

**FACULTY TRUST AND ITS IMPACT ON  
VOLUNTARY TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS**

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Doctor of Education**

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**by**

**Loree Cobb Reid**

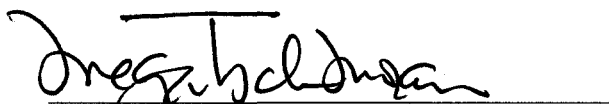
**July 2008**

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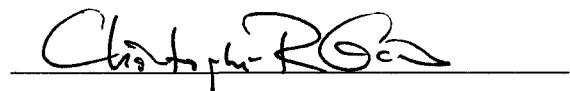
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## DEDICATION

The dissertation is dedicated to my great aunt, Violetta Ming Lee whom I loved dearly. She was a role model in my life and I honor her memory by achieving this milestone. This work is also dedicated to my maternal and paternal ancestors, who made many sacrifices so that I may have a better life. I honor the many hours they cleaned houses, cooked food, served passengers on trains, planted and harvested crops, sawed lumber, repaired shoes, and sewed clothes for little or minimal pay so that I could reap the benefits of their hard labor and fulfill my dreams. And finally, this work is dedicated to the best parents in the world, Huey and Eleanor Cobb, and my incredibly supportive husband, Nelson Reid. Without their love and encouragement, this would not have been possible.

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ABSTRACT

Teacher turnover has become a concern in the field of education. The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between faculty trust in principals, colleagues, and clients and voluntary teacher turnover intentions. The secondary purpose of this study was to investigate possible reasons for teacher turnover and potential job alternatives for teachers in order to compare the differences between teachers who intend to leave the profession (attrition) and teachers who intend to stay in the profession (retention), as well as teachers who intend to leave their current school (migration) and teachers who intend to stay in their current school (non-migration). A teacher survey provided the data source for this study. The survey was distributed to 880 elementary, middle, and high school teachers in a selected Virginia school district. Teachers were asked to complete a modified version of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (2003) *Omnibus Trust Scale*. Also, teachers were asked to complete a *Teacher Turnover Survey* that provided information concerning their turnover intention.

The results from the study indicated that there was a moderate statistically significant relationship between trust in the principal and teachers' intention to leave their current school, and a moderate statistically significant relationship between faculty trust and teachers' intention to leave their current school. Administrative support, retirement, and parent respect yielded a significant difference between "leavers" and "stayers". Administrative support and retirement yielded a significant difference between "migrators" and "non-migrators".

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## CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM

### Introduction

Teachers have been deeply affected by government led initiatives that try to ensure quality teaching practices in every school (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Changes in the educational environment due to comprehensive school reform initiatives have resulted in mounting frustration among teachers, which has spawned increased job dissatisfaction (Smylie, 1999; Guarino, Santebanez, Daley, & Brewer, 2006; Ingersoll, 1999, 2002a; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2007), decreased organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Clugston, 2000; Somers & Birnbaum, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993), and lowered morale (Briggs & Richardson, 1992). In addition, changes in the expectations of teachers have affected the psychological contract between teachers and school administration (Sparrow, 1996). A sentiment of emotional and physical emancipation from the classroom reflects the disposition of educators contemplating leaving the teaching profession (Kopkowski, 2008). As teachers are asked to change their philosophy and their instructional practices, it is essential that school leaders create supportive professional communities anchored in trust and teamwork, while managing effective working conditions in order to offset withdrawal cognitions (i.e. thoughts of leaving, search decisions, and intentions to quit) that may lead to voluntary teacher turnover (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

Teacher turnover is a term that describes changes in teacher employment status from one year to the next (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997). It may include teachers exiting the profession, but it could also include teachers who change careers within the education field. Teacher turnover is composed of several phenomena which include: 1) attrition or exiting teaching

altogether, 2) teacher transfer between schools within a district, 3) teacher transfer between school districts within a state, 4) teacher transfer to another state (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997), and 5) the transfer of teachers between different teaching fields (Billingsley, 1993). Although the teaching profession has customarily experienced high rates of turnover (Heyns, 1988; Lortie, 1975), current trends place our country's educational system in jeopardy due to an increase in voluntary teacher turnover within specific content areas (Curran, Abrahams, & Manuel, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2001) and within disadvantaged school populations (Allen, 2005; Carroll, 2007). A number of studies have discovered that teachers transfer out of high-minority and low-income schools (Carroll, Reichardt, & Guarino, 2000; Scafidi, Sjoquist, & Stinebrickner, 2002) or out of low-performing schools into better-performing schools (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004). Also, teacher shortages, especially in high demand areas such as science, mathematics, and special education, have become a major concern nationally and regionally (Cochran-Smith, 2004). Research studies have shown that special education, math, and science are the fields with the highest turnover rates because of the difficulty in recruiting qualified teacher candidates (Boe, Bobbitt & Cook, 1997; Grissmer & Kirby, 1997; Ingersoll, 2000).

Furthermore, the retirement of thousands of baby boomer teachers coupled with the exodus of younger teachers (Henke, Chen, Geis & Knepper, 2000) is costing school systems considerable amounts of money as they struggle to fill vacant teaching positions (Grissmer & Kirby, 1997; Ingersoll, 1995, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1999). Every year a growing number of teachers move from school to school hoping to find better working conditions (Ingersoll, 2001), and more support from school leadership (Colgan, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004; McElroy, 2004). Approximately half of teacher turnover is attributed to teacher transfers between schools within a school district and between school districts, both in and out of state (Boe, Bobbitt, &

Cook, 1997; Ingersoll, 2001; Marvel et al., 2007). If this teacher turnover trend continues, it will impact how we operate hard to staff schools, how we retain highly qualified teachers in hard to staff subject areas, how we serve minority and economically disadvantaged populations, and ultimately how we fund education (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003).

Addressing teacher retention in the midst of high teacher turnover rates is the best practical approach in addressing turnover. The dilemma is not finding enough teachers to do the job, but finding ways to keep teachers in our schools (Carroll, 2007). Teacher retention has become a national crisis (Hunt & Carroll, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003) and the costs associated with teacher turnover, termination processes, hiring substitutes, recruitment, hiring practices, and initial professional development are costs that cannot be ignored by school systems. Attracting, supporting, and retaining teachers to staff our nation's schools will require a comprehensive strategy (Birkeland & Johnson, 2002 p 21) that stresses the importance of trust-based social networks. Retention is not likely to improve unless impressive improvements are made in the organization, in the management, and in the funding of public schools. Pending this paradigm change, an increased supply of qualified teachers will be needed to decrease teacher shortages (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2006).

In order to increase teacher retention, school leaders need to discover the potential reasons behind teacher's dissatisfaction with work conditions, and implement changes in order to prevent teacher turnover behaviors. Working conditions play a large role in teacher turnover decisions (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Futernick, 2007; Guarino et al., 2006; Loeb & Darling-Hammond, 2005; Bang, Kern, Luft, & Roehrig, 2007). Most teachers who leave the profession prematurely complain about poor working conditions (Colgan, 2004; Marlow, Betancourt-Smith, & Inman, 1995). There are four major school working conditions that

influence a teacher's decision to quit: lack of support from school administration; classroom management; lack of student motivation; and lack of influence over classroom and school wide decision-making (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Based on current research data, school leaders should presume that inferior working conditions influence teacher turnover behavior (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). School leaders must address these issues in order to keep teachers from leaving.

Many schools strive to be recognized as a place where professionalism is practiced, authentic learning is valued, and a strong sense of community exists (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Teachers want to be a part of a supportive school environment that embodies strong leadership and emphasizes collegial interactions. Trust is a major component in building effective organizational cultures (Ouchi, 1981). When schools develop a healthy culture of trust, they eventually promote positive and supportive school climates (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994). The factors that motivate teachers to remain in public schools are embedded within the components of school culture. They consist of positive interpersonal relationships within the school, active administrative support, and teacher participation in decision-making (Ingersoll, 1999). School leaders need to actively support the social relationships within their school organization and build trust among their faculty and staff.

The development of trusting interpersonal relationships becomes increasingly important and essential to the overall effectiveness of organizations (Kramer & Cook, 2004). The construct of trust has an important effect on the interactions that take place in schools (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Psychoanalyst Erik Erikson emphasized the importance of each individual's need for the trust and respect of those who surround them in order to develop to their fullest potential (Wilson, Woods, & Gaff, 1974). Relationship building strategies as well as instructional

strategies need to be prevalent in comprehensive school improvement plans. When relationships are embedded in an organizational framework, the facets of trust play a significant role in the effectiveness and well-being of the organization, and these healthy learning climates are an indication of high trust relationships within schools (Hoy, Gage, & Tarter, 2006).

Convincing research has examined the relevance of trust among employees in many public, private, and military organizational settings, and employees' trust toward leadership and their colleagues has been directly related to outcomes which promote low turnover intentions (Costigan, Ilter, & Berman, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Taking this into account, it would be beneficial to examine the meaningfulness of trust as an influential factor facilitating voluntary turnover intention.

### **Conceptual Framework**

Schools are intricate organizational structures influenced by multiple social systems. Inside the classroom, a triangular relationship exists between student, teacher, and subject matter (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001). On the "micro" level, the practice of teaching, and the teacher community and culture, can be recognized as being at the core of an embedded system (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001). Effectively navigating this system requires the reliance upon relationships and social networking. The multifaceted issue of voluntary teacher turnover requires an extensive analysis from a broader perspective that forces leaders to make system-level changes in order to address complex teacher turnover behaviors (Minarik, Thorton, & Perreault, 2003).

### *Social Capital Theory*

Social capital, which is defined as the capacity to utilize and influence social relationships to retrieve resources (Frank, Zhao, & Borman, 2004) determines the extent the teacher community, as part of the larger school culture, is able to effectively function. Social Capital Theory (Grannovetter, 1985; Burt, 1997; Portes, 1998; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993, 1995) postulates that there are some qualities and values that are embedded in social networks and relationships that provide emotional and relational benefits that individuals can utilize. Not only are these possible benefits dependent on the people one is acquainted with, but also subject to one's awareness of their social connections. This social connectedness creates a relationship that generates a flow of benefits for individuals who are connected to the network. Social capital exists in the actual relationships among members in a group and is dependent upon the level of trust among the members to add value to the group's relations.

Social Capital Theory focuses on the value embedded in social networks (Putnam, 1993). The value acquired through investment in social relationships is translated into social and economic gain for individuals (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Portes, 1998; Sobel, 2002). No single individual can claim ownership of this value because it is generated through practical interactions across social networks (Coleman, 1988). The conditions of work and how it is carried out in organizations is fundamentally about relationships (Larson & Luthans, 2006). These social relationships are formed through connections, norms, and trust (Luthans, et al., 2004). The importance of social capital is that it creates a contextual element for human capital. Without social capital, organizations would be negatively impacted because all employees directly or indirectly work with others within the organization (Larson & Luthans, 2006).

## *Trust*

Fukuyama (1995) equates the concept of trust with the concept of social capital. He defines social capital as the ability of people to effectively work together. He observed that trust is critical not only to economic life, but to virtually every other aspect of existence as well. Fukuyama is interested in large scale social settings that encompass a broader view of trust that include personal relationships, as well as the norms, standards, and codes of behavior that influences individual and group conduct and expectations. This broader view helps to fill in some of the details surrounding the social standards and expectations involved in building or assessing trust. Fukuyama concluded that one of the most important lessons one can learn from examining economic life is that a nation's well-being, and its ability to compete, is guided by a single, pervasive social characteristic: the level of trust inherent in that society. Several researchers define trust figuratively as the glue that holds relationships together (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). These figurative expressions suggest that trust is essential for effective working relationships, and that it bonds people together.

Social capital refers to resources of trust, relationships, and contact networks (Luthans et al., 2004). It is the setting whereby individuals can prove their trustworthiness, individuals can be monitored for the trustworthiness, and sanctions can be applied in the event that trust is violated. It also provides the foundation for trust in network forms in organizations. Tight-knit networks rooted in bonds of trust emerge to facilitate everyday interaction and cooperation in organization (Cook, 2005). "Relationships of all kinds are built on and sustained by trust. They can also be broken and destroyed by lack of trust" (Covey, 2006, p. 12). If an individual values preservation of a particular relationship, they will behave in a trustworthy manner toward the other. Also, if the other individual acknowledges their interest in being trustworthy, they will

begin to trust them (Cook, 2005). Trust comes to life when individuals bond, when they share an experience, crisis or success that supports connections and confirms expectations of each other. Trust grows by means of getting to know each other through human interactions (Costa, 1998).

Nothing is as fulfilling as a relationship of trust. Nothing is as inspiring as an offering of trust. Nothing is as profitable as the economics of trust. Nothing has more influence than a reputation of trust. Trust is the one thing that changes everything. There has never been a more vital time for people to establish, restore, and extend trust at all levels than in today's new global society (Covey, 2006 p 26).

### ***Turnover Intentions***

Turnover is an attitudinal variable that has specific significance for school organizations that face a teacher turnover crisis and find it difficult to retain teachers (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). The role of social factors may be more important than ever before in shedding light on teachers' work behavior and attitudes. The social capital perspective focuses on the relationships among individuals. Previous studies of turnover have largely neglected the roles of social networks (Granovetter, 1985). They failed to recognize that individuals are embedded in a web of social relations that influence their behaviors and guide their decisions (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Social networks play a vital role in individual's behaviors and attitudes. By focusing on a social network view, one can develop an alternative theoretical approach to understanding why teachers behave the way they do. Using turnover as a dependent variable supports the practical relevance of this approach (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

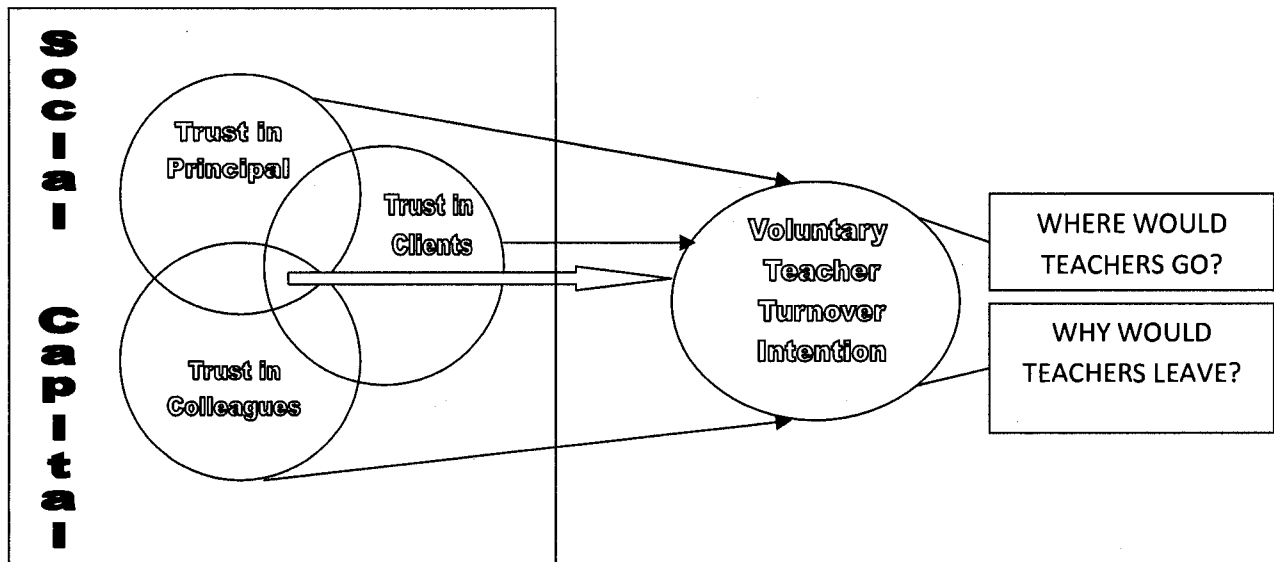
The study of social networks is important because it offers a comprehensive explanation of employee behavior and attitudes. When educational leaders regard teacher turnover from a

systems perspective, viewing interconnected parts such as the complexity of teachers' behaviors, the importance of teachers' relationships, and the impact of teachers' perceptions, then potential solutions can be analyzed in relation to the whole and adjustments can be made to address each issue that impacts teacher turnover (Minarik et al., 2003). The empirical literature of turnover examines formal aspects of the organization, or the individual, but not the social context of the individual. This research study attempts to offer alternative explanations for why teachers leave, providing practical insights for school leaders trying to induce teachers to stay.

### **The Model**

Trust is a crucial ingredient for building positive social relationships. Schools are social systems that depend on a variety of teacher relationships that include principals, colleagues, and clients. The success or collapse of an organization is related to the quality of the working relationships. The social exchanges within an organization involve unspecified obligations to reciprocate when an individual has benefited from another. This represents the foundation for long-term social relationships (Blau, 1964). Networks and reciprocity are essentially outcomes of trust. The idea of trust is essential for relationships to become reciprocal and for an individual to be involved in successful networks with other people (Paldam, 2000). An employee may feel obligated to repay the organization if they perceive their organization to be very supportive of them (Settoon et al., 1996) thus reducing turnover. In order for schools to become successful institutions of learning, emphasis must be placed on building the necessary trust-based relationships in order to retain qualified teachers and reduce voluntary teacher turnover.

The research model attempts to explore the influence that levels of faculty trust has on voluntary teacher turnover intentions. By analyzing teachers' individual perceptions of trust in their principal, in their colleagues, and in their clients, the model helps the researcher gain insight into the reciprocal relationship between their individual and collective subscales of faculty trust and voluntary teacher turnover intentions. Taking into account teacher turnover research, the model also focuses on where teachers would most likely go and the reasons driving their decision to potentially leave. Within this conceptual framework, the researcher investigates levels of faculty trust as it relates to teacher turnover intentions. The findings from the data analysis of faculty trust and voluntary teacher turnover intentions may support or dispute the research model and current research data on teacher turnover.



### **Statement of the Problem**

One of the most critical challenges facing our public schools today is high rates of teacher turnover. It hinders the staffing of public schools with qualified teachers, and has been identified as the foremost reason for teacher shortages (Ingersoll, 2001). The turnover rate among young teachers is one of the biggest problems facing education. Before they can develop their teaching craft, novice teachers are exiting the profession in record numbers, leaving in their wake a succession of inexperienced teachers. Veteran teachers are also overwhelmed with accountability initiatives that drive instructional practices and leave little time for establishing collegial relationships with their peers. Teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs and they are migrating to other schools or leaving the teaching profession. Of those teachers who leave because of job dissatisfaction, they frequently link their turnover problems to lack of support from the school administration, lack of teacher influence over decision-making, low salaries, student discipline issues, and poor student motivation (Ingersoll, 2003).

In frustration and disillusionment, teachers who are exiting classrooms are in search of better working conditions and supportive environments where they are treated as professionals and celebrated for the educational service they provide (Ingersoll, 2003; Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2006; Luekens, Lyter, & Fox, 2004). In a recent study, positive and supportive principal leadership was identified as one of the most critical working condition that influenced teachers' decisions about whether to stay in a school (Hirsch, 2005). The loss of human capital and the related productivity loss should be a primary concern of policy makers. Researchers and policy makers are now beginning to realize the economic impact of teacher turnover in schools.

Various research studies have attempted to measure the cost of teacher turnover. A Texas study incorporated numerous turnover cost models obtained from the business field. The findings from the study suggested that the cost of teachers leaving the teaching profession could range from 20% of the leaving teacher's salary to 150% of that same salary (Benner, 2000). A study by the Texas Center of Educational Research for the Texas State Board for Educator Certification estimated that because of their current state teacher turnover rate of 15.5%, the state of Texas was losing approximately \$329 million per year, or at least \$8,000 dollars per teacher (TCER, 2000). The Alliance for Excellent Education (2005) estimated that teacher attrition costs an employer 30% of the leaving employee's salary.

While focusing on teacher shortages and the economic costs of teacher turnover, one must also take into account the "intangible costs" of teacher turnover, or the difficult to describe but nonetheless perceived aspects that may also impact the organizational functioning of schools (Roseman, 1981). Such "intangible costs" of turnover are often neglected by schools and can be linked to the construct of trust, which has been found to effect organizational functioning and student outcomes (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Amid the characteristics associated with trust were a shared vision among faculty, consistent administrative support for teachers, and procedures for group decision making and problem solving. Supportive school leaders who create trusting environments have a positive effect on teachers' intention to remain in their school building (Hirsch, 2006; Hirsch & Emerick, 2007), and potentially influencing their decisions about where they would like to work.

### ***Purpose of the Study***

The primary purpose of this correlational study is to analyze the complex nature of voluntary teacher turnover by examining how levels of faculty trust relate to school teacher's turnover intentions. It is the desire of this researcher to cultivate an understanding of the issues surrounding voluntary teacher turnover intentions and to provide empirical evidence that makes a contribution to the existing body of knowledge.

### ***Research Questions***

1. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in the building principal related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
2. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their colleagues related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
3. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their clients related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
4. To what extent did the set of faculty trust variables explain voluntary teacher turnover intentions, and which, if any, of these variables makes an independent contribution?
5. Of those teachers who intended to leave, which reason did they ascribe as important or very important to their decision? How did they differ from teachers who intended to stay?
6. Of those teachers who intended to leave, where would they go? How did they differ from teachers who intended to stay?

### **Significance of the Study**

The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) stated that teacher turnover had become a national crisis. Given the nature of turnover and the harmful possibilities it presents for the educational system, it's clear that teacher shortages will require considerable leadership attention and methodical investigation to address the nuances of teacher turnover intentions. Turnover continues to be a topic of interest among researchers from disciplines encompassing psychology, sociology, management, and economics. In particular there is little evidence on the impact of faculty trust on teachers' decision to leave or stay in the education field. It was the objective of this paper to contribute toward filling this void.

Addressing these research questions will require a comprehensive and accurate understanding of the characteristics of trust and the influence those characteristics have on teachers' decisions to leave or remain in teaching (Allen, 2005) coupled with teachers' perceptions of work conditions and potential job alternatives. If policymakers, superintendents, and principals had a better understanding of the relationship between teacher turnover intentions and faculty trust, along with teacher attitudes concerning their work conditions, then these educational leaders could use their influence to collectively lower voluntary teacher turnover. Policy makers and educational leaders could develop a repertoire of effective strategies for recruiting, supporting and retaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers and position them in every classroom throughout the nation (Allen, 2005). By studying this issue the researcher would present pertinent data that could determine to what extent faculty trust and teacher work conditions contribute to the phenomenon of teacher turnover among teachers in one large school district in Virginia and provide insight into fundamental relationships that could decrease teacher

turnover, and increase teacher retention. The following statements define the research study's intrinsic value:

1. It would contribute to the body of knowledge that addresses voluntary turnover intentions within educational organizations.
2. It would allow the researcher to examine teacher perceptions that relate to differentiated levels of trust which ultimately impact turnover intentions.
3. It would allow the researcher to examine teacher perceptions of their work conditions that could potentially impact turnover intentions.
4. This study would serve as a catalyst for comparable studies within different organizational settings.

### **Definition of Key Terms**

#### ***Faculty Trust***

A person's or group's willingness to make themselves vulnerable to another person or group, relying on the confidence that the other party exhibits the following characteristics or facets: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, 2003).

#### ***Novice Teachers***

A newly certified, beginning teacher who has anywhere from 0-5 years of experience in total classroom instruction time (Cousin, 2000)

***Teacher Attrition***

When teachers leave the teaching profession entirely (Ingersoll, 2001).

***Teacher Migration***

Teachers who remain in the teaching profession, but transfer or move to another teaching job in another school (Ingersoll, 2001).

***Teacher Non-Migration***

Teachers who remain in their current school and do not transfer to another school.

***Teacher Retention***

Teachers who remain in the teaching profession, whether or not it is in the same teaching assignment as previous year (Billingsley, 1993).

***Teacher Turnover***

A term used to identify “the departure of teachers from their teaching jobs” in schools (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 500). For the purpose of this study, teacher turnover is broadly defined as teacher movement from any school. This includes both attrition and migration (Johnson et. al., 2005).

***Voluntary Turnover Intentions***

It is a willingness to leave the organization and has been described as the last sequence of withdrawal cognitions (Tan & Tan, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978).

### **Limitations of the Study**

1. This study was restricted to collecting data from one school district in Virginia. The researcher was employed with the school system which made the study population accessible to the researcher, but may have also influenced the results in unknown ways.
2. The data that was obtained in this research study was obtained through self-report surveys. This may raise questions about the accuracy and the objectivity of the teacher responses. The objectivity of the teacher responses may be influenced by self-enhancement biases (Alicke, 1985; Alloy & Ahrens, 1987).
3. In the study, voluntary turnover intention was the dependent variable instead of actual voluntary turnover. Various meta-analyses discovered that turnover intention is a precursor to actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). This is a common practice in turnover research because turnover intention serves as a forerunner of potential voluntary turnover behaviors to come.

### **Delimitations of the Study**

The sample population selected for this study is limited to school teachers in a particular school system in the state of Virginia during the 2007-2008 school year. The ability of this study to be generalized to the entire population of Virginia and beyond the state borders is limited, and must be done with caution. Participation in this study is voluntary. Therefore, the respondents may differ from the populations as a whole.

### **Major Assumptions**

1. Teachers who participate in this study will respond honestly and openly to the Omnibus Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and the Teacher Turnover Survey.
2. Teachers who complete the survey instruments will be full-time elementary, middle, and high school teachers.
3. The survey instrument used in this study will provide reliable and valid data.
4. Teachers' desires to remain in or leave teaching are determined, in part, by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards or financial incentives available to them in teaching and in other occupations.

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The intent of this literature review is to provide a conceptual and theoretical framework for voluntary teacher turnover intention and faculty trust. Its scholarly mission is to construct a convincing line of reasoning that stresses the importance of faculty trust and how it impacts voluntary teacher turnover intentions in our schools.

### Voluntary Teacher Turnover

Currently, teachers navigate, confront, and conquer the difficult challenges, structural changes, and institutional transformations in today's public schools. With federal requirements tightening every year, teachers believe the increased emphasis on accountability measures under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 has intensified the scrutiny of classroom teachers. Many teachers have responded to this perplexing state of affairs by considering their options, and as a result contemplate exiting the teaching profession (Tye & O'Brien, 2002).

One of the biggest concerns plaguing education policymakers and leaders is the fear of a national teacher shortage. Teacher turnover has become a major concern in educational research and policy analysis due to the demand it generates for replacing teachers (Hunt et al., 2003; Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005) along with its organizational and financial costs (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2006). This concern over shortages has inspired a thrust towards empirical research on teacher supply and demand (Ingersoll, 2001) and teacher turnover (Grissmer & Kirby, 1997; Heyns, 1988; Murnane et al., 1988). Issues of teacher attrition and migration, commonly referred to as turnover, are a matter of interest not only because of their impact on teacher shortages, but also due to their impact on student achievement and the general effectiveness of schools (Ingersoll & Rossi, 1995).

### ***Teacher Turnover Rates***

The National Center for Education Statistics (2007) recently released a report which included longitudinal data that depicted teacher attrition trends from 1989 to 2005. During the 1988-1989 school year, 5.6 percent of K-12 public school teachers left the teaching profession for various reasons (Marvel et al., 2007). Since 1992, the percentage of teacher “leavers” has increased each subsequent year the survey was administered to teachers. While the majority of other professions experience an average turnover rate of about 14% (Ingersoll, 2001), existing data indicates that teacher turnover has risen to 16.8 percent nationwide and has grown by 50% over the past fifteen years (Hunt & Carroll, 2003).

Teachers’ decisions whether to stay or leave the teaching profession are influenced by their age (Ingersoll, 1999). Studies performed across the United States have confirmed a U-shaped pattern of attrition, with teachers in their middle years staying at the highest rates and those in their early and late years leaving at higher rates (Allen, 2005; Plecki et al., 2005; Provasnik & Dorfman, 2005; Buckley et al., 2004; Luekens et al., 2004). This U-shaped plot of teacher turnover against age and experience is true despite individual or school characteristics, geography, and economy (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006). The likelihood of a teacher moving or leaving the teaching profession declines significantly after they have been in the classroom 4 to 5 years. Attrition rates increase again after 25 to 30 years in the teaching profession, as retirement age approaches (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997; Grissmer et al., 1997; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Murnane, Singer, & Willett, 1988).

As millions of baby boomers enter retirement age, the faces of today's K–12 teachers are younger than ever. Generation Y, born from 1977 to 1986 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001) is

considerably changing the composition of today's teaching staff. Many young people from this generation believe that education is the key to their success, and with their technical skills, they are prepared to be lifelong learners. However, the way that schools function is not conducive for many creative, talented young adults from Generation Y (Wong & Wong, 2007). Increasing numbers of these young teachers are deciding that schools are not personally and professionally as a fulfilling workplace (Carroll, 2007). The U.S. education system typically views teachers as independent entities, encouraged to be creative and expected to do a good job behind closed doors. Collaboration is rare. Worse yet, new teachers seldom see another classroom in action. Loneliness and lack of support further aggravate the frustrations of beginning teachers from Generation Y. They look around at how things work in schools, they might even give teaching a try because they want to make a difference in children's lives, but then they become disenchanted and they leave (Wong & Wong, 2007).

As a result, novice teachers are leaving the teaching profession at higher rates than experienced teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll, 2003; Lortie, 1975; Murnane, 1984; Murnane et al., 1988). Research indicates that the highest rates of attrition occur during the early years of teaching (Graziano, 2005; Billingsley, 2004; Dove, 2004; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Curran et al., 2000; Murnane et al. 1988; Heyns, 1988). First year teachers are 2.5 times more likely to leave the teaching profession than their more experienced peers. The first years of teaching are the most demanding, and it is a situation saturated with frustration (Lortie, 1975). Studies have discovered that 25% of novice teachers leave after one year (Norton, 1999) and 9.3% do not complete their first full year of teaching (Weiss & Weiss, 1999). According to a survey performed by Education Week about 20 % of all beginning teachers leave teaching after 3 years, while 40 to 50% leave after 5 years (Merrow, 1999; Hunt & Carroll, 2003; Ingersoll,

2003). However, experienced teachers were faced with issues such as loss of tenure, salary, and investment in a particular school location which may influence their decision to stay (Billingsley, 2004).

School staffing problems attached to high teacher turnover can lead to substandard instruction and low student achievement. High teacher turnover creates a constant demand for new teachers (Ingersoll, 2001). The U. S. Department of Education reported that nationwide, schools hire 17% new teachers every year. Some are returning teachers (4%), some are transfers from other buildings (9%), some are delayed applicants (2%), and some are new entrants in the field of teaching (3%) (Ingersoll, 2001). According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (Wirt, Choy, Rooney, Provasnik, & Hampden-Thompson, 2005), the total elementary and secondary school enrollment in the United States will increase by four percent between 2002 and 2014. Given that, America is facing a teacher shortage; the demand for public school teachers is rapidly increasing.

The issue of retaining qualified teachers in the education system is a growing area of concern (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Among teachers who stayed in the profession but changed schools or districts, 39.7 % of teachers with less than three years and 51.7 % of teachers with three or more years of experience moved from one public school to another, while 55.3 % of teachers with less than three years and 45.8 of teachers with three or more years of experience moved from one school district to another (Marvel et al., 2007). Based on this data, teachers with less than three years of experience were more likely to move to another district than to move to another school within the same district. Teachers with three or more years of experience were more likely to move to another school within the district than move to an out of district school.

Turnover can be both a blessing and a curse (Johnsrud & Rosser (2002). Some teacher turnover is unavoidable and beneficial (Ingersoll, 2007). A low level of turnover is normal and healthy in any organization in that it offsets potential inactivity, eliminates poor performers, and encourages innovation with the insertion of new blood (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). However, too little employee turnover can be connected to stagnancy in organizations.

### *Impact of Teacher Turnover*

In the mid-1980s, the National Center for Education Statistics (Choy, Medrich, Henke, & Bobbitt, 1992) performed a major study that included schools and teachers. Three trends emerged from the research that impacted the hiring practices of school districts: student enrollments had increased; the number of women college graduates choosing to become teachers had decreased; and the number of teacher retirements had increased due to the graying of the teaching workforce (Ingersoll, 1995). The teacher shortage has provoked legislative action spearheading more aggressive recruiting practices, which include various induction and career changer programs. Teacher turnover was the largest single factor determining demand for additional teachers in the U.S. (McCreight, 2000). While school districts have initiated numerous recruitment strategies to deal with teacher turnover, most have fallen short in the areas of new teacher hiring and retention (Dove, 2004; Ingersoll, 1999, 2003).

The main policy response to schools' staffing problem has fundamentally been an attempt to increase the supply of teachers (Ingersoll, 2002b). This traditional approach increased the quantity of teachers supplied through recruitment. The objective was to fill vacancies with a qualified teacher, and the problem was solved. The standard recruitment initiatives will not exclusively solve schools' staffing problems if they do not also attend to the organizational

sources of high teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2002). A significant portion of the need for new teachers is caused by a lack of geographic match between supply and demand (Darling-Hammond, 2001). “We’re misdiagnosing the problem as ‘recruitment’ when it’s really ‘retention’” (Morrow, 1999, p. 2). Teachers are either moving from their schools or out of the profession at significant rates (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001, 2003, 2004; National Commission on Teaching & America’s Future, 1996; Hunt et al., 2003). Unfortunately, the complex issues behind the teachers’ decision to leave were not addressed and only the symptom had been treated. In these cases, the process is destined to repeat itself over and over again.

There are many reasons why teachers leave their position. Some teachers decide to retire; others leave for personal reasons such as to care for their family or children. A relatively small number of teachers are dismissed from their jobs and encouraged to leave the profession. Some teacher turnover is unavoidable and beneficial (Ingersoll, 2007). However, high levels of teacher turnover are costly (Ingersoll, 2007). Searches are expensive, and too often the teachers who leave are those the institution would prefer to retain. High rates of employee turnover incur substantial training and recruitment costs that both initiate productivity problems and impact the school organization (Ingersoll, 2007). High turnover can cause turmoil and lead to problems in how the organization functions (Price, 1977). The importance of studying teacher turnover is based on several school organizational implications that include: (a) the staffing of schools, (b) teacher quality and student achievement, and (c) finance and cost. These unfavorable outcomes affect the remaining school personnel by causing organizational instability, administrative irritations, and distrust (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Mishra & Morrissey, 1990).

It is time for educational leaders to discontinue recruiting practices that only support the revolving door policy, where large numbers of teachers depart for reasons other than retirement,

as large numbers of new teachers enter the profession (Ingersoll, 2001). “Pouring water into the bucket will not be the answer if the holes are not first patched” (Ingersoll, 2004, p. 146).

Recruiting will not solve the teacher shortage if 40% to 50% of such teachers leave the profession within five years (Merrow, 1999; Hunt & Carroll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2003). The real problem is not a lack of new teachers entering into the education profession, but the actual retention of these teachers (Ingersoll, 2001). “If we could deal with the problem of retention, we wouldn’t have these shortages. The whole concept of shortages implies there’s lack of warm bodies. That’s a misnomer. It’s not too few candidates out there. It’s too few candidates staying” (Ingersoll, 2004, p. 146).

**Staffing.** The demand for teachers has also grown due to increased student enrollment. The Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that teaching will be one of the fastest growing occupations over the next 5 to 10 years, with student populations continuing to increase (State Board for Educator Certification, 2004). The National Center for Education Statistics (1998) forecasted that by 2008 there will be a need for approximately 2.4 million new teachers in the United States which is a rate of over 200,000 per year. The United States Department of Education estimates that as many as 2.7 million new teachers will be needed to adequately staff public schools by 2009 (Henke, Choy, Geis, & Broughman, 1996). Former U.S. Secretary of Education, Richard Riley, warned that the United States would need to hire 2.2 million additional teachers between 2000 and 2010 (*The Boston Globe*, July 2, 2000). The basis for this estimate was largely due to policy changes that expanded school programs and reduced class size, predicted growth in the student population, “baby boomer” teacher retirements, and teachers leaving the field of education early in their careers (Yasin, 1999).

Although the teaching profession has been portrayed as a revolving door (Ingersoll, 2003; Hanushek et al., 2004), there is some concern over the amount of teacher turnover. As one can see, teacher turnover is not equally dispersed throughout the national teaching force. See Table.

2.1. Comparing national turnover rates with specific content area turnover and geographical area turnover demonstrates the disparity of teacher turnover in our nation's schools. The percentage of teacher migration (8.1%) is almost equal to the percentage of teacher attrition (8.4%). The turnover rates for special education teachers (11.1% for movers; 10% for leavers) is above the national turnover rate. This indicates that special education teachers make up the majority of teacher attrition and migration in specific content areas. Also, the migration rate of novice teachers (14.8%) and math teachers (8.6%) is above the national turnover rate.

Shortages will generally occur in schools that are lacking resources and funding and schools that serve low-income communities of color (Ingersoll, 2001, 2002a, 2003). Urban public schools have to some extent had more turnover than suburban and rural public schools (Ingersoll, 2003). Math and Science teachers were more likely to leave teaching, but less likely to transfer between school districts. These fields offer more attractive earning opportunities outside of the field of teaching than other subject areas (Theobald & Michael, 2001). Special education teachers are more likely to depart than any other teacher group (Ingersoll, 2001; Cochran-Smith, 2004). Research has also shown that middle school teachers were the least satisfied with their job and have the highest rates of attrition and mobility (TEA, 1995). Teacher shortages are intensified in specific subject areas and in particular regions of the United States. Specific areas that continually have critical shortages are bilingual education, special education, mathematics, and science (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Certo, Fox, 2002). The shortage of special education teachers is a national epidemic and affects all regions of the country. Ninety-eight

percent of school districts nationwide have shortages in special education positions and the situation will continue to get worse as teacher retirements increase (Bergert & Burnette, 2001; Boyer & Gillespie, 2000). Several states report that special education teachers suffer from higher rates of turnover than their general education peers (Katsiyannis, Zhang, & Conroy, 2003). The attrition rate among special education teachers has been estimated at 20 percent annually (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997).

Table 2.1

*Teacher Attrition and Migration Rates in Content Areas and Geographical Areas*

<b>Teachers in Specific Content Areas</b>	<b>Rates of Turnover Migration</b>	<b>Rates of Turnover Attrition</b>
Turnover Rates (2004-2005)	8.1%	8.4%
Novice Teachers (1-3 yrs)	14.8%	8.1%
Special Education Teachers	11.1%	10.00%
Mathematic Teachers	8.6%	6.8
Science Teachers	5.6	5.9

<b>Teachers in Specific Geographical Areas</b>	<b>Rates of Turnover Movers</b>	<b>Rates of Turnover Leavers</b>
Turnover Rates (2004-2005)	8.1%	8.4%
Central City	10.3	9.9
50% or more of the students on Free & Reduced Lunch	10.3	9.7
35% or more of the students were Minorities	9.9%	9.5%

There are geographical regions which suffer a high percentage of unfilled teaching positions, as well as those which have surpluses. While the challenge to retain highly qualified teachers affects all schools, the turnover crisis is critical in high poverty school districts, which historically suffer from relentless shortages of qualified teachers, and fill vacancies with unlicensed teachers or full-time substitutes (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Ingersoll, 1995, 1999).

The data indicates that teachers leave schools serving minority populations (9.9% movers; 9.5% leavers), urban populations (10.3% movers; 9.9% leavers), and disadvantaged populations (10.3% movers; 9.7% leavers) at a higher rate. This data reveals that schools serving these geographical regions make up the majority of teacher attrition and migration. See Table 2.1. These high rates of turnover affect the demand for teachers and represent the driving force behind school staffing problems (Marvel et al., 2007). Urban settings experience a disproportionately high level of teacher shortage, which contributes to lowered student motivation, low student achievement, reduced availability of resources, poor working conditions, and a student body with various special needs (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005; Shen, 1997). In contrast, rural settings are inclined to have the lowest turnover rate, but tend to have a high number of unfilled positions (Bracey, 2002) due to low pay (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Jimerson, 2003).

Many states are now relying on alternatively certified teachers to fill vacant positions. Most traditional education programs involve a course of study leading to endorsement for certification in a particular state. After the completion of the course of study and certification requirements, the teacher is hired and takes on the responsibility of the classroom. In contrast, alternative certification programs offer a swift course of study for individuals to become certified teachers. Once these teachers are certified, they take positions in hard-to-fill subject areas, thus impacting teacher shortages. Since the creation of alternative paths to teaching, individuals increasingly pursue teaching careers through various alternative means. Presently, more than 15% of new teachers have entered the teaching profession through alternative route teaching programs (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005). Whether alternatively certified or

traditionally certified, all novice teachers experience stresses that may led to their turnover (Schliche, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005).

***Teacher quality & student achievement.*** The issues of teacher attrition affect both teacher quantity and quality (Brownell, Sindelar, Bishop, Langley & Seo, 2002). High rates of teacher turnover undermine efforts to maintain the continuity, coherence, and community that are essential to sustain an environment where great teaching and learning can take place (Carroll, 2005b). The most severe consequence of high teacher turnover is its negative effect on teaching quality and student achievement. The Schools and Staffing Survey data indicated that large numbers of our nation's classrooms were not staffed with qualified teachers, and this problem was a result of several serious issues facing the teaching profession (Ingersoll, 1995). The fact that between 40 %and 50% of new teachers have exited the teaching profession after five years (Keller, 2003) and 15% to 40% of those teachers who remain will change schools or districts during the same time period (Patterson, Roehrig, & Luff, 2003) leads to a negative impact on educational outcomes for students.

Schools fail to receive a long-term payoff from their investment in beginning teachers who leave (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Teachers are inclined to leave the profession before they have gained experience, and they are replaced with brand new inexperienced teachers (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Schools tend to lose inexperienced teachers, especially those with fewer than five years of experience (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Consequently, schools that lose new teachers and replace them with novice teachers ensure that instruction, on average, will be persistently weak, since there is a general consensus that teacher effectiveness increases within the first few years of a teacher's career (Hanushek et al., 2004; Rockoff, 2004).

More significant than the fiscal costs of turnover are instability, last minute hires of under-qualified teachers, inadequate orientation and induction, and the emotional and psychological effects of these changes on children are harmful to student learning (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter & Meisels, 2007). These new teachers have an effect on continuity, stability, and functioning of the learning community because new working relationships must be established. Vacancies filled by “movers” generally do not adversely affect student experience as strongly because “movers” are usually experience teachers (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007). Studies have discovered that teachers leaving the profession were more gifted academically and were more qualified than those who stayed (Henke, Geis, & Chen, & Knepper 2000; Heyns, 1988; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple, & Olsen, 1991; Schlecty & Vance, 1983). Teachers with the most ability and alternative employment opportunities are the least likely to remain in a particular teaching position or in the profession (Podgursky, Monroe, & Watson, 2004).

The single strongest predictor of student achievement gains, according to several studies, is quality of teaching (Whitehurst, 2002). The turnover of teachers is a terrible loss of human capital that disrupts the continuity of established educational programs, and hinders student learning. (Minarik et al., 2003). Evidence indicates that teacher ability is the single most important factor affecting student achievement (Curran et al., 2000; Geringer, 2000). The quality of teaching can make a full school-year’s difference in student learning gains, and ineffective teaching can lead to declines in student achievement (Milanowski, 2004; Odden, Borman, & Fermanich, 2004). Teacher attrition is disruptive to the education of students. High staff turnover has devastating consequences for children (Chase, 2000). If the most important factor in student achievement is having a highly qualified teacher, we must make every effort to

retain high-quality teachers (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). At the very least, experience can be considered one component of quality teaching (Rockoff, 2004).

***Finance and cost.*** Teacher turnover affects many levels of the educational system. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (Hunt et al., 2007) estimated that the national cost of public school teacher turnover could reach over 7.3 billion dollars a year. However, this estimate does not include the school district's cost for teachers who move from school to school within the district to pursue a better teaching position. Also, the estimate does not contain any federal or state investments that are lost when a teacher exits the profession. If all of these costs were taken into account, the true cost of teacher turnover would exceed 7 billion dollars (Carroll, 2007). This is significantly higher than the most recent estimate of 4.9 billion (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005) in annual costs that was stated in a report by the Alliance for Excellent Education in 2005. In Virginia, it was reported that out of 80,987 teachers, 5,337 left the teaching profession and 7,319 transferred to other schools. Therefore, the total teacher turnover cost in the commonwealth, not including retirement, was \$147,106,125 (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005).

It has been estimated that every teacher that leaves costs a district \$11,000 to replace, not including indirect costs related to the schools' lost investment in professional development, curriculum, and school-specific knowledge. At least 15% of K-12 teachers either switch schools or leave the profession every year. The cost to school districts nationwide is astounding—an estimated \$5.8 billion (Graziano, 2005). School districts no longer can afford to be complacent when it comes to teachers exiting the profession. The costs of teachers leaving, termination processes, hiring substitutes, recruitment and hiring processes, orientation, and professional development cannot be ignored (Norton, 1999). Teacher turnover strains schools districts'

limited financial resources (Allen, 2005; Onrich, et al., 2005; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). It has been estimated that teacher turnover cost districts 25 to 35 percent of employees' annual salaries, including the resources needed to recruit and hire new teachers, hire substitutes, and provide training and professional development for new teachers (Benner, 2000). Studies have shown that after taking into account the costs, to states, universities, and school districts for teacher preparation, recruitment, induction, and replacement due to turnover, the cost of preparing a teacher in intensive five-year programs is actually less than the cost of preparing greater number of teachers in less intensive programs. Less intensive programs tend to produce teachers who are less likely to stay in the profession and are less successful in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 1999).

### ***Why Teachers Leave***

There is a sizeable body of research literature that addresses why teachers may leave the teaching profession. A number of reasons have been cited as causes of the high rate of teacher turnover. They include:

- student discipline problems (Eggen, 2002; Ingersoll, 2001, 2002b; Langdon, 1996; Norton, 1999; Veenman, 1984)
- salary ( Ingersoll, 2001; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Stinebrickner, 2001; Tye & O'Brien, 2002),
- poor student motivation (Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).
- lack of administrative support (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tye & O'Brien, 2002; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Certo & Fox, 2002; Eggen, 2002; Hunt & Carroll, 2003)

- work load (Futernick, 2007; McCann & Johannessen, 2004; Johnson, 2006; Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007)
- working conditions (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Futernick, 2007; Guarino et. al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2005; Certo, Fox, & Englebright, 2002)
- relationships with colleagues (Inman & Marlow, 2004; Certo & Fox, 2002; Weiss, 1999)
- family issues (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007; Ingersoll, 2002a)
- retirement (Ingersoll, 2002b; Luekens et. al., 2004)

Teachers leave when they encounter environments that lack critical professional supports such as support from school leadership, organizational structures and workplace conditions that convey respect and value for them (Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson et al., 2001). The nationwide study, Schools and Staffing Survey of approximately 8,400 teachers, indicated that public school teachers moved to a new school because of an aspiration for a better teaching assignment (40%), dissatisfaction with support from administrators (38%), and dissatisfaction with working conditions (32%) (Luekens, Lyter, & Fox, 2004).

The National Center for Education Statistics (2007) recently released a report stating the reasons why teachers leave the teaching profession. During the 2004-2005 school year, teachers cited these reasons as important or very important in their decision to leave teaching. They included: change of residence (11.2%) child rearing (18.7%), health (11.8%), retirement (31.4%), school staffing action (14.6%), better salary or benefits (14.2%), non-teaching position (25.3%), family or personal reasons (20.4%), dissatisfaction with the school or teaching assignment (16%), dissatisfaction with teaching as a career (14.6%). Also, the study investigated reasons why teachers transfer or move to another school. During the 2004-2005 school year,

teachers cited these reasons as important or very important in their decision to move to another school building. They included: new school closer to home (26.2%), better salary and benefits (16.5%), higher job security (19.1%), better teaching assignment (38.1 %), dissatisfaction with workplace conditions (32.7%), dissatisfaction with support from administrators (37.3%), dissatisfaction with changes in job description (18.3%), involuntarily transferred (18.7%), lack of autonomy (10.4%), dissatisfaction with professional development (12.8%), and dissatisfaction with school for other reasons (31.2%) (Marvel et al., 2007).

The MetLife teacher survey (Carroll, 2005a) asked whether in the next five years teachers were likely to leave the profession to go into some other occupation. Seven percent of teachers stated they were likely to leave the profession, and ten percent stated they were somewhat likely to leave. The National Center for Educational Information (2005) found that 4 out of 10 teachers did not expect that they would be teaching in a K-12 school five years from the present time. The same proportion of alternate route teachers intended to leave teaching as well (38%) (NCEI, 2005). This data suggests that teacher turnover is a serious matter within the profession (Cogshall, 2006).

***Working conditions.*** Working conditions are largely viewed as one of the most critical factors in high rates of teacher turnover (Heyns, 1988; Hunt & Carroll, 2003). Few research studies document what teachers think of their work conditions or what unfulfilled needs persuade them to leave the teaching profession. Working conditions play a huge role in teacher decisions to change schools or leave the profession (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Futernick, 2007; Guarino et al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2005; Bang et al., 2007). The roots of the teacher shortage largely reside in the working conditions within schools and school districts (Ingersoll, 2003).

Most teachers who leave the profession prematurely complain about poor working conditions, in spite of other teachers, or the school, or the district (Colgan, 2004; Marlow et al., 1995).

Recent research has also indicated that “teachers with positive perceptions about their working conditions are much more likely to stay at their current school than teachers who are more negative about their work conditions, particularly in the areas of leadership and empowerment” (Hirsch & Emerick, 2007, p. 14). Teachers’ working conditions play a significant role, even more so than salary (Loeb et al., 2005). The school as a workplace can be understood as possessing many elements that jointly create the context for individual teachers’ work (Johnson, 2006). Working conditions include:

- The physical characteristics of school buildings, equipment, and resources
- The organizational structures that define teachers’ formal positions and relationships with others in the school (autonomy) (workload) (administrative support)(collegial interaction)
- The sociological characteristics that influence how teachers experience their work (characteristics of students)
- The political characteristics of the organization (decision-making)
- The cultural characteristics of the school as a workplace that influence teachers’ understanding of what they do and their commitment
- The psychological characteristics of the environment that supports or drains them personally (professional development) (burn out) (stress)
- The educational characteristics that enhance or hinders what teachers can do (NCLB)

All of these different characteristics of the school workplace can mediate teacher effectiveness within their classrooms and influence their turnover decisions (Johnson, 2006).

A comprehensive understanding of voluntary teacher turnover could lead to more effective practices that are aimed at reducing teacher turnover, especially of teachers in shortage content subjects, or geographical areas. It also would be helpful for educational authorities to improve their predictions of future teacher turnover, which is crucial in determining the number of new teacher-trainees to recruit (Dolton & van der Klaauw, 1999). Research indicates that retention of new teachers is strongly affected by work conditions over which administrators exercise control, such as resources for teaching, professional development, visibility, listening to teachers' needs, and input in decision-making (Certo & Fox, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Karge, 1993; Shen, 1997). Knowing teachers' perceptions about their jobs may prove to be helpful in gaining insights into necessary changes that need to take place to prevent teacher turnover. While teachers who leave may have individual factors for doing so, the synthesis of their opinions may objectively reveal some concrete reasons for teacher turnover (Liu & Meyer, 2005).

***Lack of administrative support.*** One of the leading causes of teacher turnover is lack of administrative support (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Certo & Fox, 2002; Eggen, 2002; Hunt & Carroll, 2003; Ingersoll, 1999; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Marlow et al., 1995; Norton, 1999; Quartz, 2003). Research has shown that teachers are more likely to leave teaching or indicate intent to leave in the absence of adequate support from administrators and colleagues (Billingsley, 2004). Administrative support encompasses a large domain, including: new teacher assignment practices; visibility/spending time in classrooms; listening to teachers' needs and positions; professional development practices; resources and supplies; and teacher recognition (Certo & Fox, 2002). School leaders who take on the role of supportive coach can

develop a culture of trust within their school building (Tschannen-Moran, 2004) and provide administrative support for classroom teachers.

Research studies have indicated that schools that provide greater administrative support have lower levels of teacher turnover (Allen, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001). According to a national study, 16% of the teachers who stated they left the profession because of “dissatisfaction with teaching” listed inadequate support from administrators as the primary reason and 13% listed lack of respect from administrators as the primary reason (Bolich, 2001).

Teachers who stay in their positions were almost four times more likely to strongly perceive administrators’ behavior as supportive and encouraging than leavers (Boe, Barkanic, & Leow, 1999; Billingsley, 2004). “Administrators influence the conditions in which teachers work; therefore, it is not surprising that administrative support has been consistently linked to attrition or retention” (Billingsley, 1993 p. 153). Special and general educators who reported higher levels of principal support were less likely to be stressed and more likely to be committed to and satisfied with their jobs than those receiving low levels of support from the principal (Billingsley & Cross, 1992). Examining survey data on first-year teachers, Weiss (1999) discovered that teachers expressed an intention to remain in the profession when they perceived strong support from administrators and colleagues together with control over disciplinary problems. New teacher’s comfort levels and their desire to stay in teaching are in direct relationship with their perception of administrative, collegial, and parental support (Karge, 1993

***School wide decision-making.*** Schools with greater autonomy have lower turnover rates (Allen, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001). Decision-making and feelings of autonomy are important for teachers to feel they are worthwhile, valued, and a part of the school community (Pearson &

Moomaw, 2005). A lack of input in decision-making regarding assessment, curriculum, policy and scheduling results in teachers leaving the profession (Certo & Fox, 2002). Teachers want to be involved in an integrated and collaborative organizational community (Guarino, et al., 2006). When teachers perceive that they are excluded from decisions that influence their work, they are more prone to leave (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Job security is a main concern for teachers; they want to participate in the decision-making process; they view positive working conditions as very important to them, and they need autonomy that enhances their creativity (Norton, 1999).

**Collegial interaction.** Collegiality enhances job satisfaction for teachers, thus reducing turnover (Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Low levels of colleague support were linked with leaving and high levels of colleague support linked with staying (Miller, Brownell, & Smith, 1999). The powerful presence of collegial relations is a factor in teachers' reasons for staying. Time that is given for teachers and staff to collaborate on instructional practices was given as a reason that teachers continued working in their school divisions (Certo & Fox, 2002). Collaboration with other teachers on instructional matters reduces the likelihood of beginning teacher turnover (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

**Burnout and stress.** Teaching is stressful (Hill & Barth, 2004). The source of stress for many teachers is due to the conflicts of schools being both achievement-oriented and possessing the need for smooth organizational operation (Kaiser & Polczynski, 1982). Researchers have found that perceived stress is related to intent to leave (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996). Some of the issues that cause burnout, such as stress and lack of support systems, are also connected with attrition (Billingsley, 2004). Low job satisfaction has been associated with higher levels of stress (Sutton & Huberty, 1984), illness, and burnout, lack of commitment, teacher absenteeism, and turnover (Culver,

Wolfe, & Cross, 1990; Ma & MacMillan, 1999). Stress caused by turnover is primarily due to the high costs incurred when one staff member leaves, much less several.

***Work load and planning time.*** Dissatisfied teachers have cited bureaucratic impediments, lack of time, accountability pressures, and large classes as reasons for leaving their schools (Futernick, 2007; McCann & Johannessen, 2004). The lack of planning and teaching time creates stressful work conditions that compromise the quality of instruction (Johnson, 2006). These situations can contribute to a decrease in morale, effectiveness, and teacher commitment (Johnson, 2006). Pressure felt by teachers for testing mandates drive them from the profession (Guarino et al., 2006; Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007).

***Student motivation and discipline.*** Another reason teachers leave the profession is due to student disciplinary concerns (Langdon, 1996). Teachers stated that they were not always supported with discipline issues (McElroy, 2004). Teachers are more likely to leave the teaching profession if they believe that student motivation and discipline are lacking in their schools (NCES, 1997). National turnover rates were lower in schools with fewer student discipline problems (Ingersoll, 2001). Administrative support for student discipline is an issue of great importance to teachers. Surveys indicate student behavior is a reason why teachers leave or seriously consider leaving the teaching profession (Coggshall, 2006). National turnover rates were lower in schools with fewer student discipline problems (Ingersoll, 2001). In a national evaluation of teachers who left the teaching profession and teachers who moved to other schools or districts, it was found that “movers” were more likely to report that student behavior was a problem (25 %) than “leavers” (13 %) (Luekens et al., 2004).

**Salary.** Numerous studies have documented the influence of salary on teacher turnover rates (Onrich, Pas, & Yinger, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001; Murnane et al., 1991; Murnane & Olsen, 1990; Murnane & Olsen, 1989). Low pay is a major source of dissatisfaction among teachers (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Murnane & Olsen, 1989; Murnane & Olsen, 1990; Stinebrickner, 2001; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Low salaries are a significant reason why at least 30% of new teachers leave the classroom within five years (Chase, 2000). Ingersoll (2004) reported that approximately half of the teachers who left the teaching profession nationally cited poor salary as a factor and approximately two-thirds said that better salaries would encourage teachers to stay in the profession. Teachers respond positively to increased salaries. The higher the salary, the lower the likelihood that a teacher will leave or transfer from their school (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Ingersoll, 2000). In a national sample of special and general education teachers, moving and leaving decreased as salary increased (Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, & Weber, 1997). Compensation is an important consideration for current teachers weighing the “tangible and intangible costs and benefits of remaining in the teaching field or in a particular district or school” (Henke, Choy, Chen, Geis & Alt p. VI-1).

**Family issues.** Family responsibilities are of high importance to both teacher “leavers” and “stayers” (Kersaint et. al., 2007). These responsibilities include caring for children or elderly family members. Personal reasons such as pregnancy, childrearing, and family moves accounted for a considerable amount of teacher turnovers (Ingersoll, 2002a). Family structure may influence voluntary turnover by means of two related processes. Firstly, families differ in the social control over its members. It has also been shown that two-parent households can more easily supervise children than single-parent families. Secondly, family structure directs the

allotment of financial and human resources of its members (Lee & Maurer, 1999). Based on the empirical evidence and human capital theory, family structure is suggested to affect voluntary turnover by increasing social pressures in the allocation of time and energy devoted toward or away from the job or family. More specifically, increasing the social pressures in allocation decisions should systematically strengthen the connection between family structure to the linkages among organizational commitment, intention to leave and voluntary turnover (Lee & Maurer, 1999). While several of the dynamics of turnover cannot be controlled, such as family moves, retirement, and birth of children (Billingsley, 1993) investing in resources that strategically address teacher turnover will help to retain staff members.

*Where teachers go.* It has been projected that every year a growing number of teachers move from school to school hoping to find better working conditions (Ingersoll, 2001), and more support from school leadership (Colgan, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004; McElroy, 2004). Half of teacher turnover is attributed to teacher transfers between schools within a school district and between school districts, both in and out of state (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997; Ingersoll, 2001). Using data from the 2004-2005 school year, the National Center for Education Statistics (2007) analyzed the career choices of public school teachers. The data shows that 30% of “leavers” retired from the profession, while 29% of the teachers left the classroom but still worked in the educational field. One of the reasons could be a higher salary, incentives, and career growth opportunities as a non-teacher within the school district (Fowler & Mittapalli, 2006). Only 12% of teacher “leavers” pursued an occupation outside the field of education, and 12.5% of “leavers” decided to take care of their families. Outside of retirement, teacher “leavers” are more likely to remain in the field of education (29%) than those who choose other professions (12%).

Table 2.2

*Current Main Occupational Status of Teacher Leavers, 2004-2005 (NCES, 2007)*

Retired	30%
Working in the field of education, but not as a regular K-12 classroom teacher	29.1%
Caring for family members	12.5%
Working in an occupation outside the field of education	12%
Other	8%
Unemployed and seeking work	4%
Attending a college or university	3.4%
Disabled	1%

A recent report by Harris and Adams (2007) found that the average annual turnover rate of teachers (8%) was not significantly higher than nurses (6%), social workers (15%), and accountants (8%). The study only considered individuals who were college graduates and measured turnover by the number who left the profession. It also found another difference between teaching and these other professions. Teacher turnover is different among older professionals because teachers retire considerably earlier due to pension policies that provide a financial incentive to leave the teaching profession.

### ***Teacher Retention***

As stated in the previous section, “The real school staffing problem is teacher retention. Our inability to support high-quality teaching in many of our schools was driven not by too few teachers entering the profession, but by too many leaving it for other jobs” (Hunt & Carroll, 2003, p. 23). With the constant recycling of teachers, the quality of instruction has suffered

(Ingersoll, 1999). The enormous cost of continually hiring new teachers is enough to gain the immediate attention from policy makers and educational leaders.

Generally teacher attrition was considered a retention problem and not a production problem (Ingersoll, 2001). Schools with strong relationships to the school community, including a strong relationship with the school principal, are often factors cited for remaining in a particular school community (Minarik, Thornton, & Perreault, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2003). “Attracting, supporting, and retaining new teachers to staff the nation’s schools will require a comprehensive strategy” (Birkeland & Johnson, 2002 p 21). The factors that motivate teachers to remain in public schools are embedded within the components of school culture. They consist of positive interpersonal relationships within the school, active administrative support, and teacher participation in decision-making (Ingersoll, 1999). Inadequate administrative support, low salaries, student discipline problems, and limited faculty input into school decision-making contribute to higher turnover rates (Ingersoll, 2001). The opposite is also true, teachers with more support from administrators, higher salaries, fewer student discipline problems, and higher levels of autonomy and influence over decision-making are more likely to stay working in their school regardless of personal or school characteristics (i.e. age, gender, subject taught, school poverty, or location) (Ingersoll, 2001).

***School leadership.*** School leadership and feelings of efficacy are important for retention (Coggshall, 2006). The variety of support that are positively related to retention include having a mentor in the same field, having common planning periods as other teachers in the same subject, having scheduled collaboration with other teachers, being a part of an external network of teachers, being treated as a professional, and having control over student discipline problems (Guarino et al.,2006). The teacher’s decision to remain or to leave a school hinges upon

leadership more than any other factor (Hirsch, Emerick, Church, & Fuller, 2007). Increased administrator support may positively influence teacher retention (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tye & O'Brien, 2002; Ingersoll, 2002a). "To improve the general feeling of all teachers, school principals need to be more aware of how strongly their role and behavior affect teachers' perceptions about their occupation-and their job satisfaction" (Bolger, 2001 p. 679).

Administrators have some control over "supportive environment, financial support, behavior management support, and workload" (Eggen, 2002, p. 1). Administrators strongly influence a teacher's decision to remain in the teaching profession (Betancourt-Smith, Iman, & Marlow, 1994; Billingsley, 1993; Brewster & Railsback, 2003; Ingersoll, 1999; Johnson & Birkeland, 2000). In a research study, Certo and Fox (2002) discovered that quality administration was one of the primary reasons teachers remain in the profession. Positive and supportive principal leadership matters to teachers. It was identified by more than one-quarter of teachers as the most important working condition in making their decisions about remaining in a school or leaving a school, and was significantly predictive of teacher retention (Hirsch, 2005).

Teacher turnover is particularly high among new teachers. This population is most dependent upon principal leadership and support. Beginning teachers leave teaching primarily because of the lack of support from the administration (Eggen, 2002). Principals hold a pivotal role in the recruitment of the novice teacher (Wood, 2005), and the leadership role in supporting and developing new teachers is even more important. New teachers make their decision to stay in teaching based on the level of support and acceptance they receive at the building level (Johnson et al., 2001). As the school building leader, the principal can address many of the issues that relate to teachers' attrition because of the isolation of new teachers (Minarik, Thorton, & Perreault, 2003). With appropriate administrative support, "new teachers ought to emerge

from their first few years of teaching feeling empowered, supported, and capable in all roles of the classroom teacher” (Renard, 2003, p. 664).

Administrative leadership is the most important factor in determining the climate of a school, and there are specific leader activities that allow all teachers to feel supported in their work. These activities facilitate the maintenance of professional relationships within a school, and provide the needed resources for effective teacher practice (DiPaola & Walter-Thomas, 2003). School administrators are primarily responsible for setting the tone for the school’s working environment ((Fredericks, 2001). The climate within a school building and the workforce conditions it encompasses act together as either a support or deterrent for teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2001; Gersten, et al., 2001; Johnson, et. al., 2001). Administrators can play a vital role in solving school staffing problems by improving teachers’ working conditions, which in turn would lower teacher turnover rates and improve the performance of schools (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

***Self-efficacy and preparedness.*** Teacher retention is often correlated to the degree of being prepared to teach in today’s classroom (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002; Boe et al., 2006). New teachers are held accountable for skills that can only be obtained through experience (Huberman, 1989). Beginning teachers with extensive preparation were twice as likely to remain in teaching as compared to teachers with little or no preparation (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2006). The NCTAF (2003) identified six teacher preparation components that provided a step-by-step approach towards novice teacher’s success. They consisted of careful recruitment, strong academic preparation, strong clinical practice, mentored induction, technological proficiency, and teacher preparation effectiveness. It was found that hiring

teachers with these extensive preparation foundational principals reduced first year attrition by 50 percent (Hunt & Carroll, 2003).

The better prepared teachers stay longer in the profession (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). Academically well-prepared teachers possess strong content knowledge. They understand how students learn and demonstrate the teaching skills necessary to assist all students in meeting high academic standards. Prepared teachers use a variety of assessment tools to diagnose student learning needs. They reflect on their practices in order to improve instruction in collaboration with other colleagues (Carroll, 2007). Turnover is unusually high for teachers with little initial preparation (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). A NCES study found that 49% of uncertified teachers left the profession within five years, while 14% of certified teachers left as well (Henke et al., 2000). Also, attrition rates for new teachers who lacked student teaching are doubled of those teachers who had student teacher training (Hunt & Carroll, 2003).

Self-efficacy influences teachers' persistence when things do not go right and their resilience when they face setbacks (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Persistence is linked to self-efficacy, and self-efficacy is linked to teacher turnover (Grant, 2006). As a result, in order to understand why some teachers persist and others do not, one must understand why some teachers feel that they can make a difference and why others do not. Inexperienced teachers need to feel competent in their abilities. Quality teacher preparation and ongoing, sustained staff development is crucial for their professional well-being. Understanding the link between persistence and self-efficacy provides a useful framework for examining teacher turnover (Grant, 2006).

***Induction and mentoring programs.*** Not only do good induction programs retain teachers, they also attract teachers (Johnson, et. al., 2001). Mentors are an important factor in providing support for new teachers. However, mentoring is not enough. Comprehensive induction programs have proven to be effective in keeping good teachers in the classroom. Studies demonstrate that new teacher turnover rates can be cut in half through these types of programs. Teachers who engage in comprehensive mentoring programs were more likely to stay in teaching (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Induction programs address the causes of teacher dissatisfaction by providing teachers with the supports and tools they need for success in the classroom. Also, induction programs improve the satisfaction and skills of veteran teachers. Experienced teachers that serve as mentors improve their own teaching practices by observing and coaching new teachers. Induction beyond mentoring provides an extensive framework of support, professional development, and standards-based assessments and evaluations for teachers (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

***Enhancing retention.*** A research study conducted by Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, and Meisels (2007) discovered six factors that influence teacher retention. These factors include:

- Administrative support is of medium importance to “leavers” and low importance to “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession when there is a lack of administrative support.
- Financial benefits are of medium importance to “leavers” and of low importance to “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession when there is a lack of financial benefits.

- Paperwork and assessment is of medium importance to “leavers” and “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession due to assessment measures and/or high volumes of paperwork.
- Family responsibilities are of high importance to “leavers” and “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession in order to assume additional family responsibilities.
- Joy of teaching is of low importance to “leavers” and “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession due to their perception that teaching is not an enjoyable occupation.
- Time with family is of high importance to “leavers” and low importance to “stayers”. Teachers may leave the profession in order to spend additional time with their families.

Time with family and family responsibility are of the greatest importance to teachers who have left the teaching profession. This is closely followed by administrative support, financial benefits, paperwork, and assessment. Teachers who remained in the teaching profession placed less emphasis on time with family, administrative support, and financial benefits than those who left the teaching profession (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007).

Improving teacher retention will require effective intervention policies. Preferably, school leaders would identify teachers most likely to turnover while they are still employed in the teaching profession, and subsequently meet their needs. This method would be cost effective because it would not apply to all teachers, only to dissatisfied teachers contemplating leaving. It can be speculated that the attitudes of “leavers” and “stayers” may differ substantially. This could provide a basic strategy that may address the needs of both teacher sub-populations. In

contrast, some factors may also impact “leavers” and “stayers” equally, and a uniform approach would be necessary for all teachers. Knowing what is vital and important to teachers makes it feasible to focus our best efforts on addressing and alleviating damaging factors that lead to teacher turnover (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007). To be effective in these retention endeavors, policy makers and school leaders need to find methods that acquire information about turnover factors that impact teachers, and utilize that information to identify teachers with the greatest need, and then develop adaptable strategies to address their need (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007).

### ***Summary***

Given the high cost of teacher turnover, it is critical that educational and political leaders understand the importance of teacher retention as a major policy objective in maintaining a highly-qualified teaching force in every school (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2002; Carroll, 2007). The real school staffing crisis is teacher retention, not recruitment (Carroll, 2007). By the year 2006, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 requires a “highly qualified teacher” for every classroom. In order to meet the rising demand for teachers, school systems are training and hiring well-qualified teachers. However, these efforts do little to improve teacher shortages unless existing teachers remain in the teaching profession. Teacher shortfalls are forcing many school systems to lower their standards for teacher quality (NCTAF, 1996). The high turnover of teachers does not simply cause staffing problems but may also negatively impact the school environment and student achievement (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

## Voluntary Teacher Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions are one of the most critical concepts in the development and testing of models of the turnover process (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley et al., 1979). Deciding the extent to which teachers leave and reposition themselves in the workforce requires careful follow-up study that is difficult, time-consuming, and expensive. This has been an obvious drawback to studying teacher attrition (Billingsley, 2004). As a result, researchers have examined existing teacher populations to determine their intent to leave as a proxy for turnover (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001; Singh & Billingsley, 1996). In some studies, the correlation between the intention to quit and turnover has been as high as .71 (Hom & Hulin, 1981). Steele and Ovalle's (1984) meta-analysis found that turnover intention and turnover has a correlation as high as .50. The study of intent permits investigators to consider the relationship of teachers' career plans to a range of district and teacher variables, without the costly and time-consuming task of locating those teachers who left (Billingsley, 2004).

Turnover intention is the willingness to leave an organization and has been described as the last sequence of withdrawal cognitions (Tan & Tan, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). Relying on Fishbein and Azjen's (1975) theory researchers have reported a strong correlation between intentions to quit and turnover. Turnover intention has been considered as the principle cognitive variable immediately preceding turnover behavior (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). The intent to stay or leave one's position has been found to be a good alternative indicator for actual turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Steers & Mowday, 1981). The use of turnover intention has the advantage of allowing researchers to study the affective attitudes of employees (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). Research has shown that

turnover intentions are related to actual turnover (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Steele & Ovalle, 1984). Purposeful thoughts and withdrawal cognitions related to turnover precede an employee's decision to quit (Mobley, 1977). The constructs of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement have been shown to be related to, and capable of predicting withdrawal cognitions (Mobley, 1977).

For the most part, 100 years of turnover research has focused on developing predictive models of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; March and Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977). The literature contains numerous references to a variety of theoretical orientations that attempt to explain the process through which an individual leaves a job or quits their place of employment (Bluedorn, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Price, 1977). Many attempts have been made to clarify and identify key dimensions and to determine their relationships to the leaving process. There have also been numerous attempts to design a turnover model that explains the series of actions through which employees voluntarily leave an organization (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; March & Simon, 1958; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Price, 1977). Studies have shown that employees often have different reasons for leaving their place of employment. Devising a model that incorporates all the pliable factors involved in employee turnover has proven to be both challenging and idealistic.

### ***The March and Simon Model***

The majority of the early turnover models are the result of the March and Simon's (1958) model. March and Simon (1958) used the Barnard-Simon theory of organizational equilibrium as the basis of their turnover model, which considers both internal and external factors that affect

employee turnover. Perceived desirability to leave was the internal factor. It had been essentially linked with job satisfaction, referred to the overall feeling employees had towards different aspects of their job. Ease of movement was the external factor. It involved the ability of an employee to leave their current job and find similar and equitable alternative employment. These two concepts, along with alternatives, act as the major conceptual foundation for much of the literature on employee turnover (Hulin et al., 1985).

These researchers established that voluntary turnover is based on a general dissatisfaction with one's current job (March & Simon, 1958; Mobley et al., 1978). Individuals, who become dissatisfied with their job search for alternatives compare reasonable options to their job (March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977). After the alternatives are weighed, a decision is reached to either stay with or leave the current organization, whichever alternative will increase the individual's job satisfaction (Hom & Griffith, 1995; Mobley, 1977). Job satisfaction was portrayed as a multifaceted antecedent of turnover encompassing several diversified factors that included monetary rewards, type of supervision, and participation in job assignment decisions (March & Simon, 1958). The March and Simon (1958) model influenced many subsequent research studies and was incorporated into various turnover models (e.g., Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, 1977).

### ***The Mobley Model***

Since the major antecedents of turnover had been identified, Mobley (1977) cultivated the immediate links between job dissatisfaction to employee turnover. This intermediate linkage model received the most consistent support. It represented a comprehensive model of the withdrawal decision process by exploring the relationships between job satisfaction and turnover.

Mobley supplied a turnover model that suggests job attitudes are most directly related to withdrawal cognitions of intention to quit, but were indirectly related to those actual turnover behaviors. He proposed transitional linkages in the voluntary turnover decision between dissatisfaction and intention to quit. A contribution of Mobley's theory was the addition of the perceived alternatives and intention to leave variables (withdrawal intentions) preceding the decision to turnover.

The intent to leave came from the grouping of two factors identified as job alternatives and job satisfaction, which are antecedents of actual leaving. Mobley (1997) clarified leaving as a decisive process that follows a specific course which entailed 1) thinking about quitting, 2) evaluating costs associated with quitting the present job, 3) searching for job alternatives, and 4) evaluating the acceptability of identified alternatives. This last evaluation leads to 5) comparing these alternatives to the present job, which consequently leads to 6) an intention to quit and finally turnover.

The model was based on the assumption that intent to quit or stay is the cognitive event immediately preceding turnover behavior (Mobley, 1977). This model is logical and compelling even though Mobley recognized that quitting may also occur in an impulsive manner, following an entirely different pathway than that proposed in the model. The model's extensive description of the psychological process between job dissatisfaction and turnover in a testable form and its elaboration of the satisfaction and alternative constructs is its claim to fame.

The Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) voluntary turnover model includes an additional component to the Mobley (1977) model. This model suggested a causal linkage with job satisfaction that results in the employee thinking about leaving the organization. This new

development from the previous model proposes that intent to search and intent to quit are generally the direct predictors of turnover. Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) depict turnover as the last sequence of withdrawal cognitions as an individual is contemplating quitting and planning to seek out alternative employment.

### ***The Steers and Mowday Model***

The next major model to emerge was the Steers and Mowday model (1981) which encompassed individual, affective, and organizational variables. Affective variables of interest included organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. In addition non-work variables were included in the model (i.e. family, hobbies, and religion) that could influence job attitudes and organizational attachment (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Steers and Mowday stated that job satisfaction, as affected by non-work influences, affected intent to stay and intent to leave, which in turn influenced turnover. Mobley et al. (1979) modeled the search process prior to intention to leave. Steers and Mowday (1981) implied that intention to leave precedes searching for job alternatives. While most of the antecedents to turnover were related to one another as commonly predicted by the model, the intention to quit explained 6 percent of the variance in employee turnover and thus the prediction of actual turnover remains weak. The Steers and Mowday (1981) model considered job attitudes other than satisfaction as antecedents to an employee's intention to leave (Lee & Mowday, 1987).

### ***Job Satisfaction***

Job dissatisfaction plays a major part in teacher turnover (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Although few studies establish a direct link between job satisfaction and turnover, lack of job satisfaction is a major cause of employee turnover intention, which is the precursor to actual

turnover (Currivan, 1999). According to NCTAF's findings (2007), job dissatisfaction plays a major role in teacher migration, attrition and turnover. The working conditions that novice teachers face upon entering the teaching profession strongly influence both job satisfaction and retention (Veenman, 1984). Job satisfaction is believed to play an important role in turnover and is a major factor in most turnover models (Naumann, 1993). Given job satisfaction's prominence in previous research, some measure of current satisfaction with the workplace should form the core of any basic model of turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). The efforts of Mossholder, Settoon, and Henegan (2005) to link social networks to turnover recognize the fact that exclusion of this variable would create omitted variable bias. They included job satisfaction as the only attitudinal control in order to provide greater confidence in the results that emerged (Mossholder et. al., 2005).

In research literature, job satisfaction is frequently linked with work conditions, which seems to play a major role in keeping teachers in the educational field. Teachers who were highly involved in their work credited their decision to stay in teaching to supportive work conditions. Other highly involved teachers reported unsupportive work conditions as the main reason why they decided to leave teaching (Yee, 1990). Researchers have associated numerous aspects of job satisfaction to teacher retention. Among these are administrative leadership and support (Betancourt-Smith, Inman, & Marlow, 1994; Chittom & Sistrunk, 1990; Billingsley, 1993), salary (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Kirby & Grissmer, 1993), and relations and emotional support from colleagues and mentors (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Billingsley, 1993; Odell & Ferraro, 1992). Also relationships with parents (Shann, 1998; Billingsley, 1993) and students (Shann, 1998; Kim & Loadman, 1994) were also identified as essential to teacher satisfaction.

### ***Theory of Reasoned Action***

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) is a predictive concept built on beliefs about target behavior. It is an attempt to simplify existing theories concerning the relationship between attitudes and behavior. The theory is based on the assumption that human beings are usually fairly rational and systematically utilize information available to them. With the understanding that individuals have control over their behavior, Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) conceived the idea that an individual's intention to perform a behavior is the most immediate determinant of acting out the behavior.

An individual's intention to perform a behavior is based on personal and social factors. Subjective norms and attitudes towards the behavior directly influence intention. A person's intentions are a very strong predictor of their actual behavior. A person's intentions are usually translated into behavior that is based upon the individual's attitudes which are shaped by each favorable or unfavorable assessment of a particular behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The individual may be influenced by perceived social pressure, past experience, and anticipation of a particular event. An attitude towards a specific behavior influences the actual behavior. An example of this phenomenon would be an individual's attitude concerning their job or specific aspects of their current working conditions that effect how he or she feels about continuing employment. If the individual has a negative attitude or disposition concerning their job, or is dissatisfied with the working conditions, then he or she might contemplate leaving which would result in turnover.

Numerous studies have explored the relationship between intention and behavior. Two meta-analyses were conducted in the late 1980's and early 1990's that established the predictive

validity of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein, & Muellerlite, 2001). When properly measured behavioral intentions account for a significant portion of variance in actual behavior. The meta-analyses documented diverse behavioral domains reporting mean intention-behavior correlations of .47 (Armitage & Conner, 2001), .53 (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988), .45, and .62 (van de Putte, 1991) demonstrating a strong relationship between intentions and actual behavior.

### ***Monitoring Teacher Turnover and Its Costs***

School leaders need to make data-driven decisions concerning the turnover of teachers. In order to assist data-based decision-making, school districts need data systems that track the patterns and relationships involving school characteristics and teacher characteristics, including teacher effectiveness and teacher turnover in schools. They need to measure the data over time in order to discover trends, and adjust procedural outcomes accordingly. It is important to provide a comprehensive picture across human resource data. It is also important to allow for data sharing between schools and districts (Carroll, 2007).

In order to use research data that advocates changes in policy and practice regarding teacher turnover, it is imperative to have valid and comprehensive evidence concerning the turnover of teachers (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2006). School districts need to invest in data managing systems that provide current and accurate teacher turnover data. The data should be formatted so that leaders can analyze, manage, and control teacher turnover and its costs (Carroll, 2007). This will enable school districts to analyze which teachers are leaving, from which schools, and how much money was lost in their teacher investment due to turnover. This will also permit school district to make data-driven decisions concerning teacher turnover. It

will be difficult for school leaders to manage teacher turnover if they can't measure it. Every school district needs a comprehensive human resource plan that comprises a system for recording teacher turnover data (Carroll, 2007). Once the data is collected, analyzed, and reported, the information can be utilized to reduce teacher turnover and its associated costs (Carroll, 2007). Steps school systems should follow include:

- Developing evaluation questions that state what needs to be known about local attrition and migration patterns and their costs. The questions need to be specific and measurable.
- Identifying data elements that can be aggregated that will supply answers to the evaluation questions.
- Determining how and if existing data collection systems can be implemented to collect and report teacher turnover data.

Despite the high costs to school districts, teacher turnover has been an under-studied phenomenon. Unfortunately, most states and school districts have not developed a system to track and control turnover costs (Carroll, 2005b). If school systems would strategically monitor turnover and its costs, they would be able to recover significant resources that could be redirected to quality teacher induction, retention, and professional development (Carroll, 2005b). NCTAF has discovered that school leaders can reduce teacher turnover and control their costs by using sound human resource policies by measuring teacher turnover and understanding its consequences (Carroll, 2007). Elevated rates of teacher turnover are costly in the recruitment, hiring, and training of new personnel (Brewster & Railsback, 2003; Shen, 1997). Replacing teachers costs 25% of each person's salary (Norton, 1999). Therefore, if a school district loses 6% of 1,000 teachers earning 25, 000 annually, the replacement cost would be 375,000. The

price tag on the cost of replacing almost 16% of our nation's teachers annually is enormous (Hunt & Carroll, 2003).

### ***Summary***

Many school districts across the nation face challenges in regards to teacher turnover and migration. High rates of teacher turnover limit schools' ability to create productive learning environments and are disruptive to program stability and staff unity. Until we recognize that we have a retention problem we will continue to engage in a costly annual recruitment and hiring cycle, pouring billions of dollars and adding more and more teachers in our classrooms only to lose them at a faster and faster rate. While the financial cost associated with teacher turnover cannot be eliminated, policy-makers and educational leaders must become informed of the high cost associated with losing and replacing teachers. They will need clear, current, and accurate data on teacher turnover and its costs in order to analyze, manage, and control these costs (Norton, 1999; Carroll, 2007).

### **Faculty Trust**

Social networks exist within organizations. Recognizing, understanding, and managing these social networks are critical for effective leaders. The relationships between people in an organization enhance the authentic pathways of knowledge within an organization and sustain the human network system. It is the invisible workplace relationships that make the difference in social networks via trust-based relationships (Stephenson, 2005). Trust is an important element in the functioning of schools which consists of two contradictory sides. One side can be viewed as "glue" and the other side can be perceived as a "lubricant". Functioning as glue, trust binds and connects organizational members together. In order for schools to achieve their goals, a

cohesive and cooperative relationship is essential which will be cultivated by trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Functioning “as a lubricant, trust oils the machinery of an organization which contributes to higher efficiency”(Tschannen-Moran, 2004, p. 16). This assists organizational transactions far more quickly and economically than any other means of management and supervision. When trust is present within an organization almost everything is easier to achieve (Covey, 2006). Trust influences every aspect of life, and it remains a crucial element in promoting success in any challenge that our schools face today (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

“Trust is one of the most powerful forms of motivation and inspiration. People want to be trusted. They respond to trust. They thrive on trust” (Covey, 2006 p. 29). A trust-based environment potentially transforms schools into vibrant learning communities (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). As a result, the reduction of employee turnover is one of the considerable advantages of building a culture of trust (Costigan et al., 1998; Mishra & Morrissey, 1990). Schools involve many different individuals and relationships including students, teachers, principals, parents, and central office personnel. Each of these relationships carries its own expectations and will involve varying degrees and types of trust. Using prior research performed by Tschannen-Moran and her colleagues (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Tschannen-Moran, 2004), trust is viewed from the vantage point of trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients, and this builds a multi-dimensional construct that has strong correlations with well-functioning schools.

### *Critical Facets of Trust*

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) conducted an extensive review of the literature on trust that identified five facets of trust. These facets of trust have been shown to be critical features of school social interaction (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). For the purposes of this study, trust will be defined according to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's theoretical conceptualization of trust (1999; 2003). They define trust as "an individual's or group's willingness to make themselves vulnerable to another individual or group, relying on the confidence that the other party exhibits the following characteristics or facets: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; 2003). This definition encompasses many of the key components of trust and that has been utilized in the study of schools. These five facets of trust accompany two other common denominators of trust, vulnerability and confidence.

Trust relationships involve risk, reliability, vulnerability, and expectation (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Vulnerability is a precondition for the development of trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2000) and stems from interdependence, which states that the interests of an individual cannot be achieved without relying on another individual (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). The placing of one's welfare into the hands of another individual who could do possible harm is the core of vulnerability (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). The unknown actions or intentions of the other person create a risk or a threat when seeking trust (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). If there is no interdependence, there is no need for trust (Tschannen-Moran, 1999). When an individual must depend on someone for an important outcome, they become vulnerable to them (Baier, 1986; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Trust

is present when we continue to move forward even in the face of that recognized vulnerability (Rousseau et al., 1998).

Numerous researchers acknowledge the value and influence of the level of confidence one has when threatened by risk in their decision making (Rousseau et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). The concept of trust cannot exist without the presence of a relationship between two or more people. When a person possesses a high degree of confidence in another person, trust manifests itself more easily. On the other hand, when there is a lack of confidence, trust development is frequently difficult to achieve.

***Benevolence.*** Benevolence is often viewed as the most essential element of trust (Hoy et al., 2006; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). The concept of benevolence is defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) as the confidence that one's well-being or something that one cares about will be protected by the trusted party or group (Baier, 1986; Deutsch, 1958; Hosmer, 1995; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Mishra, 1996; Zand, 1972). Trust acts as an assurance the other person will not exploit one's vulnerability or take excessive advantage even if the opportunity presented itself (Cummings & Bromily, 1996). This sense of benevolence between individuals and groups is crucial to the interdependence and vulnerability vital for trusting relationships.

***Reliability.*** Trust also depends on predictable behavior over time. The construct of reliability is the degree to which one can count on another individual or group (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). It is the consistency of behavior and knowing what to expect from others (Hosmer, 1995). It combines a sense of predictability with benevolence. In a situation of interdependence, when something is required from another person or group, the individual can

be relied upon to supply it (Mishra, 1996; Rotter, 1967). The concept of reliability means that there is a sense of confidence that one's basic needs will be met in a positive way. If trust is to exist, individuals must behave in a consistent and predictable manner in the best interest of other institutional members of groups (Mishra, 1996).

**Competence.** One of the key factors inherent in predictability is competence.

Competence is considered a crucial element in the development of trust in organizations (Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). In order to trust an individual, one must feel that the individual or group has the capacity, skills and resources to act in a reliable and benevolent manner (Rotter, 1967; Mishra, 1996). Competence is the ability to perform as expected and according to the standards of the current assignment. It is the extent to which the trusted party has knowledge and skill. When a person is dependent on another and some level of skill is involved in fulfilling the expectation, an individual who means well may not be trusted to perform the task (Baier, 1986; Mishra, 1996). Good intentions are not always good enough. The absence of competence in one party often results in the failed expectations of the other party (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). If one party is considered incompetent and unable to fulfill expectations of the relationship, the other individual in the relationship is not likely to invest their efforts in building trust.

**Honesty.** Honesty is another key dimension in the development of trust between individuals and groups (Cummings & Bromily, 1996; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Honesty is seen as a fundamental facet of trust that takes an individual's character and integrity into account (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Trust participants tell the truth and seek to do the right thing. Individuals who communicate honesty to other people in a relationship also strengthen the development of trust in the relationship. Honesty encompasses the ideals of truthfulness, authenticity, and commitment (Rotter, 1967; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Honesty and

integrity go hand in hand. People with integrity exhibit a sense of soundness and stability, even under duress (Cummings & Bromily, 1996; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Not only does the honest individual influence the present by building trust, but they also influence a person's believability that future commitments will be respected and honored. Many scholars and researchers view honesty as a pivotal aspect of trust (Baier, 1986; Cummings & Bromily, 1996). Without honesty, the foundation of reliability, predictability, and benevolence have no fertile interpersonal ground in which to grow.

*Openness.* Lastly, the final facet of trust is communication and openness. Openness is the degree to which an organizational culture is open for information to flow freely as needed. When individuals are involved in open communication, they do so with the confidence that each actor is on the same wave length, and that all participants are risking the same high stakes. The leveling of the playing field reduces the sense of vulnerability, fear of injury, and the risk of exploitation. It is vital to the organization's health and has a significant effect on trust among its groups and members. The information that is shared may be strictly about organizational matters, or it may be personal information, but it is a giving of oneself (Mishra, 1996). Guarded communication may provoke distrust because others will wonder what is being withheld and for what purpose (Brewster & Railsback, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). This guarded behavior facilitates distrust, which consequentially creates even more distrust. Therefore, in an organization, a cycle of distrust and suspicion can lead to times of isolation and alienation (Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna, 1996). In contrast, open communication reduces distrust and facilitates the development of trusting relationships to encourage open-mindedness, inclusion, and acceptance.

### *Trust in Schools*

Trust relationships are the common thread that is interwoven throughout the fabric of effective schools (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Educators in effective schools recognize that trusting school environments contribute to the success of students and teachers. According to the data from the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey (2006), creating an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect was strongly correlated with overall student performance at the elementary level, middle, and high school levels. Also, trust in the school was strongly correlated with teachers' employment decisions (Hirsch & Emerick, 2006). The survey data discovered that:

- Sixty-six percent of North Carolina educators who intended to stay at their school concurred that there was an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect in their school building.
- Only 22 percent of North Carolina educators planning to remain in teaching but moving to another school agreed that such an atmosphere exists in their present school building.
- Nearly 20 percent more of North Carolina's educators in the state's highest achieving schools concurred that there was trust and mutual respect in their school than educators in schools with the lowest student performance.
- In schools with the lowest teacher turnover rates, approximately two-thirds of the North Carolina educators agreed that there is an atmosphere of trust.
- In schools with the highest teacher turnover rates, about half of the North Carolina educators agreed that there is an atmosphere of trust.

Productive relationships build effective schools (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Trust cultivates a set of organizational conditions, some structural and some social-psychological, that makes it beneficial for individuals to initiate and maintain the types of activities necessary to positively influence productivity (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Research on trust in schools has shown a positive relationship between trust and school effectiveness, making a definitive connection between the development of trust and organizational changes, which can lead to improved educational outcomes for students (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Goddard et al., 2001). While trust alone will not guarantee success, schools with little or no trust have almost no chance of improving (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). These researchers discovered:

- Trust among educators lowers their sense of vulnerability as they engage in new tasks linked to school reform.
- Trust assists public problem solving within an organization.
- Trust supports the highly efficient system of social control found in school communities. Staff members understand their duties and roles and perform them without external pressure.
- Trust upholds the ethical imperative of “doing what is best for the children” and represents a moral conviction that drives school improvement.

***School climate.*** School climate can boost the development of trust or make trust challenging to achieve. Healthy learning climates are an indication of high trust interpersonal relationships within schools (Hoy et al., 2006). However, the school climate can be one that nurtures trust or one that makes trust difficult to cultivate (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Increasing diversity and transience within schools pose a significant challenge to establishing a climate of trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Research focusing on school climate and

trust demonstrated that the behavior of the principal and teachers had conflicting effects on the quality of trusting relationships in schools. When the principal demonstrates supportive leadership, the teachers' level of trust in the principal helps to maintain behaviors conducive to sustaining trust in colleagues (Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie, 1992; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998).

***School leadership.*** Trust is a critical component of effective leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Dirks, 1999). Employee trust in school leadership has been linked to increased employee productivity, cooperation, and institutional citizenship (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Followers who trust their leaders also tend to be more effective, and demonstrate organizational citizenship behavior (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) performed a meta-analysis of leadership trust and individual outcomes using data collected from a variety of organizations. It was discovered that trust in leadership considerably affects job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, employee retention, job satisfaction, and job commitment. If principals are to become effective leaders and develop an organizational culture that inspires teachers to go beyond the requirements of their job, then they must earn the trust of teachers (Deluga, 1994).

***Student achievement.*** Trust is an important component of all human learning (Rotter, 1967), and it is a critical component in schools where learning is the fundamental objective. The trust that teachers possess as a group in the school's students and their parents has been shown to predict student achievement despite socioeconomic status. Scholars have demonstrated that trust is an important school characteristic that makes a difference in a student learning and achievement (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Unfortunately, many schools have low levels of trust among adults who work in schools and

with students (Goddard et al., 2001), and low levels of trust lead to low levels of performance on varied measures such as student achievement (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1997).

**Communication.** Trust is essential for open communication in an organization. Individuals with high levels of trust are more likely to reveal accurate, relevant, and inclusive data about institutional problems. These individuals will also be more prone to share their thoughts, feelings, and ideas (Zand, 1972; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Effective organizational communication is dependent on the facilitation and promotion of trust. Additionally, trusting relationships are characterized by the open sharing of information in interpersonal communications and occur without fear of hostility (Mishra, 1996). Trust among members of the school organization and its groups foster an openness of communication by allowing timely and accurate information to flow horizontally and vertically throughout the organization (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Trust is crucial for the effective communication and co-operation which is conducive for productive relationships (Baier, 1986). Principals must develop an atmosphere of trust in order to encourage rapport among their faculty. Communication between principals and teachers becomes disabled in a climate of distrust. Teachers are cautious with whom they talk to and careful about what they actually say. Open communication and the willingness to take risks is closely related to trusting relationships, which yield improved goal focus, easier transfer of information and ideas, and ultimately greater performance (Beccerra & Gupta, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

**Collaboration.** In any human environment, “trust is important because it is a key element of social capital and has been directly related to desirable social outcomes such as society development, individual and group performance, and traditional management process variables such as conflict, commitment, and cooperation” (Beccerra & Gupta, 1999, p. 183).

Collaboration can produce the social capital necessary for excellent schools. Parents and teachers are involved in the problem solving processes and they have the opportunity for additional contact and understanding (Putnam, 1993). In schools where there was greater trust, there was a greater level of collaboration. When trust was deficient individuals were reluctant to work closely together, and thus collaboration was hindered (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In organizations with a high level of trust, individuals do not hesitate to seek help from others and learn from their co-workers because they know they are not going to be viewed as incompetent at their job (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). An organization that develops a culture of trust has a competitive edge. Trust between members enhances the organization's ability to make use of its tacit knowledge: "the unspoken, implicit knowledge embedded in the interaction among people in teams that contribute to superior performance" (Jones & George, 1998, p. 540).

A significant link exists between teacher's collaboration with the principal and their trust in the principal, collaboration with colleagues, and trust in colleagues, and collaboration with parents and trust in parents (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The level of trust that is already present in the relationship influences parties' willingness and ability to work together (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The greater the trust between teachers and principals, the more likely that genuine collaboration will occur (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). When teachers had a greater trust in the principal, it permitted them to increase their zone of acceptance. When teachers felt confident that their interests would be looked after, they were more prepared to extend decision-making authority to the principal and stand by the decisions that were made (Tyler & DeGoey, 1996).

### ***Impact of Faculty Trust Relationships***

Within schools, relational trust is defined as “the social exchanges of schooling as organized around a distinct set of role relationships: teachers with students, teachers with other teachers, teachers with parents, and teachers with their school principal” (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, p.20). Teachers are the key players when it comes to these social exchanges. Situations with strong relational trust profit from clear understanding about role obligations that are routinely enforced in daily behavior. Individuals comprehend what is expected of them and the consequences that may follow if obligations are not met (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

One of the reasons why high turnover may impact the ability of a school’s staff to work as a collaborative team is that it may undermine relational trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). In order to trust someone, an individual must have some experience with the other individual on which a relationship of trust can be established. For schools that are continuously receiving new teachers, it is difficult to create trust because teachers, students, and parents are constantly dealing with “outsiders”, individuals with whom they have no experience. Schools are especially vulnerable to the negative impacts of teacher turnover because it destroys the team-based organizational structure and disrupts the functioning of the school. Teacher turnover makes teamwork difficult, given the instability of key players, and disrupts the momentum of the whole group (Guin, 2004).

***Teacher-principal relationships.*** The principal significantly impacts the quality and productivity of a school. As the leader of the school, their influence on the climate of the school is vital. The principal sets the intellectual and organizational atmosphere of the school (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Besides the day to day administrative details, one of the main

responsibilities of the principal is developing and maintaining trust relations in the school (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). So in order to assist and cultivate trust relationships, the principal must convince the faculty that promises will be kept and their best interests will be protected (Hoy & KuperSmith, 1985).

Hoy and KuperSmith's (1985) study about teacher perceptions of the principal and their colleagues conceptualized the trust construct by developing measures for the aspects of faculty trust. Trust between the principal and faculty is a critical component for facilitating school reform. Teacher-principal trust allows the principal to introduce instructional and organizational changes to a more receptive faculty. The study found that faculty trust in the principal, colleagues, and the organization would be positively correlated to each other (Hoy & KuperSmith, 1985). Teachers who feel appreciated and valued as professionals are more open to input from a principal (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

Wayne Hoy and his colleagues have engaged in over a decade of research on trust in schools. They have found teachers' trusts in their colleagues as well as their principal are important elements of trust in the school setting. People are influenced by the perceived motives of leaders and that an authority's intentions to maintain respectful relations in decision-making processes are vital to trust (Tyler & DeGoey, 1996). For teachers to break from these norms of isolation and autonomy and to reap the benefits of greater collaboration; trust must be evident in the relational process of working with their principal and their colleagues (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Also, principals need to trust their teachers' intentions and their capabilities in order to extend not just token participation, but genuine decision-making authority to them (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The principal's actions are central to whether he or she elicits faculty trust, and the behavior of teachers in relation to each other determines faculty trust among colleagues.

Principals' collegial leadership appears to generate an atmosphere of teacher openness which fosters a climate of trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998).

*Teacher-teacher relationships.* A relationship of trust that matures between teachers greatly impacts the quality of the school's climate and effectiveness (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Teachers often rely on the integrity of their colleagues and depend on them for support in challenging times and situations. For that reason, trust in colleagues creates an opportunity for positive morale. In spite of this, certain conditions must be present in order for trust to develop and flourish. Tschannen-Moran (2004) asserts that all five facets of trust (benevolence, honesty, openness, competence, and reliability) are critical in teachers' trust judgments of colleagues.

Teachers frequently indicate that displaying a sense of care for their colleagues is important in building trust (Hoy et al., 2006; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran 2003; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Also, trust is evident in a climate that consists of teachers looking out for each other and supporting one another. In fact, high trust schools, caring for a colleague often extends beyond the confines of the work environment. Faculty members are present at family gatherings, marriages, and other social events with one another. A sense of trust is developed when faculty members identify themselves as a community promoting cooperation and care (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

Teachers who exhibit all of the facets of trust: benevolence, honesty, openness, reliability, and competence tend to create a climate which promotes and values trusting relationships among its coworkers (Hoy et al., 2006; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). All of the aspects are uniquely important, and the contributions of

each increases when it is combined with another. Tschannen-Moran (2004) states that the level of trust among the faculty of a school has very real consequences for how the school performs and its ability to meet goals. When schools start to value and possess a strong climate of trust, teachers possess a higher degree of confidence in cooperatively achieving the goals of the school. Teacher to teacher trust has an effect on peer collaboration, which impacts teacher efficacy and decision making (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

*Teacher-Client Relationships.* Although one might think that trust in parents and trust in students are different concepts, several factor analyses have demonstrated they are not (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Teacher-student trust operates primarily through teacher-parent trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Also, faculty trust has been shown to have a direct impact on student success (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001). In their research they found that the greater the levels of faculty trust in students and parents, the higher the level of school achievement in reading and mathematics. Trust is a fundamental component of human learning, and when teachers believe their students are competent and reliable, they create learning environments that facilitate student academic success (Rotter, 1967).

In a study of Chicago area elementary schools, Bryk and Schneider (2002) argued that schools with a high degree of relational trust were more likely to initiate the changes necessary to enhance student achievement. The study found that trust is a crucial factor in predicting student achievement levels over time (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Students achieved higher scores on reading and mathematics assessments when stronger levels of faculty trust in students and parents existed (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001).

### ***Breaches of Trust***

The value of trust in relationships is recognized as a critical element in well-functioning organizations. People entrust their best interests to others. Trust facilitates communication, promotes cooperation and citizenship behaviors, and improves the performance of employees (Davis et al., 2000; Dirks, 1999; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). To make matters worse, trust development in many organizations is a challenging process. Downsizing and restructuring create a sense of insecurity in employees (Robinson, Dirks, & Ozelick, 2004). Perceived management violations, breaches of trust and incidences of betrayal in the workplace often result in the reduction of employee trust, performance, commitment, and retention (Robinson et al., 2004). Due to these circumstances, the desires of employees to dedicate extra effort to their job performances diminish and trust is replaced by distrust and suspicion.

***Suspicion and distrust.*** Distrust and suspicion are a common and recurring problem within many organizations (Sitkin & Roth, 1993). Distrust is not only the opposite of trust; it is also a social alternative to trust. One can choose to trust or distrust, with each choice reducing social complexity (Baba, 1999). Various researchers have revealed the difficulty of trust development, as well as the ease in which trust can be shattered or lost (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Relationships of all kinds are developed and sustained by trust. They can also be destroyed by lack of trust (Covey, 2006). In the absence of trust, “people are increasingly unwilling to take risks, demand greater protections against the possibility of betrayal, and increasingly insist on costly sanctioning mechanisms to defend their interests” (Kramer & Tyler, 1996, p. 3-4).

Distrust is defined as the absence of confidence in another, a concern that the other may act so as to harm oneself, and that he does not care about one's welfare or intends to act harmfully, or is hostile (Grovier, 1994). Distrust functions to identify situations in which we need to protect ourselves (Baba, 1999). It signals risk and reduces uncertainty by promoting avoidance of risk. Distrust has a serious drawback. It consumes a great deal of energy, and makes exploration of the environment very difficult which hinders adaptive behavior (Hosmer, 1995). Suspicion has been viewed as an integral part of distrust (Deutsch, 1958).

There are several factors that inhibit the development of trust and facilitate its downfall. Negative information or events are more prevalent than positive counterparts. Trust breaking events have a greater impact on a person's judgment than trust building events. All things considered, it is a difficult task for individuals and organizations to develop trust and maintain it. Creating distrust seems to be an easier task. When an individual trusts another individual, they have confidence in them, in their integrity, and in their abilities. When an individual distrusts another individual, they are suspicious of them, of their integrity, their agenda, their capabilities, and their track record (Covey, 2006).

***Betrayal.*** Betrayal is defined as a voluntary violation of mutual expectations, which has the potential to threaten or harm the trusting party (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998). It is the breach of trust or the perception of such a breach (Reina & Reina, 2006). The betrayer makes a decision to violate the trusting party's expectations due to some motivation or purpose (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Betrayal is an infringement upon non-calculational, identification-based trust that has the possibility to destroy relationships, and it is unsettling in nature. A substantial amount of the emotional pain absorbed by the betrayed party can be attributed to the disappointment connected with being ill-treated by the trusted person (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

Betrayal happens and it can run the gamut from major intentional betrayal to unintentional minor betrayal. Major intentional betrayals are carried out to hurt people. Unintentional minor betrayals are incidental to other actions but they can eventually add up (Reina & Reina, 2006). Whether a betrayal is major or minor, the experience affects our capacity to trust ourselves and others. Betrayal goes to the core of human vulnerability; it cuts through us to our deepest emotional layers. Betrayal erodes trust, ends relationships, and hinders performance (Reina & Reina, 2006).

Reactions to betrayal are numerous and complicated. The most common emotions displayed by the betrayed are anger and rejection. Quite often the betrayed party seeks revenge against the betrayer (Beis & Tripp, 1996). When a person is betrayed, they experience a sense of disappointment, injustice, and mistreatment by the person who commits the betrayal (Robinson, Dirks, & Oselik, 2004). Regardless of the motivation, betrayal destroys trust and severs many relationships (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Forgiveness may be extended but the act of violation is seldom forgotten.

**Revenge.** Revenge is a purposeful reaction to an act of betrayal. It can be impulsive, swift, explosive, cold, and/or calculating (Beis & Tripp, 1996). Some victims are able to act out their vengeance, while others simply withdraw psychologically after the violation. These betrayal and revenge reactions are determined by the aggrieved party's prior trust history, the intent of the betrayer, and the individual's emotional disposition (Beis & Tripp, 1996). When one party betrays another, various reactions take place and people respond in unique yet predictable ways. Some forgive and reconcile, some sever all ties and move on, while others seek revenge (Beis & Tripp, 1996). The response of the victim depends greatly on their perception of the betrayer's intentions along with their individual experiences (Tschannen-

Moran, 2004). When a victim senses that the intent was selfish or malicious, then revenge is often the reaction (Beis & Tripp, 1996).

***Psychological contract breach.*** Another means of analyzing the growing dissatisfaction among teachers is by way of the concept of the psychological contract and perceptions among teachers that this contract has been violated. Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau (1994) stated that there are two major types of perceived reciprocal obligations between employer and employee. 1) formalized, (e. g., salary in exchange for giving notice) and 2) less tangible (e.g., job security in exchange for loyalty or citizenship behaviors). Failures to meet the employee's expectations under the contract can constitute a violation of the psychological contract, which, in turn, may lead to increased negative feelings and distrust toward the organization, which can lead to quitting (Maertz & Campion, 1998).

Robinson (1996) examined the relationship between employees' trust in an organization and their perceptions of the extent to which the organization had either fulfilled or breached its psychological contract with them. It is subjective because the contract is characterized by a bounded rationality that reflects the employee's distorted view of the relationship. It may overlap as well as differ from matters codified in written contracts of employment. The psychological contract fills the perceptual gaps in the employee/employer relationship and influences day-to-day employee behavior in ways that cannot be perceived from a written contract. A violation of the psychological contract may elicit negative attitudinal consequences, including feelings of dissatisfaction, resentment, anger, and mistrust. One by one, these emotions may produce a variety of negative work behaviors ranging from lower commitment and reduce effort to higher absenteeism, sabotage, and departure. A violation occurs when the employee experiences a discrepancy between the actual fulfillment of obligations by the

organization and what the organization had previously promised to do (Anderson & Schalk, 1998).

Guest (1998) developed an extended model of the psychological contract (from the employee perspective) and this model represented a particularly useful way of understanding the attitudinal and behavioral effects of employment practices at the scale of the individual employee. Before representing the occurrence as a homogeneous state of mind, Guest (1998) identified three factor categories that were linked in a linear fashion, identified as causes, content, and consequences. Causes, or inputs to the contract, included organizational culture, human resource practices, prior experience, expectations, and work/life alternatives. Content, or the state of the contract, had three main affective components consisting of trust, felt-fairness, and a sense of delivery on the deal. Consequences included key attitudes, such as job satisfaction/dissatisfaction, job security/insecurity, organizational commitment, and motivation. It also included a full range of work related behaviors from interpersonal and work relations and prescribed task performance to attendance/absence, and organizational citizenship behavior (Guest, 1998).

Work attitudes are employees' assessment of the employer and the work in general. The work attitudes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions have received wide-spread attention in terms of consequences of breach (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Job satisfaction is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives the job is offering. A discrepancy between promised and received incentives is likely to lead to feelings of dissatisfaction (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Similarly, when breach occurs, lowered employee commitment to the organization is expected, and employees are less likely to identify with the organization and

maintain their commitment. Turnover intentions reflect the probability that an individual will leave their organization within a certain period of time, and serve as an indicator of the extent of one's psychological attachment to the organization. Therefore, psychological contract breach, as a negative event for employees that can increase their tendency to leave the organization (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007).

### ***Faculty Trust and Turnover Intentions***

A construct that has a significant negative relationship to turnover is trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Tan & Tan, 2000). Trust is a crucial component in the relationship between staff members and the school organization. Trust can affect the loyalty an individual has to the school organization and may influence issues ranging from turnover to successful organizational change implementations (Mayer et al., 1995) or school improvement initiatives. Trust in administration was found to significantly correlate with turnover intentions (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). Staff members who trust their administrator are more likely to develop an attachment to their organization and have little or no intention to leave (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). High levels of trust within an organization can dramatically reduce employee turnover (Sonnenberg, 1994). Attitudes are the knowledge structures that contain the thoughts and feelings that individuals have concerning other individuals, groups, or organizations. This encompasses the process through which they define and organize their interactions with other people (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Since relationships within organizations involve interdependence and a certain amount of uncertainty, the attitudes that individuals form toward each other in an organizational setting are likely to include information concerning the other individual's trustworthiness based on perceptions of shared values (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Relationships and levels of trust in a

school community dwindle when individuals are continually leaving and new relationship bonds are frequently being formed.

### *Summary*

Teacher intentions' to leave or stay in the teaching profession can be influenced by numerous factors. Understanding how faculty trust impacts teacher turnover decisions is essential information for school leaders. The development of trusting interpersonal relationships has become increasingly important and essential to the overall effectiveness of organizations (Kramer & Cook, 2004). Trust is a crucial component in the effective social relationships that exist in high performing organizations (Kramer & Cook, 2004). Studies have shown the importance of teacher centered trust relationships involving principals, colleagues, parents, and students. With increasing bureaucratic demands, current federal legislation, and the influx of media attention on public school performance, a reexamination of the complementary properties of effective schools which includes faculty trust is vital. The quality of trust relationship included in the process of social exchanges among adult stakeholder groups has emerged as a critical indicator in school improvement efforts. It is this researcher's belief that trust impacts turnover intentions. Trust relationships within schools are worth investigating. Faculty trust research will be used and referenced comprehensively throughout this research study.

## CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship between voluntary teacher turnover intentions and levels of faculty trust of teachers in a public school system in the state of Virginia. In addition, supplementary questions were posed concerning possible reasons for turnover and potential job alternatives in order to explore potential causes of teacher job dissatisfaction which may lead to turnover.

### Research Questions

This research study investigated the extent to which levels of faculty trust (principal, colleagues, and clients) impacted teacher turnover behavior. The turnover variable was represented by turnover intention. This research study was designed to explore the following research questions.

1. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in the building principal related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
  - a) Intention to migrate to another school
  - b) Intention to leave the teaching profession
2. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their colleagues related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
  - a) Intention to migrate to another school
  - b) Intention to leave the teaching profession

3. To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their clients related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among school teachers?
  - a) Intention to migrate to another school
  - b) Intention to leave the teaching profession
4. To what extent did the set of faculty trust variables explain voluntary teacher turnover intentions, and which if any, of these variables makes an independent contribution?
  - a) Intention to migrate to another school
  - b) Intention to leave the teaching profession
5. Of those teachers who intended to leave, which reasons did they ascribe as important or very important to their decision? How did they differ from teachers who intend to stay?
6. Of those teachers who intended to leave, where would they go? How did they differ from teachers who intend to stay?

### **Data Collection**

#### ***Sample***

The population of this study consisted of teachers from a selected school district during the 2007-2008 school year. The target population size for this study was 880 core, elective/resource, and special teachers in the school district. The researcher obtained data from teachers in 13 schools from the selected school district. The school district was located in the southeastern quadrant of the state of Virginia commonly referred to as the Hampton Roads area. The teacher sample included the faculty members of 13 schools in the district who were employed on a full-time basis. No teacher assistants, substitute teachers, librarians, or school

nurses were given a survey. The respondents reflected a diversity of experience, age, and gender. The attained sample was 528 core, elective/resource, and special education teachers, for a response rate of 60%.

### ***Procedures***

Permission to collect research data in the selected school district was requested through the writing of a formal letter to the school district's Supervisor of Student Services. Permission to collect data for this study in the selected school district was obtained through the central office employee. All school district policies and procedures relevant to collecting research data were adhered to. The collection of research data began during the month of March in 2008 and ended during the month of April in 2008. This time frame for collecting the data was selected because research findings concerning teacher turnover intentions have shown that teachers generally make up their minds to leave teaching around the month of February and usually before the cycle of state-mandated testing (Bang, Kern, Luft, & Roehrig, 2007).

Letters were sent to twenty principals in the selected school district inviting them to participate in the research study. Each invitation contained a letter describing the research study, the school district's approval letter, and the teacher survey. At the principals' discretion, three principals agreed to have the researcher distribute the teacher surveys during a scheduled faculty meeting, and ten principals agreed to have the researcher place surveys in the teachers' mailboxes. At the three schools where data were collected in the faculty meeting, the researcher read the directions on how to complete the survey and distributed the school-level survey to the faculty. At the ten schools where principals requested that surveys be placed in teachers'

mailboxes, the researcher distributed a survey packet containing a letter of invitation explaining the study, the survey, and a self addressed stamped envelop in each teacher's mailbox.

The survey included demographic information, the Omnibus Trust survey, two turnover intentions questions, and two additional questions on practices that can lead to turnover and potential career alternatives. The teachers completed the surveys and returned them to the researcher. Anonymity was guaranteed to the teachers in the study. Principals at each school were asked to encourage their faculty to complete and return the surveys to the researcher.

### **Instrumentation**

Specific instruments were employed to collect teacher turnover intention data as well as faculty trust data. Each instrument was briefly described in this section. Two survey instruments were used to provide a quantitative description of the beliefs and attitudes of the teacher population (Creswell, 2003). Items used to measure demographic variables or other types of factual information were created by the researcher. Teachers indicated if they were core (English, Math, Science, History), elective (PE, Music, Art, /technology), or special education teacher (ED, LD, EMR). They also indicated their preparatory program by selecting traditional route, alternative route, or no teacher preparatory program. Teacher turnover intentions (attrition and migration) were disaggregated by school level, job position, and teacher preparatory program.

#### ***Omnibus Trust Scale***

In this study, the Omnibus T-Scale that was developed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) was utilized to measure the three subsets of faculty trust. Teachers were asked to respond to statements that described their perceptions of trust along a 6-point scale from

“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). The Omnibus T-Scale measured faculty trust within a target population. The survey questionnaire consisted of 26 items designed to measure the three dimensions of faculty trust encompassing faculty trust in the principal, faculty trust in colleagues, and faculty trust in clients.

The Trust Scale was developed in a study conducted in a large urban school system. Forty-five schools provided usable data for the study. A factor analysis was conducted in order to check the reliability of the factor structure of trust, to perfect the instrument, to make sure the all the items loaded on the appropriate scale, and to check the construct validity (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Using Cronbach’s, alpha coefficients of reliability, Trust in the Principal had a subscale reliability of .98. Trust in Colleagues had a reliability subscale of .98. Lastly, Trust in Clients had a reliability subscale of .97. In the development of the high school version of the Omnibus Trust Scale, a sample of 97 high schools in Ohio was used. Four items were eliminated from the original version of the survey. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of reliability for the three subscales were: Trust in Principal (.98); Trust in Colleagues (.93); and Trust in Clients (.93) (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

The trust scales were further validated by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) in a research study of faculty trust in 97 high schools, and these schools represented the entire range of socioeconomic status. The instrument was designed to operate so that:

1. Each of the three referents of faculty trust is measured by subscale.
2. Each trust subscale contains all levels of trust.
3. Each subscale has high reliability.
4. Each subscale is succinct

5. Each subscale correlates strongly with the original elementary and secondary populations (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003, p. 20).

The Omnibus Trust Scale started with 31 items, but five items were eliminated because of redundancy or because they loaded low on expected sub-scales. A succession of factor analytic studies has supported the validity and reliability of the three faculty subtests of the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). The alpha coefficients of reliability for each scale were consistently above .90. The three dimensions, as well as the subscale items, present a cohesive and coherent representation of school trust. Each of the five facets of trust, along with the elements of confidence and vulnerability were contained within the categories of the measure. The Omnibus T-Scale constituted a reasonably valid and reliable measure of trust that targeted three critical referents of trust in schools: trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients. See Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

*The Dimensions of Faculty Trust and the Reliabilities of the Omnibus T-Scale*

Subscale	Number of Items	Reliabilities (alpha)
Trust in Colleagues	8	.93
Trust in the Principal	8	.98
Trust in Clients	10	.94

In this research study, participants responded to the Omnibus T-Scale using a six-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree (1)” “to strongly agree (6)”.

The faculty trust in their colleagues subscale consisted of the following items:

- Teachers in this school typically look out for each other.
- Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.

The faculty trust in their principal subscale consisted of the following items:

- Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.
- Teachers in this school trust the principal.

The faculty trust in their clients subscale consisted of the following items:

- Teachers in this school trust their students.
- Teachers in this school believe what parents tell them.

The Omnibus T- Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) was developed to measure teacher perceptions of trust as a collective of the school. It required teachers to focus and comment on the behavior of others as a school community and did not allow them to communicate their views about themselves concerning trust. However, in this research study, the Omnibus T-Scale was altered in order to measure the individualized teacher perceptions of faculty trust. The nature of the instrument was modified to reflect teacher perceptions of trust on an individualized basis. Specifically, the Omnibus T-Scale did not elicit information from teachers about their individualized levels of trust concerning the principal, their colleagues, and their clients. Thus, each statement was changed such that the sentence stem “Teachers in this school” was changed to “I” and other resultant changes were made to ensure each sentence stem was grammatically correct.

The modified Omnibus T-Scale served a new purpose and measured the individualized teacher perceptions of faculty trust. The instrument included the “I statement” changes described below.

The faculty trust in their colleagues subscale consisted of the following items:

- I typically look out for teachers in this school.
- Even in difficult situations, I can depend on teachers in this school.

The faculty trust in their principal subscale consisted of the following items:

- I have faith in the integrity of the principal in this school.
- I think the principal in this school typically acts in my best interest.

The faculty trust in their clients subscale consisted of the following items:

- I care about students in this school.
- I can count on parental support.

These changes were intended to produce an instrument which provided information about teachers’ perceptions of their own individual trust behavior. Also, one sample item “I think students are secretive in this school” was eliminated due to low loading (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

The instrument was scored in this manner: Faculty trust in the principal- items 3, 5, 6, 10, 14, 15, 22, 24, and faculty trust in colleagues-items 2, 4, 7, 11, 16, 18, 20, and faculty trust in clients-items 1, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 21, 23, 25. Survey items 14, 15, 18, and 22 were reverse coded due to their negative wording. The average of the item scores were used to determine the faculty trust subset.

### ***Voluntary Teacher Turnover Intentions***

Intentions to leave the teaching profession were assessed by asking the question, “How long do you intend to remain in the teaching profession?”, and teachers were instructed to indicate the answer to that question with the number of years they intended to stay in the profession. Following that question, each respondent then indicated whether or not they intended to stay in the profession until retirement by selecting “yes” or “no”.

Intentions to leave their current school building were assessed by asking the question, “How long do you intend to teach at this school?”, and teachers were instructed to indicate the answer to that question with the number of years they intended to stay in their current school. Following that question, each respondent then indicated whether or not they intend to stay at their current school until retirement by selecting “yes” or “no”.

### ***Response and Turnover Destination for Teacher***

In addition to the voluntary teacher turnover intention questions, two turnover-related questions were included in the survey. These two questions assisted the researcher in gathering additional information and uncovering reasons why teachers would potentially leave teaching and where they would possibly go? Each item listed in the first question was presented with a 5-point response scale (Very Important, Important, Somewhat Important, Not Very Important, Not At All Important). For example these items included:

- If you were to leave this school, how important would each of the following items be in your decision? (e.g., low salary, relationships with colleagues, skill level of colleagues, working conditions, burnout, family issues, respect from parents) The teachers rated each item.

- If you were to leave your present teaching job, where would you be most likely to go (e.g., administrative position, field other than education, graduate school, home, retirement)? The teachers indicated where they would most likely go.

### **Data Analysis**

For this study, the independent variable identifies trust levels of targeted teachers in a large school division in Virginia. The independent variable was the presumed cause in the study, and it was used to predict the values of another variable (Vogt, 1993). The dependant variable identified teachers' turnover intentions. The dependent variable of this study, turnover intentions, was assessed by using these two questions, "How long do you intend to remain in the teaching profession?" and "How long do you intend to teach at this school?" The researcher measured individual perceptions of teachers which allowed the researcher to measure actual thoughts, attitudes, and beliefs of teachers without manipulation. A teacher-level analysis was utilized to determine the relationship between levels of faculty trust, in the principal, in their colleagues, and their clients and teacher turnover intentions. Another teacher-level analysis was used to explore possible turnover reasons, and potential job alternatives.

The data analysis procedure was determined by each research question. The researcher performed descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among the variables of the study, and then performed a multivariate analysis of the relationships. For questions 1, 2 and 3, a correlation matrix among all the study variables was summarized using Pearson product-moment correlations. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was the most stable of all the correlation techniques (Isaac & Michael, 1990). For question 4, multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationships between the three dimensions of faculty trust and teacher

turnover intentions. For questions 5 and 6, descriptive statistics was compiled and reported. For question 5, the means of teachers who intended to leave the teaching profession were compared to the means of teachers who intended to stay in the profession. Also, the means of teachers who intended to stay in their current school were compared to the means of teachers who intended to leave their current school. For question 6, a frequency count was performed and percentages were calculated. The selections and percentages for teachers who intended to stay in the profession were compared to the selections and percentages of teachers who intended to leave the profession. See Table 3.2.

### **Ethical Safeguards**

In an effort to ensure that this study did not compromise the privacy of the parties involved this research study, the survey measures were forwarded to the University's Human Subjects Review for evaluation to determine that the study was of educational value and within the boundaries of ethical research practice. Following approval from the College of William and Mary and before data were collected; the selected school district was contacted. All district procedures for acquiring research approval and the parameters for conducting research were strictly followed.

The entire collection of teacher data was handled in a confidential manner to protect the identity of the respondents and the selected school district.

Table 3.2

*Data Analysis Chart*

Question	Data Source	Analysis
1. To what extent are the levels of faculty trust in the building principal related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among middle school teachers?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Omnibus Trust Survey Faculty Trust in the Principal</li> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Teacher Turnover Intentions</li> </ul>	Pearson r
2. To what extent are the levels of faculty trust in their colleagues related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among middle school teachers?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Omnibus Trust Survey Faculty Trust in Colleagues</li> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Teacher Turnover Intentions</li> </ul>	Pearson r
3. To what extent are the levels of faculty trust in their clients related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among middle school teachers?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Omnibus Trust Survey Faculty Trust in Clients</li> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Teacher Turnover Intentions</li> </ul>	Pearson r
4. To what extent does the set of faculty trust variables explain voluntary teacher turnover intentions, and which if any, of these variables makes an independent contribution?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Omnibus Trust Survey Faculty Trust in the Principal Faculty Trust in Colleagues Faculty Trust in Clients</li> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Teacher Turnover Intentions</li> </ul>	Multiple Regression
5. Of those teachers who intend to leave, which reason do they ascribe as important or very important to their decision? How do they differ from teachers who intend to stay?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Why teachers would leave</li> </ul>	Descriptive
6. Of those teachers who intend to leave, where would they go? How do they differ from teachers who intend to stay?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Turnover Intention Questionnaire Where teachers would go</li> </ul>	Descriptive

## CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS OF DATA

### Introduction

The purpose of this research study was to examine the degree of relationship between faculty trust and teachers' voluntary turnover intentions. The researcher modified the Omnibus Trust Scale in order to measure how individual teachers' trust was related to their attrition and migration intentions. A secondary purpose for this study was to compare "stayers" and "leavers" in order to examine where these teachers would most likely go if they decided to leave their present job, and how important various issues would be in their decision to leave their current school. Descriptive statistics and frequency counts were utilized to show the sample size, survey response rate, and population demographics. They also displayed teachers' intentions on remaining in the field of education, their intentions of remaining at their present school assignment, teachers' school level, teachers' preparatory program, along with their current teaching position.

A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to show the relationships between faculty trust in the principal, in colleagues, and in clients, and voluntary teacher turnover intention. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the correlation between teacher turnover and migration intentions which were criterion variables, and the combination of teachers' trust in the principal, in their colleagues, in their clients, which were the predictor variables. It was the intent of the researcher to measure and reveal if a significant relationship exists between teachers' trust in the principal, in their colleagues, in their clients, and teacher turnover and migration intentions. Response data were entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 15 software for analysis, and Microsoft Excel 2007.

### Descriptive Summary of Sample

The survey instrument was distributed to 880 K-12 teachers in thirteen schools, three elementary schools, eight middle schools, and two high schools in the selected school district. Within four weeks of the initial distribution, a total of 528 teachers completed useable self-administered surveys which yielded a 60% overall return rate. Statistics were calculated on the information respondents provided on their school level. The response rate ranged from 48% (high school teachers) to 61% (middle school teachers) to 73% (elementary school teachers) by each school level. The final sample consisted of 102 elementary teachers (20% of the sample), 334 middle school teachers (63% of the sample), and 92 high school teachers (17% of the sample). See Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.

*Frequency and Percentages of Original Sample Size and Response Rate by School Level*

Grade Level	Original Sample Size	Number of returned surveys	Survey response rate by school level	Percentage of total number of respondents
Elementary K-5	140	102	73%	20%
Middle School 6-8	550	334	61%	63%
High School 9-12	190	92	48%	17%
Total	880	528	60%	100%

The survey responses supplied information on the type of teaching position held by each participant. The majority of the teachers in the sample were core teachers (English, Math, Science and History). The proportion of teachers by position ranged from 18% (special education teachers) to 21% (elective/resource teachers) to 61% (core teachers). See Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

*Frequency and Percentages of Sample Size and Response Rate by Teaching Position*

Teaching Position	Number of returned surveys	Percentage of total sample
Core Teachers	319	61%
Special Education Teachers	97	18%
Elective/Resource Teachers	112	21%
Total	528	100%

The survey responses also provided information on the type of teacher preparation participants had received. Nearly 9 out of ten (86%) of the teachers in the sample attended traditional teacher preparatory programs. Eleven percent attended an alternative route program and 3 percent did not attend a teacher preparatory program. See Table 4.3.

Table 4.3.

*Frequency and Percentages by Teacher Preparatory Program*

Teacher Preparatory Program	Number of returned surveys	Percentage of total number of respondents
Traditional Route	451	86%
Alternative Route	59	11%
No Teacher Preparatory Program	18	3%
Total	528	100

Attrition and migration of participants in this study were measured by free response and dichotomous variables. The participants were asked if they intended to remain in the teaching profession until their retirement. The participants indicated their response by checking yes or no. Eighty-eight percent of the teachers indicated that they would stay in the teaching profession

until they retired, and 12% of the teachers indicated that they would leave the teaching profession before their retirement. See Table 4.4. This 12% attrition rate was equivalent to the attrition rate reported in the NCES (2007). The report also indicated that 12% of teacher “leavers” were working in an occupation outside the field of education. See Table 2.2. Using a one-sample t-test, significant differences in retention were found between those teachers who were prepared through traditional routes ( $M=.88$  vs.  $M=.83$ ,  $p<.01$ ), between those prepared through alternative routes ( $M=.85$  vs.  $M=.88$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and between those with either traditional or alternative preparation and those who had received no formal teacher training ( $M=.88$  vs.  $M=.80$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Table 4.4

*Retention in Profession by Teacher Preparation Route*

Route	N	M	SD	Route	N	M	SD	Sig.
Traditional	429	.88	.32	Not Traditional	71	.83	.38	.000
Alternative	54	.85	.36	Not Alternative	446	.88	.33	.000
No Preparation	15	.80	.41	Traditional or Alternative	485	.88	.33	.000
Total Sample	501	.88	.33					

The participants were asked if they intended to remain in their present school building until their retirement. The participants indicated their response by checking yes or no. Thirty-five percent of the teachers migrate before their retirement, and 65% of the teachers acknowledged that they would stay in their current school building until they retired. See Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

*Frequency and Percentages of Teachers' Intention to Remain in Current School Building*

Teacher Intentions (Migration)	Frequency	Percent
Teachers who intend to leave their school building before retirement	163	35%
Teachers who intend to stay in their school building until retirement	304	65%
Total	467	100%

The participants were asked how long they intended to remain in the teaching profession, and how long they intended to remain in their present school building. The teachers indicated their response by recording the number of years for these survey items. Teachers' intention to remain in the teaching profession had a mean score of 15.54 years (SD=10.00). Teachers' intention to remain in their current school building had a mean score of 10.16 years (SD=8.7).

See Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Teaching Profession and Remain in Current School*

Teacher Intention (Longevity)	Minimum Years	Maximum Years	Mean Years	Std Dev. Years
Intention to remain in the teaching profession	0	40	15.54	10.001
Intention to remain in current school building	0	40	10.16	8.776

Participants in this study represented elementary, middle, and high school teachers. Table 4.7 presents the distribution of teachers' intention to remain in the teaching profession by school-level characteristics. The results indicated that 81% of elementary school teachers intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement, while 19% of these teachers

intended to leave teaching. Eighty-nine percent of middle school and high school teachers intended to remain in the teaching profession, while eleven percent of these secondary teachers intended to leave the profession.

*Table 4.7*

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Teaching Profession by School Level*

	Elementary		Middle		High	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	77	81	280	89	82	89
Leavers	18	19	34	11	10	11
N= 501	95	100	314	100	92	100

Table 4.8 presents the distribution of teachers' intention to remain in their current school by school level characteristics. The results indicated that 70% of middle teachers intended to remain in their school until retirement, while 30% of these teachers intend to leave their current school prior to retirement. Fifty-six percent of the elementary and high school teachers intended to stay in their current school until retirement, while 43% intended to leave their school building before retirement.

Table 4.8

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Current School by Level*

	Elementary		Middle		High	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	56	57	198	70	50	57
Leavers	41	43	84	30	38	43
N= 467	97	100	282	100	88	100

Participants in the study also represented core, special education, and resource/elective teachers. Table 4.9 presents the distribution of these teachers' intention to remain in the teaching profession until retirement. The results indicated that 89% of elective/resource teachers intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement, while 11% of these teachers intended to leave teaching prior to retirement. Core teachers followed close behind the elective/resource teachers results. Eighty-eight percent of the teachers intended to stay in the profession until retirement, while 12% intended to leave the profession before retirement. Special education teachers displayed the lowest retention percentage (84%) and the highest attrition percentage (16%).

Table 4.9

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Teaching Profession by Job Position*

	Core		Special Ed		Elective/Resource	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	271	88	72	84	94	89
Leavers	36	12	14	16	11	11
N= 498	307	100	86	100	105	100

Table 4.10 presents the distribution of core, special education, and elective/resource teachers' intention to remain in their current school by job position. The results indicated that 71% of elective/resource teachers intended to remain in their school until retirement, while 29% of these teachers intended to leave their current school. Sixty-seven percent of the core teachers intended to stay in their current school until retirement, while 33% intended to leave their school building prior to retirement. Once again special education teachers displayed the highest percentage of turnover. It was shown that 54% of special education teachers intended to stay in their current job position until retirement, and 46% intended to leave their current job position.

Table 4.10

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Current School by Job Position*

	Core		Special Ed		Elective/Resource	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	190	67	43	54	70	71
Leavers	96	33	37	46	28	29
N= 464	286	100	80	100	98	100

Participants in this study represented three different teacher preparatory programs. They consisted of no teacher preparatory program, traditional preparatory program, and alternative route preparatory program. Table 4.11 displays the distribution of teachers' intention to remain in the teaching profession by preparatory program. The results indicated that 88% of teachers who participated in traditional preparatory programs intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement, while 12% of these teachers intended to leave teaching prior to retirement. Eighty-five percent of teachers that participated in alternative route programs intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement. Fifteen percent of these teachers intended to leave the profession before retirement. Teachers who did not participate in a teacher preparatory program displayed the highest turnover percentage (20%), and the lowest retention percentage (80%).

Table 4.11

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Teaching Profession by Preparatory Program*

	No Teacher Prep		Traditional Route		Alternative Route	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	12	80	379	88	46	85
Leavers	3	20	50	12	8	15
N= 498	15	100	429	100	54	100

Table 4.12 presents the distribution of teacher preparatory programs and teachers' intention to remain in their current school. The results indicated that 67% of teachers with no teacher preparatory program intended to remain in their current school until retirement, while 33% of these teachers intended to leave their current school. Sixty-five percent of teachers who participated in traditional programs intended to stay at their present school while 35% of these teachers intended to leave their present school. Furthermore, 69% of teachers who attended alternative route preparatory programs intended to remain in their school until retirement, while 31% of these teachers intended to leave their current school.

Table 4.12

*Teachers' Intention to Remain in Current School by Teacher Preparatory Program*

	No Teacher Prep		Traditional Route		Alternative Route	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Stayers	10	67	257	65	36	69
Leavers	5	33	140	35	16	31
N= 464	15	100	397	100	52	100

**Analysis of Research Questions**

**Question 1:** To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in the building principal related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among teachers?

The first research question was addressed by analyzing teachers' responses to items pertaining to principal trust embedded in the survey instrument. The survey items involving teachers' perceptions of principal trust were coded so that the responses of strongly agree were given a value of 6, and strongly disagree was given a value of 1. Three negatively worded survey items were reverse coded. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the eight items, and summarized in Table 4.13. These items are indicated by an asterisk (\*). Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 4.13, teachers' generally trust (M=4.88) their building principal.

In order to determine the direction and strength of these relationships, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to verify if there was a significant relationship between

teachers' level of faculty trust in the building principal and teachers' voluntary turnover intentions. The scale for faculty trust in the principal ranged from "1.00 to 6.00" with a mean of 4.88 (SD=.973). There was no evidence of a significant relationship between trust in the principal and intention to stay in the profession ( $r = .035$ , ns). See Table 4.16. There was a weak significant relationship between trust in the principal and intention to stay in the building ( $r = .10$ ,  $p < .05$ ). See Table 4.16.

Table 4.13

## Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Trust

	Mean M	Standard Dev. SD
I have faith in the integrity of the principal in this school.	5.08	1.24
I think the principal in this school typically acts in my best interest.	4.89	1.24
I can rely on the principal in this school.	4.91	1.29
I trust the principal in this school.	4.94	1.33
I think the principal of this school doesn't tell me what is really going on. *	4.26	1.56
I think the principal of this school does not show concern for me. *	4.83	1.41
I am suspicious of most of the principal's actions in this school. *	5.11	1.27
I think the principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job.	5.09	1.18
Overall	4.88	.973

\*= reverse-coded

**Question 2:** To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their colleagues related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among teachers?

The research question was addressed by analyzing teachers' responses to items pertaining to trust in colleagues that were embedded in the survey instrument. The survey items involving teachers' perceptions of trust in colleagues were coded so that the responses of strongly agree were given a value of 6, and strongly disagree was given a value of 1. One item was reverse coded due to its negative wording. This item is indicated by an asterisk (\*). Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the eight items, and summarized in Table 4.14. Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 4.14, teachers' generally trust ( $M=4.78$ ) their colleagues.

In order to determine the direction and strength of these relationships, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to test if there was a significant relationship between teachers' levels of faculty trust in their colleagues and teachers' voluntary turnover intentions. The scale for faculty trust in colleagues ranged from "1.38 to 6.00" with a mean of 4.78 ( $SD=.748$ ). There was no evidence of a significant relationship between levels of faculty trust in the colleagues and teachers remaining in the profession ( $r=-.017$ , ns). See Table 4.16. There was no evidence of a significant relationship between levels of faculty trust in colleagues and teachers remaining in their current building assignment ( $r=.078$  ns). See Table 4.16.

Table 4.14

## Teachers' Perceptions of Trust in Colleagues

	Mean M	Standard Dev. SD
I typically look out for teachers in this school.	5.31	.854
Even in difficult situations, I can depend on teachers in this school.	4.92	1.13
I can trust teachers in this school.	4.59	1.14
I am open with teachers in this school.	4.66	1.19
I have faith in the integrity of my colleagues.	4.66	1.08
I am suspicious of teachers in this school. *	4.85	1.32
When teachers in this school tell me something I can believe it.	4.31	1.14
I think teachers in this school do their jobs well.	4.89	.935
Overall	4.78	.748

\*= reverse-coded

**Question 3:** To what extent were the levels of faculty trust in their clients related to voluntary teacher turnover intentions among teachers?

The research question was addressed by analyzing teachers' responses to items pertaining to teacher trust in clients that were embedded in the survey instrument. The survey items involving teachers' perceptions of trust in colleagues were coded so that the responses of strongly agree were given a value of 6, and strongly disagree was given a value of 1. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the eight items, and summarized in Table 4.15. Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 4.15, teachers' moderately trust ( $M=4.09$ ) their clients.

In order to determine the direction and strength of these relationships, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to verify if there was a significant relationship between teachers' levels of faculty trust in their clients and teachers' voluntary turnover intentions. The scale for faculty trust in clients ranged from "1.44 to 6.00" with a mean of 4.09 ( $SD=.792$ ). There was no evidence of a significant relationship between levels of faculty trust in the clients and teachers remaining in the profession ( $r= -.053$ , ns). See Table 4.16. There was no evidence of a significant relationship between levels of faculty trust in clients and teachers remaining in their current building assignment ( $r= -.028$ , ns). See Table 4.16.

Table 4.15

## Teachers' Perceptions of Trust in Clients

	Mean M	Standard Dev. SD
I care about students in this school.	5.76	.579
I can count on parental support.	3.93	1.18
I think that most of the parents do a good job.	3.92	1.12
I can count on students to do their work in this school.	3.76	1.11
I think parents in this school are reliable in their commitments.	3.79	1.11
I trust the parents in this school.	3.66	1.12
I believe that students are competent learners in this school.	4.34	1.11
I believe what parents tell me in this school.	3.55	1.11
I trust my students in this school.	4.11	1.01
Overall	4.09	.792

Table 4.16.

*Correlation (Pearson r) Between Levels of Teacher Trust and Voluntary Teacher Turnover Intentions (Attrition and Migration)*

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5
1. Trust in Principal	-----	.427**	.324**	.035	.098*
2. Trust in Teachers		-----	.477**	-.017	.078
3. Trust in Clients			-----	-.053	-.028
4. Stay in the Profession (Attrition)				-----	.477**
5. Stay in School (Migration)	.098*	.078	-.028		-----

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

N=528 Teacher

**Question 4:** To what extent did the set of faculty trust variables explain voluntary teacher turnover intentions, and which if any, of these variables makes an independent contribution?

This investigation focused on the construct of faculty trust. Faculty trust consisted of three related variables involving trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients. These three variables in combination provided a good indicator of faculty trust, and displayed a significant relationship between trust in the principal and trust in colleagues ( $r = .427$ ,  $p < .01$ ), trust in the principal and trust in clients ( $r = .324$ ,  $p < .01$ ), as well as trust in colleagues and trust in clients ( $r = .477$ ,  $p < .01$ ). A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well the measures trust in colleagues, trust in clients and trust in the principal predicted teacher attrition. The analysis determined that there was a non-significant relationship with less than 1% ( $R^2 = .006$ ) of the voluntary teacher turnover intentions explained by teachers' perceptions of faculty

trust. Trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients collectively and individually did not influence teacher turnover intention. From these findings it seems unlikely that teachers' levels of faculty trust would have an impact on teachers' decision to leave the profession. None of the individual trust variables accounted for a significant portion of the variance in teacher turnover intentions. See Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

*Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variable Predicting Teachers' Intention to Remain in the Profession*

Variable	Beta	t	Sig.
Trust in Principal	.061	1.217	.224
Trust in Teachers	-.014	-.252	.801
Trust in Clients	-.065	-1.282	.200

\* $p < 0.05$

\*\* $p < 0.01$

N=528

$R^2 = .006$

Adjusted  $R^2 = .000$

SE = .330

An additional regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well the measures for each of the faculty trust variables (trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients) predicted teacher intention to leave their current school. The analysis determined that there was a modest significant relationship between faculty trust and teachers' intention to migrate with two percent ( $R^2 = .018$ ) of the voluntary teacher turnover intentions explained by teachers' perceptions of faculty trust. Trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients collectively impacted teacher migration. None of the individual trust variables made an independent contribution to teachers' intentions to migrate. From these findings it seems somewhat likely that, in combination, teachers' levels of faculty trust would have an impact on

teachers' decision to leave their school building. These variables accounted for a very small portion of the variance in teacher migratory intentions. See Table 4.18.

Table 4.18

*Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variable Predicting Teachers' Intention to Remain in the School*

Variable	Beta	t	Sig.
Trust in Principal	.092	1.778	.076
Trust in Teachers	.081	1.462	.145
Trust in Clients	-.093	-1.779	.076

\*p< 0.05  
 \*\*p<0.01  
 N=528

R<sup>2</sup>=.018  
 Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>=.012  
 SE=.474

**Question 5:** Of those teachers who intended to leave, which reason do they ascribe as important or very important to their decision? How did they differ from teachers who intended to stay?

Respondents were asked to rate how important a variety of factors would be with responses on a 5 point scale from "very important" to "not important at all" in their decision to leave their current school assignment. A composite score for each of the factors was obtained by calculating the mean of the responses for each item. Findings were reported in descending order by mean score. Personal issues were rated as the most important reason that would cause respondents to leave their current school position (M= 4.46). School climate was rated as the second most important reason (M= 4.27), while work conditions rated third (M=4.19). Staff development was rated as the least important reason to leave their school (M=3.14). See Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

*Percentages of Sample and Potential Reasons for Leaving Current School*

	Very			Not at all		M	SD
	Important			Important			
	5	4	3	2	1		
Personal Issues	72.2	14.6	6.8	1.5	3.2	4.46	1.097
School Climate	52.7	29.0	10.0	2.8	3.6	4.27	2.110
Work Conditions	50.0	33.3	9.3	2.1	3.2	4.19	1.125
Administrative Support	56.1	21.6	12.3	2.8	5.3	4.15	1.248
Student Discipline	47.7	32.2	13.3	2.7	2.7	4.15	1.084
Burnout/Stress	47.9	25.8	15.3	4.2	4.9	4.02	1.244
Salary	50.2	24.4	13.3	3.4	6.8	4.02	1.300
Retirement	55.1	15.5	16.9	3.0	8.0	4.02	1.342
Student Motivation	38.3	31.6	21.4	3.6	3.8	3.93	1.136
Work Load	45.1	23.5	18.0	5.7	5.9	3.91	1.297
Parent Respect	33.5	29.7	25.2	4.4	5.3	3.76	1.219
Colleague Skill	23.3	31.1	25.9	8.0	9.8	3.44	1.301
Decision-Making	16.7	29.5	31.1	9.8	10.4	3.25	1.280
Staff Development	15.7	27.1	29.9	12.1	12.9	3.14	1.313

In order to see if teachers who intend to leave the profession before retirement were different from teachers who intend to remain in the profession until retirement, the researcher conducted independent samples t-tests. For the items of administrative support, ( $p = .026$ ), retirement, ( $p = .019$ ), and parent respect ( $p = .000$ ) the analysis yielded a significant difference which showed that there was a significant difference between “leavers” and “stayers”. See Table 4.20. The t-tests for personal issues, school climate, work conditions, student discipline, burnout/stress, salary, student motivation, work load, colleague skill, decision-making, and staff development showed that none of the differences were significant at  $p < .05$ ., leading to the conclusion that among these items there were no differences among teachers who intend to leave the profession before retirement, and those who intend to stay in the profession until retirement.

Table 4.20

*Teacher Ratings of Reasons to Leave the Teaching Profession by Attrition*

Administrative Support	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.98	1.284	.164	.026*
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.29	1.060	.051	
Retirement	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.07	1.436	.184	.019*
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.26	1.126	.05	
Parent Respect	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.71	1.348	.171	.000*
Intend to Stay in Profession	3.86	1.062	.05	
Personal Issues	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.57	.763	.098	.302
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.53	.957	.046	
School Climate	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.07	1.289	.165	.576
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.39	2.176	.105	
Work Conditions	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.07	1.153	.148	.084
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.31	.918	.044	
Student Discipline	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.03	1.169	.150	.061
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.24	.925	.045	
Burnout/Stress	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.30	1.116	.143	.964
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.06	1.127	.054	

Salary	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.97	1.095	.140	.198
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.12	1.188	.057	
Student Motivation	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.95	1.165	.148	.254
Intend to Stay in Profession	4.00	1.018	.049	
Work Load	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	4.11	1.185	.152	.413
Intend to Stay in Profession	3.97	1.177	.057	
Colleague Skill	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.18	1.360	.174	.053
Intend to Stay in Profession	3.58	1.179	.057	
Decision-Making	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	3.25	1.234	.158	.565
Intend to Stay in Profession	3.37	1.166	.056	
Staff Development	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave Profession	2.90	1.387	.178	.191
Intend to Stay in Profession	3.29	1.198	.058	

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$

In order to see if teachers who intended to leave their current school building before retirement were different from teachers who intended to remain in their school building until retirement, the researcher conducted independent samples t-tests. For the items of administrative support, ( $p = .019$ ), and retirement, ( $p = .000$ ) the analysis yielded a significant difference which showed that there was a significant difference between “migrators” and “stayers”. See Table 4.21. The t-tests for personal issues, school climate, work conditions, student discipline, burnout/stress, salary, student motivation, work load, parent respect, colleague skill, decision-making, and staff development showed that none of the differences were significant at  $p < .05$ ., leading to the assumption that among these items there were no differences among teachers who intended to leave their current school before retirement and those who intended to stay in the school building until retirement.

Table 4.21

*Teacher Ratings of Reasons to Leave the Teaching Profession by Migration*

Administrative Support	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.35	.949	.075	.019*
Intend to Stay in School	4.21	1.155	.067	
Retirement	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.60	1.428	.113	.000*
Intend to Stay in School	4.40	1.012	.058	
Personal Issues	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.53	.883	.070	.794
Intend to Stay in School	4.54	.976	.057	
School Climate	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.58	3.353	.264	.247
Intend to Stay in School	4.27	.973	.056	
Work Conditions	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.29	.950	.075	.636
Intend to Stay in School	4.27	.942	.055	
Student Discipline	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.19	.966	.076	.462
Intend to Stay in School	4.26	.930	.054	
Burnout/Stress	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.16	1.117	.089	.947
Intend to Stay in School	4.06	1.128	.065	

Salary	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.07	1.133	.090	.152
Intend to Stay in School	4.10	1.221	.071	
Student Motivation	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	4.10	.994	.078	.985
Intend to Stay in School	3.97	1.034	.060	
Work Load	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.98	1.195	.094	.826
Intend to Stay in School	4.02	1.153	.067	
Parent Respect	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.88	1.069	.084	.703
Intend to Stay in School	3.85	1.109	.064	
Colleague Skill	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.64	1.150	.091	.369
Intend to Stay in School	3.50	1.218	.071	
Decision-Making	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.50	1.130	.090	.705
Intend to Stay in School	3.32	1.164	.068	
Staff Development	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Significance
Intend to Leave School	3.29	1.248	.099	.529
Intend to Stay in School	3.24	1.205	.070	

\*p< 0.05, \*\*p<0.01

**Question 6:** Of those teachers who intended to leave, where would they go? How did they differ from teachers who intended to stay?

Frequency counts and percentages were used to gather information concerning where would teachers most likely go if they left their present job. The selections and percentages for teachers who intended to stay in the profession were compared to the selections and percentages of teachers who intended to leave the profession. According to the collected statistics, 25% of the teachers would migrate to another school at their current level, 23% would retire, 14% of the teachers stated they would migrate to another school at a different level, and 14% reported they would become an administrator. The data also showed that eight percent of the teachers would migrate to another school district, five percent would pursue a career change, and three percent of the teachers would teach in a private school, or start their own business. Matriculating full-time in a graduate school, staying at home, and pursuing other endeavors not listed on the survey were the lowest percentages recorded from the sample. See Table 4.22.

Table 4.22

*Percentage of Sample and Teacher Turnover Alternatives*

Where Teachers Would Most Likely Go	N	Percentage of Total number of respondents
Another school current level	124	25%
Retirement	114	23%
Administrative Position	72	14%
Another school different level	70	14%
Another School District	39	8%
Career Change	24	5%
Private School	16	3%
Start Own Business	16	3%
Home	12	2%
Other	10	2%
Full-Time Graduate School	4	1%
Total	501	100%

A statistical analysis was performed that compared “teacher leavers” and “teacher stayers”. Frequency counts and percentages were used to gather information concerning teachers who intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement. According to the analyzed data, 28% of the teachers indicated that if they left their current job, they would migrate to another school at their present level, 23% would retire, and 16% of these teachers would migrate to another school at a different level, or become a school administrator. Nine percent of the “stayers” would migrate to another school district, 4% would transfer to a private school, and 1% would attend graduate school full time. See Table 4.23.

Table 4.23

*Percentage of Sample and Teacher Intention to Remain in the Teaching Profession until Retirement*

Where Teachers Would Most Likely Go	N	Percentage of Total number of respondents
Another school, current level	124	28%
Retirement	114	23%
Administrative Position	72	16%
Another school, different level	70	16%
Another School District	39	9%
Private School	16	4%
Full-Time Graduate School	4	1%
Total	469	100%

Frequency counts and percentages were also used to gather information concerning teachers who intended to leave the teaching profession before retirement. According to the analyzed data, 39% of the teachers indicated that if they left their current job, they would pursue a job in a field other than education, 26% would start their own business, 23% of these teachers would pursue other endeavors not listed on the survey, and 19% of teacher “leavers” teachers would stay at home. See Table 4.24.

Table 4.24

*Percentage of Sample and Teacher Intention not to Remain in the Teaching Profession until Retirement*

Where Teachers Would Most Likely Go	N	Percentage of Total number of respondents
Career Change	24	39%
Start Own Business	16	26%
Home	12	19%
Other	10	16%
Total	62	100%

### Summary

This chapter analyzed and presented research data collected regarding teachers' perceptions of trust in the principal, trust in their colleagues, and trust in their clients and their voluntary turnover intentions.

- Specifically, there was not a statistical significant relationship between trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, trust in clients and teachers' intention to leave the profession.
- There was not a statistical significant relationship between faculty trust and teachers' intention to leave the profession.
- There was a moderate statistical significant relationship between trust in the principal and teachers' intention to leave their current school.
- There was not a statistical significant relationship between trust in colleagues and trust in clients and teachers' intention to leave their current school.

- There was a moderate statistical significant relationship between faculty trust and teachers' intention to leave their current school.
- Personal issues were rated as the most important reason that would cause respondents to leave their current school position. School climate was rated as the second most important reason, while work conditions rated third.
- Administrative support, retirement, and parent respect yielded a significant difference which showed that there is a significant difference between "leavers" and "stayers".
- Personal issues, school climate, work conditions, student discipline, burnout/stress, salary, student motivation, work load, colleague skill, decision-making, and staff development showed that none of the differences were significant. There were no differences among teachers who intend to leave the profession before retirement, and those who intend to stay in the profession until retirement.
- For the items of administrative support and retirement, the analysis yielded a significant difference which showed that there is a significant difference between "migrators" and "stayers".
- Personal issues, school climate, work conditions, student discipline, burnout/stress, salary, student motivation, work load, parent respect, colleague skill, decision-making, and staff development showed that none of the differences were significant. There were no differences among teachers who intend to leave their current school before retirement, and those who intend to stay in the school building until retirement.
- If teachers were to leave their job; 25% of the teachers would migrate to another school at their current level, 23% would retire, 14% would migrate to another school at a different level, or they would become an administrator, 8% would migrate to another

school district, 5% would pursue a career change, and 3% of would teach in a private school, or start their own business.

- Teachers who intended to remain in the teaching profession until retirement indicated that 28% of them would migrate to another school at their present level, 23% would retire, 16% would migrate to another school at a different level, or become a school administrator, 9% would migrate to another school district, 4% would transfer to a private school, and 1% would attend graduate school full time.
- Teachers who intended to leave the teaching profession before retirement indicated that 39% would pursue a job in a field other than education, 26% would start their own business, 23% would pursue other endeavors not listed on the survey, and 19% of teacher “leavers” teachers would stay at home.

## CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

This final chapter summarizes the findings of the study. Included in the discussion are possible conclusions and implications from the results in addition to recommendations for future research. The purpose of this chapter was to discuss if there was a statistically significant relationship between faculty trust in principals, colleagues, and clients and voluntary teacher turnover intentions, beginning with a discussion of teacher attrition and then moving to a discussion of migration. The secondary purpose of this chapter was to discuss possible reasons for teacher turnover and potential job alternatives for teachers in order to compare the differences between teachers who intend to leave the profession (attrition) and teachers who intend to stay in the profession (retention), as well as teachers who intend to leave their current school (migration) and teachers who intend to stay in their current school (non-migration). The chapter is organized in the following manner starting with the a) discussion of the findings, b) practical implications from findings, c) recommendations for future research, and d) conclusions.

### **Discussion of the Findings**

#### ***Faculty Trust and Teacher Attrition***

The research data provided information concerning faculty trust and teacher attrition. In the case of teacher trust in the principal and teacher intentions to remain in the profession, it was found that a statistically significant relationship did not exist between these variables. Research has previously shown that trust in administration was found to significantly correlate with attrition (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). However, the results in this study did not support previous findings. According to the data, high levels of teacher trust in the principal ( $M=4.88$ ) existed in the schools regardless of teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession.

A possible explanation for these findings could be that the sample contained a majority of schools with very low teacher turnover, and thus provided limited variability within the sample. Another explanation could be that generally high levels of trust in the principal were present in these schools, and teachers' intention to leave the profession was not contingent upon attitudinal convictions. Teachers may possess high levels of principal trust, yet after 30 years of teaching decide it is time to retire from the profession. Teachers may possess high levels of trust in their principal, but decide that staying home to raise their family is a necessity. Another factor that could explain the findings was the selected school district is near a military base. Teachers may possess high levels of principal trust; however their military spouses have been transferred to other base and they must relocate.

The research data that were collected concerning where teachers would go if they left their job addressed this phenomenon. The data displayed that 23% of the teachers would leave their job in order to enjoy retirement. The data also displayed that 2% of the teachers indicated they would stay home. Together, they represented one-quarter of the entire sample. Perhaps in this case, teachers' intention to leave the profession was a personal decision that was made irrespective to their level of trust in the principal.

Also, it was found that no statistically significant relationship existed between teacher trust in their colleagues and teacher trust in their clients, as they relate to teachers' intention to leave the profession. In this study, all three faculty trust measures (trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients) were found to be related to each other. Research has previously shown that trust in administration was found to significantly correlate with attrition (Konovsky & Copanzano, 1991) and that all three faculty trust measures (trust in the principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients) were significantly correlated (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

However, as previously stated, high levels of teacher trust in the principal ( $M=4.88$ ) existed in the schools regardless of teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession. There was no direct correlation between trust in the principal and teachers' intention to leave the profession. Likewise, there was neither significant correlation with turnover attrition and levels of teacher trust in their colleagues ( $M=4.78$ ), nor levels of teacher trust in their clients ( $M= 4.07$ ) with teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession.

A possible explanation for these findings could be that the sample contained a majority of schools with very low teacher turnover, and thus provided a limited variability within the sample. Another explanation could be that generally high levels of trust in their colleagues and clients were present in these schools, and teachers' intention to leave the profession was not contingent upon attitudinal convictions. As stated earlier, teachers' intention to leave the profession could be a personal decision that was made irrespective of their level of trust in their colleagues and clients.

In order to develop a clearer picture of the relationship between faculty trust and teacher intention to leave the profession, attrition was regressed on the set of variables of faculty trust. It was found that a statistically significant relationship did not exist between the measures of faculty trust and teacher intention to leave the profession. None of the variables emerged as an independent predictor of teacher attrition. While the researcher must be careful in drawing conclusions, these unanticipated results prompted further evaluation of the teacher sample.

A possible explanation for these finding could be that there was a lack of variability in the sample. This may be due to the fact that school principals were invited to participate in the survey. Each principal had the opportunity to view the survey instrument and decide if they

wanted their staff to participate in the study. Only with the principal's consent could the researcher distribute the survey to their teaching staff. Thirteen principals enthusiastically agreed to participate in the study, while seven building principals declined to participate in the study. The sample response could be skewed due to the fact that principals who had great rapport with their staff gladly consented to participate in the study while building principals struggling with morale and trust issues within their building declined. Principals indicated that this was not a good time to survey their staff due to an unmentioned state of affairs existing within their school building. Due to the fact that the principal is the gatekeeper, the researcher speculates teachers working in low trust schools were not fully represented in the research sample.

Another possible explanation for this finding could be the perceived state of the economy. Faced with huge capital imbalances, reckless lending practices, and vast trade deficits, the media is constantly reporting that America, the world's biggest economy is bracing itself for a recession. Worries about the cost of inflation, through high food, oil, and commodity prices have impacted households across the nation. The downward spiral of the economy could influence teachers' voluntary turnover intentions, the variable under study. Job opportunities outside of teaching are dwindling and teachers may be staying in the profession because teaching is considered to be a recession-proof. Attrition is generally lower during economic recession when employment alternatives for teachers are fewer (Forojalla, 1993).

However, in the midst of a struggling U. S. economy, the demand for teachers will remain high. Educators will survive the economic slowdown, as a growing number of retirements and increasing enrollment make it necessary to replace exiting teachers. Teaching has historically been recession-resistant (Chase, 2008). During turbulent times, teachers may

opt to remain securely in their teaching positions. Nevertheless, problems still exist in today's schools. Some teachers may still be unhappy, yet they stay in the profession. Teachers may want to leave the teaching profession, but as an alternative to leaving the profession, they may decide to migrate to other schools. The research data indicated that 35% of the teachers in the sample intended to leave their current school building before retirement. See Table 4.5.

### ***Faculty Trust and Teacher Migration***

The research data provided information concerning faculty trust and teacher migration. In the case of teacher trust in the principal and teacher intention to remain in their school, it was found that a statistically significant but weak relationship did exist between these variables. Teachers who displayed higher levels of trust in their principal were more likely to stay in their current school building. Teachers who perceived their principal as being benevolent, honest, competent, reliable, and open would intend to remain in their present school building and refrain from migrating to another school.

Additionally, it was found that a statistically significant relationship did not exist between teacher trust in their colleagues and teacher trust in their clients, as they related to teachers' intention to leave their current school. Research has previously shown that staff members who trust their administrator are more likely to develop an attachment to their organization and have little or no intention to leave (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), and trust in the principal, teacher trust in colleagues, and teacher trust in clients were usually positively correlated to one another (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). However, the results of this study did not support these findings. According to the data, high levels of teacher trust in colleagues ( $M=4.78$ ,  $SD=.748$ ) and high levels of teacher trust in clients ( $M=4.09$ ,  $SD=.792$ ) existed in the schools regardless of teacher migration.

A possible explanation for these finding could be that the generally high levels of trust in their colleagues and clients were present in these schools, and teachers' intention to leave the school was not a reflection of attitudinal convictions. Teachers may possess high levels of colleague trust and client trust, yet they decide to move to a school that is closer to home, or transfer to a brand new state-of-the-art school facility. Also, teachers may possess high levels of trust in their colleagues and trust in their clients, but desire to teach a different content area, or have other reasons they desire to transfer. If no positions are available at their current school that the teacher desires, a teacher may decide to migrate to another school or school district where there is a position available that they desire. Due to the fact that in the state of Virginia tenure is transferable, a teacher could exercise this option without being penalized. The data of this study would not capture all of these contingencies.

The research data that was collected concerning where teachers would go if they left their job addressed this phenomenon. The data revealed that 25 % of the teachers intended to migrate to another school at their current level. The data also displayed that 14% of the teachers intended to migrate to another school at a different level. Possibly the teacher's intention to leave the school was a personal decision that was made irrelevant to their level of trust in their colleagues, and trust in their clients. Even though they trust their principal, trust their colleagues, and trust their clients, ultimately their desire for change, their desire for a new challenge, and their desire for professional growth might outweigh staying in the current school.

In order to develop a clearer picture of the relationship between faculty trust and teacher intention to leave their current school, migraton was regressed on each of the dimensions of faculty trust. The researcher also hypothesized that the variables of faculty trust would combine to provide a significant set of predictors for teacher migratory intentions. A

statistically significant but weak relationship was found to exist between the construct of faculty trust and teacher migration. None of the variables emerged as a significant predictor of teacher turnover intention, but collectively they emerged as statistically significant indicator of teacher migratory intentions. While the researcher must be prudent in drawing conclusions, it seems that teachers who exhibited higher levels of trust in their principal, trust in their colleagues, and trust in their principal, were more apt to remain in their current school building.

### ***Reasons Teachers May Leave the Profession***

The research study sought to compare teachers who intend to stay in the profession and teachers who intended to leave the profession. Teachers were asked to rate how important various school-related factors would be in their decision to leave their present school. Significant differences were found among teachers who intended to stay and teachers who intended to leave concerning support from administrators ( $t = -2.043, p = .026$ ), retirement ( $t = -7.455, p = .019$ ), and respect from parents ( $t = -1.021, p = .000$ ). The results indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean score for teachers who intended to stay and teachers who intended to leave. When it comes to administrative support, teachers who intended to stay in the profession have a statistically significant higher mean score ( $M = 4.29, SD = 1.06$  vs.  $M = 3.98, SD = 1.28$ ) than teachers who intended to leave the profession. In the case of retirement, teachers who intended to stay in the profession have a statistically significant higher mean score ( $M = 4.26, SD = 1.13$  vs.  $M = 3.07, SD = 1.43$ ) than teachers who intended to leave the profession. Lastly for respect from parents, teachers who intended to stay in the profession have a statistically significant higher mean score ( $M = 3.86, SD = 1.06$  vs.  $M = 3.71, SD = 1.35$ ) than teachers who intended to leave the profession. Teachers who intended to stay in the

teaching profession felt these factors were more important than teachers who intended to leave the profession.

The research study also sought to compare teachers who intend to stay in their current school and teachers who intended to leave their current school. Teachers were asked to rate how important various school-related factors would be in their decision to leave their present school. Significant differences were found among teachers who intended to stay and teachers who intended to leave concerning support from administrators ( $t= 1.286, p= .019$ ) and retirement ( $t=-6.924, p=.000$ ). The results indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean score for teachers who intended to stay and teachers who intended to leave. When it comes to administrative support, teachers who intended to stay in their school have a statistically significant higher mean score ( $M= 4.35, SD=.949$  vs.  $M=4.21, SD= 1.16$ ) than teachers who intended to leave their school. In the case of retirement, teachers who intended to leave their current school have a statistically significant higher mean score ( $M=4.40, SD= 1.12$  vs.  $M=3.60, SD= 1.42$ ) than teachers who intended to stay in their current school. Teachers who intended to stay in their school felt administrative support was more important than teachers who intended to leave their school. Teachers who intended to leave their school felt retirement was more important than teachers who intended to stay in their school.

### ***Where Teachers Go***

The research study sought to compare teachers who intend to stay in the profession and teachers who intended to leave the profession. Teachers were asked if they were to leave their present job, where would they go. Teachers who intend to stay in the profession selected choices that reinforced migration practices. Twenty-eight percent of the teachers revealed that they

would transfer to another school at their current level, while 23% indicated that they would retire. Sixteen percent of the teachers declared that they would accept an administrative position, while another 16% would transfer to another school at a different level. Nine percent of the teachers asserted that they transfer to another school district, while 4% would pursue a position in a private school. Finally, 1% of the teachers claimed that they would attend full-time graduate school.

Teachers who intended to leave the profession selected choice that supported attrition practices. Thirty-nine percent of the teachers indicated that they would pursue a job in a field other than education, while 26% would start their own business. Nineteen percent of the teachers revealed that they would stay at home, while 16% indicated that they would pursue other endeavors not listed on the survey

### **Practical Implications**

The results of this research study have implications for both research and practice. The realistic advantages of creating high-trust relationships among teachers in schools are well documented. Previous work by Tschannen-Moran (2004), Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999, 2003), and Smith (2000) have examined the impact faculty trust has on supporting school effectiveness and enhancing school climate. This research study sought to contribute to that existing literature by exploring the concepts of faculty trust along with teacher turnover intentions. It is hoped that the practical implications will assist scholars and practitioners in improving current educational practices.

### ***Migratory Patterns of Teachers***

School districts need to pay attention to teacher migration rates in individual schools. Teacher migration could be a symptom of dysfunctional relationships among the faculty and school leadership, or a sign of deeper work-related problems within the school building. The analysis of turnover data from individual schools would be important because it would provide school leaders with vital information concerning migration. This information would allow school districts to intervene when they detect a school is experiencing increased teacher turnover, investigate the source of staffing problems, and institute corrective action.

As this research study has shown, a potential source of conflict between principals and teachers could be trust-related issues which may influence the migration of teachers. Transparency is needed to help identify these trust-related problems and provide solutions that will address these issues in a constructive manner. As stated by MacNeil, Spuck, and Ceyanes (1998), "In the absence of trust, it does not matter what the principal's leadership skills or professional competence may be, trust must be established first" ( p. 4). It would be beneficial for principals to develop trusting relationships with their faculty and encourage teacher trust in their principal, teacher trust in their colleagues, teacher trust in their clients, because it plays a small part in the retention of teachers.

### ***Retention of Teachers***

The research study has shown that 35% of the teachers in the sample intended to migrate to other schools. At the building level, principals need to have tap into teachers' perceptions about trust relationships in the building and workplace conditions in order to retain teachers in the future. An emphasis should be placed on retention. The factors that motivate teachers to

remain in a school are embedded within the components of its school culture. The climate within a school building and the workforce conditions it encompasses may act together as either a support or deterrent for teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2001; Gersten, et al., 2001; Johnson, et. al., 2001). They consist of positive interpersonal relationships within the school and teacher participation in decision-making (Ingersoll, 1999).

Administrative support does seem to be very important in the retention of teachers. It is a multi-dimensional construct that ranges from personal and emotional support to guidance and leadership (Billingsley (1993, 2004). Increased administrator support may positively influence teacher retention (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tye & O'Brien, 2002; Ingersoll, 2002a). "Administrators influence the conditions in which teachers work; therefore, it is not surprising that administrative support has been consistently linked to retention" (Billingsley, 1993 p. 153). Research studies have indicated that schools that provide greater administrative support have lower levels of teacher turnover (Allen, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001). School leaders need to maintain supportive practices within their school buildings that enhance teachers' perceptions of their leadership skill while building a culture of trust that sustains instructional practice and encourages teacher retention.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

The overall results from this study provided a premise from which additional research can be launched. An approach to studying teacher trust should not just involve individual schools but should include the total school district in order to ensure variability in the research data.

1. It is recommended that this study be replicated using a representative sample and not a self-selected sample within a selected school district.

2. It is recommended that this study be replicated using a more diversified sample, and a mixed method (quantitative and qualitative) approach to data collection. In a mixed method approach, strategies such as interviews and open ended questions as well as surveys could yield a better range of data for analysis.
3. It is recommended that the school district participating in this study conduct in-house research that tracks teacher migration and the reasons why teachers leave a particular school, and use this information to make changes that will reduce teacher migration.
4. It is recommended that a study be conducted that examines teachers' intention to leave and the reasons why they may leave the profession, and inquire if these teachers intend to come back to teaching and the reasons why they may decide to come back.
5. It is recommended that a study be conducted to examine novice teachers' perceptions of faculty trust (0 to 5 years of experience), career teachers' perceptions of faculty trust (6 to 25 years of experience), and teachers' near retirement perceptions of faculty trust (26 to 30+ years of experience) and its impact on their turnover intentions.
6. It is recommended that this study be expanded to include and other school districts in the state of Virginia, as well as other school districts in the United States.
7. It is recommended that this study be expanded to include school districts in states other than Virginia.
8. It is recommended that a study be conducted in search of factors along with those addressed in this research study that may impact teacher turnover intention.

### **Conclusions**

The results of the regression analysis in this study indicate that faculty trust was a significant predictor of teachers' intention to migrate to another school. The finding suggests the

importance for building leaders to developing trusting relationships among their teaching staff. School leadership must address educational issues tied to teacher retention in schools, such as school climate, work conditions, and administrative support. These issues and other administrative and school-wide responsibilities will continue to emerge as teacher attrition and teacher migration becomes a national focus.

Due to the increasing demands placed on schools, principals are charged with the supervision of their school buildings, which includes the instructional leadership, as well as the building social relationships among their faculty. It is imperative that school leaders examine principal trust factors that have been shown to influence the teacher migration. The expectation is that the information assembled from this research study will add to existing literature on teacher trust and provide valuable information concerning voluntary teacher turnover intentions. In closing, it is hoped that this investigation will contribute to the organizational perception of schools and improve existing educational practice.

APPENDIX A  
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

## Teacher Turnover Survey

1. How long do you intend to remain in the teaching profession?

A. \_\_\_\_\_ years

B. Until retirement  Yes  No

2. How long do you intend to teach at this school?

A. \_\_\_\_\_ years

B. Until retirement  Yes  No

3. If you were to leave your present job, where would you most likely go? Please indicate your choice by placing a check mark  in the box.

- |                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Another Middle School within the district  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Elementary School within the district      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | High School within the district            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Private School                             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Another School District                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Full-Time Graduate School                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Administrative Position                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Retirement                                 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Home (to take care of my family)           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Start your own business                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Field other than education (career change) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Other                                      |

4. If you were to leave this school, how important would each of the following items be to your decision?

	Very Important				Not at all Important
A. Salary.....	5	4	3	2	1
B. Family or Personal Issues.....	5	4	3	2	1
C. Support from Administrators.....	5	4	3	2	1
D. Skill level of Colleagues.....	5	4	3	2	1
E. Respect from Parents.....	5	4	3	2	1
F. Student Discipline.....	5	4	3	2	1
G. Student Motivation.....	5	4	3	2	1
H. School Climate.....	5	4	3	2	1
I. School Working Conditions.....	5	4	3	1	1
J. Staff Development and Training.....	5	4	3	2	1
K. Participation in School-Wide Decisions.....	5	4	3	2	1
L. Burnout or Stress.....	5	4	3	2	1
M. Work Load and Long Hours.....	5	4	3	2	1
N. Retirement.....	5	4	3	2	1

5. Please indicate your Teacher Preparatory Program by placing a check mark  in the box.

- Traditional Route-University Based
- Alternate Route (eg. Troops to Teachers or Career Switchers)
- I have not completed a Teacher Preparatory Program

6. Please indicate your Teaching Position by placing a check mark  in the box.

- Core Teacher (English, History, Math, Science)
- Special Education Teacher
- Elective/Resource Teacher

## Teacher Quality of Relationships Survey

**Directions:** Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement along a scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6) by circling the number.

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1. I care about students in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I typically look out for teachers in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I have faith in the integrity of the principal in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Even in difficult situations, I can depend on teachers in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I think the principal in this school typically acts in my best interest.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I can rely on the principal in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I can trust teachers in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I can count on parental support.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I think that most of the parents do a good job .....	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I trust the principal in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I am open with the teachers in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I can count on students to do their work in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I think parents in this school are reliable in their commitments.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I think the principal of this school doesn't tell me what is really going on .....	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I think the principal of this school does not show concern for me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I have faith in the integrity of my colleagues.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I trust the parents in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I am suspicious of teachers in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When teachers in this school tell me something I can believe it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I think teachers in this school do their jobs well.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I believe that students are competent learners in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I am suspicious of most of the principal's actions in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I believe what parents tell me in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I think the principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I trust my students in this school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B  
LETTER TO CENTRAL OFFICE EMPLOYEE

March 12, 2008

Mrs. XXXXXX XXXXXXXXX  
Supervisor of Student Services

Dear Mrs. XXXXXX,

My name is Loree Reid and I am enrolled in a doctoral program at the College of William and Mary. At the present time, I am in the dissertation phase of the doctoral process. To meet my current course requirements I would like to survey teachers from our school division regarding faculty trust and teacher turnover behaviors.

I am requesting your permission and assistance in conducting this study in our school division. You may find the results of this study beneficial in improving teacher retention overall. The results will be reported collectively and will not include the names of any teachers or schools who participate in this process. Also, the school division will not be identified.

A copy of the revised survey instrument is included for you to review. If you have any questions or concerns about this research study, please feel free to contact me at the number provided below. You may also contact the chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. Megan Tschannen-Moran, at (757-221-2187).

Your written response will be greatly appreciated. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely,

Loree Reid  
Sixth Grade Teacher  
XXXXX XX School

Enclosures: 2

APPENDIX C  
PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL SYSTEM



Chesapeake Public Schools

School Administration Building

Post Office Box 16496

Chesapeake, Virginia 23328

Student Services

March 5, 2008

Loree Reid  
Jolliff Middle School  
1021 Jolliff Road  
Chesapeake, VA 23321

Dear Ms. Reid:

Your request to use a teacher survey to conduct research for your doctoral study at The College of William and Mary has been approved. The approval is granted with the understanding that the following conditions will apply:

- Participation of principals, teachers, parents and students is strictly voluntary.
- Names of individuals, school names or the name of the school division cannot be used in the reporting of the results of your findings without prior permission from the Office of Student Services.
- All copies, distribution, and retrieval of materials will be your responsibility.

You may use this letter as a cover letter when contacting Principals. Should you have further questions, please feel free to contact me at 757-547-0153, Ext. 170.

Sincerely,

Sabrina Richards  
Supervisor

APPENDIX D

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Status of protocol EDIRC-2008-02-28-5221-lcreid set to active

From: **compli@wm.edu**  
Sent: Thu 3/06/08 12:55 PM  
Reply-to: compli@wm.edu  
To: lcreid@wm.edu; mxtsch@wm.edu; edirc-l@wm.edu  
Cc: locoreid@hotmail.com

This is to notify you on behalf of the Education Internal Review Committee (EDIRC) that protocol EDIRC-2008-02-28-5221-lcreid titled Faculty Trust and its Impact on Voluntary Teacher Turnover Intentions has been exempted from formal review because it falls under the following category(ies) defined by DHHS Federal Regulations: 45CFR46.101.b.2.

Work on this protocol may begin on 2008-03-06 and must be discontinued on 2009-03-06. Should there be any changes to this protocol, please submit these changes to the committee for determination of continuing exemption using the Protocol and Compliance Management channel on the Self Service tab within myWM ( <http://my.wm.edu/> ).

Please add the following statement to the footer of all consent forms, cover letters, etc.:

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3966) ON 2008-03-06 AND EXPIRES ON 2009-03-06.

You are required to notify Dr. Ward, chair of the EDIRC, at 757-221-2358 (EDIRC-L@wm.edu) and Dr. Deschenes, chair of the PHSC at 757-221-2778 (PHSC-L@wm.edu) if any issues arise during this study.

Good luck with your study.

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COMMENTS

No comments available

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BASIC INFO

**Title:** Faculty Trust and its Impact on Voluntary Teacher Turnover Intentions  
**Start Date:** 2008-03-06  
**Year Number:** 1  
**Years Total:** 1  
**Campus:** Main  
**Committee(s):** EDIRC  
**Cc: Emails:**

-----  
PI INFO

**W&M UserID:** lcreid  
**Full Name:** Reid, Loree C.  
**Role:** Graduate Student  
**Department:** EPPL  
**Day/Work Phone:**  
**Ext:**  
**Alternate Phone:**

-----  
**W&M UserID:** mxtsch  
**Full Name:** Tschannen-Moran, Megan  
**Role:** Faculty  
**Department:** EPPL  
**Day/Work Phone:**  
**Ext:**  
**Alternate Phone:**

Protocol modified by tjward on 2008-03-06 07:55:57

APPENDIX E  
LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS

March 17, 2008

Mr. Xxxxx XXXXXXXX  
Principal  
XXXXXXXXXX School

Dear Mr. XXXXXXX,

My name is Loree Reid and I am a sixth grade English teacher at XXXXXXXX School. Presently, I am a doctoral student at the College of William and Mary. Being a member of the XXXXXXXX Public Schools professional family, I humbly ask for your assistance. To meet my current course requirements, I would like to survey elementary, middle, and high school teachers from our school division. I need your help with a study that attempts to correlate teacher's perceptions of faculty trust and voluntary teacher turnover behaviors.

With your permission, I would like to make a brief presentation to your staff during a regularly scheduled faculty meeting within the next four weeks and distribute my survey instrument. Teacher participation is strictly voluntary. It will take teachers approximately five to ten minutes to complete the survey. By allowing me to survey your staff, you will be helping me to complete my dissertation research study.

The information that the teachers will provide will be held in strict confidence, and they will not be identified in any way. All responses will be anonymous. The responses will be reported collectively and will not include the names of any schools who participate in the study. Also, the school division will not be identified.

A copy of the survey instrument is included for you to review. If you have any questions or concerns about this research study, please feel free to contact me at the number provided below. You may also contact the chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. Megan Tschannen-Moran at (757) 221-2187.

Your written or email response will be greatly appreciated. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely,

Loree Reid  
Sixth Grade Teacher  
XXXXXXXXX School

APPENDIX F  
COVER LETTER TO TEACHERS

March 17, 2008

Dear Colleague,

My name is Loree Reid and I am enrolled in a doctoral program at the College of William and Mary. At the present time, I am in the dissertation phase of the doctoral process. Being an employee of XXXXXXXX Public Schools, I have come to my professional family in need of assistance. I am conducting a research study that attempts to evaluate the faculty trust levels and their impact on teacher turnover. I humbly ask for your assistance. I would deeply appreciate your participation in completing my teacher survey. In doing so, you will be helping me to complete my dissertation research study. The survey will take approximately 5 to 10 minutes to complete.

The information you provide will be held in strict confidence, and you will not be identified in any way. All responses will be anonymous. Participation in the survey is voluntary. Your ideas and opinions are very important. I will report the compiled survey results in my dissertation. Not only will you be helping this researcher, but also perhaps shedding light on ways to prevent teacher turnover. If you have any questions or concerns about this research study, please feel free to email me. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely,

Loree Reid  
Sixth Grade Teacher  
XXXXXX School

APPENDIX G  
DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING SURVEY

## Directions for Administering Teacher Trust Survey and Teacher Quality of Relationships Survey

Please distribute the questionnaires and pencils. Completing these questionnaires should only take about five to ten minutes.

Please read the following statement to the faculty:

**The surveys you are about to complete are part of a study of teacher turnover and faculty relationships. It is hoped that greater understanding of the human dynamics in schools will lead to increased retention of teachers that will result in greater productivity in schools.**

**This research is being conducted through the School of Education at the College of William and Mary. All teachers' responses are anonymous. Our interest is in the statistical relationships between the variables.**

**Your participation is voluntary. You may decline to complete the survey or you may skip any item that you feel uncomfortable answering. There are no correct or incorrect answers; the researchers are interested only in your frank opinion.**

**Your time, insights, and perceptions are valuable resources. Thank you for sharing them with us! If you have any questions, you may reach Dr. Michael Deschenes at 757-221-2778 or [mrdesc@wm.edu](mailto:mrdesc@wm.edu).**

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When the teachers have all the completed questionnaires, please place them in an envelope and I will pick up the surveys from the school site.

Thank you for your help. Please feel free to call if you have any questions at (757) 338-1824.

Loree Cobb Reid

### General Directions for Social Processes in Schools III

1. Call the school the day before data collection to confirm that you are coming. Have enough candy for all of the staff.
2. Arrive 15 minutes before the meeting time. If the survey is to be first on the agenda, ask if it is possible to distribute pencils and surveys before the faculty arrive. Otherwise, place sets in the center of the tables so that they can be distributed quickly once you are introduced. Be as efficient and unobtrusive as possible in the administration of the surveys.
3. Have an extra envelopes addressed to Ms. Reid in case they do not finish.

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