachers and administrators to refocus and transform their mindsets, however, the way many districts went about creating change alienated teacher unions and altered teacher job perception and satisfaction. Though there is a lack of statistical evidence regarding the success of NCLB, it impacted the way the United States approaches education as well as altered the direction of our educational system (Maxcy, 2011). These changes would continue into the next administration as policy continued to attempt to incentivize education and create competition to push for success.

Race to the Top

As President Obama came into office, most believed that he would listen to his Democratic leaders and those they represent while moving away from traditional school accountability efforts (Darling-Hammond, 2010). This change would mean experiencing a renewed focus on school resources, integration, and social welfare. It was a surprise to the educational world when President Obama ultimately accepted two fundamental premises of the Bush Administration regarding education reform (Darling-Hammond, 2010). The first premise was that the main problem within education has political roots and continued with the belief that the federal role in education should be to provide additional resources as well as rewrite the status quo to foster policy change and experimentation (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Second, he continued with the understanding that schools and teachers should be held responsible for improving the academic performance of all students, especially those that are faced with inequities such as poverty (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Early within his administration, President Obama continued efforts to expand federal influence in restructuring the worst performing schools, improve teacher evaluations and initiate a new focus on innovation and charter schools (Stout, 2009). Being faced with a bipartisan congress, he was not able to reauthorize the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and instead opted to develop education reform though his office with an expansive, if not controversial use of executive power (Ravitch, 2009).

In 2009, President Obama signed into law the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) (American Recover and Investment Act, 2009). Race to the Top (RTTT) was one of the primary programs in the law and was designed to push education reform (United States Department of Education, 2009). According to the United States Department of Education (2012), this legislation provided a $4.35 billion foundation designed to support and invest in strategies that are geared to improve results for students, create long-term gains in schools, and increase productivity and effectiveness. With his selection of former Chicago Public School Superintendent Arne Duncan as the United States Secretary of Education, President Obama began to attack the political challenge that centered around growing opposition of NCLB and the federal education mandates states struggled to implement (Manna, 2010).

To combat the opposition and to utilize funds made available through the ARRA, the U.S. Department of Education created Race to the Top, a program that would distribute grants to states through a competitive application process. This was designed to provide major federal investments to support promising educational reforms, and to reward states and districts at the intersection of courage, capacity and commitment (Education Week, 2011). This was an unprecedented move by the federal government as most federal funds have historically been distributed through categorical grants while utilizing a needs-based formula (Mead, 2010). Under RTTT, states had to compete with one another and only would receive a grant if they adopted reforms that were compatible with federal goals and approaches (McGuinn, 2012).

The administrative guidelines found in RTTT were extraordinarily prescriptive and incentivized states to enact policies that aligned with the Obama Administration's education agenda (Smarick, 2009). In many ways, they mirrored those established as part of NCLB. As part of the incentive to obtain RTTT funding, nearly all states have adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in English/Language Arts and Math, which constituted a sweeping curriculum reform effort of unprecedented scale (Bowling & Pickerill, 2013; Ujifusa, 2013). RTTT was not initiated to specifically alter learning standards though it was one of four requirements to secure funding. RTTT required the adoption of standards and assessments to prepare students for college and to compete in a global economy (Klein, 2015; United States Department of Education, 2011). It also mandated the building of data systems to measure growth, recruiting and development of staff, and the turning around of the lowest achieving schools (Klein, 2015; United States Department of Education, 2011). To determine the recipient of the competitive grant, an extensive list of criteria was used. Point values were assigned to each item and used to determine if states have adequately complied with all the components of the initiative.

Policy did not specifically dictate what curriculum states and their schools must adopt, but it did create rewards for states who utilized a rigorous, well-developed curriculum. States, through their governor's office, worked to adopt standards that ensured all students leave K-12 schools with the same exposure to educational topics. In *The Child and the Curriculum*, John Dewey (1902) describes two camps of thought regarding education: those who support a traditional core curriculum and those who support changing the curriculum to reflect the interests of the child. As educational policy has evolved, it has become more and more important to have a core curriculum that guarantees students' understanding of concepts that will allow them to be successful at higher levels of education and be productive members of society. Policy and curriculum wise, these standards have allowed schools to set targets for students, however many educators argue that they limit the ability for the input of student interest and social or emotional growth (Hershberg & Robertson-Kraft, 2010).

The adoption of curricular standards highlighted in RTTT has been an area of conflict since the origination of our education system. Beginning as a local endeavor, municipalities were able to determine what was important for students to learn. As policy began to come out after *A Nation at Risk*, the federal government took a greater interest in what our students were learning and how it is being measured. NCLB and then ESSA have followed the same policy lines regarding curriculum, however RTTT and the funding tied to it have encouraged states to re-evaluate curricular choices.

LaVenia (2010) emphasized that state adoption of the Common Core was a product of more than just RTTT funding. Local determinants such as state political orientation, networking and regional diffusion played key roles (LaVenia, 2010). The Common Core represented an incredible step in nationwide curricular reform. This is not just the latest rounds of revisions to state standards but represents a national event where the federal government is, for the first time, creating a sense of urgency for a common development of the whole curriculum from kindergarten through high school (Bohmer & Maloch, 2011). Though the federal government did not mandate a specific curriculum, it has utilized its ability to provide funding to ensure that a highly rigorous set of standards is used in our school systems. These standards allowed states and the corresponding schools to measure student progress, which was part of both NCLB and ESSA.

RTTT pushed states into enacting a wide variety of reform polices to create applications that were competitive and stood out from the others. State actions on teacher quality reforms are illustrative in this regard. Despite understanding the importance of teacher quality in relation to educational outcomes, very few states had acted to address the issue until RTTT (Gordon et al., 2006). Prior to this, the norm was to give teachers tenure automatically after three years in the classroom, with no meaningful evaluation of their teaching effectiveness and little risk of their being fired during their career no matter how ineffective they were (McGuinn, 2010). Research has demonstrated that a teacher's academic credentials and years of experience have a limited impact on student learning (Goe & Stickler, 2008; Walsh & Tracy, 2004). To address this, states who were making RTTT proposals needed to include student growth as one of the multiple measures within the newly enhanced teacher evaluation system to be eligible to receive funds.

Critics of the Obama administration's decision to include student growth as part of the evaluation system contend that a teacher's impact on student learning cannot be measured without error, therefore this presents an impossible task when trying to create a fair and reliable system that both evaluates and rewards teachers (Hershberg & Robertson-Kraft, 2010). Teacher union opposition to evaluation and tenure changes made this the third wheel of education policy and hindered any reform efforts (Moe, 2011). The National Council on Teacher Quality reported that thirty-six states changed their teacher evaluation policies between 2009 and 2012 with many states requiring annual teacher evaluations that incorporated student achievement, differentiated levels of performance and utilized annual classroom observations (NCTQ, 2012).

The implementation of the new teacher evaluation method was designed to inform new rewards and consequences; pay-for-performance and dismissal of ineffective teachers. The new evaluation system aligned RTTT's strategy of goals and rewards by establishing monetary incentives and career advancement for highly effective teachers. During this time, the landscape was quickly and dramatically changing when it came to education reform within school systems in the United States (NCTQ, 2012). The changes to the evaluation system increased teacher stress, eroded levels of trust and negatively impacted job satisfaction.

Howell (2015) completed an in-depth analysis of RTTT, finding that the competition it created brought 68 percent of the states to enact reform polices while in the years prior, only 10 percent were fully adopting federal reform measures. Building capacity at the district and state level to implement reforms brought forth by RTTT continued to be a major challenge across the country. States struggled to secure the resources, personnel, and financial stability needed to systematically implement all that was required (McGuinn, 2015). With this, educational leaders began to argue that the Obama Administration made a major error with RTTT by pushing states to adopt a multitude of major education reforms concurrently and do so on a limited timetable, leading to implementation problems and pushback (Hess, 2015). As the legislation continued to progress, reform measure worked to address gaps in learning and of creativity within our nation's schools.

Every Student Succeeds Act

As 2007 came, Congress was not able to come to an agreement on the reauthorization of NCLB. Schools were still expected to have students reach 100 percent proficiency on state assessments by 2014. This mandate increased pressure on students, staff and school districts to achieve a level that was out of reach. Teaching staff was opened up to more public backlash as students did not reach the bar set by government policy. To assist with the struggles of cost and the consequences placed upon schools, Congress enacted a waiver system for schools. In the absence of a reauthorization, flexibility was created by the United States Department of

Education that would remove a district from NCLB's accountability provisions. The NCLB flexibility waiver allowed the Obama Administration to respond to the increasing pressure to change the unpopular law and also helped avoid another legislative battle (Mann, 2015).

Despite reservations from Congress over an overreach of the executive branch, many states were desperate to get out from the underneath the NCLB accountability system and applied for the waiver. As of November 2014, forty-three states had received a waiver from the Department of Education (Klein, 2015). As with RTTT and the initial NCLB policy, the waiver system was successful in driving education reform within the United States and would eventually lead to the reauthorization of NCLB in the form of the Every Student Succeeds Act in 2015 (Klein, 2016).

After much debate in Congress, the long overdue reauthorization of NCLB was passed in 2015 by a vote of 85-12 in the Senate and 359-64 in the House (Klein, 2016). The Every Student Succeeds Act officially replaced the waiver program, going into effect for the 2017-2018 school year. Much like NCLB, ESSA maintains the premise of a test-driven, top-down, remediate and penalize law. To limit outcry from educators over the minimal changes in the amounts testing, ESSA changed the federal mandates of NCLB, giving power to the states to redefine and implement requirements (Mathis & Trujillo, 2016). ESSA also maintained the stipulation that states publicly report student test score data for schools and disaggregate it into the same subgroups that were outlined in NCLB. Again, ESSA focused on competition of schools through comparing scores without evaluating other variables that impact learning. The increase in competition and fall in perception of staff in struggling schools creates a decrease in overall teacher job satisfaction (Maxcy, 2011; Onosko, 2011). However, by shifting decision making regarding training and requirements for teacher evaluations to the states, ESSA took a giant step toward moving educational control back to the classrooms. This was an important change to reengage teachers in the reform process.

At its core, ESSA is still a test-based educational reform, however it altered the way data was used. Though ESSA still requires annual testing in reading and mathematics for students in third through eighth grade, it alters the role these tests play in gauging school progress. States must now set long-term student achievement goals with measurements of interim progress and submit their accountability plans to the Department of Education who will have a limited oversight role (Charnov, 2016; Korte, 2015). Districts must also include four indicators of academic progress when measuring achievement: proficiency on state tests in math and language arts, English-language proficiency and one other such as student growth in tests scores. Also, things like access to advanced courses and school climate will now be used to determine the effectiveness of schools. This change takes many of the variables that positively impact teacher's job satisfaction and uses them to determine the quality of schools.

Based upon the rankings, states and districts will still have to transform the lowest-performing schools; now however they will be able to choose their own interventions, providing they are using evidence-based strategies (Klein, 2015). In doing so, ESSA took the inflexible, over-prescriptive federal role in public education that was at the heart of NCLB and scaled back Washington's K-12 footprint for the first time in 25 years (Klein, 2015). This transformation did not just include school performance but the consolidation of 50 U.S. Department of Education programs into a block grant (Student Support and Academic Enhancement Grants) that allows LEAs the freedom to determine how best to deploy resources. ESSA also created freedom in the classroom, both with teachers and the training provided to them.

Though not specifically designed to address teacher preparation programs and assessments of learning or teaching methods, ESSA goes a long way to set the stage for classroom innovation and exploration. Through allowing states, districts, and classrooms to find ways to meet the mandated continuous improvement, ESSA supported education through monetary grants. This allowed ESSA to have a greater influence on teacher performance than its predecessors by encouraging innovation.

NCLB created accountability mandates which schools were required to follow; ESSA gave the creation of accountability goals back to the states. While the government at the federal level determined how to allocate resources to schools through policy decisions, it had to also regulate how schools were going to be held accountable for student learning. The government could not allow a never-ending flow of money; it would be irresponsible as a public leader to give an open checkbook to programs that were not producing positive results for our nation's students. If more dollars were going to flow into schools to improve their work, there had to be some way of measuring for results (Bush Institute, 2017). During the time Congress was creating policy to deploy financial resources, they also developed targets for states to achieve in order to meet these goals.

The freedom that is found within ESSA comes at a perfect time as it follows a revolution of teaching standards. This is not just a shift from state content standards to the Common Core, but a change in what is valued in learning. Currently our country is in a technological revolution that focuses more on the sharing of information and the ability to collaborate with people around the world to enhance understanding. ESSA will open the ability for exploration into Science, Technology, Engineering, Math (STEM) teaching methods that will enhance learning while deepening the pedagogical knowledge of staff.

ESSA permitted schools to use federal funds to prepare teachers to use technology to improve STEM teaching as well as support professional development for the teachers and leaders in order to increase the quality of instruction in STEM (Gamoran, 2016). It was left to individual states and school districts to determine how they will utilize STEM within their curriculum to enhance learning. Examining the opportunities for flexibility across states (new resources in standards, curriculum, assessments, teacher and leader development, and federal funds to activate these resources) it is evident how ESSA provides the ability for states to customize adult learning to enhance the effectiveness of their instruction (Gamoran, 2016). ESSA utilizes staff learning to build capacity, increase morale and enhance teacher job satisfaction.

Educational policy such as ESSA has the ability to influence teacher performance and satisfaction. Allowing teachers freedom through federal policy to explore interests and find best practices to match the needs of their students exhibits an inherent level of trust and professionalism, increasing satisfaction. (Bohmer & Maloch, 2011; Hallinger, 2003). ESSA however tied student performance directly to teacher accountability. This system mirrored the accountability that the Federal government held over individual states under NCLB even though there has not been a universal standard chosen to measure teachers. The differentiation of evaluation puts teachers in a guessing game, needing to adjust to whatever system is in place.

Depending on the scope of state level collective bargaining, ESSA requires states to work with teachers to develop a tool to evaluate classroom teaching. Regardless of where a state stands with collective bargaining, ESSA requires that evaluation and support systems in place must be based on a high-quality evaluation tool that includes observation rubrics and inter-rater reliability of results as well as ensures leaders provide useful and timely feedback (NEA, 2016).

ESSA contains rights-preserving provisions, not rights-creating provisions (NEA, 2016). This is important because, like other aspects of the policy (curriculum, accountability) it gives control over things such as bargaining over evaluations to the states. If there wasn’t a state law covering a topic before the enactment of ESSA, the savings clauses in ESSA do not give you additional protections; rather the clauses stop the new legislation from interfering with existing rights under state and local law (NEA, 2016). ESSA has allowed for states to continue to take a leading role in the implementation of their curriculum, the measures that schools and staff will be evaluated against and the training that will be offered to increase performances.

When ESSA passed, it sat at the crux of government control and local oversight. Though specifics regarding teaching effectiveness and performance are not laid out within the document, steps are taken to ensure that there are targets for every area of education. These targets are tied to funding which holds districts accountable for implementing research-based best practices to ensure students continually improve. By giving more control over reform to individual states and districts, ESSA allows for true change to take place within the classroom while supporting risk taking and professional growth. The balance between federal control over education and local decision making has never been more delicate.

The stated purpose of NCLB was to ensure that all children had a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to receive a high-quality education. As NCLB changed to ESSA, the need to continuously address the improvement of students was still at the forefront of policy. ESSA now put the ability to evaluate student learning directly in the hands of the schools and states that were providing the educational opportunities. This coincided with President Barack Obama’s Blueprint for Reform, a guide to how the Federal Government was going to support growth through the transition. The blueprint focused on four key areas of support: the improvement of teacher and principal effectiveness, providing information to families to assist in evaluation of schools, implementing of college and career-ready standards, and improving learning in the lowest schools (United States Department of Education, 2011). Though this laid out what was required from schools and how they would be supported, it did not identify how this was to look within the schools themselves. Further, no federal education policy has explicitly determined how schools must run, only that they must improve and serve the needs of all students. President Obama's blueprint, though important for educational reform, has not created the change it was set out to do. The direction that was laid out in his message has fallen to the wayside as reform policy such as ESSA continues to drive educational progress (NEA, 2016).

Under the ESSA, states must continue to identify and address low-performing schools. Unlike previous reform efforts such as NCLB, the law provides greater flexibility for states to design accountability systems and interventions to help low-performing schools. Every three years, states are required to identify schools for comprehensive support and improvement (Pennsylvania School Board Association, 2017). These low-performing schools have been classified by having high school's graduating less than two-thirds of students or whose subgroups consistently underperform on state assessments (Klein, 2015). ESSA still has limits within the act itself; schools will have more rigorous requirements placed on them if they are not able to demonstrate significant improvement after a four-year period. Unlike NCLB and policy before it, these requirements are levied by the state government, following the idea of giving more control on education to the local and state levels. ESSA continues to influence decisions through spending requirements on educational aid however it leaves the decision on what to spend the monies on to the state.

Policy to date has worked to alleviate issues within the educational system, but in many ways has created more. Lost in the reform efforts have been the work of our most important piece of the educational puzzle, our teachers. Legislatures are often missing the work that is needed inside the classroom and enact laws that are meant to provide an equal playing field for all involved without needing to be equitable. Through this, the stress, demands and pressures put upon the teaching staff negatively impacts their job satisfaction. Instead of creating policy to increase job satisfaction and in turn student performance, our government has been able to do the opposite.

Summary

When *A Nation at Risk* started the discussion of our failing education system, our schools were developing populations who could not compete on a global level. In 1990, the development of our school-age population was again analyzed with the Sandia Report. This report, commissioned by the Secretary of Energy Admiral James Watkins, looked to document the decline of American schools with actual data. What was found was a Simpson's paradox: the overall average can change in one direction while all of the subgroups change in the opposite direction if proportions among the subgroups are changing (Ansary, 2007). This report showed that the catastrophe of American education might not be as dire as once thought. At this point however, it was too late and "failing schools became a political necessity" (Ansary, 2007, p.26), as school reform became a campaign promise for presidential candidates. Thus, the report was silently hidden from the public (Ansary, 2007).

As behavioral theory began to combat our shortcomings, more resources were put toward the development of teachers and their (Allen, 2005). The importance of satisfaction, specifically teacher job satisfaction became a focus of leaders within schools. This focus has not been met by the outside legislature.

School districts in Michigan have been gripped with financial struggles since the implementation of Proposal A and the downturn of our economy, limiting funding that is available to our LEAs. The limits in funding increase the need for teachers to reach above their ability and ensure all students, but specifically students in areas of greater need, receive the education necessary to compete within our global economy. This stress among staff is increased by the need to take on multiple roles within the school. Teachers are now asked to by social workers, psychologists, therapists, doctors, instructors, friends, and a multitude of other things. Each area in this case adds stress and negatively impacts job satisfaction of teachers.

Ways to deter negative job satisfaction in this climate have been found. While policy has transitioned from NCLB to RTTT and now ESSA, the use of a transformational leader has been at the forefront of satisfaction. A transformational leader is able move staff toward a common goal and common understanding while alleviating stressors that are prevalent among teachers. Davis and Wilson (2000) found that leaders who engage in behaviors that are personally empowering increased teachers' understanding of their choices in work completion and their impact on student learning. Being able to assist staff in overcoming obstacles allows leaders adapt teacher's work and in turn their satisfaction to the changing landscape of educational policy.

Today, schools are expected to continually improve and leaders play a key part in it. "The popularization of transformational leadership theory in educational leadership cannot be understood apart from the current, change-oriented educational policy environment, which emphasizes restructuring and transformation to meet twenty-first century schooling requirements

(Berkovich, 2016). Beginning with Proposal A, districts have been forced to utilize an increasingly smaller budget, making decisions that impact the extrinsic motivation of staff members. After Proposal A came the implementation of NCLB, ESSA, and the prescriptive nature of school reforms. This was followed by changes in the teacher evaluation system and leadership characteristics. Each of these are closely tied to teacher morale and job satisfaction, which effects student achievement. Research has been completed to address the impact of leadership, policy and funding on education, but there is a gap. With teacher morale and job satisfaction so closely tied to student achievement, research needs to be developed to recognize how a teacher's understanding of K-12 school finances impacts their job satisfaction. This study will fill in that gap.

The literature has informed the study in many ways, but has also demonstrated a gap within the research, especially in the current educational setting. Reviewing the history of satisfaction research has shown multiple theories that allow for a deep understanding of the variables that can and do impact teacher job satisfaction. Self-efficacy and collective efficacy are keys to teacher job satisfaction, allowing for a nurturing of one's self-reliance as well as and enhancement of the community and culture needed within a school. It also allowed for a determination of the impact of educational change on teacher job satisfaction in a time of educational reform and increased accountability.

Policy, such as NCLB and ESSA, intended to offer a framework for ongoing change and a relief to the continued sense of urgency, while improving student achievement and school performance. Further, the literature assisted in understanding the repetitiveness of the mandates that exist within each reform as school funding, student enrollment declines and economic struggles altered the landscape of education, specifically public education. Michigan has found itself in the middle of the perfect storm involving the lingering effects of each variable in the health of education. Teacher job satisfaction and the impact of school funding struggles assisted in framing my research questions as there is gap when evaluating the impact of teacher's knowledge regarding school funding and their job satisfaction.

The findings from my research will add to the literature surrounding teacher job satisfaction and the variables that influence it. Current literature evaluates teacher characteristics and the intrinsic and extrinsic variables that impact job satisfaction. By building up this foundation, researching how the understanding of the finances of schools alters teacher job satisfaction. In doing so, school districts will be able to use the new information to assist teachers in understanding and adjusting to the changes in the educational climate and financial changes.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

This chapter is a discussion and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative methods used to collect and evaluate data. Along with the research methods, the location of the study, subject population, sampling methods, notification, and how consent was obtained will be identified. Data management, storage, and analyzation techniques will also be explained. The steps taken through this process allowed for a conceptual framework to be established and hypothesis to be studied. This study seeks to determine whether a teacher's understanding of school finance impacts their job satisfaction.

Research Questions

This study is designed to investigate if a teacher's understanding of educational funding affects their job satisfaction. To do this, the following questions must be answered:

1. Does a teacher's understanding of educational finance affect their overall job satisfaction?
2. What do teachers identify as factors that cause changes in the financial climate within education?

Framework

For this study, a mixed methods research design was used. Mixed methods research is defined as a philosophically underpinned model of inquiry that combines quantitative and qualitative methods of research so that evidence may be mixed and knowledge is increased in a more meaningful manner than either model could achieve alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

A mixed methods approach to research allows the systematic integration of both quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Specifically, this study used qualitative data to explore quantitative findings. This explanatory sequential design will take place in two phases: an initial quantitative survey phase followed by a qualitative interview phase (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Wisdom & Creswell, 2013). This allowed for the use of a qualitative focus group to provide a better understanding of how personal experiences relate to the results of the satisfaction survey. By using this design model, the quantitative results from the initial survey are able to be further explained in greater detail regarding the job satisfaction results and knowledge of educational finance.

The philosophical rationale for mixing both types of data is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient by themselves to capture the trends and details of situations. This type of approach is utilized when a researcher is analyzing one data set, such as a quantitative survey, and then uses that information to inform subsequent data collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The complex issues of education funding and teacher job satisfaction require a pragmatic approach to the research.

Pragmatism is the belief in doing what works best to achieve the desired result (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). As a theory of experience, pragmatism considers a person's experience as plural, equivocal, and ongoing (Carlsen & Mantere, 2007). In a social study such as this, pragmatism is a focus as it mixes quantitative and qualitative methods to evaluate different aspects of the research problem. With this, reality is constructed rather than discovered and the world is a continuous process of becoming and not a static being.

A pragmatic study focuses on an individual decision maker within an actual, real-world situation, first identifying a problem and then viewing it within its broadest context. Despite literature that ignores the adoption of pragmatism in mixed methods research, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) highlight that mixed methods research literature has proposed pragmatism as the best paradigm for research that evaluates real-world problems and attempts to understand the impact it has on individuals. In this sense, pragmatism has a place within the study of education, as it gives less influence on philosophical assumptions for the conduct of research methods.

Charles Pierce, the father of modern pragmatism demonstrated the relationship to education through linking his findings to pedagogy, which anticipates today's inquiry-based learning and research-led learning (Strand, 2005). Pierce's connections regarding education are traditionally tied to Dewey's beliefs around student learning and exploration, however, they can lend themselves to the experience of a teacher and their job satisfaction (Strand, 2005). Dewey (1925) contends that the main research paradigms of positivism and subjectivism derive from the same paradigm family, that they seek to find the truth, whether it is an objective truth or the relative truth of multiple realities. Ultimately, pragmatism brushes aside the quantitative/qualitative divide and ends the paradigm war by suggesting that the most important question is whether the research has helped to find out what the researcher wants to know (Hanson, 2008). By using a pragmatic philosophy, a systematic application of the appropriate methods was used to address each specific area.

This research utilized a quantitative design through a survey to collect data in relation to teacher job satisfaction. Qualitative research, completed with interviews, was determined to be the best way to gain knowledge regarding the teacher's understanding of educational finance. Morgan (2007) determined that using a pragmatic framework such as this differs from each of the quantitative (positivist/post-positivist) and qualitative (constructivist) approaches in relation to the connection of theory to data and making inferences from data. While the quantitative research in this study is objective and the qualitative subjective, a pragmatic approach challenges the traditional distinction between both of these within the conduct of the research. Using a pragmatic approach with the research allowed enough flexibility to adopt the most practical approach to address the research questions. The quantitative and qualitative phases were connected by selecting participants for the qualitative interviews from the quantitative surveys (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Hanson, 2008; Hanson et al., 2005). The results of both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study were integrated during the discussion of the outcomes of the entire study.

Quantitative Research

Within this study, an initial quantitative phase was utilized to gather data on participant's level of job satisfaction. Quantitative research is the process of collecting numerical data through standardized techniques, then applying mathematical based methods to derive insights from it (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002; Bhatia, 2018; Gay et al., 2009). The goal of this type of research is to collect numerical data from participants and then use the results to explain a phenomenon. Phenomena refers to an experience that an individual has. In the case of this study, the phenomenon that is being evaluated is a teacher's job satisfaction and the experiences they have during their teaching career, specifically their understanding of educational finance.

Data for research studies often does not naturally appear in a quantitative form; however it can be collected in a quantitative way (Muijs, 2004). An example of this data is attitudes and beliefs. To collect data regarding attitudes and beliefs, the most popular quantitative research design to use is survey research (Muijs, 2004). Survey research design is flexible and appears in multiple forms but is most often characterized by the collection of data using standard questionnaires which are administered to participants (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002; Muijs, 2004).

According to Bhatia (2018), a good survey must have clear language, proper grammar, correct spelling, and a clear objective.

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (1994) was used in this study to gather data regarding the variables of job satisfaction. The JSS is a 36-item, closed-ended, Likert-scaled survey that assesses nine areas of the career which have been proven to impact job satisfaction. The nine variables the survey evaluates are: salary, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, conditions, coworkers, work itself, and communication (Spector, 1994). These are used to identify the teacher's overall job satisfaction. The survey utilized closed-ended questions and a Likert-scale to collect data which forced the participants to choose an answer from the given options. The options ranged from disagree very much (1) to agree very much (5). The characteristics of quantitative research allowed for the initial survey to be scored against the norms that Spector (1994) created for the teaching profession. Spector (1985) reported that the reliability of each of the nine subscales was above 0.5 based on a sample of 2870 respondents. Spector (1985) redid the survey with a smaller sample of 43 respondents 18 months later to test the investigative reliability. During this retest, the subscales ranged from 0.37 to 0.74, which indicates a high stability of responses over time.

Survey Protocol

For this study, the JSS was administered online and was accessed through a URL that was emailed to all applicable participants. Conducting a survey over the Internet is not always preferred due to the possibility of lack of coverage. Some populations may not have access to the Internet and are more likely to be left out of the survey (Kaplowitz et al., 2004). However, in this study, emailing the survey is preferred to paper surveys due to the population that is being surveyed and the convenience it allowed. All school faculty must utilize their email for teaching, ensuring that the invitation and URL was received.

Active email addresses of potential participants were obtained through the school district's technology department. After the initial invitation, a reminder email was sent after two weeks and again after four weeks, the survey was closed after a five-week period. Through the survey process, technical glitches presented problems. Five participants were unable to open the email and another three could not get the next question to load after answering the first. The issues were able to be fixed for these participants and they were resent the survey to take again if they chose.

Data Collection

The survey participants were sent an email with the invitation and the survey link. Participants used the link to take the survey. The first page of the online survey was the consent form. If the participant chose to consent, they were taken to the survey. Participants were required to answer each question; however they had the option to stop at any time. If they chose to stop the survey, their responses would be recorded but would not be able to be analyzed for the study.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a systematic scientific inquiry which seeks to build a holistic, largely narrative, description to inform the researcher's understanding of a social or cultural phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). Mason (2017) describes qualitative research as being based on research methods which are flexible and sensitive to social context. To complete the qualitative research, a phenomenological research design was used for collecting and analyzing data in the qualitative phase of the study.

Phenomenological research has a goal of describing the nature of a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). According to Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2010) the primary objective of a phenomenological study is to explicate the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived experiences of a person, or a group of people, around a specific phenomenon. This qualitative research used interviews to draw conclusions on a teacher's understanding of educational finance. The data gathered was then read, reread, and culled for like phrases and themes that were then grouped to form clusters of meaning (Creswell, 2013).

Interview Protocol Development

The goal of the qualitative phase of this study was to explore the results of the quantitative survey (Creswell et al., 2003), therefore, the study was designed to learn if the understanding of educational funding had an impact on job satisfaction. Ten open-ended questions explored the understanding of educational finance within the participant group. The questions evaluated the subject's knowledge of the sources of funding, their understanding of how funding can be utilized, and the participant's beliefs on their district's use of available funding.

Prior to conducting the interviews for this study, the interview protocol, including the questions and coding techniques were pilot tested on one teacher who was from another district and was not part of this study. This allowed for the order of the questions, the protocol for administering the interviews, and the basis of coding responses to be revised and edited. Coding of the data was then completed by segmenting and labeling the text, these codes were then verified using an inter-coder agreement check. Codes finally were aggregated to develop themes and group codes together by connecting and interrelating themes.

Data Collection

The data for this phase of the study was collected from interviews conducted with a sampling of respondents whose scores fell in both high job satisfaction and low satisfaction categories on the initial JSS survey. The participants were scheduled using email communication and then face-to-face interviews were conducted. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim (Creswell, 2005). This allowed for the data to be coded to develop themes that were related and could be connected. Steps in the qualitative analysis included a preliminary exploration of the data by reading through the transcripts and writing notes. The analysis was performed within two levels: within each case and across the cases (Yin, 2003). The data collected during the qualitative phase of the study was joined with the data from phase one, the quantitative phase.

Background

Education, specifically within public schools, faces a continued and increasing problem of recruiting and retaining qualified and effective teachers (Hammond, 2003). Over the last 20 years, schools have seen a reduction of resources, implementation of more accountability standards, and a governmental system focused on creating short-term fixes rather than long-term solutions (DuFour, 2015; Leachman & Oliff, 2011; Leachman et al., 2016). The impact of the continued changes within education has taken a toll on the most vital piece of the system, the teachers (DuFour, 2015).

Current research has shown that teachers are influenced by many motivators, both intrinsic and extrinsic. These motivators enable teachers to remain in their district despite the mounting variables that cause dissatisfaction (DuFour, 2105; Peters & Passanisi, 2012). Despite the depth of the current research, the impact and understanding of the new financial stressors on the teaching staff has not been fully evaluated (Ingersoll, 2001; Peters & Passanisi, 2012). Research on how the understanding of the current financial climate of education impacts a teacher's job satisfaction is missing from the literature.

Population

This study focused on the teaching staff of a medium sized school district in a suburb of a Midwestern metropolis. The demographic makeup of the district, as well as its location in relation to a major metropolitan area will allow for the study to be used to anticipate perceptions within surrounding and comparative school districts. The initial electronic survey was sent to all members of the teaching staff within the district. The current full-time teaching staff contains members from elementary, middle, and high schools. The survey was left open for five weeks, with follow-up emails sent to the teaching staff after two weeks and again after four weeks.

The respondents of the survey were sorted into two groups, the dissatisfied staff and the satisfied staff. These two groups were then put through a simple random sampling to find individuals for follow-up interviews. A simple random sampling ensured that each member of the population had an equal chance to be selected for the interview. The interviews were scheduled through email and took place over the span of a month. They were all conducted face-to-face. These interviews focused on the individual teacher's understanding of school finance.

Summary

This chapter presented a research outline and the methodological reasoning for this study. The mixed methods study combined quantitative and qualitative models to discover if a teacher's understanding of educational finance affects their job satisfaction. The mixing of both types of research was required in this study to link the findings from the initial survey regarding job satisfaction to the findings in the interviews about educational finance. The rationale for the use of this study is pragmatism, as it is the belief in doing what works best to achieve the desired results (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007).

The data collected in the study was done in two phases. The first phase was the quantitative phase, which utilized the JSS to determine the participant's job satisfaction. After the responses were recorded, they were scored and separated into two categories: high job satisfaction and low job satisfaction. A simple random sample was then used to determine follow-up interviews. The qualitative aspects of the study were conducted through face-to-face interviews. They were recorded to allow for transcription. Transcribing the interviews enabled further coding within and across each case. The transcriptions allowed for coding and comparisons within and across the interviews. Themes were able to be discovered and conclusions began to form. Following the collection of both the quantitative and the qualitative data, analysis was able to begin in order to determine the effect a teacher's understanding of educational finance has on job satisfaction.

Chapter 4

Findings

Change has been a consistent factor in the educational climate, and none more influential than during the current economic downturn. Recent legislative mandates through policy such as the Every Student Succeeds Act and a stricter accountability system have influenced the educational climate and in turn, impacted teachers' job satisfaction. There have been a multitude of studies examining variables that affect teacher job satisfaction, but there have not been studies that evaluate if or how the understanding of school finance alters teachers' job satisfaction. To determine the impact a teacher's knowledge of finance has on their job satisfaction, a small, suburban school district was given a diagnostic survey and a follow-up interview. Out of the 97 potential participants, 35 responded to the initial JSS. The respondents were then scored against the norms to Spector's (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey Spector's norms and separated into categories of high job satisfaction, neutrality and low job satisfaction. A random sampling of teachers with high job satisfaction, five, and low job satisfaction, seven, subject to individual interviews.

The mixed methods study asked if a teacher's understanding of educational funding affects their professional satisfaction. The first research question is aimed at evaluating teacher's job satisfaction. To answer this research question, Spector's JSS was used to determine the overall job satisfaction with participants. The second research question was answered using qualitative interviews to gain an insight to a teacher's understanding of school finance.

1. Does a teacher's understanding of educational finance affect their overall job satisfaction?
2. What do teachers identify as the factors that cause changes in the financial climate within education?

These questions assisted in the formulation of the hypothesis: a teacher's understanding of school finance affects their professional satisfaction. This also allowed for the formation of the null hypothesis: a teacher's understanding of school finance does not affect their professional satisfaction. In order to test these hypotheses, the results of both the quantitative satisfaction survey and the qualitative school finance interviews were compared and aligned to determine if teachers with a higher job satisfaction score also had more knowledge regarding school funding in Michigan.

Quantitative Data Analysis

The first phase of the study was to collect data from the teaching staff of a small metropolitan school district using Spector's JSS. The study was sent to 97 teachers within the district and was returned by 35 participants for a completion rate of 36%. The survey was comprised of 36 total items, with four items in each of the nine accepted categories that make up job satisfaction focus areas of accepted job satisfaction (Spector, 1994). The subgroups include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work and communication. Participants were asked to select from six choices ranging between "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Spector, 1985). The survey has been repeatedly investigated for reliability and validity, demonstrating an average of 0.70 for internal consistency out of a sample of 3067 individuals (Spector, 1994).

To assist in the determination of an individual's job satisfaction, the normed mean for teacher respondents using the Job Satisfaction Survey was used. For the overall survey the normed mean score is 135. This overall score was the initial determiner for satisfaction. To further classify a person's job satisfaction, Spector's (1994) scoring guides were used. A cumulative score that ranges from 36 to 108 demonstrates dissatisfaction, 108 to 144 shows ambivalence and 144 to 216 representing satisfaction. Though it was not a specific focus of this study, the normed means for each individual subtopic (pay-12, promotion-11.7, supervision-19.1, fringe benefits-14.3, contingent rewards- 13.6, operating conditions-12, coworkers-18.5, nature of work-19.4, communication-14.6) also provided insight into specific areas of satisfaction and discontent.

After the 35 completed surveys were collected and scored, 10 of 35 (28%) revealed satisfaction, 16 of 35 (45%) were ambivalent, and 9 of the 35 surveys (25%) showed dissatisfaction. The overall scores ranged from a low of 69 to a high of 197. The average total score on the surveys was 132, which is lower than the normed mean of 135 from the JSS findings on teacher job satisfaction (Spector, 1994). Through a deeper analysis of the individual responses, specific trends began to appear across compensation and leadership support when evaluating those who showed overall dissatisfaction within their job.

The responses revealed that individuals with dissatisfaction shared common themes. The utilization of funds to adequately compensate employees and low levels of support from district level leadership consistently appeared. The two subgroups within compensation that repeatedly showed dissatisfaction for employees was Pay, with a mean score of 7.5 compared to a norm of 12 and Promotion, with a mean of 6.1 compared to a norm of 11.7. Leadership's effect on individual job satisfaction came under the category of supervision. Individuals in this category who were classified with overall dissatisfaction had a subset average of 10.4 compared to a norm of 19.1. Contingent rewards, which is related to both compensation and leadership, also demonstrated high dissatisfaction with a score of 7.7 compared to a norm of 13.6.

Table 4.1 lists the participants who showed job dissatisfaction and the subset score for each independent variable within the JSS. The survey allowed participants to utilize a Likert-scale to respond to their interpretation of each variable. The variables were then totaled and compared to the norms created by Spector (1994). This provided participants the ability to respond to specific satisfaction variables while not knowing which questions were related to each subset used to determine overall job satisfaction. Through scoring and then comparing against the previously established norms, overall job satisfaction was able to be determined.

Table 4.1

Participant Scores Who Show Job Dissatisfaction

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	AVG	Norm
Pay	7	14	13	6	4	4	6	7	7	7.5	12
Promotion	4	4	6	4	6	9	4	13	6	6.1	11.7
Supervision	7	11	14	8	4	4	17	12	17	10.4	19.1
Fringe Benefits	14	16	8	18	9	13	16	13	13	13.3	14.3
Contingent Rewards	9	7	5	11	4	10	9	9	6	7.7	13.6
Operating Conditions	6	12	8	10	4	5	7	15	9	8.4	12
Coworkers	15	16	13	19	15	14	14	16	13	15	18.5
Nature of Work	16	15	20	22	13	19	16	14	12	16.3	19.4
Communication	5	11	13	10	11	9	8	10	10	9.6	14.6
Total	83	106	100	108	69	87	97	109	93	94.6	135

The dissatisfaction that was felt by respondents in the subcategory of compensation and its relationship to overall job satisfaction mirrors the previous research that evaluated teacher compensation (Choi & Tang, 2011; Cockburn, 2000). As a widely researched area within satisfaction literature, compensation, though an extrinsic motivator has an impact on teacher job satisfaction. Choi and Tang (2011) found that individuals do not enter teaching for financial gain and career earnings can be a deterrent to job satisfaction. Cockburn (2000) also determined that teachers who do not receive the compensation they feel is reflective of their work have a lower sense of job satisfaction in relation to those who do. This relationship is only a modest one however as Perie and Baker (1997) noted that intrinsic rewards have a higher impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Poor leadership and a lack of trust with leadership is a key part of teacher job dissatisfaction. Conversely, leaders who build trust and support their workers can be a determinant of job satisfaction. Teachers make hundreds of classroom related decisions throughout the day, however, are often not consulted on school or district related decisions. While teachers are often left out of the decision-making process when it involves topics that directly affect their job, they rely on their leadership to drive the school and district into the future. When a teacher does not believe that their leadership is acting in their best interest, and more importantly, the best interest of their students, they are more likely to begin working in isolation, missing many of the triggers that would increase their job satisfaction (Stoll, 1992). Findings from the survey respondents show that teachers who do not feel their leader adequately facilitates community growth and codependence struggle with job satisfaction.

To determine the impact financial knowledge has on job satisfaction, survey respondents who showed overall satisfaction also required a deeper analysis prior to the qualitative interviews. Respondents who showed overall satisfaction with their job, had high scores in Promotion with a score of 21.3 compared to a norm of 11.7, Operating Conditions with a score of 21.3 compared to a norm of 12, Coworkers with a score of 22.1 and norm of 18.5 Nature of Work with a score of 19.4 and norm of 19.4 and Communication with a score of 20.1 and norm of 14.4. Table 4.2 lists the participants who had an overall score determining they have job satisfaction.

Table 4.2

Participant Scores Who Show Job Satisfaction

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	AVG	NORM
Pay	7	13	14	11	11	10	11	22	22	15	15.2	12
Promotion	12	9	17	17	12	14	12	15	23	21	21.3	11.7
Supervision	17	23	24	21	18	21	18	23	24	24	17.5	19.1
Fringe Benefits	20	14	13	16	19	20	19	17	18	19	17	14.3
Contingent Rewards	13	19	12	14	18	18	18	21	21	16	14.5	13.6
Operating Conditions	19	8	20	12	19	9	11	15	18	14	21.3	12
Coworkers	23	23	23	20	17	21	18	20	24	24	22.1	18.5
Nature of Work	19	24	22	22	19	23	22	24	23	23	20.1	19.4
Communication	21	20	21	16	18	20	18	22	24	21	20.1	14.6
Total	151	153	166	149	151	156	147	179	197	177	162.6	135

Respondents to the JSS who demonstrated job satisfaction showed a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Scheopner (2010) discovered that a positive school climate and social support are contributing factors to teacher job satisfaction. The survey respondents who have overall high job satisfaction also showed high satisfaction in the subgroups Operating Conditions and Coworkers. This is important for job satisfaction as perceived support from administrators, school safety, and availability of school resources fill many of the extrinsic needs that teachers require, allowing their intrinsic needs to then be fulfilled (Choy et al., 1993; Scheopner, 2010; Shaw & Newton, 2014). Also, teachers who showed high job satisfaction had elevated scores in the Nature of Work subgroup. This subgroup builds on the intrinsic motivations that drive individuals toward education. A sense of high intrinsic rewards found within student growth, relationships, and continued learning show a significant relationship with high job satisfaction (Perrachione et al., 2008; Rosenblatt, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015).

The data collected during the quantitative phase of the mixed-method research has demonstrated significant disparity within individual subgroups in regard to teachers who have overall job satisfaction and those that have job dissatisfaction. Participant responses showing satisfaction and those showing dissatisfaction with their job were contacted for follow-up interviews with twelve teachers agreeing to take part. The information gained in the qualitative phase of the study is able to be combined with the quantitative phase to form an understanding of educational finance and its impact on job satisfaction.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Twelve of the thirty-five original respondents participated in individual interview sessions regarding their understanding of school finances. Seven of the interviewees were from the subset of initial respondents showing low job satisfaction and five were from the group with high job satisfaction. During the interview process, responses were categorized depending on the level of job satisfaction the participant exhibited to allow for further investigation. After transcribing and reviewing the interviews, responses were able to be coded based on the prevailing themes and clustered for commonalities.

Qualitative Interviews of Teachers with Low Job Satisfaction

Interviews with participants who showed low job satisfaction within the JSS survey had specific themes and characteristics. The interview respondents described many of the characteristics and variables that were found within previous research, specifically motivation created by the work itself, intrinsic motivation built by relationships and continued personal growth. Each of these areas were supported by the interviewees as pillars that provide job satisfaction for the teachers. When posed with questions regarding extrinsic motivators, especially those that involved K-12 finances of the district, teachers with low job satisfaction answered with inaccurate, incomplete or negative responses. For the purpose of the analysis, quotes credited to the individual with Low Job Satisfaction with be identified with an "L" followed by their designated place found in Table 4.1. LP1 represents low satisfaction, person number one. Table 4.3 shows the themes that were present during the interviews with teachers who showed low job satisfaction.

Table 4.3

Low Job Satisfaction Themes and Characteristics

Themes	Characteristics
Negative Change	• Majority's educational experience • Professional Development
Money	• Property Tax • Regulations
Waste	• Continuous curricular and resource change • All money to General Fund
Competition	• Charter Schools • Increased demands

Table 4.3

Low Job Satisfaction Themes and Characteristics

Themes	Characteristics
Limited Autonomy	• Controlled by Central Office
Loss	• Lost money in budget • Loss of autonomy • Loss of curricular opportunity • Loss of pay • Loss of benefits

Negative Change

Through the interview process with respondents who initially showed low job satisfaction, negative impressions began to form specifically around the student educational experience, unknown yearly funding amounts, and professional development. Teachers enter the profession to create a difference in student's lives (Bialopotocki, 2006). Their motivation and job satisfaction are a direct result of the student experience (Hultell et al., 2013). LP1 was very specific in detailing student educational loss stating, "We used to have Spanish at the elementary. Our board made cuts that we have not got back." The interviews continued to focus on financial change; however, respondents were not able to account for the cause of the change. LP4 explained, "We have a high fund balance. In all my years, it has never been this high, but yet we keep taking cuts. Why does this happen? It has to be left over from previous bad decisions". LP4 began to place blame on previous leadership and their decisions yet was not able to determine what decisions or what changes left the teaching staff to continue to face financial cuts. Teachers interviewed within this subgroup knew that there was a reason behind the changes in funding, however, their focus stayed on local level decisions rather than more generalized educational policy and finance changes. LP7 noted that, "not only has money come out of my pocket, but money for classes such has art and music is gone. As far as I am aware, there was no official district decision to cut the budgets but was just something that happened over time when the general fund was depleted".

Discussion and responses also indicated a loss of intervention support due to financial cuts and money being channeled to other areas. LP4 indicated that, "we continually experience having less available supplies for student usage, which alters the way we are able to instruct our classes". Each respondent had a reason for the cuts being made, all of which were centered on the local level. LP2, LP3, and LP5 placed decisions on the school board, superintendent and building principals. LP2 stated that, "the leadership of the district, the school board, superintendent, and principals all play a part in making budget cuts".

Money

When Michigan education funding sources changed from property taxes to sales tax and a slew of other areas, there became a fluctuation in the amount of money available to school districts. Creating a minimum per pupil allowance was supposed to even the funding across the state, but ideas such as hold harmless allow districts to continue to stay at their pre-Proposal A funding levels. Combining this with a decline in Michigan's economy and population, schools continue to see uneven funding within the state (Bomey, 2009; Murray, 2009; Zimmer & Jones, 2005). During the interviews, respondents from the low job satisfaction subgroup continually mentioned changes in state funding. LP3 stated, "Proposal A was put into place to help bring up funding for lower economic areas. The funding change has increased the amount of money per pupil our district receives, but we still are not equal to other neighboring districts". Other responses regarding Proposal A included; LP2 "I am not sure how this funding change has impacted schools in Michigan", LP7 "It does not allow you to use just the property tax as a source of school funding, but I do not know what else is involved", and LP1 "I think Proposal A changed the funding to come more from the state tax more than the property tax". Further, LP6 was adamant that, "in order for state testing to be considered equal across the board, all schools should get the same amount of funding per child in the state of Michigan".

Though these responses hinted at the outcomes of Proposal A, no respondents mentioned the other avenues of funding for their district or the regulations on how you are able to spend the money. With school districts receiving money from the state government, the federal government, and grants, the revenue streams and how they are deployed are an intricate part of the educational experience. When asked where the money comes from for their district, LP9 admitted, "I honestly don't know where the money comes from". LP3 also added that money, "comes from a state tax, property tax, Michigan tax and the lottery". Though these methods are part of the funding formula for districts, they only make up a portion of what is available. Participants within this subgroup were not able to articulate the sources of funding for their district nor were they able to determine where the money the district receives is used.

Waste

Waste was another common theme within interviews of teachers who had low job satisfaction. As schools move through reform measures, there are often changes in policy that require teaching and learning to take different avenues to reach new achievement targets. Moving from a prescriptive reform measure in NCLB to a fluid reform in ESSA, school districts faced new challenges and new opportunities to utilize funding. No district is exempt from these changes and teachers have felt the shifts within their classroom. LP5 described, "students at the elementary level miss materials as we try to keep up with the demands of the Common Core. A lot of the stuff we purchased does meet our current needs". LP3 echoed this by stating "I feel like we are consistently getting new materials for the curriculum and we haven't given the old materials a chance to work or even let the teachers have a chance to use them before they are changed".

Respondents continued to discuss waste by sharing that they feel the money they receive always goes directly to the general fund and not toward the classroom. LP2 described this by answering that, "Also, looking at the severity of needs of the students, why is our funding not going to better support interventions such as social workers, counselors, and psychologists. Money always seems to go to the general fund and nothing toward things like special education". LP1 expressed discontent with decisions made that appeared to remove funding from classrooms saying, "we had money to install a new turf football field and track, but we have kids who can't read, students who are from broken homes and don't have social work support, and are buying supplies out of our own pockets".

Additionally, as interviewees were asked more about the causes of financial waste in the district, no one was able to describe a reason other than decisions made by the superintendent and board of education. LP1 stated, "I do not know what the district budget is, but I do know that our board of education and superintendent are continually making changes in what we do. There is always a committee for something". LP6 continued with, "there are probably committees to decide how money is spent on curriculum and technology. I am sure there must be state guidelines on how certain funds can be used, but I think we always buy the same or similar things and waste a lot of our money".

Education is consistently facing dramatic cuts and challenges from reform measures, financial strain and curricular changes (Lewis, 2015; Ravitch, 2010). As districts move through this, the perception of waste is a key piece that impacts job satisfaction of teaching staff. The deployment of resources to a school and classroom, which is influenced by district leadership adds to the stress of a teacher's career and their overall job satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000).

Competition

Reform across the country, specifically in Michigan, has focused on creating competition among schools. Opening doors to school of choice has allowed students to move outside of their city schools to a place a family feels their student will get the best education (Fuller & Elmore, 1996; Ni, 2009). This is especially prevalent within urban areas, where they have experienced the highest loss of students. An avenue of competition that was often mentioned within the interviews was the increase in charter schools. Charter schools are often opened within the same boundaries that traditional public schools serve, taking away the students and funding that is tied to them. LP3 mentioned that, "the addition of charter schools in our area are receiving funds that were set aside for public schools, we lose out on that". Other than taking funds from schools, there was a very heavy undertone of the way that charter schools utilize the funds that they take from traditional public schools. LP5 discussed how, "funding that goes to charter schools is going to for-profit companies that attempt, taking even more money away from students. These businesses are trying to educate children for even less than what traditional schools do and then keep the extra money as profit".

In addition to competition from charter schools, members in this subgroup noted that competition has come through the evaluation process, specifically with teacher layoffs no longer based only on years of service. LP9 vocalized how teachers feel saying, "we are put up against our neighbor teachers. I am competing over limited supplies, lesson ideas, and praise from administrators". According to LP1, "the money that comes to our school is so limited and is spent in wrong areas, it is hard for me to not feel competitive with my peers". As the evaluation process, which is focused on educator improvement, is being viewed as creating competition among staff, adding to the teacher stress level. Stress is a direct indicator of job satisfaction.

Limited Autonomy

Removing decision making on the utilization of money to increase student performance away from those that see how the direct day-to-day needs of the students adds to the stress of a teacher. Within interviews, there was dialogue on how the district received money to educate the students; however, these were surface level responses focusing on money going into the general fund. The true in-depth answers came when participants were asked about the ways their district spent the money it received. LP1 stated, "Purchases for schools need to be approved by the central office and leaves building level administrators with little to no autonomy on what the budget is spent on". LP5 was more detailed in their response saying, " the principal has a limited discretion on spending for building and teacher needs, but the money is directly overseen by central office".

The responses on autonomy continued though curriculum purchases and resources. LP3 noted, "committees and study groups are formed, budget decisions are made for the whole from the minds of a few". LP7 stated that, "I feel our district has not been able to make the best use of all the funds we are provided. The higher-ups purchase what they want and disregard the opinions of the people using it. I have lots of materials that were not cheap and won't be used in my room". LP2 continued highlighting that, "when looking at the severity of the needs of the students, why is funding not going to better support our struggling students? It is always going to the general fund and building maintenance". Members in this subgroup believed that if they were able to have more say within the purchasing of materials, the district would see an increase student achievement.

Loss

Within the interviews, loss was a repetitive theme pertaining to both human loss and financial loss of the school district. Reform efforts have caused the school district to make decisions on what they can afford and what they cannot. Listening to the responses, it is apparent that everyone within the low job satisfaction group felt a great deal of loss within pay, benefits, and learning opportunities. LP1 exclaimed that, "I make less money than I did 10 years ago! It's ridiculous!". LP2, LP3, LP7 and LP9 all detailed how they are now earning less than they did years ago and indicated that the rising costs in healthcare causes them even more loss. LP7 made the most impactful statement:

> "We had to take a pay cut at one point to help with the budge so personally I lost income and it will take longer to regroup that loss since the salaries do not increase at the same rate and same amount that was lost. I am also taking personal money to buy things that are needed to support my students since our budget is a small amount. I guess these cuts were "necessary" to help the district avoid a deficit."

Teachers within this subgroup struggled to tell why these perceived losses had happened even though they meticulously detailed how their personal compensation has changed over their careers. LP6 stated that, "the superintendent made the decisions on what cuts would be made. This has all been created by poor money management by the district and improper spending". LP3 detailed that, "first, our school board and financial director lost money, then found over a million dollars. We also used funds to continually purchase things that were not needed, spending more than we were received and tapping into our fund balance". Further, LP2 noted that, "class sizes have gone up, mandates are increased, and those making the decisions in the district with how our money is spent are not helping".

Also described and coded under loss is the limited ability for continued professional growth. LP9 spoke about, "professional development that was provided by the district is routinely not followed through with after the training is over". This was again mentioned by LP2 by saying, "we don't have a choice in our learning. We are given PD on initiatives that central office feels are important but not on what we need in our classroom". LP3 also stated that, "we do not have a choice in what we learn and when we do find something, money isn't there for us to be able to". As a key piece of teacher job satisfaction, professional learning, and the perception of district support is important for individual growth and satisfaction.

Qualitative Interviews of Teachers with High Job Satisfaction

During interviews with teachers who showed high job satisfaction on the JSS survey, specific themes began to emerge. These themes matched the characteristics and variables that were revealed in previous research and also identified an understanding of funding for K-12 public education in Michigan. By articulating reactions to their work, specific aspects of their individual careers highlighted unique commonalities. These parallels concentrated on the teacher's knowledge of school finance. For the purpose of the analysis, quotes credited to the individual with high job satisfaction will be identified with an "H" followed by their designated place found in Table 4.2. HP1 therefore represents high satisfaction, person number one.

During the collating and concentrating process, presumptions began to emerge pointing to the different subset's understanding of school finance. Characteristics of teachers that have high job satisfaction included (a) equity; (b) Federal, State, and Local monies; (c) supplements; (d) curriculum and rigor. Continuing to sort responses from teachers who had low job satisfaction indicated common themes (a) negative change; (b) State money; (c) waste; (d) competition; (e) limited autonomy; (f) loss. Prior to comparing responses of the different subgroups, each theme was evaluated for specific characteristics. The attributes that were discovered allowed for further determination if a teacher's understanding of job satisfaction impacts their job satisfaction. Table 4.4 provides an overview of the common themes within the high job satisfaction subset and the characteristics of each theme.

Table 4.4

High Job Satisfaction Themes and Characteristics

Themes	Characteristics
Equity	• Money to areas of need • Guarantee minimum of funding • Declining economy • Hold-Harmless
Federal, State, and Local Monies	• Per Pupil Grant from State • Taxes • Increase to low economic areas
Supplements	• Fundraising • Bonds • Sinking Funds
Curriculum and Rigor	• Common Core • Standardized Requirements • Technology

Equity

Each of the respondents within the high job satisfaction subgroup mentioned changes in school funding to increase equity between socioeconomic areas. HP3 stated that "as a whole, the state funding policy has in many ways improved funding for many districts around Michigan. However, the actual dollar amounts that are currently being used should be reconsidered to match the rising operating costs for education". Funding prior to Proposal A was based on property taxes. Participants within this subgroup described how funding school funding laws are now focusing on creating equitable experiences for students. They described how Proposal A shifted money from a property tax base to sales tax, as well as how school districts were now guaranteed to receive a minimum allowance for each student. HP3 explained that "Proposal A was put into place to help bring more funding to low economic areas." HP10 highlighted how "districts are no longer funded differently based on assessed property value…there are not huge discrepancies in per pupil funding between wealthy and poorer districts. Now declining enrollment and a poor economy effect school funding across all districts".

In addition to guaranteeing a minimum base funding, high job satisfaction respondents also mentioned hold-harmless millages. Hold-harmless, if passed, keeps school district funding at pre-Proposal A levels. This knowledge demonstrates a deeper level of educational funding in Michigan as it is not available to every school district within the state. Currently 135 of Michigan's 587 school districts receive a hold-harmless millage (Summers, 2019). HP7 solidified the understanding of hold-harmless by stating, "there is still levels of inequality and ways to make sure the wealthy districts have more available than others. My son's school district for example, just passed a renewal of their hold-harmless millage which will keep their funding levels well above other districts within the area. Also, as stated by HP3, "declining enrollment and a poor economy affect school funding in all districts, whether they are from a low socioeconomic area or not.

Federal, State, and Local Monies

Participants within this subgroup were able to identify that school funding is now based on a combination of things, with money going into a School Aid Fund that creates a minimum funding allowance for each school district. HP2 stated that "the bulk of the money comes from state funding which is tied to our tax dollars, other money comes to us from grants and programs". HP10 believes that "money comes from the state of Michigan as well as passed bonds". Interviewees further discussed how their school district utilizes Title II funds to support teacher learning and other professional developments ideas. HP7 stated that they believe "there is always money available to benefit students and teachers. The district takes their Title II money to continually provide professional development based on our district initiatives".

Teachers with high job satisfaction were also able to describe the multiple ways in which school districts bring in money, as well as demonstrate an understanding of the specific ways that districts must utilize some of the funding they receive. Key to this was differentiation between a district's general fund and other available monies. From the population of teachers who showed high job satisfaction, HP3 described the multiple funding sources as, "being used to support and allow our district to meet the needs of our children, increase the knowledge of our staff, and build a base for our future". HP3 went on to describe how funds such as Title funds, grants and bonds must be used for specific areas and are not able to supplant the general fund, which is where teacher compensation comes from.

The division of funds and their specific uses was also prevalent in the other participants' responses who showed high job satisfaction. HP10 noted their school was "open to looking for other ways of funding to meet their student's needs, such as school fundraisers and family fun nights that teachers take part in". This has a direct impact on their job satisfaction as it conveys their commitment to the work. According to the JSS, this is an indicator of job satisfaction as well as confirms the understanding of the separation of funds for different purposes. A key takeaway from this group of interviews was the understanding that compensation was not a direct reflection of the district they work in, rather a culmination of many facets of funding sources.

Supplements

School districts are not limited to receiving funding from the State and Federal government, but also are able to bring in capital through supplemental ways. This can be something as simple as a fundraiser via the local PTO or a larger endeavor such as passing a bond or increasing a sinking fund. HP2 and HP6 both indicated that their school was able to adequately meet the needs of their students, however it often took additional creative funding which is generated through fundraising activities to supplement the existing budget. HP2 articulated that their school "gets money from the district for ancillary costs, but the school needs to fundraise to provide students with learning opportunities outside of their classrooms". HP6 added, "we spend a lot of time working with our PTO and family association to raise money to give students a chance to expand their learning and have fun experiences while in school". The money raised was geared toward things such as busing for field trips and technology.

Supplementing the school budget has become common place within education. Initially a source to gather funds for fun activities such as Field Day, assemblies, or playground equipment, monies raised through the school is now being used to increase academic opportunities for students. Respondents within this subgroup believe that their school district is doing the best they can spreading out the money that is available to them, however they recognize that there is a need for increased funding, which they are only able to do through current fundraising opportunities. HP3 mentioned that, "I believe the they (the district) is doing the best they can to spread out the money they receive, it is just not enough. We are having to be creative to raise money to support learning; it has just become part of the job".

Curriculum and Rigor

Educational reform did not just focus on funding, but created policy geared toward a curricular overhaul of the American educational system. Recent policy such as NCLB and ESSA, created a prescriptive plan for education and struggling schools while transitioning to give schools more leeway in how they address gaps within their students' education. Though educational policy cannot require schools to spend money in specific ways, it ensures a school district funnels available funds toward curriculum, resources, and technology. This forces LEAs to use capital in ways that are supporting policy requirements.

While interviewing the high job satisfaction subgroup, it was apparent there was a change in teaching practices over their tenure. This change stemmed from state standards moving to national Common Core Standards. This required teachers to alter the way they taught the curriculum as well the methods they used. HP3 mentioned that, "teachers are provided materials to meet their instructional needs as well as the student's learning needs". This notion was continued by HP10 who stated, "We have constantly been changing the way that we teach our students. The district has done a good job in making sure that we have the materials and the training to engage our students in learning". The ability to match teachers with the resources necessary to perform their job is a key in overall job satisfaction (Bower, 2001; Furnham et al., 2009).

Opportunity

The subjects of this study are part of a small, suburban school district in Michigan. While part of the same district, it is assumed that each study participant had the same exposure to the district budgets, expenses, and resources. Throughout the interviews, contributors detailed their personal understanding of school finance as well as their exposure to information. While coding and categorizing responses from both the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction subgroups, a narrative of exposure and learning opportunities began to appear.

Teachers with high job satisfaction responded positively to questions regarding learning opportunities. Mentioned within their responses was district lead professional development and open committee meetings that reviewed the district's budget and explained the rationale behind decisions. HP3 detailed the committee meetings held before each board meeting where the district budget was reviewed and explained. According to HP3, "I tried to attend as many of these meetings as I could. Even though I wasn't able to ask questions during it, they gave me an understanding of where our money was coming from and how we were using it". Opportunities were further explained by HP7 and HP10 as they detailed how they use the district website to track income, expenditures, contracts, and the district deficit elimination plan.

Also important to this was each respondent detailing the changes in educational finances. Many of the participants within the group explained how they learned about funding through college courses. HP2, HP3, and HP10 were all students at the same local university. They each discussed mentioned learning about how schools received money, specifically the grants and federal money available to schools. HP2 stated, "I learned about school finance in college, we even practiced writing grants. It was really important to be clear in how we wanted to use the money because we could only spend it how we described".

As much as the job satisfaction subgroup articulated their ability and willingness to take part in professional development, school board meetings, committees, and remember college experiences, the job dissatisfaction subgroup was unable to. Outside of their college classes, the job dissatisfaction subgroup had the same opportunities as the satisfaction subgroup. The professional development, meetings and committees are open to all staff members. Though there is a possibility that the professional development differs in delivery, each teacher has access to all the same information. There was a difference in their choice of attendance and what they remembered.

LP1 recalled the decision to not attend school board meetings saying, "I just didn't see the need to go. I didn't have a say in what was going to happen and by the time it reaches my classroom it was too late anyway". This was echoed by LP4 and LP7 in their description of committee meetings, saying they are too crowded, no one gets to talk, and the explanations are confusing. Further, LP10 explained that during curriculum meetings, "the reasons for the trainings are explained, but we never know where the money to pay for it is coming from. I just assume it comes out of the general fund".

The differences of experiences for the satisfaction and dissatisfaction subgroup is also found in the educational experience of the participants. Though each teacher graduated from college and many have advanced degrees, the courses that they took as well as the years they attended college influenced their knowledge of educational funding. Those that attending school prior to 1994 and the funding shifts due to Proposal A were taught different concepts compared to those who were in school post Proposal A. LP2 stated, "I went to school so long ago we didn't need to worry about funding. We never talked about it and just knew it would be there".

The findings related to the opportunities of staff members to learn about school funding is important to the research. It has shown that the district provided chances for the teachers to learn about the district and school budget. It has also shown that teachers who experienced school finance classes in college knew more than those who didn't. The teachers who were not forced to learn through classes needed to voluntarily attend meetings or search for information on their own, making it less likely for them to learn. These teachers consistently demonstrated a lack of knowledge regarding educational finance throughout the interviews.

Research Question 2: What do teachers identify as factors of the current financial climate within education?

Identifying factors that teachers believe are the cause of the current financial climate is an important step in determining if a teacher's understanding of educational funding is a variable within teacher job satisfaction. Through the study, teacher's job satisfaction was found using the JSS. Finding each staff member's extent of job satisfaction allowed for categorization of levels to compare with interview responses. While transcribing, coding, and separating interview responses to participants with high job satisfaction and those with low job satisfaction, a decision could be made on the impact of a teacher's understanding of school finance and their job satisfaction.

High Job Satisfaction Subgroup

The subgroup determined to have high job satisfaction placed the funding available to the district into three categories, state, federal, and local/grants/bonds. Proposal A altered state funding laws and changed the way that the state collected money to deploy to school districts. The alteration in policy changed the funding in many ways within Michigan, specifically creating more equity between school district.

The funding available to schools from both the state and federal governments, make it difficult for staff to meet the needs of their students and alters the environment that they teach them in. Classroom sizes have been increased, there were cuts to classes such as Spanish in the elementary schools, and limits to available student interventions. This subgroup attributes this to the changes in funding to the school district. The respondents were explicit when discussing the usage of funds at the district level for things such as curriculum, salary, maintenance, and school resources.

Interviews indicated that there are multiple funding sources and ways to pay for district level operations. Replies described the usage of Title funds, specifically Title I to serve underrepresented students and Title II for professional development and adult learning. Also mentioned was the usage of bond funds, which are approved through local voting, to fund building maintenance. This subgroup specifically articulated how these reserves are not able to be part of the general fund, which is used to pay for things such as salary, insurance and retirement.

The group of high satisfaction teachers were also able to describe how the SAF works within Michigan, particularly the state assigning a minimum amount of funds to each student. The money travels with the student, meaning that if the student leaves the school district to go elsewhere, the capital assigned to that student travels with them. The SAF allows districts to estimate their state funding based on the number of students registered to attend their schools. It was also mentioned how school of choice and charter schools impact the amount of money the district receives by giving families choice as to where their children will attend school. Though respondents within this subgroup demonstrated knowledge in regards to district funding, they were not able to give the exact amount of the district budget nonetheless could give an accurate estimation. Additionally, they were able to tell where to find this information, as well as other financial information using the Michigan Transparency Reporting website (Michigan Department of Education, 2019).

This group believes that the district leadership is doing what they can to meet the needs of the students and teachers while working within the confines of educational policy and funding shortages. There is an understanding that the policy creates prescriptions as well as opportunities for the district to think critically and creatively regarding student achievement. They also believe that the factors that affect the state of educational funding is outside the control of the LEA and resides with politicians within the state and country.is not just in the control of the district. Recession and declining enrollment have all played a role in the state of educational funding in Michigan.

Low Job Satisfaction Subgroup

Transcribing and coding interviews from the subgroup who showed low job satisfaction during JSS indicated an understanding of school finance based on assumptions and the unknown. Beginning with the change in funding law under Proposal A, this subgroup consistently responded with not knowing how their school district received money from the state. They only knew that each district now received a certain minimum amount. The amount was not clear. Neither was the path the money came from. Responses also did not indicate other revenue sources for the district outside of money from the state and federal government. There was no mention of grants that pay for things such as professional development and educational opportunities for marginalized students. Also missing was the utilization of bond money and a sinking fund to ensure the school district's facilities meet the needs of the community.

Further, the low job satisfaction subgroup believes that they are continually being asked to do more with less. Funding is a key piece to education. Teachers work to meet the needs of all of their students regardless of ability or learning style. This subgroup asserts that their funding has been continuously cut making meeting the needs of students is more difficult because of this. Respondents believe that a lower operating budget is only be achieved through reductions in salary and cuts in staff. This was shown through a narration of pay and benefit cuts that have continued for the last ten years.

There is an overwhelming belief with this group that the money that the district receives is both misallocated and misused. Interviewees pointed to the use of funds to improve the high school track and replace the football field turf instead of using it for curricular supports such as interventionists and social/emotional supports. Staff also pointed to the formation of district wide committees to make recommendations regarding curriculum purchases, yet only purchase what district leadership chooses. This has left teachers with an abundance of materials that no longer fit the curriculum or are unable to be utilized to their full capacity.

This group believes that the funding that comes to the LEA from the state is limited and does not been the needs of the students. Further, respondents have shown a lack of trust in leadership, both at the district and building level, to deploy funds in the best interest of the students while continuing to be able to adequately compensate staff members. The lack of understanding regarding where district funds come from as well as the policies and guidelines that determine how money can be spent hurt this subgroup's ability to articulate a strong grasp of school finance.

Research Question 1: Does a teacher's understanding of educational finance affect their job satisfaction?

Through both the initial survey and subsequent interviews, the understanding of job satisfaction within a small suburban school district was reached. When determining the level of job satisfaction within the population, the JSS revealed many commonalities between subgroups. Teachers with high job satisfaction and those with low satisfaction placed a significant value on their relationship with their colleagues and the surrounding community. Differentiation between the two groups appeared in the areas of compensation and supervision. The contrast between the two groups was evident in the results to the JSS and highlighted even more as the individual interviews took place.

Teachers within the high job satisfaction subgroup were able to explain how schools obtain funds within Michigan, highlighting on the multiple sources of funding, the policies that control how those funds can be used, and why the decisions made at the district level are happening. This subgroup identified that school funding in Michigan has declined over time due to an economic recession, population decline, and student loss via school of choice and charter schools. Under the current reform measures, which put a premium on competition amongst districts for students, it is believed that the district leadership is acting in the best interest of the students while continuing to support the teaching staff in any way they can.

As differences developed between the high job satisfaction and low job satisfaction subgroups, it is clear that the understanding of school finance influences the overall job satisfaction a teacher has. Participants who were able to describe the avenues in which schools are funded as well as the reasons why leadership deploys funding, showed higher levels of job satisfaction. The research completed does not mean that the teachers agree with the decisions of their supervisors or the level of their compensation but shows that there is a connection between their understanding of funding and their overall job satisfaction.

Further, the subgroup of low job satisfaction was not able to share the variables of school funding, specifically the where district funds come from or the reasons behind district level spending. This group believes that there is misuse of funds at the district level, which has created distrust among teachers and their supervisors. This level of skepticism flows into the subgroup's feelings regarding compensation. Here, they demonstrate a misunderstanding between the utilization of funds and their pay. This subgroup's scores on the initial JSS and their corresponding interviews allow for a determination that the understanding of school finances affects their job satisfaction.

After completing both the initial surveys and then the investigative interviews, commonalities have been present between both subgroups. Each participant's knowledge and conclusions about school finance has indicated having an impact on their overall job satisfaction. Thus, the hypothesis for the research is correct.

Chapter 5

Summary of Findings

This chapter will summarize and add greater depth to the findings of the mixed methods research study that evaluated the impact a teacher's understanding of educational finance has on job satisfaction. It will present a synopsis of the findings, implications for school districts, study limitations, and recommendations for future research. This study was guided by two primary research questions: (1) Does a teacher's understanding of educational finance affect their overall job satisfaction? (2) What do teachers identify as the factors that cause changes in the financial climate of education?

Data for this study was gathered through a multi-faceted approach. The first stage of data collection occurred using Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (1994). The quantitative method allowed all teachers within the small suburban school district to have the opportunity to take part in the study. Out of the 97 perspective participants, 35 responded to the survey request. The responses to the survey were categorized based on the participant's overall job satisfaction. The categories used to classify levels of overall satisfaction were satisfaction, ambivalent, and dissatisfaction. For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction refers to a teacher's contentedness with their job, ambivalent is a teacher who demonstrates both equivalently strong positive and negative feelings toward their job, and dissatisfaction is an unhappy teacher who has negative feelings about their work. Within the qualitative interviews, respondents from both the satisfaction and dissatisfaction subgroups were asked to participate.

Findings from the initial quantitative survey identified common themes among participants who showed job satisfaction and those who revealed dissatisfaction. The teachers whose responses showed dissatisfaction commonly believed the district does not utilize funds to adequately compensate their employees and there is a low level of support from district level leadership. Compensation is not just a teacher's salary, it also includes benefits such as healthcare, retirement plans, paid sick leave, and other fringe benefits (Perie & Baker, 1997). Additionally, support from district leadership included professional growth opportunities and implementation plans, materials and resources, and social and emotional support within the school community.

The responses indicated that the participants believe their salary is low in relation to their education and their compensation does not reflect the effort and time that is dedicated to their job. The subjects with dissatisfaction also were coordinated in their response regarding the change in the student experience. Alterations in classes that are available to students, reductions in extra-curricular opportunities, and a limitation of supplies were repetitive in responses, demonstrating a negative impact on job satisfaction.

Study participants who showed job satisfaction also articulated common themes. Coworkers and Operating Conditions were the two most shared responses. Social supports, specifically the positive relationships that are formed between staff members, create a sense of belonging amongst teaching staff (Choy et al., 1993; Scheopner, 2010). The school community's socioeconomic status, levels of diversity, the deployment of resources, and infrastructure all make up the operating conditions within the school district.

While the research indicated there are similarities between the opinions of staff members who displayed job satisfaction and those with dissatisfaction, the understanding of educational funding was drastically different between the two subgroups. Through the initial JSS, each group identified losses of pay, structural changes, and lacking educational opportunities as having an impact on their job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Funding

Satisfaction for teachers is determined through the entwining of multiple variables geared toward personal growth and student progress. The culture within the school district, as well as the assumptions and beliefs of the people within the surrounding community influences perceptions and affects the sense of belonging (Cockburn, 2000; Finnigan, 2012). Teachers within this study highlighted the importance of being part of a system that focuses on student growth and promotes teacher well-being. Student growth hinders on not only the academic success of students but also the socio-emotional stability that the district offers. Within both subgroups, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, the supervision of the district and the academic opportunities for students played a determiner for the level of satisfaction.

While focusing on the subjects who initially showed job satisfaction through the quantitative phase, interviews determined there was an understanding of district leadership's responsibilities and their fiscal responsibility. This subgroup sees leadership as supportive and responsible to the students and the staff. They believe that the actions taken lay the groundwork for student performance while supporting the teaching staff in professional growth and financial gain. Through coding, it was clear that the feeling was the district had utilized funds to supplement curriculum as well as supply teachers with resources to drive instruction.

Teachers with satisfaction described how educational funding came from multiple sources and are only able to be utilized on specific expenses. Key to this was the understanding of Title funding and of the importance of bonds. The satisfaction subgroup identified the district's use of Title II funds to promote teacher learning through professional development inside and outside the district.

Outside of professional development deployed through title appropriations, teachers explained the shift in Michigan educational funding through Proposal A. This proposal, according to teachers with job satisfaction, allowed for school districts across the state to level the funding imbalance and work to ensure that each district received a minimum amount of funding per student to create their district's general fund. Though the proposal created a minimum amount of money per student, it still allowed for differences between each district's SAF. Districts are able to use the Hold Harmless clause to continue to keep their per-pupil funding at pre-Proposal A levels. As long as communities continue to renew the millage, the funding will stay at its current level pending state level adjustments. The job satisfaction subgroup explained the value of Hold Harmless, noting that it allowed the district to limit budget cuts that can determine staff compensation changes and student learning opportunities.

Participants who had low job satisfaction on the initial JSS struggled to articulate the source of funding and demonstrated distrust in their leadership to adequately utilize the available funds to move the district forward. The lack of trust with the school and district leadership stemmed from the perceived inadequate use of materials to support student learning and professional growth. The ineffectiveness to support student learning is due to a continual transition of manipulatives, textbooks, and teacher resources. Staff with job dissatisfaction believed that money was continually squandered through unnecessary changes in curricular resources and the training that goes with it.

Dissatisfaction subjects believe that money used to support staff learning comes from the district's general fund. The general fund is made up of the state's SAF, county millages, hold harmless monies, and other general funding available to all school districts. This is also where staff compensation comes from. Pay is not the only the financial compensation provided to staff, it also includes things such as insurance, tuition reimbursement, sick leave, and retirement plans. Common among the participants with job dissatisfaction is the belief that the wasteful spending on curricular materials, unnecessary building maintenance and repairs, and consultants.

Respondents with job dissatisfaction did not understand the sources of funding for the district as well as the spending requirements placed on leadership. Compensation for staff comes directly from the general fund which is supplied through the state's SAF. The general fund is the only location that compensation can come from. Things such as curricular materials, building maintenance and repairs, and outside consultants, though able to be paid for out of the district's general fund, often are paid for through grants, bonds, and other appropriations.

Through the interview process, the job dissatisfaction subgroup demonstrated frustration and animosity toward district level leadership with respect to a loss of compensation. Viewing other open spending on things such as building improvements, athletic field refurbishing, additional (unnecessary) curriculum resources, and outside consulting, left staff confused as to why there is funds for ancillary things but no funds available to provide their scheduled raises. Staff was also resentful over the pay cuts that have recently happened within the district in order to stabilize the district's general fund balance.

The teaching staff with job dissatisfaction indicated a lack of understanding with how the school district receives money from multiple resources and the specific ways that capital resources can be used. Money from bonds and the district sinking fund is used for maintenance, repairs, and upgrades, leaving the general fund for emergency. The district does use the district general fund to purchase curriculum for the schools, but it is budgeted for on a yearly basis. To support curricular purchases, Title money is used teacher and student learning, professional development, and outside consultants which continues to allow for district growth. All that this group was able to verbalize was a reduction of compensation and continued spending on things they see as non-essential.

Conclusion

The initial JSS survey determined the levels of teacher job satisfaction within a small, suburban school district. After the responses were sorted into subgroups of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, the corresponding interviews unveiled a drastic difference in the understanding of school finance. Each group focused on specific aspects of their career and the organizational structure of the school district. These variables were proven to impact their job satisfaction.

While the school district and its leaders navigate reductions in their fund allowance and the changes in how money is spent, the teachers are left to their own assumptions about the reasons why. Teachers who scored in the job satisfaction range on the JSS explained their experiences through the interview process and were able to explain why spending decisions were made. The avenues funds came to the district as well as the utilization guidelines allowed these teachers to understand the direction the district leadership is taking. Even though they did not agree with all of the choices made, they understood the rationale, therefore were able to continue to have overall satisfaction.

Study participants that had job dissatisfaction noted many of the same variables highlighted by the satisfaction subgroup, influenced their work. While conducting interviews, the dissatisfaction subgroup was unable to decipher where district finances come from, specifically the multiple avenues of the SAF, grants, and bonds. This lack of understanding is an important deviation from those who showed job satisfaction. While not knowing the sources of funding causes questions to arise, it also results in the teaching staff becoming critical of district spending. Each source contains specific regulations with respect to how the monies are spent and what they purchase.

Throughout this study, variables that affect teacher job satisfaction are outlined and the understanding of educational finance was evaluated for a small suburban school district. When dividing interview responses for teachers with job satisfaction and those with dissatisfaction, it is apparent that teachers who understand school finance have greater job satisfaction in relation to those who do not. Based on the knowledge gained, the research proves that a teacher's knowledge of educational finances influences their job satisfaction. The participants who showed job satisfaction within the initial JSS survey were able to describe the sources of school funding in Michigan, specifically the SAF, millages, bonds, and grants. They continually responded to questions by describing how district and building level administration use the funds available to support student learning and individual growth.

In contrast, those with job dissatisfaction were unable to connect the changes in funding and local level decisions. This disconnect created a feeling of mistrust, animosity, and frustration for participants. By not understanding funding formulas and uses, the job dissatisfaction subgroup continued to allow inaccuracies and misinformation negatively affect their job satisfaction.

Implications for School Districts

The implications of this study for school district leaders and policy makers is important. When district leaders and policy makers are aware of the variables that influence teacher job satisfaction, they gain the ability to create opportunities that influence experiences and affect the work environment. As district leaders understand how financial change throughout education alters the job satisfaction of teachers, they can begin to engage staff in learning about educational finance and assist in their collective knowledge as district level decisions are made. This is increasingly important as school districts across Michigan and surrounding areas face reductions in students, lower state and federal funding, and limited growth options.

To assist in the collective knowledge of educational funding within the school district, it is important that careful consideration is taken with respect to educating staff. The interviews within the study helped determine that teachers who did not have formal educational experiences were less likely to retain an understanding of educational finance regardless of how many open, optional opportunities the school district provided. Working with the staff to ensure that their district and school funding is explained and understood can bridge the gap between staff members who received formal education and those that are left to learn on their own. This will need to go beyond voluntary meetings and committees that are currently available to staff and include mandatory professional development that is delivered to all staff members.

Findings within this study also show that teachers who lack an understanding of school finances have a poor perception of their supervision and level of compensation. A large part of this comes from the trust or mistrust felt by these teachers in relation to the decisions made within the district. Kouzes and Posner (2003) describe trust as being at the heart of collaboration; without it, leaders cannot lead and things do not get done. When teachers do not trust their leaders, the school community and most importantly the students, suffer. Moving through educational reforms and financial changes, district leaders can learn from this study. Leaders should teach their staff about financial changes as well as the reasons behind the decisions that are being made. Doing this can improve the job satisfaction of their teaching staff.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although a significant amount of research exists on the factors that influence job satisfaction within the educational setting, further research related to the impact of financial understanding on job satisfaction is needed. While expanding this research, district leaders can leverage the experiences of teachers to establish procedures to help teachers understand and adapt to the fiscal changes they are facing.

In addition to the application of the findings to other school districts, a continuation of research should include and expand the initial sample size. Extending the research into districts that cover diverse populations, including race, ethnicity, and socioeconomics. This will assist in expanding the generalizability of the study, allowing it to be applied to larger school districts. Further, exploring whether there is a relationship between years of teaching experience and understanding of school finances should be evaluated. This will continue to add to the literature about teacher job satisfaction.

Finally, as educational finances affect more than just the teachers, engaging other members of staff into the study would give a better understanding of the impact financial knowledge has on job satisfaction. This would allow for district leaders and policy makers to address all aspects of the district when working to overcome financial stressors. In today's educational climate, this knowledge will assist districts in keeping staff motivated and focused on student learning.

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Appendix A

The University of Michigan-Dearborn

INFORMED CONSENT

Teachers' Understanding of School Finance and the Impact on Job Satisfaction

Title of the Project:

Teachers' Understanding of School Finances and its Impact on Teacher Job Satisfaction

Principal Investigator: John Kernan, University of Michigan-Dearborn
Faculty Advisor: Dr. Bonnie Beyer, University of Michigan-Dearborn

Purpose of the study:

John Kernan invites you to participate in a research study about the effects of a deficit elimination plan on teacher job satisfaction.

Description of Subject Involvement:

If you agree to be part of the research study you will be asked to complete a survey based on characteristics of the teaching profession. The survey will evaluate your feelings toward your profession. After completing a survey, you will be eligible to take part in an interview to better learn about your understanding of a school district's financial system.

Benefits:

Although you may not directly benefit from being in this study, others may benefit because the research and findings can be transferred and applied to other suburban school districts. The information will give district leaders the ability to anticipate changes in staff morale and satisfaction based on financial changes, therefore, making a smoother transition for all stakeholders.

Risks and Discomforts:

The researcher has taken steps to minimize the risks of this study. Even so, you may still experience some risks related to your participation, even when the researcher is careful to avoid them. These risks may include the following: Participants may feel uncomfortable sharing information regarding their feelings related to their job with a supervisor.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for this study.

Confidentiality:

We plan to publish or present the results of this study but will not include any information that would identify you. There are some reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provided as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly such as the Dearborn IRB.

Storage and future use of data:

The data or specimens you provide will be stored on password protected computer files.
The researchers will retain the data/specimens for 1 year.
The researchers will dispose of your data/specimens by deleting files.
The data will be made available to other researchers for other studies following the completion of this research study and will not contain information that could identify you.

Voluntary nature of the study:

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time. If you decide to withdraw early, please contact the researcher as soon as possible. Once withdrawn, all data collected will be erased.

Contact Information:

If you have questions about this research, including questions about scheduling or your compensation for participating, you may contact John Kernan at JKernan@umich.edu or Dr. Bonnie Beyer at Beyer@umich.edu.

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, or wish to obtain information, ask questions, or discuss concerns with someone other than the researcher(s), you may contact the Dearborn IRB Administrator at (734) 763-5084. Written questions should be directed to the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, 2066 IAVS, University of Michigan-Dearborn, Evergreen Rd., Dearborn, MI 48128-2406, (313) 593-5468; the Dearborn IRB Administrator at (734) 763-5084, or email Dearborn-IRB@umich.edu.

If you agree to participate in this study, please sign your name in the space provided below; you will be given a copy of this consent form for you to keep. If you would like to learn the findings of this study, please email me at jkernan@umich.edu and I will be happy to forward that information to you. Thank you for your participation in this study.

I agree to participate in the study.

____
Printed Name

____
Signature

____
Date

Appendix B
INFORMATION SHEET
TEACHER'S UNDERSTANDING OF SCHOOL FINANCE AND THE IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION
HUM# HUM00173106

Principal Investigator: **John Kernan, University of Michigan-Dearborn**
Faculty Advisor: **Dr. Bonnie Beyer, University of Michigan-Dearborn**

You are being requested to submit a re-consent for information that was provided for the study below. This is being requested due to the original data being initially collected prior to IRB Exempt 2 approval. If you choose not to re-consent, your initial data provided will be removed from the study and destroyed using the identified steps. Information regarding the initial study can be found below.

If you agree to be part of the research study, you will be asked to complete Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey. This survey evaluates an individual's current level of job satisfaction compared to normed data. After the initial survey, selected participants will be asked to take part in an interview regarding their knowledge of school finance.

Benefits of the research: Although you may not directly benefit from being in this study, others may benefit because the research and findings can be transferred and applied to other suburban school districts. The information will give district leaders the ability to anticipate changes in staff morale and satisfaction based on financial changes, therefore, making a smoother transition for all stakeholders.

Risks and discomforts: The researcher has taken steps to minimize the risks of this study. Even so, you may still experience some risks related to your participation, even when the researcher is careful to avoid them. These risks may include the following: Participants may feel uncomfortable sharing information regarding their feelings related to their job with a supervisor.

Compensation: There is no compensation for this study.

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time. You may choose not to complete the survey or continue with the interview for any reason.

I will protect the confidentiality of your research records by initially keeping survey results and transcribed interviews in password protected computer files. Once interviews are transcribed, all audio recordings will be deleted. All data will be retained for 1 year from publishing and then erased.

Information collected in this project may be shared with other researchers, but we will not share any information that could identify you.

If you have questions about this research, including questions about scheduling or your compensation for participating, you may contact John Kernan at JKernan@umich.edu or Dr. Bonnie Beyer at Beyer@umich.edu.

The University of Michigan Institutional Review Board Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences has determined that this study is exempt from IRB oversight.

_____ *I confirm that I am 18 years old or older.*

_____*I consent to participate in the research.*

____
Signature

____
Printed Name

Appendix C

Teachers' Understanding of School Finance and the Impact on Job Satisfaction

Dear Participant,

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled: Teachers' Understanding of School Finance and the Impact on Job Satisfaction. I am currently enrolled in the educational doctoral program at the University of Michigan-Dearborn and am in the process of writing my dissertation. The purpose for this research is to determine how a teacher's knowledge of school funding will impact their levels of job satisfaction.

The accompanying link will take you to the survey that is designed to collect information on your level of job satisfaction.

Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You may decline all together, however each question will need to be answered for scoring purposes. There are no known risks to participation. Your responses will remain confidential and anonymous. Data from this research will be kept under lock and key, only being reported as a collective total. No one other than the researchers will know your individual answers to the questionnaire.

If you agree to participate in this project, please answer the questions on the questionnaire as best you can. It should take approximately ten minutes to complete. Your responses will be automatically reported once you complete the survey.

If you have any questions about the project, please contact John Kernan at JKernan@umich.edu.

Thank you for your participation,

John Kernan
Doctoral Student
University of Michigan-Dearborn

Appendix D

Teachers' Understanding of School Finance and the Impact on Job Satisfaction

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in the Job Satisfaction Survey. I am now inviting you to take part in the interview portion of the research. Please click HERE to be taken to a form which will allow scheduling of your interview. Once dates are entered, I will contact you to confirm your day and time. The interview should last no longer than one hour.

Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You may decline all together, however each question will need to be answered for scoring purposes. There are no known risks to participation. Your responses will remain confidential and anonymous. Data from this research will be kept under lock and key, only being reported as a collective total. No one other than the researchers will know your individual answers to the interview.

If you agree to participate in this project, please complete the scheduling component as soon as possible. Your response will be automatically reported and a confirmation email will be sent. I look forward to speaking with you.

If you have any questions about the project, please contact John Kernan at JKernan@umich.edu.

Thank you for your participation,

John Kernan
Doctoral Student
University of Michigan-Dearborn

Appendix E

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix F

Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida

The Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS, has some of its items written in each direction--positive and negative. Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each, can range from 4 to 24; while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Each item is scored from 1 to 6 if the original response choices are used. High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction, so the scores on the negatively worded items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded into facet or total scores. A score of 6 representing strongest agreement with a negatively worded item is considered equivalent to a score of 1 representing strongest disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing them to be combined meaningfully. Below is the step by step procedure for scoring.

1. Responses to the items should be numbered from 1 representing strongest disagreement to 6 representing strongest agreement with each. This assumes that the scale has not be modified and the original agree-disagree response choices are used.
2. The negatively worded items should be reverse scored. Below are the reversals for the original item score in the left column and reversed item score in the right. The rightmost values should be substituted for the leftmost. This can also be accomplished by subtracting the original values for the internal items from 7.

1 = 6

2 = 5

3 = 4

4 = 3

5 = 2

6 = 1

3. Negatively worded items: 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, 36.

Note the reversals are NOT every other one.

4. Sum responses to 4 items for each facet score and all items for total score after the reversals from step 2. Items go into the subscales as shown in the table.

Subscale	**Item numbers**
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28
Promotion	2, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 29
Contingent Rewards	5, 14, 23, 32
Operating Conditions	6, 15, 24, 31
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34
Nature of work	8, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18, 26, 36
Total satisfaction	1-36

5. If some items are missing you must make an adjustment otherwise the score will be too low. The best procedure is to compute the mean score per item for the individual, and substitute that mean for missing items. For example, if a person does not make a response to 1 item, take the total from step 4, divide by the number answered or 3 for a facet or 35 for total, and substitute this number for the missing item by adding it to the total from step 4. An easier but less accurate procedure is to substitute a middle response for each of the missing items. Since the center of the scale is between 3 and 4, either number could be used. One should alternate the two numbers as missing items occur.

Appendix G

Interpreting Satisfaction Scores on the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida

I am frequently asked how to interpret scores on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS assesses job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied). There are no specific cut scores that determine whether an individual is satisfied or dissatisfied, in other words, we cannot confidently conclude that there is a particular score that is the dividing line between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Where there is a need to draw conclusions about satisfaction versus dissatisfaction for samples or individuals, two approaches can be used.

The normative approach would compare the target person/sample to the norms for the sample. My website provides norms for several different groups. One can reference the norms and describe given individuals/samples as being more satisfied, dissatisfied, or about the same as the norms. These norms are limited in three ways. First, there are a small number of occupations and organizations represented. Second, the norms are not from representative samples, but rather are an accumulation of mostly convenience samples people send me. In other words, they are a convenience sample of convenience samples. Third, the norms are mainly from North America—Canada and the U.S. Mean levels of job satisfaction varies across countries, so one should not assume these norms are representative of other countries, particularly those that are culturally dissimilar from North America.

The absolute approach picks some logical, if arbitrary cut scores to represent dissatisfaction versus satisfaction. Given the JSS uses 6-point agree-disagree response choices, we can assume that agreement with positively-worded items and disagreement with negatively-worded items would represent satisfaction, whereas disagreement with positive-worded items, and agreement with negative-worded items represents dissatisfaction. For the 4-item subscales, as well as the 36-item total score, this means that scores with a mean item response (after reverse scoring the negatively-worded items) of 4 or more represents satisfaction, whereas mean responses of 3 or less represents dissatisfaction. Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence. Translated into the summed scores, for the 4-item subscales with a range from 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 for ambivalent.

Appendix H

Survey Norms for Educators on the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida

Facet	**Mean**	**Weighted Mean**	**Standard Deviation of Sample Means**
Salary	12	8.5	2.1
Promotion	11.7	10.8	2
Supervision	19.1	19.5	2
Benefits	14.3	12.9	1.8
Contingent Rewards	13.6	12.3	1.6
Conditions	12	11.6	2.5
Coworkers	18.5	18.5	1.2
Work Itself	19.4	19.8	1.5
Communication	14.6	13.1	2.2
Total	135	126.7	7.3

Number of Samples: 8 Total Sample Size: 9507

Appendix I

Interview Questions

1. Proposal A, passed in 1994, is the policy that guides school funding in Michigan. How has this impacted the way that schools are funded?

2. What is your district's operating budget?

3. Where do the funds that make up your district budget come from?

4. Do you believe your school has been able to efficiently and effectively make the best use of all funds provided to them? Why or Why not? What could be the causes?

5. Do charter schools impact your district's finances? How so?

6. How much autonomy do school leaders have to make campus-based decisions? Do they control their own budgets?

7. What have you student's lost due to budget cuts? What caused these cuts? Who determined these cuts would be made?

8. Have you personally lost due to budget cuts? If so, what? What caused these cuts and who determined these cuts would be made?

9. Does state and/or federal policy impact the way school systems are funded? If so, how? Does it impact the way we teach students? If so, how?

10. What have you done or what opportunities have you had to learn about educational finance?

11. Is there anything else regarding school funding that you would like to share?