

FACTORS INFLUENCING BLACK FEMALE TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION
AND INTENTION TO REMAIN IN THE K-12 CLASSROOM: A MIXED
METHODS ANALYSIS

by

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ABSTRACT

ABIOLA ADEOLA FARINDE. Factors' influencing Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to remain in the k-12 classroom. (Under the direction of DR. CHANCE LEWIS)

Sixty years after *Brown v. Board of Education*, current retention trends indicate a Black teacher shortage. Research shows that Black teachers' retention rates are often lower than White teachers'. In examining retention, job satisfaction has been noted as one avenue that may decrease teacher attrition. Further, job satisfaction correlates with job-performance, teacher quality and retention, which may influence student outcome. Potentially impacting student achievement and seeking to alter the largely White, middle-class teaching force, this study examines Black female teachers' job satisfaction and their decision to remain in the classroom. This analysis applies a mixed methods research design, incorporating both transcendental phenomenology and hierarchical multiple regression. Black female teachers in this study unanimously felt that their teacher education program (traditional and nontraditional certification program), to some extent, did not adequately prepare them for their role as classroom teachers. The job satisfaction findings in this study were divided into the following three themes: a) positioned in an urban, non-charter school, b) exposure to administrative support, teacher autonomy, positive student behavior, reasonable workload and paperwork, and c) commitment to teaching. In regards to teacher retention, teachers were more likely to remain in the classroom with: a) salary increases overtime, b) the availability of professional advancement, and c) administrative support. Concluding, recommendations and

implications are offered for school leaders and school districts on how best to increase the job satisfaction and retention rate of Black female teachers.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my mom and dad, Olutinue and Dr. Ayoade Farinde, two extremely hardworking Nigerians. Mom, thank you for life. You are an amazing woman, and I cannot convey my appreciation in words. You have labored and have given everything for our success. Selfless, compassionate, God-fearing... I only hope I am half the mother to my future children that you have been to me. Dad, thank you for instilling in me the pursuit of knowledge, for giving me a fighting spirit, and for not allowing my gender to distort my perception of self. From Nigeria to America, I hope we all are a fulfillment of your American dream and the promise of a better life.

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Dr. Lewis: Men are born to succeed, not to fail.--Henry David Thoreau

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Does race matter when teaching and educating Black¹ students in the American K-12 public school system? Does a Black student perform academically better when taught by a Black teacher? Although this topic is often a source of contention (Dee, 2005; Howsen & Trawick, 2007), research indicates racial pairing (Dee, 2004) positively influences the academic outcome of Black students (Dee, 2004; Evans, 1992; Pitts, 2007). The questions listed above emerge when considering the many educational issues (e.g., tracking, discipline, grade retention, dropout, etc.) impeding the academic success of students of color, particularly African American students. The reason such questions are poignant in the 21st century is due to the disconcerting, academic plight of African American students attending American public schools (Lewis, James, Hancock, & Hill-Jackson, 2008; Nebbitt, Lombe, LaPoint, & Bryant, 2009).

While there are high-achieving and gifted African American students (Ford & Whiting, 2007; Ford, Moore, & Scott, 2011; Marsh, Chaney, & Jones, 2012; Williams & Bryan, 2013), a disproportionate number of these students underperform in various academic disciplines when compared to their White counterparts (Rowley & Wright, 2011). Due to this disproportionality and the presence of symbolic violence (the underrepresentation of students' of color heritage within the prescribe curricula), the American education system is often accused of depriving African American students of a quality education (Hayes, 2010), not adequately teaching Black boys and girls, nor

¹ The terms African American and Black are used interchangeably throughout this paper.

preparing them to compete in the 21st century, global economy (Darling-Hammond, 2010). This claim is supported by the different and often difficult school experiences (e.g., in and out of school suspension, expulsion; underrepresentation in gifted and talented, overrepresentation in special education, etc.) that influence the educational path of many African American students.

Many African American students are charged with the task of navigating and negotiating an education system only a few decades removed from desegregation and busing (Mickelson, 2001, 2005). With American schools historically rooted in “separate-but-equal,” research indicates countless African American students are consistently denied equal educational experiences, treatment, and opportunities (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Lipman, 2004). Labeled as learning disabled (e.g., mentally retarded, ADD, ADHD, behaviorally disturbed, etc.), many Black children are placed in special education classes (Ford, 2012; Rebell & Wolff, 2008; Shealey & Lue, 2006). This particular subgroup of learning disabled students is also often “pushed out” of school, subjected to high rates of suspensions and expulsions (Hale-Benson, 1986; Sbika, Horner, Chung, Rausch, May, & Tobin, 2011). Moreover, state-mandated achievement tests indicate a performance gap exists between African American students and White students (Burchinal, McCartney, Steinberg, Crosnoe, Friedman, McLoyd, & Pianta, 2011). These startling facts suggest many Black students are not receiving an adequate education because of the numerous impediments they may face throughout their educational experience.

Presently, a large number of Black students are taught by a predominately White, middle-class teaching force, a teaching force in which many teachers indicate they do not

see color and advocate a colorblind classroom (Landsman & Lewis, 2011). While this view of the classroom is often held with the best of intentions, not seeing color suggests one does not acknowledge students, their individual cultures, dialects, environments, backgrounds, heritage, and different learning styles. Though race is not the determining factor of whether a White or a Black teacher can properly educate a Black student, acknowledging or denying a student's cultural background may impact how well that student performs in the classroom. In short, diversifying the teaching force permits the recognition and inclusion of diverse cultures within the classroom. Substantiating this claim, Hale-Benson (1986) asserted "one's culture affects one's cognitive processes" (p. 21). Her theory of knowledge is based on the importance of culture and its major role in how one acquires knowledge. Villegas and Irvine (2010) also posit the shared cultural experiences of teachers and students of color have the potential to improve academic outcomes and school experiences of these learners. These claims do not suggest the presence of a Black teacher alone will improve the academic performance of Black students, nor do they argue that a White teacher is incapable of improving the academic achievement of Black students. Instead, they assert the importance of a teacher's cultural competency when teaching Black students (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994). The ability to assist students in making connections between culture (home) and curriculum (school), increasing their academic standing, is the primary focus. While not all Black teachers will share the same cultural background, knowledge and experiences as their Black students, many Black teachers, more so than White teachers, are familiar with the unique cultural norms and practices of the Black community (Villegas, Strom, & Lucas, 2012).

The need for this research lies in the existence of a largely middle-class, homogenous teaching force and an increasingly diverse student population (Madkins, 2011; Vilegas, Strom, & Lucas, 2012). In fact, there exists a racial/ethnic gap between students and their teachers, an enduring gap which continues to widen (McNulty & Brown, 2009). With a predominately White and female teacher workforce (Landsman & Lewis, 2011), this study acknowledges the need for more teachers of color inside U.S. public school classrooms and advocates Black teachers, particularly Black female teachers, are needed in K-12 classrooms to serve as role models, bridge curriculum and culture, and fill vacant teaching positions in many high-poverty, ethnically-diverse urban schools with high teacher-turnover rates (Achinstein, Ogawa, Sexton, & Freitas, 2010).

The increase of Black role models in public schools, though not statistically proven, is a compelling argument (Villegas & Irvine, 2010). This cogent viewpoint, expounded on later in this work, is grounded in schools' role in socializing students and their ability to disseminate implicit messages through a hidden curriculum (Gay, 2002; DeMarrais & LeCompte, 1999). The role model argument suggests schools reconstruct social inequalities within society by indoctrinating students of color and White students through the presence of Black employees, not as professionals but often as janitorial or cafeteria workers. Further supporting the role model argument is the increased academic outcome of Black students when taught by Black teachers (Dee, 2004; Klopfenstein, 2005). As mentioned, although race is inconsequential to a teachers' ability to teach Black students, the research suggests many Black teachers are uniquely positioned to teach Black students because of a cultural understanding of their students' home and community life (Milner, 2006). The ability to bridge culture and curriculum stem from

Black teachers' content knowledge, pedagogical training, and a shared cultural identity with their students (Villegas, Strom, & Lucas, 2012). This threefold effect may engender better schooling experiences and academic outcomes for their Black students. In addressing the benefits of Black teachers in high-needs, culturally-diverse schools, the confinement of Black teachers to these particular schools is not recommended; rather, aligning with the literature, the argument simply acknowledges Black teachers' retention rates are often higher than White teachers' in such schools (Ingersoll, 2011; Scafidi, Sjoquistb, & Stinebrickner, 2007), suggesting a greater commitment to teaching Black students (Dixson & Dingus, 2008).

Presently, the literature affirms the existence of a Black teacher shortage and the low representation of teachers of color in U.S public schools (Rogers-Ard, Knaus, Epstein, & Mayfield, 2013). In order to advocate for a more diverse teaching force, the purpose of this study is to provide a platform for the voices and experiences of Black female educators in hopes of increasing retention rates. This research specifically inquires about in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and their intention to remain in the K-12 classroom. This particular subgroup is the topic of inquiry because Black female teachers represent 7.7 percent of the American teaching force (as cited in Toldson & Lewis, 2012); in comparison, White female teachers make up over 60 percent of the American teacher workforce (Lewis & Toldson, 2013). With students of color representing almost 40% of the total student enrollment (as cited in Toldson & Lewis, 2012), greater attention must be given to disproportionate teacher-student demographics. In seeking a teaching force more representative of the national population and current

U.S. student demographic, the question must be posed: why do Black female teachers remain in the classroom?

Theoretical Framework

Validating Black women's unique perspective on their experiences, Collins' (1986, 1989, 2000) development of Black feminist thought (BFT) serves as the theoretical and epistemological lens for this study. Contributing to a growing discourse on Black women, BFT was derived from the marginality vested in the feminist movement (hooks, 1981; Lorde, 1984) due to its singular focus on gender and often omission of race. Collins (1986) defined the three main themes of BFT: 1) the meaning of self-definition and self-valuation, 2) the interlocking nature of oppression, 3) and the importance of redefining culture. Moreover, Collins notes the ideas in BFT were created by and for Black women, clarifying their viewpoint. Although diversity within class, religion, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation and region shape the lives of individual Black women, resulting in different expressions, BFT posits commonalities in perception and outlook among Black women's experiences through a shared race and gender identity (Collins, 2000). As a group, Black women experience a different reality and, consequently, a different world than those belonging to another racial and gender group (Collins, 1989).

Foundationally, BTF advocates a self-defined image of Black womanhood, seeks to clarify the lives of Black women, and places their distinct set of experiences and ideas at the center of analysis, dismantling the pervasive Eurocentric viewpoint that is given universal status (Collins, 1986, 1996, 2000). Collins' theoretical framework re-conceptualizes the traditional, stereotypical depiction of Black women, advocating

resistance to domination. In capturing the authentic experiences of Black women, BFT reveals the contradictions which are inherent in the dominant group's ideologies and actions. These contradictions call one to question and oppose White, Western, patriarchal ideals of womanhood because they starkly contrast the lived experiences of Black women (Collins, 2000; hooks, 1981). Valuing the subjective knowledge base of Black women and giving voice to their experiences, dismantles the historically imposed hegemonic reality, which seeks to silence and discredit Black women's standpoint.

BFT also expresses the importance of redefining oppression and seeing the world through a both/and conceptual lens, an interlocking system of oppression (race, class, and gender, sexual orientation, age, ethnicity, religion, etc. within a matrix of domination) (Collins, 2000). On the basis of interlocking oppressions, BFT opposes distortions of knowledge, acknowledging the interlocking partial truths and narratives of diverse groups, which combine to construct new knowledge or rather a new collective truth. In recognizing the partial truths and contributions of diverse groups, the idea of one central "truth" is disputed. Furthermore, aware of the power of knowledge, BFT refutes the dominant group's knowledge as it defines the lives of Black women. Rather a construction of new knowledge, which is based on the unaltered experiences of Black women, engenders a change in consciousness.

Under this framework, which stresses the importance of recognizing intercepting oppressions, BFT assists in understanding how this particular group of women makes meaning and interprets their role and position within the educational structure of schools. Within the confines of this study, race and gender are considered as these identifying features, shaping the experiences of Black female educators. In validating the experiences

of in-service Black female teachers, this study uses the “lived experiences as a criterion of meaning” concept, which substantiates BFT epistemological foundation (Collins, 2000). This concept guides the research and affirms the validity of “concrete experiences as a criterion for credibility...when making knowledge claims” (Collins, 2000, p. 276). Asserting that knowledge comes from individual and collective experiences, Collins explains “for most African-American women, those individuals who have lived through the experiences about which they claim to be experts are more believable and credible than those who have merely read or thought about such experiences” (p. 276). This concept legitimizes Black female teachers’ knowledge, offering an alternative viewpoint.

Furthermore, BFT offers insight about factors influencing Black female teachers intention to remain in the K-12 classroom, which may differ from White teachers and other teachers of color. Though possessing middle-class status, the distinct and dual feature of both race and gender position Black female teachers’ experiences in a unique light. Representing a marginalized group within the matrix of domination (Collins, 2000), their experiences will bring insight on how best to increase retention rates among Black female teachers. As this research highlights in-service Black female teachers’ job satisfaction and intention to remain in the K-12 classroom, it is beyond a White, Eurocentric understanding of the teaching profession that BFT frames this study.

Subjectivity Statement

In conducting this study, my own subjectivity must be acknowledged and thoroughly evaluated in order to ensure the validity of my work (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Peshkin, 1988). Clarifying my personal stake in the research exposes an awareness of my unconscious influence on the data as a researcher. An assessment of my identity

reveals three distinct roles that may holistically shape the study's direction: 1) my racial identification, 2) my gender, and 3) my previous occupation. The vantage point in which I view the study is deeply embedded in my position as a former K-12 Black female teacher. Moreover, possessing the same racial classification as my participants may engender a shared identity between researcher and participants. In addition, commonalities in race and gender with my sample may also help in identifying and empathizing with their unique classroom experiences. In regards to the research questions, my experiences as a former K-12 Black female teacher in a public school system will add value as I co-construct data with my participants. Lastly, my role as an educator, possessing a desire to teach even at a young age, and observing the underrepresentation of those that "look like me" within the education field gives me a unique perspective during pre-and post-data analysis.

In this study, I find that confessional reflexivity will be influential in my analysis (Foley, 2002). Considering my sample is a reflection of myself (Black female educator), I must be candid about my own perceptions, biases, preconceived notions, and preexisting ideas. Confessional reflexivity will help me continually question myself, others, and the reality in which my participants exist. This analytical process will permit the emergence of emotions and will promote a close relationship with my data. Overall, my study will be shaped by my own personal experiences as well as the experiences of my participants.

Problem Statement

African American teachers are disproportionately underrepresented in the education field. Milner and Howard (2004) affirmed over the past decades the number of Black teachers has drastically declined. This alarming decrease is portrayed by the

current number of African American teachers within American public schools. Although African Americans comprise 12% of the general population, African American teachers only make up approximately 8% of the public school teaching force (NCES, 2010). Considering there are over 3 million public school teachers, 8% is a particularly alarming percentage. In contrast to the minimal presence of Black teachers, presently, the education field is dominated by White, middle-class teachers (NCES, 2010), particularly White female teachers (Landsman & Lewis, 2011). In fact, one only has to walk into a public school to observe the existence of a disproportionate teacher-student ratio in the area of race. When compared to their White female counterparts, Black women are often disproportionately underrepresented among school personnel, filling a smaller percentage of teaching positions. Although teaching is a female-dominated profession, the African American female teacher population is not proportional to that of the White female teacher population in terms of representation in our nation's classrooms. This current trend is disconcerting, considering Black females' historic role in public education. Shipp (2000) asserts Black women's role as educators in the South prior to the Civil War. Dixon and Dingus (2008) also confirm the long legacy of Black female teachers in schools. While there was a long historic lineage of Black female teachers before *Brown v. Board of Education*, current trends indicate a significant decline (Tillman, 2004). This present and enduring issue questions why Black female teachers are disproportionately underrepresented in the American teaching force.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine Black female teachers' job satisfaction and decision to remain in the K-12 classroom. From the intersection of race and gender,

this study seeks insight about the individual experiences of in-service Black female teachers that impacted their career path. Serving as a platform for their voices, this research informs and augments the current literature on Black female educators as well as diversifies the knowledge base on teacher retention and attrition. Moreover, in providing a vehicle for the dissemination of Black female teachers' authentic, self-defined, lived experiences in the K-12 classroom, their stories become a point of reference. Placing in-service Black female teachers' stories as a reference point is significant considering the teaching force is predominately White. Black women's voices, often inaudible in a largely homogenous teaching profession, dismantle the pervasive White, Eurocentric viewpoint that is given universal status (Collins, 2000). Rather than the dominant or majority group's experiences speaking for all groups, in this study a subgroup (Black women) is given the opportunity to convey their distinct reality as classroom teachers. Through their experiences, narratives, words and ideas, an alternative "truth" is acknowledged and validated.

Significance of Study

The significance of this study lies in the enduring shortage of African American teachers within American public schools. Presently, African American teachers are disproportionately underrepresented in the American teaching force when compared to their White counterparts (Madkins, 2011). With an increasingly White, female, and middle-class teaching force and a rising diverse student population, the current homogenous teaching workforce must be more reflective of both a diverse student population and the American society. Though past research beginning in the 1980s (Cole, 1986; Dilworth, 1987; Empey, 1984; Irvine, 1988; Page & Page, 1982; Reed, 1986;

Stewart, 1989) has noted the decline of Black teachers in American schools, presently, the percentage of Black teacher has not surpassed 8%. In addition, the numerous alternative certification programs and recruitment and retention initiatives (i.e., lateral entry programs, Pathways to Teaching Careers Program, Minority Teacher Education Program, teacher cadet programs, career ladder programs for paraprofessionals, and financial incentives such as scholarships and loan forgiveness) that have sought to proliferate the number of Blacks in education have also failed to significantly alter the current demographics of school teachers. Considering this trend, this study is equally significant in its examination of a particular subgroup (Black female teachers), who would assist in diversifying the teaching field. While the lived experiences of all teachers of color are pertinent, this study, serving as a platform, specifically explores the voices and lived experiences of those Black female educators who chose teaching as a career. Through their stories, insight will be gained about their varied experiences and decision to remain in the K-12 classroom.

The findings in this study have the potential to inform recruitment and retention efforts, teacher education programs in their implementation of curriculum and instruction, school districts, school boards, administrators, as well as local, state and national education policymakers seeking to eliminate not only the African American teacher shortage but the national teacher shortage. In better understanding the unique perspectives of this particular subgroup's experiences in the classroom, perhaps pertinent changes can be made to rendering support as these women matriculate from K-12 to college and finally into the classroom. Adding to the literature, the analysis and findings of in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and experiences in the classroom and

how these experiences shaped their decision to remain the K-12 classroom can provide a deeper understanding of how best to retain and possibly increase the pipeline of Black educators. To this end, the racial composition of the American teaching force will remain unchanged unless candid knowledge is disseminated about the true experiences of disproportionately underrepresented female educators.

Research Questions

In regards to the retention of Black female teachers, the problem and significance statements serve as a foundation for the following research questions.

- 1) How do in-service Black female teachers describe their job satisfaction?
- 2) What factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, student behavior, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction?
- 3) How does job satisfaction influence in-service Black female teachers' intention to remain in the K-12 classroom?

Definition of Relevant Terms

African American/Black: A racial or ethnic descendent of Africa

BFT: Black Feminist Thought

K-12: Kindergarten through twelfth grade

In-service teacher (current): Individuals who have a teaching license and are currently teaching in their own classrooms.

Teacher turnover: The departure of teachers from schools.

Movers: Teachers who change schools.

Leavers: Teachers who permanently depart teaching.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focuses on in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to remain in the K-12 classroom, which has implications for the demographics of the teaching force. The existing scholarly literature frames this current study, establishing research questions and offering direction and insight into present and emerging knowledge. Using the literature as a foundation, the present study will either build on current literature or add pertinent information to a growing research topic. In understanding retention rates among Black female teachers, the literature provides a conceptual framework, identifying the complex facets of this present issue. Divided into four sections, the literature review will begin by contextualizing Black teacher attrition within history, offering a historical overview of Black educators. Next, topics related to the Black teacher shortage will be outlined, followed by existing arguments advocating for a more diverse teaching force. Lastly, a discussion of factors influencing retention and attrition among Black female teachers will be presented.

The historic events that took place between the years of 1860-1935 marked the ex-slaves' unyielding pursuit of a formal education. Anderson (1988) asserted that Black schools, taught by Black teachers, were formed well before the Civil War. In fact, during this time period Blacks established, supported, and sustained their educational institutions as their desire for literacy propelled the idea of universal public schooling. Furthermore, a pipeline of Black educators was sustained through the creation of African American

schools, which facilitated the development and growth of Black teachers and school leaders (Futrell, 2004).

This era of social change and cultivation within the Black community did not transpire seamlessly. Impediments such as *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), a Supreme Court case, solidified “separate but equal” and forever altered the American educational landscape. The lasting implications of this court ruling not only impacted the American education system but also influenced the nation, unconsciously dominating the hearts and minds of the American public. Through judicial law, *Plessy* affirmed social inequity, legitimizing and solidifying the unequal conditions in many predominately Black and White public schools. With the status quo maintained, Black teachers continued teaching Black students in inadequate facilities. Despite being deprived of adequate school funding and resources (Kelly, 2010), Black students excelled (Anderson, 2004). At this time when Black teachers taught Black students, a teacher-student racial gap was non-existent. Social change and action soon altered this trend when the landmark Supreme Court case *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka Kansas* (1954) abolished “separate but equal” and ushered in the goal of desegregation (Russo, Harris, & Sandidge, 1994), proposing a new direction for the American education system. Although *Brown* overturned *Plessy*, society had experienced legalized “separate but equal.” The ratification of this law perpetuated institutionalized racism and discrimination, which is often implicitly and explicitly observed even in today’s public school classroom as certain student groups experience unequal educational opportunities (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Pre-and Post-Brown v. Board of Education

Brown v. Board of Education produced other unforeseen consequences. Post-*Brown*, the demographics of the teaching force dramatically altered. In the aftermath of *Brown*, a substantial number of Black teachers lost their jobs (Tillman, 2004) as Black students were bused to distant districts and integrated into majority White schools (Madkins, 2011). The court ordered integration of Black students into predominately White schools resulted in the merging of schools. Though Black students were displaced to White schools, White students were not bused to Black schools. This action led to the closing of numerous Black operated schools, displacing countless Black educators. In a post-*Brown* educational environment, if Black teachers were reassigned to majority White schools, they were often confronted with a displeasing workplace environment, forced to teach outside their content area (Arnez, 1978) and given a pay deduction (Morris, 1987). In addition, during desegregation certain strategies were implemented, further diminishing the Black teacher workforce. Futrell (2004) noted specific tactics that were employed during and after *Brown*, which consequently reduced the Black teacher pool. A few of these methods were the elimination of tenure in areas that possessed a high number of Black teachers; the dismissal of teachers without due cause; the retirement of Black teachers and the refusal to hire new Black teachers; and the requirement that many Black teachers teach subjects outside of their certification, subsequently terminating them for poor performance.

Considering the consequences of *Brown* and the present achievement gap between White and Black students (Condrón, Tope, Steidl, & Freeman, 2013), many wonder if the *Brown* ruling improved education for African American students, and if it did not, “does

the Negro need separate schools” (DuBois, 1935, Ladson Billings, 1994). That is, should Black teachers solely teach Black students? This idea seems archaic after such achievements as the *Civil Rights Act of 1965*. Nonetheless, the *Brown* decision is often questioned and seen as a dream deferred, an unfulfilled goal, which may have caused African American students and teachers greater harm than good (Armor, 2006; Gay, 2004). Critics suggest desegregation did not improve the academic achievement of all Black students; rather, it simply caused the significant job loss of many Black teachers and legally forced Black and White students to coexist in an unequal school environment (Patterson, Niles, Carlson, & Kelley, 2008). This argument is strengthened because African American students, prior to desegregation, interacted and were immersed in schools with Black faculty members who promoted Black culture within the curriculum, and in turn, Black students were able to close various gaps (e.g., the literacy gap, the elementary school attendance gap, and the high school completion gap) between them and their White counterparts (Anderson, 2004).

During desegregation, Black teachers, who were instrumental in the academic success of Black students (Kelly, 2010) experienced a mass exodus (Fultz, 2004). African American students were removed from an educational setting that promoted their cultural background and were placed within an educational structure that advocated a “White-framed curriculum taught by White teachers” (Rogers-Ard et al., 2013, p. 454). Unfortunately, many White teachers during this time period did not understand the racial and economic context of African American students’ lives (Fairclough, 2007). With the absence of cultural acknowledgement and understanding in many predominately White schools that began housing Black students, perhaps *Brown* was destined for failure, not

fully recognizing culture's important role within a curriculum for diverse learners. A disconnect between these two entities, culture and curriculum, perpetuated a one-size-fits-all model, suggesting all students learn the same and promoting one knowledge over another. Fundamentally, such a theory is absurd considering, behavior, and social interactions, all elements relevant in teaching and learning, vary among different racial groups. Furthermore, "cultural characteristics provide the criteria for determining how instructional strategies should be modified for ethnically diverse students" (Gay, 2002, p. 112).

Hayes (2010) supports the idea of cultural inclusion through her discussion of symbolic violence; she suggests that symbolic violence deals with the minimal representation of students' of color heritage and the absence of culture may be the underlying reason many students of color devalue the prescribed educational curricula. Since lessons taught in many American public school classrooms possess little or no connection to students' own lives and cultural history, they are viewed with contempt. Hayes assertion reveals that *Brown* mandated the integration of Black bodies into predominately White schools but neglected the infusion of all students' cultures into school curricula. The absence of culture produced greater division between Black students and White teachers, which proved to be detrimental to the academic achievement of Black students. In contrast, Black students taught by Black teachers, who infused culture and curriculum, made academic gains with students (Anderson, 2004; Milner, 2006)

Though the American education system has many obstacles to overcome in order to achieve equity and equality for all students, re-segregating schools will not produce a

desirable outcome. Many would agree re-segregating schools is not the key; unfortunately, many schools and communities, decades after *Brown*, have reversed the tides of progress, re-segregating due to the “white flight” of the 1950s (Ladson-Billing, 1994, p. 40), racial residential segregation (Meyer, 2000) and in-school tracking (Lucas & Berends, 2002). Before critics of *Brown* condemn its enactment, they should consider there are public schools in existence with no teachers of color among their faculty (Villegas & Clewell, 1998). Also, primarily high-needs, ethnically diverse schools house the greatest percentage of teachers of color (Achinstein, et al., 2010). While these examples affirm that the goals of *Brown* have not yet been fulfilled, they also show there is still a need for such legislation, especially as the student demographics of public schools continue to alter. As White students become the minority and students of color become the majority, creating an increasingly diverse student population, segregating student racial groups within or between schools and maintaining a homogenous teaching force may prove counterproductive and ineffective to the academic achievement of all students.

Teacher Education Programs

Although the goal of teacher education programs is to adequately prepare quality teachers, equipping them with the needed skills and competencies to enhance student learning and achievement, many institutions fall short—lacking time, sufficient courses and resources, and are unable to adequately bridge the gap between theory and practice (Darling-Hammond, 2000). While certain skills are best learned during on-the-job-training (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), teacher education programs must do more, not only teaching pre-service teachers how to teach but also preparing them to address issues of

diversity and to meet the varying needs of diverse student population (Cochran-Smith, 1995; Anderson & Stillman, 2010). Beyond surface-level training, pre-service teachers must engage in candid conversations about race, ethnicity, and class (Villegas & Lucas, 2002a) and learn how to best educate students of color prior to entering the classroom (Causey, Thomas, & Armento, 2000).

One issue vital to the success of pre-service teachers is their ability to adequately instruct all students, subsequently impacting student achievement. In order to meet the diverse educational needs of all students, a one-size-fits-all approach must be abandoned in teacher education programs. Instead, pre-service teachers must learn and incorporate culturally responsive teaching practices into their classroom instruction (Burbank, Ramirez, & Bates, 2012; Irvine, 1992; Villegas, & Lucas, 2002b). Gay (2002) defined culturally responsive teaching as a process of “using the cultural characteristic, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively” (p. 106). Likewise, Ladson-Billings (1994) also encourages culturally relevant pedagogy, the infusion of one’s culture into the teaching process, promoting effective teaching and learning. Gay (2000) and Ladson-Billings (1994), alike, note the academic outcome of ethnically diverse students will improve when taught through their own cultural lens. Emphasizing a community of learners, acknowledging students’ cultural backgrounds, utilizing cooperative learning groups, providing supplemental materials that highlight the contributions of ethnically diverse people, building a strong teacher-student relationship, and caring about the academic success of each student are practices vital to the academic development of diverse student groups. The effective

implementation of these practices will benefit all student groups, promoting engaged students who are empowered and able to internalize knowledge.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs)

While retention of teachers of color is vital to diversifying the teaching force, the first step to ensuring a teaching population that is more representative of the general public and student population is teacher recruitment, primarily the recruitment of teachers of color. One institution influential in the recruitment and development of teachers of color since the 1800s is the Historically Black College and University (HBCU). HBCUs have a long history and tradition of preparing African American teachers (Dilworth, 2012), serving as the primary training grounds for Black educators. Regardless of whether a teacher education program is at a predominately White institution (PWI) or HBCU, the mission of all teacher education programs is the same: to prepare quality teachers, equipping them with the needed skills and competencies to enhance the learning and achievement of all students. Although there is a shared purpose, HBCUs take a different approach in achieving this goal by indoctrinating their pre-service teachers with the idea of racial uplift (Dilworth & Brown, 2001; Dilworth & Brown, 2007) and service to the community. These principles, pre-*Brown*, engendered a substantial African American teacher workforce, especially in the South.

Once known as the main producers for African American teachers, teacher reform efforts during the 1980s and funding disparities reduced HBCUs' teacher output (Dilworth, 2012). The implementation of new accountability measures and standardized assessment tests for teachers impacted the number of African Americans who gained teacher certifications. State funding equities prohibited HBCUs from offering needed

resources to their pre-service teachers (Sav, 2010). As a result, low student scores on state mandated standardized licensure tests caused a decline in student enrollment and caused many HBCUs to lose state program approval and funding (Nnazor, Sloan, & Higgins, 2004). Through teacher reform efforts sought to improve the ranks of teachers, measuring the quality of teacher preparation solely through teacher licensure exams, HBCUs' were weakened, lacking monetary assistance in developing and educating pre-service teachers of color (Sav, 2000). Three decades later, in this high-stakes driven accountability era of student achievement, standardized teacher licensure exams continue to prohibit prospective teachers of color from entering the classroom (Neettes, Scatton, Steinberg, & Tyler, 2011; Petchauer, 2012).

No Child Left Behind

The continual decline or shortage of Black teachers continues to frame educational discourse and calls researchers to inquire about why this subgroup of teachers are leaving the field of education and how best to increase retention among this group of educators. Although *Brown* served as a catalyst for the dismissal of African American teachers, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) is often identified as a contributing factor for the high attrition rates among Black teachers (Smith & Kovacs, 2011). The No Child Left Behind Act, a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), was enacted in 2001 during George W. Bush's administration and did little to further the goals of *Brown v. Board of Education* (Nichols, 2005). Similar to other education reforms, NCLB had great intentions, but some argue the application of its policies weakened the education field. For instance, though NCLB raised levels of accountability, ensuring the education of all students, it also set the unrealistic expectation of 100%

student proficiency by the year 2014. Under No Child Left Behind legislation, strict accountability measures required each state, school district, and school receiving federal aid to make adequate yearly progress (AYP), mandating all student subgroups in grades 3 through 8 to make annual gains and progress in the areas of reading and math (Hewitt, 2011).

Ideally, the goals of NCLB is to seek the academic success of all students regardless of race, gender, socioeconomic status, etc., but upon closer examination of its policies and practices, implementation of the act negatively influences teacher attrition rates, which conversely impacts student achievement. Wiggan (2009) identifies NCLB as a legislative act rooted in neoliberal ideals, serving the interests of the dominant few and exacerbating the academic achievement of diverse student groups through the use of multiple-choice, high-stakes standardized tests advocating accountability standards in order to increase efficiency. Through the use of high-stakes, standardized tests, NCLB primarily focuses on student performance. This overemphasis on student test scores created a dissatisfactory work environment for many classroom teachers who must ensure continual student growth (Smethem, 2007). These accountability standards, which inevitably formed educational triages, negatively impacted teaching and learning, causing teachers to teach to the test, use class time for test preparation, and omit challenging, inquiry-based curricula that promotes critical literacy (Lipman, 2004).

As a consequence, the implications of NCLB legislation produced an educational environment conducive to teacher turnover (Hill & Barth, 2004). For instance, if teachers are unable to make annual gains or improve students' test scores, punitive actions are taken, whether job loss or reorganization of the school. Driving teachers from the

profession, this high-stakes testing environment places demands and pressures on educators to ensure adequate results at all costs. While NCLB policies affect all schools, nowhere else are the effects of NCLB more pronounced than in low-income, urban schools serving disadvantaged students (Sunderman & Kim, 2005). NCLB's high-stakes test accountability policies exacerbate the already troubling school conditions in many high-poverty, urban schools, influencing teachers of color decision to leave the profession (Clotfelter, Ladd, Vigdor, & Diaz, 2004). Although teachers of color or more likely than White teachers to work and remain in these 'hard-to-staff schools, nationally, teachers of color have a higher turnover rate than White teachers (Achinstein et al., 2010; Ingersoll & May, 2011), meaning students who stand to benefit most from the presence of highly-qualified teachers of color are shortchanged due to high attrition rates among this particular teacher subgroup.

Standardized Teaching Tests

The term 'highly qualified' as defined by NCLB is another source of contention for Black educators, impacting their ability to enter or remain within the K-12 classroom (Ingersoll & May, 2011). NCLB defines 'highly qualified' as teachers "certified by the state, [who] have at least a bachelor's degree, and [who passed] basic skills and subject area tests" (Selwyn, 2007, p. 126). The problem with this definition is it narrowly focuses on culturally biased content knowledge, which is assessed using flawed indicators. These limited definers attempt to negate the "experiences [and strengths of teachers of color and their] capacity to engage and model effective teaching strategies" (Rogers-Ard et al., 2013). Regardless of data suggesting African American teachers may be more effective with African American students (Dee, 2004a; Dee, 2004b), presently, restrictive

descriptions of teacher quality not only devalue teacher pedagogy and practice but also create structural barriers to the classroom for teachers of color. Despite noted evidence confirming standardized tests are biased against people of color (Santelice & Wilson, 2010) and empirical research documenting the low performance of people of color on standardized tests (Steele, 1997, 2003), these assessments are still used to dictate entry into teacher education programs and teacher licensure.

While a “good” test will provide relevant information regarding a teacher candidate’s strengths and weaknesses, one multiple-choice, standardized test alone cannot predict with absolute certainty the intellect or future performance of teacher candidates possessing different racial backgrounds, genders, and socioeconomic statuses (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010; Goodman, Arbona, & de Ramirez, 2008). Though many will agree with the previous statement, a one-size-fits-all approach is currently used to determine access to the classroom. This highly weighted, impactful standardized test privileges a certain type of knowledge and excludes other needed teaching skills and competencies. A formative evaluation is needed to assess teachers; however, teacher quality cannot solely be measured by academic ability or an arbitrary standardized test score. Such dogmatic requirements restrict the diversity of the teaching force and relegate skill sets needed to teach content to diverse student groups. In rectifying the diversity gap between students and teachers, a more expansive definition of teacher quality and effectiveness should be considered.

Greater Career Opportunities

Considering African Americans’ historic presence in the field of education, particularly Black women, and the fact that teaching is a female dominated profession,

why are Black women disproportionately underrepresented in the American teaching workforce? Though various variables and contributing factors should be considered when seeking answers to this present-day trend, the number of Black classroom educators may have dwindled over the years due to greater job opportunities for African Americans. In a pre-*Brown* society, teaching was a revered profession within the African American community (Madkins, 2011; Gordon, 2000). Normal schools throughout the South prepared generations of Black educators for their future classroom positions and advocated students' role in and responsibility to uplift the Black race (Anderson, 1988; Walker, 2001). Because of this impactful charge, teaching was perceived by many in the Black community as a notable profession, instrumental in igniting social change. Furthermore, the Black teaching force was more abundant during the era of segregation because prior to the 1950s African Americans were excluded from a number of prominent professions (Wilder, 1999). With the mass reduction of teaching jobs for Blacks after desegregation, and with great job opportunities for Blacks after the Civil Rights Act of 1964, many educators sought new employment.

Empirical research conducted in the 1980s (Dilworth, 1987; Irvine, 1988; Stewart, 1989) suggested Black students pursued careers outside of teaching because of expanded career options, which permitted entry into more prestigious and lucrative professions. Similar to data presented in the 1980s, presently, students of color, specifically Black students, are not gravitating toward the teaching profession due to increased job opportunities in other fields (Madkins, 2011). Instead of teaching, Black college students are entering careers such as medicine, engineering, business, mathematics or law (Wilder, 1999; Shipp, 1999). Likewise, more career options overtime, have become available to

Black women. Rather than becoming educators, armed with advanced degrees, many Black women found work as social workers, nurses, and business women (Shipp, 2000). Although the availability of more diverse careers options has influenced the current wave of educators, this alone did not drastically alter the current pool of Black educators after desegregation. As it stands, additional research is needed to better understand the extent to which increased job opportunities has impacted the current teacher demographic.

Negative School Experiences

Black students' negative school experiences have also been cited as a possible explanation for the decrease of Black educators (Su, 1997; Wilder, 199). The quality of educational experiences students are exposed to may alter their career path and desire to succeed (Lent, Hackett, & Brown, 2000). That considered, many low-income Black students often attend overcrowded, dilapidated schools which are poorly funded, have fewer resources and possess less qualified teachers (Torres et al., 2004; Zeichner, 2003). Undesirable and hostile experiences during K-12 inform Black students' perception of a career in education, positioning the profession as an unattractive career option. The foundation of this argument lies in the unequal educational experiences, opportunities, and treatment Black students endure within the American education system. For instance, African American students are overrepresented in school discipline infractions (Fenning & Rose, 2007; Gregory, Cornell, & Fan, 2011; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Rocque, 2010; Sbika, Horner, Chung, Rausch, May, & Tobin, 2011) and underperform nationally in various core academic disciplines (Burchinal, McCartney, Steinberg, Crosnoe, Friedman, McLoyd, & Pianta, 2011; Nebbitt, Lombe, LaPoint, & Bryant, 2009).

Darling-Hammond (2010) asserts among American students, students of color are at a severe academic disadvantage. Supporting this claim, Lipman (2004) suggested unequal educational opportunities between White and Black students ultimately prepare students of color to become low-paid service workers. In addition, a comparative analysis of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) nations in the 2009 Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) report reveals that when examining race, data shows American White are generally high performers, while American Black students are low performers (Petrilli & Scull, 2011). Moreover, affirming unequal educational experiences between Black and White students, Diamond's (2006) study reveals structural, institutional, and symbolic inequalities between Black and White students are the reasons for a Black/White achievement gap. Offering a different perspective, it has been posited certain cultural groups underperform because of an oppositional cultural frame of reference (Ogbu, 2003). That is, student oppositional identity examines the identities of involuntary and voluntary immigrant students and proposes that one's immigrant status affects one's acceptance or resistance to hegemonic American ideals, which are reinforced by the education system (Wiggin, 2007, pp. 319-321). This argument is counterproductive in that it blames the victim, minimizing the numerous factors that contribute to low student achievement.

When examining the discipline rates of Black students, the United States Department of Education Office for Civil Rights' *Civil Rights Data Collection* (2012) shows that racial disparities persist within school disciplinary practices. Consequently, African American students are more likely to be punished than their White counterparts (Skiba & Rausch, 2006). Particularly, Black female students experience greater rates of

suspensions than all other female subgroups (CRDC, 2012). Furthermore, they are the only female student subgroup who possesses higher rates of suspensions than their total student population. Blake, Butler, Lewis, and Darensbourg (2010) also reveal when compared to White and Latino female students, Black female students were overrepresented in exclusionary disciplinary practices. As these Black female students are frequently removed from the classroom setting, they are placed at an academic disadvantage, not afforded the same instructional class time as other student groups (Monroe & Obidah, 2004). The combination of these unequal school experiences place many Black students at a grave academic disadvantage, receiving inadequate preparation for post-secondary education. Considering many students of color attend poorly funded schools with limited resources and unqualified teachers (Steinberg, 2010), inadequate educational opportunities greatly affects their preparation for higher education, which subsequently influences career path. Despite the challenging school experiences faced by many Black students during their K-12 education, Black students, and particularly Black female students, are enrolling and completing college at a higher rate than in previous years (“Here is Good,” 2008; NCES, 2010). While this trend is encouraging, road blocks in the form of inequitable and unequal educational experiences and opportunities must be rectified if the pool of Black teacher applicants is to increase.

While diversifying the teaching force will align the demographics of a diverse student body with that of those who educate them, altering the homogenous teaching profession may also have other beneficial results. An increase in teachers of color may positively influence the educational experiences and social ideology of not just Black students, but all students. Known as a historic institution and a staple within the

American society, schools are instrumental in the socialization of students, impacting students' ideology and belief system. Students' school experience, guided by a hidden curriculum, forces students in adopting the established social order and behavioral norms (deMarrais & LeCompte, 1999). Acknowledging school's influential role in indoctrinating and developing student knowledge and values, the presence of a majority White public school teaching staff is seen as problematic (Graham, 1987). Mercer and Mercer (1986) assert when students primarily observe adults of color in menial positions and not in professional positions within the school walls, schools sends an implicit message about power structure, positioning Whites as better suited for positions of authority within the American society. In diversifying the teaching force, students of all racial background can interact with adult authority figures from different racial ethnic groups, obstructing the propagation of a stratified social structure in which Whites are the dominate group and all other groups are seen as subordinates.

Role Model Argument

Within an understanding of schools' significant role in the lives of students derives the assumption that teachers act as role models for their students and the argument that teachers of color are needed to serve as role models for all students. The role model argument for diversifying the teaching workforce may offer insight into why African American, particularly Black women, are underrepresented in the teaching profession. The lack of Black female role models or mentors within the field of education may influence the career decisions of many Black female students. For instance, when determining future career aspiration one resource Black female students need is Black female role models because "only an African American woman [can] understand the

complex intersection of race and gender” (Patton & Harper, 2003, p. 71) within an institutional structure. In a study conducted by McCray, Sindelar, Kilgore, and Neal (2002) mothers, female teachers, and women who resided in the community significantly influenced African American women’s decision to become classroom teachers. This research suggests Black female students specifically need guidance, intentionally embedded knowledge, and exposure to realistic Black female figures. Unfortunately, Black female students have limited access to ethnic role models and mentors who share their same race and gender (Patton & Harper, 2003). As a consequence, they are unable to see varying representations of themselves present within the professional realm of education (Madkins, 2011).

A study conducted by Cole (1986) showed the benefits of role models in the lives of students from low-income areas that often lacked access to successful professional role models sharing their racial and cultural identity. Furthermore, teachers of color have been noted to be influential in increasing students’ self -worth, motivating students to strive for social mobility, and decreasing students’ sense of alienation in school (Cole, 1986; Zirkel, 2002). Much like students of color, White students can benefit from exposure to teachers of color. Imparting knowledge on both White students and non-White students alike, teachers of color can represent the possibilities as they personally depict themselves as successful and contributing members of society (Irvine, 1988). Such exposure challenges the often negative depiction of people of color (Gay, 2002; Waters, 1989).

The role model argument is also affirmed by pre-service teachers. One of the reasons pre-service teachers of color often give for becoming a teacher is to serve as role

models for students (Gordon, 2000; Ochoa, 2007). Pre-service teachers have also expressed how they wish to emulate teachers of color who inspired them during their K-12 experience (Miller & Endo, 2005). In addition, Johnson's (2008) study conveyed how new teachers believed in their impactful role in the lives of students of color. Although existing literature in education research does not statistically support the role model argument, it is a cogent argument, rationally implying the connection between a mentor and a mentee. Considering the amount of time and the close interactions between teachers and their students, and how teachers significantly influence the academic outcome of students, the role model argument warrants closer attention.

Black Teachers/Black Students Argument

In addition to the role model rationale, another major argument suggests teachers of color may improve the academic outcomes of students of color (Clewell, Puma, & McKay, 2005; Dee, 2004a; Klopfenstein, 2005; Pitts, 2007). Considering a quality and effective teacher is the single most important school factor affecting student achievement, the argument expresses how teachers of color are particularly suited to teach students of color because they can assist students of color in building cultural bridges to learning (Villegas & Irvine, 2010; Villegas & Lucas, 2004). Scholars have noted the important connection between culture and learning (Gay, 2002; Hale-Benson 1986, Ladson-Billings, 1994). Moreover, studies have also asserted the need for educators to establish cultural links between school and home (Donovan & Bransford, 2005; Heath, 1983; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978). These studies place learning within a cultural context, meaning the construction of new ideas are furthered and internalized by making connection to prior knowledge and experiences. They also suggest students

cannot receive one education from school and another from home; instead, a combined, unified education which acknowledges one's cultural background must be employed to ensure that the needs of all students are met. Supported by the literature, successful teachers of students of color acknowledge and affirm the cultural capital (Bartee & Brown, 2007; Bourdieu, 1986) students of color bring into the classroom, understanding students' cultural capital is the foundation in which learning occurs. These teachers can then bridge old and new ideas, scaffolding advanced content knowledge and skills. Although all teachers are capable of positively impacting student learning, teachers of color through their own personal experiences are better positioned than White teachers to teach students of color because of their familiarity with students' cultural background (Gay, 2002; Irvine, 1988; Nieto, 2000; Villegas & Lucas 2002a). These teachers are more likely to understand the different cultural facets of their students' lives (Cooper, & Jordan, 2003; Milner 2006).

Cultural synchronicity between teachers of color and students of color is well documented within the literature (Evans, 1992; Hanushek, 1992; Meire, 1993). Analyzing data from the Tennessee Project STAR class size experiment, Dee (2004a) found the reading and math achievement scores of African American students significantly increased when students were taught by a same race/ethnicity teacher. In this same study, Black students made gains in mathematics when taught by Black teachers. Clewell et al., (2005) reported that Latino fourth and sixth graders' math and reading test scores increased when taught by a Latino teacher. Pitts (2007) also highlighted the significantly high passing rate for graduation exams in school with a racial balance between students and teachers. Lastly, Klopfenstein (2005) found with the presence of more Black

mathematics teachers, the enrollment of Black students in Algebra II significantly increased. The studies above do not negate the experiences of successful White teachers of African American students (Landsman, 2001; Milner, 2011; Paley, 2000; Parson, 2005); rather, they equally acknowledge the impact teachers of color have on the schooling experiences of students of color. While effective teachers do not necessarily need to share the same cultural background as their students, this argument does highlight the importance of understanding students' cultural background in order to better facilitate teaching and learning. If teachers of color have the potential to improve the academic achievement of students of color, the need to diversifying the teaching force becomes even more essential.

Workforce Rationale

Decreasing the cultural mismatch between students and teachers by diversifying the teaching population may also improve teacher shortage issues, nationally (Elfers, Plecki, & Knapp, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001) and especially in racial/ethnically diverse, high-poverty urban schools (Jacob, 2007; Scafidia et al., 2007; Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). The workforce rationale argues students of color in high-needs schools with high teacher turnover would benefit from increased representation of highly-qualified teachers of color. Ingersoll (2004) found in urban, high-poverty schools 33% of new teachers leave within the first 3 years, and 46% leave within five years of entering the profession. Research also indicates when compared to White teachers, high proportions of teachers of color work and remain in hard-to-staff urban schools (Achinstein, et al., 2010; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004). Their commitment to teach in these difficult school environments may stem from their decisions to enter the profession. Often teachers of

color report a desire to improve the personal lives and academic achievement of students of color (Kauchak & Burbach, 2003). Also, within the Black community, the mission of teaching has historically been connected to racial uplift (Morris, 2004). Dixson and Dingus (2008) explained African American female teachers in their study saw teaching as community work, allowing them to “give back” and remain connected to Black communities and students. Similarly, Irvine (2002) reported African American teachers in her study saw teaching as a “calling”. These personal beliefs held by many teachers of color about their role and contribution to the education of students of color is recognized in their representation in schools with a diverse student population. Besides the benefit to student groups, the predominately White teaching force may also stand to benefit from a diverse teacher workforce. Dilworth (1990) suggested teachers of color, possessing a cultural understanding of the lives of diverse students, may assist their White colleagues in connecting culture and curriculum. The cultural knowledge teachers of color could potentially bring to the classroom, assisting all stakeholders in improving student learning, cannot be minimized. Given the need to diversify the teaching population, the workforce rationale presents a compelling argument.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

Teacher retention shifts the focus to stayer and inquires on how best to retain qualified teachers. Ingersoll and May (2011) affirmed that increasing recruitment efforts will not eliminate the minority teacher shortage because: “Pouring more water into the bucket will not do any good if we do not patch the holes first” (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003, p. 33). In order to patch the holes, factors precipitating the minority teacher shortage, that is job satisfaction, warrant more research. Teacher job satisfaction has been noted as one

avenue that may increase teacher retention and decrease teacher turnover (Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008). Research indicates an association between job satisfaction and retention (Bobbit, Faupel, & Burns, 1991; Cockburn, 2000; Meek, 1998; Perrachione, Rosser, & Peterson, 2008; Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, & Ma, 2012). Teachers with job dissatisfaction are more likely to leave the profession (Ingersoll, 2001), while teachers who experience job satisfaction are more likely to remain (Stockard & Lehman, 2004). In addition, job satisfaction is often a key mediating predictor of voluntary teacher turnover (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008; Price, 2001).

Kim and Loadman (1994) report factors such as salary, opportunity for advancement, professional challenge, professional autonomy, working conditions, interaction with colleagues, and interaction with students are statistically significant predictors of teacher job satisfaction. Billingsley and Cross (1992) also found leadership support, the elimination of role conflict, and role ambiguity and stress were predictors of commitment and job satisfaction. Unfortunately, since teachers do not possess a uniformed perspective on job satisfaction, research on teacher job satisfaction is vast and often mixed. For example, salary is a contentious topic with research suggesting high salaries may produce more job satisfaction (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Macdonald, 1999). While this research exists, Perie and Baker (1997) found no significant relationship between salary and job satisfaction. In addition, though Stockard and Lehman (2004) found no association between teacher education and job satisfaction, Culver, Wolfe, and Cross (1990) found that teachers with lower academic achievement had greater job satisfaction, while teachers with higher qualifications (certifications and advanced degrees) possessed less job satisfaction. Teachers' years of experience were another area

which produces mixed findings. Although Bogler (2001) found no association, Renzulli, MacPherson, and Beattie (2007) found years of experience was negatively associated with job satisfaction and Lui and Ramsey (2008) found it was positively associated with job satisfaction. When examining commitment to teaching and job satisfaction, Currivan's (2000) analysis showed no significant relationship.

In regards to school conditions, Perie and Baker (1997) reported teachers at suburban schools had high job satisfaction; teachers at urban schools had low job satisfaction; and teachers in rural schools had a satisfaction level in between suburban and urban teachers. Perie and Baker (1997) and Shann (1998) also found teachers who teach in schools with high-minority student enrollment had less job satisfaction. When examining students' socioeconomic status, Perie and Baker (1997) also found teachers in schools with less than 5% of the student population on free or reduced-priced lunch had high job satisfaction, while teachers at schools with 20% or more students on free or reduced-priced lunch had lower job satisfaction. Aligning with that study, Stockard and Lenman (2004) also explained teachers working in school where students have high socioeconomic backgrounds were more satisfied than teachers working in schools where students had low socioeconomic backgrounds. Findings in Mueller, Finley, Iverson, and Price (1999) offer additional insight about teacher job satisfaction, commitment and the student demographic of a school. Their study reported that White teachers, not Black, possessed great job dissatisfaction when in schools where their race is dominant.

School type may also influence teacher job satisfaction. Charter schools are often championed and commended as innovative and flexible institutions, lacking bureaucracy, empowering teachers, and building a sense of community (Finn, Manno, & Vanourek,

2001). Through these characteristics are ideal, many charter schools fail to embody all of these qualities. For instance, when examining the job satisfaction of teachers in charter schools, Corwin and Flaherty (1995) summarized findings of Southwest Regional Laboratory's (SWRL's) statewide survey of California charter schools. In their report, charter-school teachers, when compared to teachers in regular schools, reported great autonomy but heavier workloads. The report also indicated teachers in new charters were among the most satisfied with their jobs. In a different study, Miron, Nelson, and Risley (2002) also evaluated Pennsylvania's charter schools and charter school initiative. Their evaluation showed teachers were generally satisfied with their working conditions but possessed retention issues in that teachers left charter schools in high numbers.

Additional indicators of job satisfaction are collegiality between teachers and the administrative staff and administrative support (Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994). Collegiality is defined as a positive working relationship between colleagues (Huang, 2000). It is associated with job satisfaction and may influence teachers' intention to remain in the profession (Huang, 2000; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Studies have also shown a poor teacher-administration relationship and lack of administrative leadership cause teacher attrition (Anhorn, 2008; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). Furthermore, teachers with high job satisfaction experience high administrative support (Perie and Baker; 1997). Likewise, effective and supportive principals who reduce teachers' frustrations positively influence teacher job satisfaction (Blasé, 2001).

Student behavior can also impact teacher job satisfaction (Garrahy, Kulinna, & Cothran, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001). If student behavior is poor, it can significantly impede teaching and learning, thus making the job of a classroom teacher more difficult to

accomplish. Although negative student misbehavior may produce stress, burnout, and teacher turnover (Certo & Fox, 2002; Garrahy, et al., 2005), teacher-student interactions and relationships may positively influence teachers' intention to remain in the classroom (Brunetti, 2001). As presented in Shann's (1998) study, teacher-student relationship ranked highest in relation to job satisfaction, suggesting that working with students may influence retention. In this same study, teachers in low academic achieving schools had less job satisfaction than teachers in high performing schools. An additional factor influencing teacher job satisfaction is teacher autonomy. Teacher autonomy, control over school wide and classroom decisions, may influence teacher job satisfaction and retention (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012). In Bein, Anderson, and Maes' (1990) study, teachers with a greater sense of control were more satisfied with their work. When examining teacher autonomy, Pearson and Moomaw (2005) found there was little association between curriculum autonomy and job satisfaction, but teacher autonomy produced increases in teacher empowerment and professionalism. In a related study, Ingersoll (2007) asserted that teachers have little input in regards to content, pedagogy, course schedules, class sized, school funds, etc. They have minimal say on the policies that directly and indirectly affect their work environment. Of all the decision making areas, he found that teacher control over school and student behavior and discipline policies is most consequential, strongly impacting retention and turnover.

Overall, the literature suggests that teachers who have greater job satisfaction have administrative support (Bogler, 2001; Otto & Arnold, 2005; Petty, 2007), cooperation from their colleagues and administrators (Shen et al., 2012; Young, 2007), instructional resources (Leithwood & McAdie, 2007), parental support (Thornton, 2004),

professional autonomy (Ingersoll, 2003), positive student behavior and teacher-student relationships (Brunetti, 2006; Newberry & Davis, 2008), and are not overburden with nonteaching duties (Billingsley & Cross 1992; Perie & Baker, 1997).

Teacher Retention and Attrition

In a study conducted by Ingersoll and Conner (2009), teachers of color had greater job dissatisfaction and higher turnover than their white counterparts. Hancock and Scherff (2010) also noted that being a teacher of color was a significant predictor for teacher attrition. In examining factors associated with teacher retention and attrition, academic attainment and teacher preparation are impactful (Achinstein et al., 2010). Research indicates credentialed teachers were less likely to leave the teaching field than teachers without credentials (Borman & Dowling, 2008). In contrast, teachers with graduate degrees were more likely to leave the profession (Borman & Dowling, 2008). From this standpoint, level of academic attainment influences teachers' decisions once inside the classroom. Ingersoll (2011) argues in regards to the Black teacher shortage, the problem is not recruitment; rather, the problem is retention. He affirms over the past two decades, teachers of color have entered the teaching profession at a higher rate than White teachers. Unfortunately, they are not remaining in the profession.

Numerous factors influence teachers' of color decision to stay or leave the classroom. One contentious factor is teacher preparation, meaning whether teachers of color underwent a traditional teacher education program or an alternative route. Alternative teacher education programs sprouted throughout the country, responding to the projected teacher shortage of the 1980s (Madkins, 2011). Within the past two decades, alternative certification programs have enabled many teachers of color to enter

the teaching profession (Chin & Young, 2007). In fact, higher proportions of teachers of color than White teachers obtain an alternative certification (Villegas & Geist, 2008; Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). When first introduced, alternative teacher education programs were controversial as it opposed the traditional, comprehensive teacher preparation route (Dilworth, 2012). Facilitated through independent, non-profit organizations, school districts and universities, the number of alternative teacher education programs increased annually, meaning teachers with alternative certifications became more common within public schools.

Presently, more than 40% percent of new teachers entered the teaching profession through an alternative route (Ingersoll, Merrill, & May, 2012). While alternative teaching routes are beneficial in diversifying the teaching force, lack of sufficient preparation creates a revolving door dilemma. For instance, Zeichner and Schulte (2001) found teachers who participated in a traditional teacher education program were more likely to remain in teaching than those alternatively trained. This study is not suggesting that traditional education programs are better than alternative routes or that all alternative teacher programs are inadequate. Rather, what is implied is the amount of time devoted to teacher preparation varies in alternative teacher education programs and comprehensive training may be abbreviated in some alternative programs. Ingersoll et al. (2012) affirm and discuss the consequences of inadequate preparation through their analysis of the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and its supplement the 2004-2005 the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS):

Pedagogy was strongly related to teacher attrition. Beginning teachers who had taken more courses in teaching methods and strategies, learning theory or child

psychology, or materials selection were significantly less likely to depart. The amount of practice teaching they had undertaken, their opportunities to observe other teachers and the amount of feedback they had received on their teaching were also significantly related to whether new teachers remained in teaching. (p. 33)

As explained by the study above, preparation is vital to teacher retention. Under this rationale, adequately prepared teachers will have greater job satisfaction and will remain in the classroom longer than a teacher who is ill prepared. Considering the time needed to properly train new teachers, the decision to take a traditional or a nontraditional teacher education route may affect a teacher's level of preparation, which may produce grave implications for teacher retention.

Salary: Undermining teacher recruitment efforts are issues related to teacher retention and attrition. Until these issues are addressed and resolved, the percent of teachers of color will remain constant or decline. Teacher salary is often associated with reasons why teachers choose to leave the profession. Although Wilder's (1999) study focuses on African American college freshmen, it offers insight about youth's feelings toward a career in education. In her study these youth expressed how teacher salary deterred them from the classroom. Similarly, Ingersoll (1997, 2003) noted salary was one of many factors influencing teacher attrition. Wynn, Carboni, and Patall (2007) also reported beginning teachers often cited salary as a reason for leaving the teaching field. In addition, Ingersoll and Connor (2009) and Leukens et al. (2004) found teachers of color were more likely than Whites to leave schools to pursue a higher salary. In contrast, Inman and Marlow (2004) indicated in their study that salary influenced beginning

teachers to remain in the teaching profession. Opposing findings indicated in the former and latter studies may stem from difference in pay for new teachers and experienced teachers. Though teacher recruitment focuses on teacher pay, ensuring a competitive compensation package for new teacher, once teachers enter the classroom, salary is often minimized as an impactful factor in teacher attrition. The reason teacher salary is seen as more of a barrier in teacher recruitment than in teacher pay is because salary increases are often cited as ineffective in increasing teacher retention. For instance, teachers in Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin's (2004) study were unresponsive to slight increases in teacher pay. Addressing the issue of minor increases in teacher pay, Brill and McCartney (2008) suggest minor increases will produce minor result; rather, a substantial pay increase would reap greater result in teacher retention. As shown above, the literature presents opposing findings when examining teacher salary's influence on retention (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin's, 2004; Hughes, 2012). These contrasting results indicate further research is needed to obtain a conclusive answer.

Workload: Teacher workload has also proven to affect retention. The legislative mandates and initiatives that accompany NCLB have created an overwhelming environment of productivity (Brill & McCartney, 2008). This environment stems from the admirable yet impractical goal of 100% student proficiency in core subject areas by 2014. These accountability measures, though viewed as beneficial to student achievement, produces endless paperwork for teachers, reducing teacher job satisfaction. Teacher dissatisfaction and stress emerge from NCLB's contrasting goals and actions. Though NCLB has grand expectations regarding student performance, the acquirement of 100% student proficiency is poorly executed through the continual use of a 19th century

factory model school system in which students are cycled through teachers' classrooms (Gleibermann, 2007). This assembly line approach significantly increases teacher workload; placing great pressure on teachers to produce results with inadequate resources and insufficient time. Hughes (2012) found that reduced teacher workload may be effective in increasing retention. Likewise, Leukens, Lyter, and Fox (2004) reported manageability of workload is often cited among teachers when explaining reasons for teacher mobility. Unfortunately under the current school model, teachers are relocating or leaving the profession entirely due to excessive or heavy workload, which may directly or indirectly affect teacher morale and teacher retention (Kersaint, 2005).

School Location: Similar to workload, school location impacts retention rates among teachers. Research affirms location does matter (Achinstein et al., 2010). Ingersoll (2001) found "teachers in rural schools are less likely to have high turnover rates than are those in urban schools" (p. 518). Indeed, school location may affect whether teachers of color choose to stay or leave. For instance, high-need, urban schools with a large number of students of color replace a significant percent of their staff yearly (Ingersoll, 2001; Brill & McCartney, 2008). Although the demographics of these hard to-staff-schools influence teachers' of color decision to enter, the less than desirable conditions in high-poverty, urban schools also cause teachers of color to leave (Ingersoll & May, 2011). In high-poverty, urban public schools, teachers reported the following reasons for leaving: low salary, lack of administrative support, student discipline, poor student motivation and minimal influence over decision-making (Ingersoll, 2001).

School Conditions: An additional factor influencing retention is school conditions. Numerous school conditions (e.g., student behavior, resources, administrative

support, influence over decision-making, collegiality, etc.) can affect a teacher's resolve to remain or exit the classroom (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005). Ingersoll and Connor (2009) found teacher dissatisfaction with school conditions was linked to high teacher turnover among teachers of color. Teachers in this study reported poor school resources and facilities as contributing factors to turnover. Also related to school conditions, Achinstein et al. (2010) explain how power structures and relations can deter teachers from staying in the classroom. Power structures and relations are described as "norms that define the nature of social relations between organizational roles, including decision making and influencing the behavior of others" (Achinstein, et al., 2010, p. 80). The presence or lack of administrative support as well as faculty input into school decision-making falls under this category, revealing that schools with higher administrative support, where teachers are included in decision making typically have higher teacher retention rates (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001). The reverse is also true; the absence of these two types of school conditions produces greater teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 1999, 2001), suggesting teachers need environments where they are supported and treated as professionals. Affirming this finding, teachers in Wynn, Carboni, and Patall's (2007) study transferred schools in order to gain access to a school environment in which "they could feel like professionals—sharing ideas and resources with colleagues and receiving respect and guidance from the principal" (p. 212). Furthermore, collegiality between teachers and administrators fosters great job satisfaction and a willingness to remain in the profession (Brunetti, 2001; Woods & Weasmer, 2000).

Positive and negative interactions with students can impact teachers' intention to remain in the classroom. Shen et al. (2012) cited student behavior as "the degree in which misbehavior of students interferes with instruction of teachers" (p. 210). Haberman (2005) discusses student behavior and lack of motivation caused teacher stress and burnout. In Wynn et al. (2007) study, teachers offered student behavior as a reason for considering leaving the teaching field. Such studies indicate that misbehavior among students can influence teacher attrition (Brill & McCartney, 2008). In examining teacher attrition, the socioeconomic status of the school and students behavior must be considered in isolation because no statistically significant data exist proving an association. In addition, one should not assume that the socio-economic status of students influences their behavior. Regardless of low, middle, or upper-class status, all students have the potential to misbehave.

Autonomy: Lastly, teacher autonomy significantly impacts teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2001). Prior to NCLB, teachers had greater discretion regarding the implementation of curriculum and instruction within their classroom. The enactment of NCLB accountability mandates and schools' desire to meet 100% student proficiency on high-stakes standardized tests produced teacher-proof curricula, which demoralized and stripped a substantial amount of control from the hands of many educators (Smith & Kovacs, 2011). When commenting on the implications of NCLB legislation, Lipman (2004) argued high-stakes standardized tests do not afford teachers the ability to develop and implement teacher-produced lesson plans; instead, classroom instruction is regimented, void of rigorous, inquiry-based instruction. Supporting this claim, Ryan (2004) also asserts that decreased autonomy directly correlates with teacher attrition. In

this environment of decreased autonomy, duties and tasks that affirm the professionalism of teachers are removed; teachers are deskilled, forced to teach rigid content matter that ensure student mastery on multiple-choice standardized tests.

In Soder's (2004) study, 200 pre-service teachers identified teaching as an autonomous profession, expressing their expectation of independence and autonomy once inside the classroom. Unfortunately, for better and worse, the teaching field and a teacher's role has drastically changed since the development of universal public schooling. These changes, one being autonomy, have influenced the retention rates of teachers of color. For instance, when examining reasons why the retention rate of teachers of color is low, Ingersoll and May (2011) found that the one of the strongest factors for teacher turnover was "the degree of individual instructional autonomy held by teachers in the classroom" (p. 64). Additionally, Ingersoll and Connor (2009) reported how low levels of teacher classroom autonomy influenced teacher attrition rates. The impactful nature of autonomy is also noted in Renzulli, Parrott, and Beattie's (2011) study, which reported that charter school teachers had greater job satisfaction than public school teachers because of classroom autonomy. As described by these studies, the literature explains how teacher autonomy and numerous other factors affect teacher retention. Individually and collectively, these factors impact teachers' decision to remain in the classroom; each factor contributes to this decision but each is weighed differently. It is the goal of this study to determine to what degree each factor influences job satisfaction and retention.

Summary

The literature review provides an overview of the past and present studies that have been conducted in the area of teacher retention, focusing primarily on teachers of color and specifically Black teachers. In conducting this study, it is imperative to possess a knowledge base concerning the experiences of Black educators in the American public school system. Furthermore, a review of the literature is pertinent in order to determine which factors contribute to attrition among Black female teachers and how these factors impact Black female teachers' intention to remain in the classroom. It is within these previous works that this research study hopes to advance existing literature, aligning or building on current data by empirically examining the essence of the lived experiences of Black female teachers and a national dataset. Using Black feminist thought, the unique interlocking experiences of gender and race give voice to Black female teachers' job satisfaction and retention. With a teaching force that is largely White and female, BFT frames the quantitative and qualitative research methods conducted in this study, placing Black women at the center of analysis and affirming their "different" experiences within the public education system. Notably, this study, from a Black feminist perspective, will reposition empirical data on teacher job satisfaction and retention, examining the issue of retention not solely from a White or female viewpoint but from a position of intercepting oppressions.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Chapter Three outlines the methods used to complete this research study. It includes a description of the research design, which offers a brief overview of mixed methods research (i.e., exploratory sequential design: taxonomy developmental model) and rationale for its use as it pertains to this study. Phase I of the methodology focuses on the qualitative portion of the study. It provides an explanation of transcendental phenomenology and rationale for the use of phenomenological research method. The qualitative research section contains an explanation of the setting and participants, data collection, data analysis, risks and benefits of the research, ethical consideration and confidentiality and trustworthiness of the study. Phase II of the methodology describes the quantitative aspect of the study. A description of the data source, the National Center of Education Statistics' 2007-2008 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), used in this study is presented first. Following an explanation of the data source, an overview of the sample, data analysis, and limitations are also provided.

The qualitative piece of this study, which utilized transcendental phenomenology, was directed by the following research questions:

- 1) How do in-service Black female teachers describe their job satisfaction?
- 2) How does job satisfaction influence in-service Black female teachers' intention to stay in the K-12 classroom?

In addition, hierarchical multiple regression was used to examine Black female teachers' job satisfaction. The research question below guides the quantitative portion of the study:

- 3) What factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, student behavior, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction?

Research Design

Mixed Methods Research

A mixed methods research combines both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Qualitative and quantitative inquiries are types of systematic and credible research methods (Patten, 2010). Qualitative research is “the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehension narrative and visual (i.e., non-numerical) data to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest” (Gay et al., 2009, p. 7). In contrast, quantitative research is “the collection and analysis of numerical data to describe, explain, predict, or control phenomena of interest” (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009, p. 7). Dependent on the research question(s), a mixed methods approach is undertaken to obtain a greater understanding of the phenomenon, which cannot be fully gasped by using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone. The dual presence of both research methods in one study offers a more holistic answer to the research questions.

In gaining statistical information and narrative descriptions about in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to stay in the classroom, an exploratory sequential mixed methods design (Qual-quant), was deemed appropriate for the purposes of this study. In this exploratory sequential design: taxonomy development model, qualitative data leads the study while quantitative data acts as supportive, secondary data, explaining or expanding qualitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Both

qualitative and quantitative methodologies were necessary for the examination of this educational research study because they addressed different aspects of the study.

Qualitative methodology is appropriate for research questions that explore how people make meaning in their lives (Creswell, 2013). Whereas, quantitative research design allows for the control of factors in order to determine one or more predictors of an observed phenomenon (Coladarci, Cobb, Minium, & Clarke, 2011). In this study, qualitative methodology set a foundation, offering a narrative and a descriptive component to statistical data.

In order to address the research questions, this study specifically employed transcendental phenomenology and hierarchical multiple regression. Using the taxonomy developmental model, qualitative data collection and analysis was performed in phase one of the design, identifying important variables. In phase two, quantitative research followed the results of the first quantitative phase, testing the results in more detail. Quantitative data was needed to expand qualitative data findings (Creswell, & Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative and qualitative data were weighed unequally, with qualitative data holding more weight. The advantage of a QUAL-quan model is that both methods complement each other. To this end, the validity of qualitative findings is substantiated by quantitative results.



FIGURE 1: Exploratory design

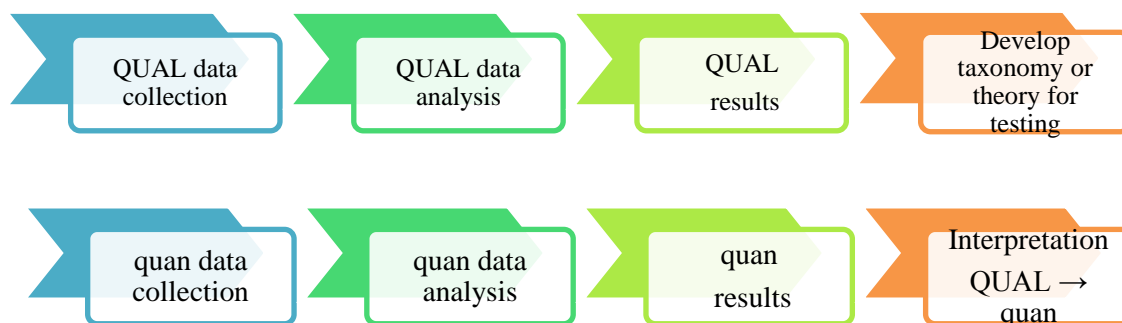


FIGURE 2: Exploratory design: Taxonomy development model (QUAL emphasized)

Phase I

Transcendental Phenomenology

Phenomenology is appropriate for the qualitative portion of this inquiry due to the nature of the research questions and the overall aim of the study. As a methodological approach, phenomenology explores the lived experiences of individuals, and its goal is to gain a deeper understanding of the essence of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). It investigates the “essential meanings of individual experience” (Patton, 2002, p. 104) and seeks to describe rather than explain the phenomenon in question. The sole purpose of phenomenology alone makes it well suited to examine the lived experiences of in-service Black female teachers’ job satisfaction and intention to stay in the K-12 classroom.

Although remnants of phenomenology are present in the writings of Kant, Hegel, and Brentano, German mathematician Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) is noted most for his contributions in the development of phenomenology. In fact it is well recognized that the history of phenomenology began in the philosophical discussions of Husserl’s works. Originally known as a philosophical method, phenomenology has since transformed as numerous scholars, such as Heidegger, Sartre, and Merleau-Ponty, have added their unique perspectives and method of analysis. For instance, phenomenology can be

referred to as a philosophy (Husserl, 1967), a sociological perspective (Schutz, 1967), an inquiry paradigm (Lincoln, 1990), an interpretive theory (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000), and much more. Although these numerous interpretations are valid, for the purpose of this study Husserl's analysis is primarily considered because he is often considered the father of phenomenology. Employing Husserl's analysis, it should be noted that "Husserl's phenomenology is a Transcendental Phenomenology" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 45). Husserl used these two terms interchangeably, meaning they are synonymous with one another.

Phenomenology, also known as transcendental phenomenology, was derived from the contention around a philosophy of science that initially placed value solely on material things, not on the experiences of people who interacted with the material world through their conscious. As greater value was placed on individual experiences, the need for phenomenology became more apparent, moving beyond the object world and validating each person's unique experience. Husserl's (1975) belief in the consciousness and how experiences can act as teacher are exemplified in the statement below:

For me the world is nothing other than what I am aware of and what appears valid in my cognition...I cannot live, experience, think, value, and act in any world which is not in some sense in me, and derives its meaning and truth from me. (p. 8)

As illustrated by Husserl's statement, phenomenology is interested in the essence of experiences, the fundamental meaning of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). As a research method, phenomenology uses in-depth, explorative interviews in order to gain a deep understanding of participants' perceptions of reality and the nature or meaning of their everyday lives (Patton, 2002). Phenomenology contends that through conscious

awareness, we can only know what we experience (Husserl, 1913). In interpreting and making meaning of the world through subjective experiences, an objective reality is deconstructed. To this end, Van Manen (1990) asserts phenomenology does not focus on the details of a phenomenon: location, frequency, etc. Rather, the true or underlying meaning of experiences is given priority.

Drawn from a constructionist viewpoint, phenomenology calls researchers to engage in reduction, returning to original awareness. Reduction can only be achieved through bracketing, discarding preconceived notions and past experiences (Husserl, 1982). With the challenge of seeing with fresh eyes by temporarily bracketing one's familiar meaning system, one must activate the epoche:

A matter of suspending ingenuous assumptions about the phenomenon under inquiry, and so of exhibiting a self-reflective stance that allows the phenomenologist to recognize, and to make explicit, his/her prejudiced assumptions in order to gain access to an eidetic knowledge of the phenomenon.

(Mortari & Tarozzi, 2010, p. 32-33)

Transcendental phenomenology also highlights subjectivity, the essence of a phenomenon and offers a methodology for reconsidering knowledge. Transcendental phenomenology positions the object world through a subjective consciousness and validates discovery through the perception and reflection of it in one's consciousness. In addition, the intentionality of consciousness is another element of phenomenology, which "bespeaks the relationship between us as human beings and our world" (Crotty, 1998, p. 79). Essentially, intentionality shows the relationship between the conscious and the object. The conscious is directed or reaches out to the object, giving it meaning (Crotty, 1998).

The different elements of phenomenology present a method beginning with the lived individual experiences of participants but ending with the essence of a phenomenon.

Phenomenology is often used in the field of education. Researchers have used this particular methodology to explore real-world educational issues. For instance, Harts and Garza (2013) used a phenomenological methodology to explore the lived experiences of teachers who experienced the unanticipated death of a student. In studying the phenomenon of grief and loss among teachers who have lost a student, four prominent themes emerged from this study: 1) releasing feelings, 2) resources, 3) lost academic time and redirection, and 4) honoring the memory. The study's findings affirm the need for additional resources and training to better equip school personnel in dealing with the death of a student.

Kennedy, Cavanaugh, and Dawson (2013) also used a phenomenological approach to examine the experiences of three pre-service teachers who voluntarily participated in a field placement in a virtual school. The essence of this phenomenon was extracted through in-depth interviews. The interviews were later transcribed and analyzed using phenomenological analysis. Six overarching themes derived from the analysis: 1) communication with supervising teachers, 2) information systems at the virtual school, 3) modification of course content, 4) exposure to new technologies, 5) balancing act, and 6) unmet expectations. The results of this study inform numerous areas such as teacher education, virtual schools, educational policy, etc.

Much like phenomenology was appropriate for the studies listed above; it is adequately applied to this present study and was used to investigate two of the three research questions which guide this research study.

- 1) How do in-service Black female teachers describe their job satisfaction?
- 2) How does job satisfaction influence in-service Black female teachers' intention to stay in the K-12 classroom?

Setting and Participants

The study took place in the southeastern part of the United States. Although the study used purposive sampling, snowball sampling was also used to select participants. From the researcher's contacts, a few Black female teachers were initially solicited for this study. Using their contacts and close association with other Black female educators and faculty members from surrounding school districts, fitting the selected criteria, additional in-service Black female teachers were requested as participants in the study. The specific criteria for this study is as followed: Black, female, and in-service teacher. Teachers who went through an alternative certification program and those who matriculated through a traditional teacher education program at a 4 year university either during their undergraduate or graduate education were also solicited. Pseudonyms were used for all participating teachers. Table 1 provides information about the twelve Black female participants.

TABLE 1: Black female teachers' teaching information

Participants	Grade Ban	Subject	Years of Experience	Certification	Intend to Remain
Ashley	9-12 th	Biology (Inclusion class)	3 Year	Traditional Master-Cert	Yes
Tracy	9-12	Elective-Career Technical Education (CTE*) Business Education	9 Years	Alternative	No-High Education
Carson	12 th	English Language Arts	3 Years	Traditional Master-Cert	No-High Education
Ebony	11 th & 12 th	Elective-Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID*)	14 Years	Alternative	No-New Profession
Shana	8 th	English Language Arts	2 Years	Alternative	No-Start charter school
Grace	8 th	English Language Arts	2 Years	Alternative	No-Law School
Tanya	7 th -Charter School	English Language Arts	8 Years	Alternative	No-Support Faculty
Jennifer	7 th -Charter School	English Language Arts	3 Years	Alternative	No-Start new school
Erica	Kindergarten		3 Years	Traditional	Yes
Stephany	5 th		10 Years	Traditional	No- Support Staff
Rachel	K-5	Special Education	7 Years	Alternative	No-Start new school
Janice	3 rd		14 Years -in the classroom 36 Years -in education	Traditional	No- New Profession

*AVID, Advancement via Individual Determination, is a college readiness system for elementary through higher education that is designed to increase school wide learning and performance

* CTE, Career Technical Education is an elective course that offers a complete range of career options for students, helping them discover their interests and the educational pathway that can lead to success in high school, college and their chosen career/profession.

Data Collection

Before interviews were conducted, all participants read and signed an informal consent form. During data collection, participants participated in an open-ended, semi-structured, audio-recorded interview (later transcribed), which roughly lasted 60-90 minutes. The interviews were conducted in varying spaces, ranging from school classroom to campus conference rooms to different community coffee shops. These different sites were chosen in order to accommodate the schedules of all participants.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using a constant comparative coding method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Specifically open and axial coding was applied when reading transcripts (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In open coding, the data were thoroughly coded, constructing as many codes as possible (Glaser, 1978). Axial coding is “a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, making connections between categories” and relating categories to subcategories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96).

Throughout this process, data was constantly compared with data, data with codes, and codes with codes. To this end, patterns emerge; categories were formed from codes and themes from categories. Quality of data analysis was ensured by the researcher. Before critically analyzing and interpreting the data, the researcher read the transcriptions in their entirety, acknowledging and rejecting all preconceived ideas and biases.

Risks and Benefits of the Research

This study poses minimal risk to informants. Some risk may come in the form of the emotions that may be connected to the stories told about their life experiences particularly if there is some form of negativity connected to a particular experience. Due to the deeply personal nature of the research study, participants may experience some emotional distress. Participants were referred to counseling service at their own cost if the researcher deemed it necessary. Informants had the right to decline any question and could withdraw from participating if they felt uncomfortable at any time. Great attention was paid to social cues and participants' body language so as to minimize risk factors.

This study provided a means by which in-service Black female teachers could share their lived educational experiences in the K-12 classroom, as an underrepresented

subgroup within the field of education. Their voices have the potential to contribute greatly to recruitment and retention policies and teacher education programs. This work is equally significant as it provides a platform to candidly recount and discuss the unique experiences and perspectives that exist, concerning Black female teachers' experiences in the classroom. Likewise, this study potentially benefitted the informants, because they had the opportunity to reflect on their experiences and also share their stories in a safe space.

Ethical Consideration and Confidentiality

When working with participants in a research study, ethics was of high priority. Considering ethics, confidentiality was the upmost goal of this study. Participants were given anonymity and their personal stories and experiences were confidential. The following steps were taken to ensure confidentiality: Individual interviews were transcribed and de-identified; data were referred to by coded identifiers. Data were stored on a secure, password protected laptop computer and will be destroyed 5 years post study. At any point in the study, if participants wished to withdraw, they were permitted. Accessibility of the data was limited to the researcher and the researchers' committee members. All findings related to the study were shared with researcher's dissertation committee for cross validation of interpretation.

Trustworthiness of the Study

In the present study member checking was used in order to guarantee accurate representation of participants' views. In addition, in order to increase the study's validity a pilot study was conducted with four participants. Interview questions from the pilot study were reviewed by pilot participants and fellow research colleagues to ensure clarity

of questions. The pilot study examined the K-12 and collegiate experiences of Black female teachers that influenced their decision to enter the teaching profession. Six major themes emerged from data collected from the pilot study: 1) effective and/or ineffective teachers shaped Black females' ideas of classroom teachers; 2) positive and negative student-teaching experiences offered real world classroom scenarios; 3) Black female in-service teachers selected teaching as a career path because it was a safe, practical route; 4) financial limitations in salary were present but did not thwart Black females from becoming classroom teachers; 5) the absence or presence of institutional support affected Black females entry into the classroom; and 6) a shared love of school, working with kids, and teaching influenced Black females' path. These findings informed the present study, offering insight into teacher retention.

Limitations

In the qualitative portion of the study, twelve Black female teachers participated in the study. Due to this small sample size, the words and experiences of the participants cannot represent all Black female in-service teachers. Generalizability was limited to those involved in the study. Further, this study only addressed in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to stay in the K-12 and does not include the experiences of teachers from other races and genders.

Delimitations

Narrowing the scope of research, the study has a few delimitations. Black female participants were selected from school districts in one Southeastern state. In addition, only in-service teachers were used in this study.

Assumptions

The study was conducted with the following foundational assumptions: 1) the solicited sample consisted of willing participants, offering honest and candid responses on the survey instrument and interview protocol. Also, participants were a representative sample of the population of in-service Black female teachers.

Phase II

Data Source

The data analyzed in this study comes from the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) 2007-2008 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). Conducted by the Department of Education, SASS uses a cross-sectional research study design to capture teacher and school-wide characteristics in private, public school and public charter school settings (Tourkin, Thomas, Swaim, Cox, Parmer, Jackson, Cole, & Zhang, 2010). As the largest and most comprehensive dataset on the staffing and organization of elementary and secondary schools in the nation, survey questions are administered to a stratified sample of nationally representative teachers and principals.

The 2007-08 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) primarily used a mail-based methodology for questionnaires. Telephone and field follow-up also were conducted. Data collection operations for districts and schools were conducted independently of one another. School data collection included: the Teacher Listing Form; Principal Questionnaire or Private School Principal Questionnaire; School Questionnaire, Private School Questionnaire, or Public School Questionnaire; School Library Media Center Questionnaire; and Teacher Questionnaire or Private School Teacher Questionnaire.

The 2007-2008 Schools and Staffing Survey data have restricted-use privileges exclusively (Graham, Parmer, Chambers, Tourkin, & Lyter, 2011; Tourkin, et al., 2010). In order to obtain a copy of the data from the National Center for Educational Statistics, a license was obtained from the federal Department of Education. This license permitted the researcher and members of her committee (Dr. Paul Fitchett and Dr. Chance Lewis, UNC-Charlotte) to access the data in a secured location. In addition, only the researcher and the specified committee members have the authorization to conduct any statistical analysis with the dataset.

Instrument

This present study used data extracted from the Teacher Questionnaire (SASS-4A) and the Public School Questionnaire (SASS-3A). A description of the components of each survey is presented below. The 2007-2008 Teacher Questionnaire is composed of nine separate sections:

1. General Information obtained general information about teaching status, teaching experience, and other professional experiences.
2. Class Organization obtained information about class enrollments, students with an Individualized Education Program, students of limited-English proficiency, organization of classes, subjects taught, and class size.
3. Educational Background collected information on academic degrees, teacher assessments, and teacher preparation programs.
4. Certification and Training obtained information on types of teaching certification held by the teacher, content area, and grades covered by the certification. For new

teachers, information was collected on attitudes toward their preparation for teaching, participation in an induction program, and mentoring.

5. Professional Development collected information about professional development activities and their impact.
6. Working Conditions obtained information about hours worked, money spent on classroom supplies without reimbursement, and methods used to communicate with parents or students outside of the regular school day.
7. School Climate and Teacher Attitudes obtained attitudinal information on teacher influence on planning and teaching, collaboration between teachers, satisfaction with teaching, student problems, and school safety.
8. General Employment and Background Information obtained information about teacher salary, supplemental income, union affiliation, gender, age, and race/ethnicity.
9. Contact Information requested that respondents provide personal contact information as well as contact information for two additional people who would be able to reach them in the event that they relocated before the mailing of the Teacher Follow-Up Survey. This information was necessary for the Teacher Follow-Up Survey that was administered the following year.

The 2008-09 Public School Questionnaire contains the following six sections:

1. General Information about This School obtained information about grade range, migrant students, length of the school day and school year, race/ethnicity of students, school type, attendance, enrollment, and websites.

2. Admissions and Programs collected information on requirements for admission and school programs offered.
3. Students and Class Organization collected information about class and calendar organization, career preparation, and graduation rates.
4. Staffing obtained information about the number of full- and part-time staff, race/ethnicity of teachers, specialist and coaching assignments, substitute teachers, level of difficulty involved in filling teacher vacancies, and newly hired teachers.
5. Special Programs, Services, and Performance obtained information about students with Individual Education Plans, services for limited-English-proficient students and parents, the National School Lunch Program, and Title I services.
6. Charter School Information collected information from public charter.

SASS Sampling

The 2007-08 School and Staffing Survey sampling frame is developed from the 2005-06 Common Core of Data (CCD) file. This particular dataset, collected annually by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) from each state education agency, possesses information for 102,950 schools. SASS schools are defined as an institution or part of an institution that: 1) provides classroom instruction, 2) has one or more teachers, 3) serves students in one or more grades 1-12, and 4) is located in one or more buildings. The adding, deleting, and collapsing of school records left the SASS school sampling frame with 90,410 traditional public, 3,850 public charter, and 180 Bureau of Indian Affairs funded schools. The schools sample was a stratified probability proportionate to size (PPS) sample. SASS' complex sampling procedure causes unequal probability of

selection, which requires the use of weights for estimation (final weights) and calculation of standard errors (replicate weights). For the purposes of this study, an inverse-probability equation will be used to weigh teachers. Weighting prevents biased, overrepresented cases, presenting Black female teachers' correct proportion within the population. Weight adjustments will be used to proportionally represent participants and are based on participants' proportions within the population.

When selecting teachers, sampled schools provided field representatives a roster including information on teachers' teaching assignments. Teachers within school were stratified into the following groups: 1) new teachers expected to stay at their current school; 2) mid-career and highly experienced teachers expected to stay at their current school; 3) new teachers expected to leave their current school; 4) mid-career teachers expected to leave their current school; or 5) highly experienced teachers expected to leave their current school.

The teacher sample size was chosen to equalize the teacher weights within a school stratum. The school sample was selected proportional to the square root of the number of teachers in the school. An equally-weighted teacher sample within a school stratum was obtained by selecting t_i (number of teachers in a school).

As followed: $t_i = W_i * T_i(C/Y)$

Where:

W_i is the school weight for school i (the inverse of the school selection probability).

T_i is the number of teachers in school i , as reported on the Teacher Listing Form.

C is the average teacher cluster size in the frame/grade level category

Y is the simple average of the school's base-weighted number of teachers over all schools in the school stratum.

Teachers were allocated to the strata, A through E , in the following manner.

$$t_{ij} = \frac{t_i * T_{ij} * K_j}{\sum_{j=A}^e T_{ij} * K_j}$$

Where:

K_j is the oversampling factor for the particular teacher stratum, j .

T_{ij} is the number of teachers from stratum j in school i .

t_{ij} is the number of sample teachers selected from school i and stratum j .

Within each teacher stratum in each school, teachers were selected systematically with equal probability, resulting in the selection of 56, 580 school teachers of which 48, 350 were public school teachers.

Sample Characteristics

Teachers who responded to the SASS Teacher Questionnaire administered by the NCES in 2007-2008 were included in his analysis ($N = 128,532$, weighted and $N = 970$, un-weighted). The sample was restricted to in-service and former in-service, full-time, female teachers who identified as Black, non-Hispanic. In addition, only public school teachers will be used in this study.

Data Analysis

The first half of the study employed a cross-sectional survey research design, utilizing hierarchical multiple regression (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

Descriptive statistics were also examined in this portion of the study. In a multiple regression analysis, the researcher assesses the relationship between one dependent

variable and several independent variables. When conducting a hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the researcher determines the order that the independent variables were entered into the equation, identifying the variability that is unique to each predictor variable entered into the model. The order of variables in this study was based on theory and influenced the study's outcome. The focus was on the change in predictability, which was based on the contribution that the later predictor variable made over and above the variables entered earlier in the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Variable Selection

Utilizing the 2007-2008 SASS dataset, descriptive statistics of race, gender, age, years of experience, academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification, charter, urbanicity, and grade ban are presented in Table 2 to identify the national characteristics of Black female teachers. Years of experience and licensure were recoded. All categorical variables such as licensure, urbanicity, alternative certification, national board certification, academic degree, charter, and grade ban were re-coded as dummy variables. The variable licensure was recoded and dummy coded with "not certified" serving as the reference variable. Urbanicity, which included city, suburban, and rural, was recoded with "suburban" being the reference variable. The years of experience variable was recoded and dummy coded, using "21-25", as the reference group. The academic degree variable of degrees obtained (Masters) was dummy coded with "no Masters" as the reference variables. For the alternative certification variable "no alternative certification" served as the referential and for the national board certification variable, "no NBC" served as the referential variable. Likewise, for the charter variable,

“no charter” served as the referential variable. As mentioned, dummy codes were also created for grade ban with “primary” serving as the reference variable.

A single level analysis was conducted and deemed appropriate because the sample size at the school level (i.e., nesting within schools) was small. Since the between school variance was not substantial, a random selection of one Black female teacher per school was performed. As stated, informed by qualitative data findings in phase I, hierarchical multiple regression was employed to examine Black female teachers’ job satisfaction. Data was screened for accuracy of data entry, presence of univariate and multivariate outliers, missing values, and normality of distribution before the major analysis. All other assumptions related to regression analysis were also addressed. Once the data was conditioned, selected data from SASS was placed into AM, a statistical software package for large scale assessments. The dependent variable associated with the hierarchical multiple regression was a construct of job satisfaction. It was created using composite variables of teacher job satisfaction, based on items selected from the Teacher Questionnaire.

Previous researchers utilized regression analysis to determine the effects of teacher characteristics and perceptions on teacher retention (e.g., Hancock, & Scherff, 2010; Ingersoll, 2001; Perrachione, Petersen, & Rosser, 2008). Replicating Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, and Ma (2012) analysis, a hierarchical multiple regression was used in this present study to analyze Black female teachers’ job satisfaction. The independent variable constructs that were replicated in this study from the Shen et al (2012) study are: 1) job satisfaction, 2) administrative support, 3) student behavior, 4) teacher control, and 5) collegiality between principal and faculty. The independent variables, which were

entered into the model, are academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification, years of experience, percent of minority students, urbanicity, percent of students approved for free or reduced lunch, charter school, teacher autonomy, administrative support, student behavior, collegiality between principal and faculty, and commitment to teaching. Some of the independent “variables were based on single items, some were composites created by NCES (ready-made in the SASS database), and some were composite created in the present study based on the operationalization of the relevant constructs” (Shen et al, 2012, p. 213-214). Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency measures were used to estimate the reliability of all composite variables.

Guided by theory and empirical research, the independent variables were entered into the regression equation in a specific order to test a priori hypothesis. The priori hypothesis posits that school related conditions (step 3) will significantly influence job satisfaction. After statistically controlling for the influences of demographic variables (age and grade ban), selected independent variables were entered as distinct blocks in a three step process. In Step 1 of the regression equation, academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification, and years of experience were entered as a block. In Step 2 of the analysis, percent of minority students, urbanicity, percent of students approved for free or reduced lunch, and charter school were entered as a block. Finally, in Step 3 teacher autonomy, administrative support, student behavior, collegiality between principal and faculty, and commitment to teaching were entered.

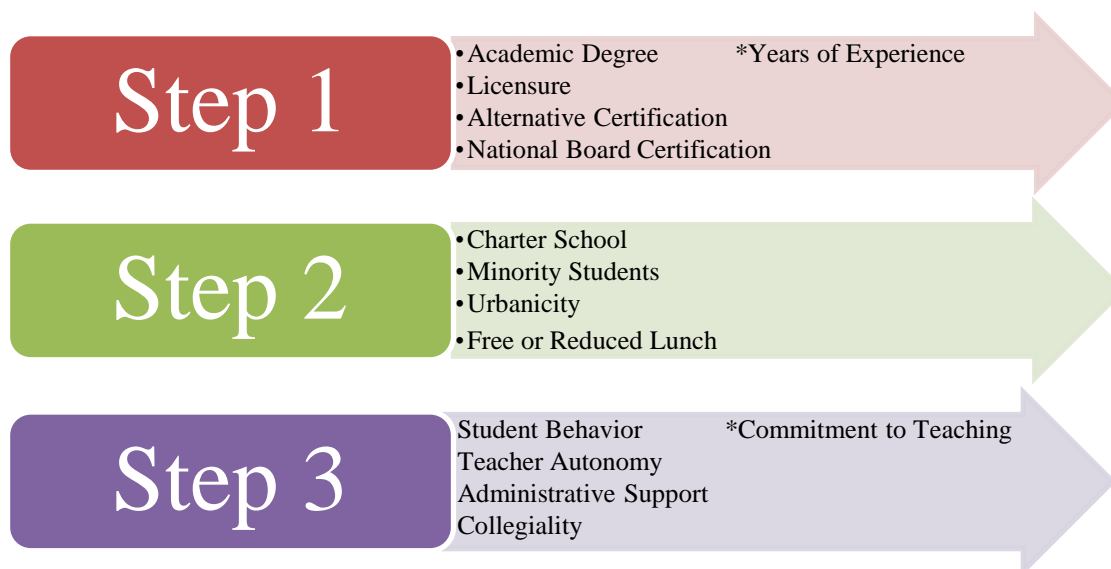


FIGURE 3: Independent variables

Descriptive Statistics

After applying estimation and replicate weights, the data indicated a national representation of Black female teachers. Un-weighted, the sample consisted of 970 Black female teachers; weighted the sample increased to 128,532 Black female teachers. Frequencies and percentages of the demographic variables in this study are reported in Table 2. Demographic data shows that 128,111 (99.7%, weighted) have bachelor's degrees and 64,810 (50.4%, weighted) have Master's degrees. Of the Black female teachers, 814 (83.9%, weighted) are certified; 115 (11.9%, weighted) have a lateral entry certification, and 41 (4.2%) are not certified. More specifically, 29,651 (23.1%, weighted) of Black female teachers possess an alternative certification, and 13,458 (10.5%, weighted) have a national board certification.

When examining the type of school setting, 4,496 (3.5%, weighted) Black female teachers work in charter schools. Within these public schools, 56,634 (44.1%, weighted) work in cities; 55,823 (43.4%, weighted) work in the suburbs; and 16,075 (12.5%,

weighted) work in rural areas. Black female teachers are also stratified among grade levels. 59,399 (46.2%, weighted) Black female teachers are in primary school; 37,152 (28.9%, weighted) are in middle school; 27,334 (21.3%, weighted) are in high school; and 4,646 (3.6%, weighted) in combined schools. The age and birth year of Black female teachers is also significant. The average age of Black female teachers is forty-nine. In regards to years of experiences as classroom teachers, the average year is twelve.

TABLE 2: Weighted Frequency and percent of Black female teachers by demographic characteristics

Demographics	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	128,111	99.7
Master's Degree	64,810	50.4
Licensure		
Certified	814	83.9
Lateral	115	11.9
Not Certified	41	4.2
ALTCERT	29,651	23.1
National Board	13,458	10.5
Charter School	4,496	3.5
URBANS8		
City	56,634	44.1
Suburban	55,823	43.4
Rural	16,075	12.5
SCHLEVE2		
Primary	59,399	46.2
Middle	37,152	28.9
High	27,334	21.3
Combined	4,646	3.6
	Mean	SD
Birth Year	1964 (49*)	11.187
Years of Teaching	12.53	10.131

*Age

Note. ($N = 128,532$)² weighted; ($N = 970$) un-weighted

² All un-weighted sample sizes were rounded to the nearest ten because of NCES disclosure procedure.

Reliability of Variables

This section provides information regarding the reliability of variables selected from SASS' Teacher Questionnaire and School Questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency measures were used to estimate the reliability of all composite variables. The means and standard deviations are provided for continuous variables, while percentages are provided for categorical variables. The cronbach's reliability estimates for teacher job satisfaction, teacher autonomy, administrative support, student behavior and collegiality between principals and faculty are presented in Table 3, along with other selected variables and their descriptive statistics. Teacher perception measurements of job satisfaction, administrative support and collegiality between principal and faculty were scaled using a 4 point Likert-type scale: 1-Strongly Agree, 2-Agree, 3-Disagree, 4-Strongly Disagree. Some of the items under teacher job satisfaction, administrative support, and collegiality between principal and faculty were recoded so that a higher number indicated a more positive response. The cronbach's reliability estimates for teacher job satisfaction yielded an alpha of .83. This composite variable had a mean score of 3.05 ($SD = .64$). Administrative support presented an alpha of .70 and a mean score of 3.16 ($SD = .67$). Lastly, collegiality between principal and faculty produced an alpha of .84 and a mean of 3.19 ($SD = .62$).

Measurements of teacher autonomy (control) used a 4 point Likert-type scale: 1-No Control, 2-Minor Control, 3-Moderate Control, 4- A Great Deal of Control. Teacher autonomy had an alpha of .70 and a mean of 3.23 ($SD = .54$). Likewise, measurements of student behavior also used a 4 point Likert-type scale: 1-Serious Problem, 2-Moderate

Problem, 3-Minor Problem, 4-Not a Problem. Student behavior yielded an alpha of .83 and a mean score of 2.60 ($SD = .74$).

TABLE 3: Selected variables and measures and their descriptive statistics

Variables	Representation	Coding	Statistics
Composite Variables (TQ)			
TJS	Teacher Job Satisfaction	Mean of the following items: 55q, 57a, 57b, 57c, 57d, 57e, 57f, and 57g Cronbach's alpha = .83	$M = 3.05, SD = .64$
TPCC	Teacher perception of classroom control	School mean value of items 54a, 54b, 54c, 54d, 54e, and 54f, 54e, and 54f Cronbach's alpha = .70	$M = 3.23, SD = .54$
AS	Teacher perception of administrative support	School mean value of items 55a, 55g, 55l, and 55o Cronbach's alpha = .79	$M = 3.16, SD = .67$
SB	Teachers perception of student behavior	School mean value of items 56a, 56b, 56c, 56e, 56f, and 56i Cronbach's alpha = .83	$M = 2.60, SD = .74$
CPS	Teachers perception of collegiality between principal and faculty	School mean value of items 55h, 55i, 55j, and 55k Cronbach's alpha = .84	$M = 3.19, SD = .62$
Controlled variables			
BY	Birth Year (TQ 71)	Continuous	$M = 1964, SD = 11.9$
SCHLEVE2	Teaching level (by NCES)	1 = Primary 2 = Middle 3 = High 4 = Combined	46.2% 28.9% 21.3% 3.6%
Predictor variables			
TE	Years of Teaching (TQ 10a)	0-5 years = 1 6-10 = 2 11-15 = 3 12-20 = 4 21-25 = 5 26 or more = 6	$M = 12.91, SD = 10.9$

MAST	Master's Degree (TQ 25a)	Yes = 1 No = 0	51% 48%
LICE	Licensure (TQ 33a)	Certified = 1 Lateral = 2 Not Certified = 3	83.9% 11.9% 4.2%
ALTCERT	Alternative Certification (TQ 31)	Yes = 1 No = 0	24.6% 75.4%
NBC	National Board Certification (TQ 32a)	Yes = 1 No = 0	18.5% 81.5%
URBANS8	Urbanicity (by NCES)	City = 1 Suburban = 2 Rural = 3	44.1% 37.6% 18.2%
CT	Charter (SQ 47a)	Yes = 1 No = 0	6% 89.6%
NSLAPP_S	Percent of students approved for free or reduced lunch (by NCES)	Continuous	$M = 57.5, SD = 28.3$
MINENR	Percent of students in school who are of a racial/ethnic minority (by NCES)	Continuous	$M = 71.99, SD = 28.7$
TRO	Turnover (TQ 58b)	1 = intention to stay 0 = intention to leave	$M = .91, SD = .29$

Note. Variable development modeled after Shen, et al (2012). TQ denotes teacher questionnaire. SQ denotes school questionnaire. M = mean, SD = standard deviation.

Limitations of the Analysis

The Schools and Staffing Survey (2007-2008) is the largest, most extensive survey of K–12 teachers in the United States (Tourkin, 2010). It provides a multitude of opportunities for analysis and data on elementary and secondary educational issues. Although this dataset surveys countless educators, when examining Black female teachers, the data did not permit a multilevel analysis. This study was resisted to a single level analysis because of SASS sampling procedure and Black female teachers were not

significantly clustered in schools. Given that the literature offers insight about Black teachers working in black schools, it is unfortunate that the study was not able to cluster Black teachers within Black schools. This is a limitation of the study. In addition, due to SASS's status as a preexisting dataset, only certain variables were available for analysis.

Summary

The purpose of this research study is to describe and identify factors associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to remain in the K-12 classroom. Data analysis was conducted through the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. This present chapter outlines phase I and phase II of the study. Phase I presents an explanation of transcendental phenomenology, an explanation of the setting and participants, data collection, data analysis, risks and benefits of the research, ethical consideration and confidentiality and trustworthiness of the study. Phase II describes the National Center of Education Statistics' 2007-2008 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), an overview of the sample, data analysis, and limitations.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this research study was to examine Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to remain in the K-12 classroom. To investigate these topics, three research questions were posed. Research questions one and three, using a qualitative methodology, led this study. The second research question, utilizing a quantitative research approach, brought additional insight to the investigation. This chapter presents the results of the study. Phase I presents findings from the qualitative portion of the study. It provides results from the transcendental phenomenological study. Phase II of the results, detailing the quantitative findings, provides a national, statistical description of in-service Black female teachers, reliability of variables, assumptions, and the outcome of the hierarchical multiple regression. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Phase I

Phase 1 section does not use any of NCES' Restricted-Use Data. A constant comparison analysis method was used to analyze the data. During open coding, numerous codes were initially identified. From these codes, axial coding generated categories and subcategories; these classifications later formed themes. Through this coding process, analysis began broad and increasingly narrowed (inductive data analysis) as certain ideas were consistently mentioned by a majority of interviewers. At the end of the process, themes were constructed from the data due to their saliency throughout the analysis.

Themes were divided into two categories: 1) teacher job satisfaction and 2) intention to remain in the classroom. In interpreted the findings, the following research questions guided this phase of the study:

- 1) How do in-service Black female teachers describe their job satisfaction?
- 2) How does job satisfaction influence in-service Black female teachers' intention to remain in the K-12 classroom?

Numerous findings from the twelve Black female teachers were revealed. In addition, Black female teachers in this study unanimously felt that their teacher education program (traditional and nontraditional certification program) did not adequately prepare them for their role as classroom teachers. The participants were asked to discuss the following topics as they relate to job satisfaction and retention: 1) school type (public or charter), 2) school location (urban, suburban, and rural), 3) teacher salary, 4) administrative support, 5) teacher autonomy, 6) student behavior, 7) student demographics and socioeconomic status, 8) workload and paperwork, 9) advanced degrees, 10) student performance, 11) teacher advancement, and 12) commitment to teaching. When considering the first research question, Black female teachers offered specific examples which promoted job satisfaction. The findings were divided into the following three themes: a) positioned in an urban, non-charter school, b) exposure to administrative support, teacher autonomy, positive student behavior, reasonable workload and paperwork, and c) commitment to teaching. Of the numerous factors associated with teacher job satisfaction, Black female teachers' intention to remain in the class was also examined. Inquiring as to how job satisfaction influences in-service Black female teachers' intention to remain in the K-12 classroom, retention results indicated three

additional themes. Black female teachers were more likely to remain in the classroom with a) salary increases overtime, b) the availability of professional advancement, and c) administrative support.

Pseudonyms were used for all participating teachers. In addition, it should be noted that at the time of this study, all of the participants taught at Title I³ schools with a high percentage of African American students. Further, Shana and Grace were Teach For America⁴ teachers who were only obligated to remain in the classroom for two years, and Tanya and Jennifer taught at charter schools. At the time of these interviews, only two of the twelve participants resolved to remain in the classroom. At the conclusion of this study, Stephany had already transitioned into her new role as literacy facilitator.

Teacher Education

The Black female teachers discussed their certification process in their respective teacher education programs. This open and candid discourse arose from the unforeseen challenges many teachers faced upon entering the profession. The twelve female participants highlighted different weakness within their program, which affected their teaching abilities and role as a classroom teacher. Though their concerns regarding preparation were not uniformed, a majority of them expressed deficiencies in one or more areas of classroom teaching, especially in their attempt to meet the needs of students of color in their Title I school. Ashley expressed her frustrations regarding special education requirements and documentation, feeling ill-prepared by her teacher education program:

³ Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 provides financial assistance to local educational agencies (LEAs) and schools with high numbers or high percentages of children from low-income families to help ensure that all children meet challenging state academic standards.

⁴ A non-profit organization whose mission is to eliminate educational inequity by enlisting high-achieving recent college graduates and professionals to teach for at least two years in low-income communities throughout the United States.

My program never told me about if you are in an inclusion class there is a lot more that goes on than a general ed class. I took a special ed class in the summer time and it was just about the different disabilities, not the importance of the paperwork that is involved because it's legal, this paperwork.

Jennifer also conveyed lack of knowledge in differentiating instruction. She describes the one-size-fits all approach of her teacher education program:

I would have like to be taught, how to differentiate my curriculum so that I can truly meet the needs of those lower level students while also meeting the needs of higher level students in my class at the same time.

Lastly, Stephany recounted the absence of practical techniques and strategies in her teacher education program that she could implement in her classroom. Her words capture the narrowness or omission of pertinent skills needed to become an effective teacher.

We're doing a lot of theoretical things, but as far as really learning even really good strategies, I don't think it prepares us for managing a class at all. It didn't help with managing the systems. To me a lot of it was just very much based in theoretic. It was based on Vygotsky's theories and things like that but it wasn't very practical.

Another poignant issues addressed by Jennifer was the complex and emotional dimension of teaching that is often omitted from teacher education programs. In addition to simply teaching, teachers often face emotional interactions and experiences, confronted with issues of race and class and how these definers influence the lives of their students. Jennifer described how she felt unprepared for the realities of teaching low-income, minority students in her urban school:

Absolutely not. [Teacher education programs] doesn't prepare you for the emotional experience. I feel like a lot of times when I'm here, I'm more of a mother to the kids, and [the teacher education program] doesn't necessarily prepare you for the emotional levels that you'll have to have in order to teach and interact with your kids because these kids, they're not just your students every day; they become your children.

An additional area of discontent was the length of teacher education programs. Many teachers who underwent a teacher education programs felt the amount of time spent on preparation and developing their skills as a classroom teacher was insufficient. Shana, who underwent an alternative teacher education program, explained the intense speed of her program, and how on-the-job-training was stressed in lieu of growth and development. She provided the following statement:

[The teacher education program] was more like, “Let’s get you through these courses, get you passed and you can get certified.” Then we will work on getting your skills. You will build that while you are at your job site and at school.

Job Satisfaction Theme 1: Urban, Non-Charter Schools

Although, teachers are not generally homogenous in their description of job satisfaction, certain issues consistently arose and remained prevalent throughout the data. The first noticeable feature was locale. Overwhelmingly, all but two teachers preferred teaching in an urban setting and expressed greater job satisfaction in urban schools. The preference for an urban school either stemmed from teachers’ own educational background, the diversity within urban schools, or their desire to fulfill the urgent need for highly-qualified teachers in many low-income, high-minority urban schools. In these settings, Black female teachers expressed a deep wish to meet the social and academic needs of disadvantaged students. Ebony’s comments below capture her familiarity in urban schools:

Urban, primarily because I’m from an urban area, and I’ve only lived in urban areas. I know the urban experience as a student. I feel like I can cater to whatever those needs may be because I grew up that way.

Grace also illustrated the immense diversity that is often found in many urban schools. Her pull towards urban school settings derived from the differences that are often housed in urban areas. She explained the following:

With urban environments comes a certain type of movement and theories and social conceptions that are definitely more open and diverse. I'd probably want to be in an environment where there are multiple thought processes working together, where there are lots of variety in opinions; not everyone just does the same thing all the time.

As mentioned, Black female teachers in this study felt needed in low-income, diverse urban schools. Many of the participants expressed an ability to make a positive difference in the lives of urban students. For instance, Ashley stated: "I feel like I am making a difference in this [urban] school versus [a more privilege schools]." Carson's comment also conveyed the appeal of an urban school.

Again, it is all about where I feel like I am needed, and I feel like students in this [urban] setting need more teachers like me....They need to see more teachers like me, more teachers like themselves.

Echoing the words of Carson, Tanya also mentioned the need for highly-qualified, effective teachers in urban schools. She stated:

Because I feel like that's where a lot of our highly-qualified teachers need to be. I feel that highly-qualified teachers would somehow raise the expectations of urban Title I schools or the students.

Stephany explanation furthers the sentiments of the two previous teachers. She explained how both teacher and student gain through their interactions in an urban school. Although students gain more effective and supportive teachers, teachers also gain purpose in their role as educators.

A lot of times kids in definitely suburban areas, traditionally anyway, they have a lot of support at home anyway and these kids don't, in urban schools they don't. I just realize, okay this is making a bigger impact on these kids. They need greater

support. I feel almost more purposeful in the urban environment because it's like they, you're really making a difference for this child.

Similar to the desire to teach in urban schools, all but one of the teachers preferred to teach in a regular public school setting as opposed to a charter school. Teachers mostly wish to teach in regular public schools because of the already established educational structure (i.e., curriculum, policies, programs, etc.). The comments offered below by the teachers demonstrate how the duties of a classroom teacher are more manageable in a regular public school, and how they have greater job satisfaction than in a charter school because of a preexisting infrastructure. Tanya explained why she had greater job satisfaction and preferences working at a regular public school:

I would say regular public school is for me. It's less stressful because they have all the policies laid out. Also, things as far as field trips and outside resources, for example social services and things like that, that could really help that's readily available; whereas, at a charter school, you're kind of operating on your own independently. There's a lot more work outside of teaching. There's just a lot more hats that you have to wear at a charter school especially a charter school that's a Title I school.

Erica provided a similar account of her work experiences at a traditional public school and a charter school. She offered her reasons for teaching in public school instead of a charter school.

There was a lot more preparation I would say. The charter school I was at, it was only their second year up and running. They really didn't have everything that they possibly needed for the curriculum, and it might just have been just because it was only their second year versus them being open for 10 years. When I was up there my first year of teaching, I just found myself having to supplement a lot like constantly researching on the internet and things like that just to get the kids thinking about whatever we were talking about that day.

Job Satisfaction Theme 2: Administrative Support, Teacher Autonomy, Positive Student Behavior, Reasonable Workload and Paperwork

When assessing the factors that may affect teacher job satisfaction, the data revealed that within-school features may influence teachers' level of job satisfaction. The factors identified by this study are administrative support, teacher autonomy, student behavior, and workload and paperwork. While teachers described differing scenarios, whether positive or negative, these factors influenced their level of satisfaction.

Specifically, Shana explained how administrative support affected her level of job satisfaction. When asked if administrative support is offered at her school, she responded with:

No. Yes and no. You can offer support but if it's not the right type of support then its useless... Is support given? Yes. Would administration say that support is given? Yes. But there is a misalignment between what people need and what they say they need and what is actually provided.

Tracy affirms this same pattern in her school, stating that support is given but support is often ineffective.

The level of support that I would like to see is not necessarily there. In one sense, I see them trying and I want to give them credit for that. I just think that the way in which they are trying to go about trying to offer support is not effective. It is not effective.

Explaining the type of support teachers need, Grace explained what she needed as a teacher. Similar to Shana and Tracy, support was offered but the support that was given was not sufficient. Grace offered the following comment:

Yeah. Support, to me, is someone being in my classroom helping me too. I don't need a book to read. Yes, I do, but I would prefer live action. That's how I learn best.

While a majority of teacher in this study did not experience sufficient administrative support, some participants conveyed the presence of administrative support. For example, Erica's comment below described a content and satisfied teacher that possesses administrative support.

I can go to [administrators] about anything. I can email them about anything and they will get back to me. If I have problems in the classroom or I need to just talk to them about issue in the classroom, things like that, yeah they get back to me really fairly quick and whatever I need help with, they are always there to help me.

Teacher autonomy also influences teacher job satisfaction. A majority of the teachers expressed discontent over administrative micromanagement, while others greatly valued the classroom freedom they are offered at their school. Ashley's remark encapsulated teachers' level of dissatisfaction regarding lack of autonomy.

Micromanaging, like [administration] look at my lesson plan. They come in, pop in on me to see what I'm doing and then I have to teach what everyone else is teaching. They check to make sure that we are all teaching the same thing, the same way. It's just a microscope that is on me.

In contrast to Ashley's school environment, Erica's experiences great autonomy, influencing her level of job satisfaction. In possessing autonomy, she conveyed her effectiveness as a teacher. She provided the following details:

Yes. It does because I feel if I didn't have any control as to what I wanted to do on the classroom, then I would not like it because I'm the one who has been with these kids eight hours a day, and so I know what each child needs; what each child gets; and what they don't get. I feel like if there is somebody breathing down my neck that, "Okay you got to do this, this, this, this, and this," then I wouldn't feel like they get it because they are not the ones that's in here and they don't personally know my kids and their strengths and their weaknesses and things like that.

In addition to teacher autonomy, student behavior was frequently mentioned as a source of satisfaction. Those who had positive student behavior possessed job

satisfaction, while teachers experiencing negative student behavior expressed decreased job satisfaction. For instance Stephany, who is classified as an experienced teacher having been in the classroom for 10 years, explained how she was struggling with negative student behavior in her classroom:

It's been an issue this year with behavior and it's gotten out of control. I've taught for 10 years so I'm not a rookie and it's been the worst as far this time of year. I don't think I've had a class with a behavior like this time of the year.

After ten years of teaching, Stephany soon after her interview transitioned out of the classroom into a support staff position. She cited negative student behavior as a source of dissatisfaction, influencing her desire to seek other career opportunities. Furthermore, the teachers in this study explained why student behavior would affect their job satisfaction. Many conveyed that negative student behavior would affect their teaching ability and reflect on their effectiveness as teachers. All teachers preferred positive student behavior as oppose to negative. Tracy assertively affirmed, “[student behavior] does affect my job satisfaction because I can’t teach.” Further, when asked to what degree student behavior affects her job satisfaction Carson responded by saying:

Greatly, because if you have kids who are willing to work with you, who are willing to try, who are willing to be respectful and respect the environment and respect you then of course you are going to what to come in her every day and do your best to deliver the best service you can to them, to teach them the best you can.

Offering a similar statement, Shana described how student behavior is intrinsically connected to her effectiveness as a teacher.

Behavior I feel like affects my job satisfaction a great deal because if you’re behaving then I am doing my job. I’m not one of those they are terrible, and I don’t know what’s wrong with them, right... it does have a great deal to do with my job satisfaction because I know that I am doing things right.

Teacher workload and paperwork was a repeated source of distress, greatly affecting teacher job satisfaction. The Black female teachers described the numerous ‘hats’ they wear as teachers. Although they found satisfaction in meeting the needs of their students, the gravity of the different roles they execute on a daily basis significantly increases their workload. Jennifer explicitly expressed her dissatisfaction: “I think the issue that influences job satisfaction for me is time. It's time. I spend a lot of time working.” Ashley also listed the many substantial and influential occupations held by teachers:

We are pretty much raising these kids cause a lot of this generation these kids they don't have any parents or anybody helping them so I'm a mommy, an auntie, a doctor, a nurse, a counselor.

Likewise, Carson and Tanya, respectively, commented with similar statements:

It's not just about teaching. It's not just about teaching a content area. You are a counselor; you are a police officer; you have so many hats.

I'm a mentor. I'm a role model. I'm a counselor. It's like so many hats that teachers have to wear.

Alongside teacher workload is the issue of paperwork, extensive paperwork.

Stephany, an inclusion teacher, captured the thoughts of a majority of the teachers in this study. She stated, “The paperwork can get ridiculous. Sometimes it's cumbersome and it's unnecessary.” Giving a more detailed explanation, she recounted her frustrations with accountability paperwork.

[The administrators] would go back and say this, fix this. I would have to go back and fix the lesson plan from the next week and still turn in lesson plans for two week later. IEPs if they don't take their accommodations you have to get paperwork filled out saying they didn't do their accommodations, surveys every other day, either from the district or from a college or from the principal we have something else I forgot what this document is but we have to fill it out then we are in our meetings, collaborative something. It's a lot of paperwork.

In the same vein, Tracy stated her dissatisfaction with the amount of paperwork that is required from classroom teachers.

The amount of paperwork certainly influences [my job satisfaction] because this year, instead of handing us papers, they have developed forms in Google Docs. They are sending us these e-mails with forms for students for their truancy issues.

Job Satisfaction Theme 3: Commitment to Teaching

Commitment to teaching also proved significant to teachers' job satisfaction. As a teacher, participants viewed their jobs as meaningful and impactful, affecting the lives of students. This altruistic feeling brought satisfaction to a majority of the participants in the study. Stephany offered the following statement in regards to commitment to teaching and job satisfaction:

I'm committed to it so I still think, I feel like I'm making a difference, or I'm really committed to doing the job. It does give me job satisfaction. It does.

In addition, in relation to their commitment to teaching, many teachers perceived teaching as a calling, a calling that possesses meaning and significance. Rachel conveyed how her calling strengthens her commitment to all aspects of teaching.

Yes. I see it more of a calling, as opposed to a job. A calling as opposed to just a job, because it takes a special person for this population, and for two, it takes a special person to continue to do all these expectations that have placed on me, because I am committed to the children, I am committed to the whole education process in general, and just committed to making a difference.

As alluded, although certain factors influence teachers' job satisfaction, these same factors did not necessarily influence their decision to remain in the classroom. Teachers were more compelled to remain in the classroom if they experienced salary increases overtime, the ability to advance throughout their teaching career, and administrative support.

Retention Theme 1: Salary

Salary, although not influencing teachers' job satisfaction in this study, greatly affected their decision to remain in the classroom, especially overtime. While pay was a nonfactor in job satisfaction, many teachers mentioned pay as a reason for ultimately leaving the profession. In addressing salary, it should be noted that the state in which this study took place is ranked nationally in the bottom tier in terms of teacher pay. The explanations below highlight why teacher salary becomes problematic over the course of a life span. While lifestyle and cost of living may alter, teacher salary remains stagnant, often experiencing minimal increases. This pay constraint is expounded by Shana's statement below.

[My salary] does not impact my job satisfaction. It does impact my decision to stay long term in the classroom. Just because I want to be a great mom and I want to be able to marry my boyfriend when the time comes... I want to I love where I live. I have nice things but like this isn't the ceiling for me, right, so like I would like to own my own home instead of rent a condo. I would like to drive a nicer car and those things don't define who I am and I don't place my value and my worth in them but I would like to experience a level of comfort that I cannot achieve at least for another ten to twelve years. I mean given the way that the pay scale works and how long you have to be somewhere before you can like see some increases in salary. So even though [salary] doesn't have anything to do with how satisfied I feel about my work, it does play a role in whether or not I will stay here for a long time.

Retention Theme 2: Teacher Advancement

Teacher advancement, similar to teacher pay, also is a factor in teachers' decision to remain in the classroom overtime. Age and/or years of teaching experience seem to be contributing factors in retention. The statements of the teachers below explain how earlier in their careers, advancement was not greatly considered. As they progressed in age and experience, the ability to advance became more important. Shana, who is considered a

beginning teacher, perceived advancement would weigh heavier on her decision to remain in the classroom as time progressed.

I've talked to the teacher who has been teaching for 14 years and she's like I can't just be a classroom teacher any more like something else has to give, right and so like for me I think I'm still fresh and like young and new and so when I think about my options I think about yeah I can be in the classroom long but when I think long term I feel like it would start to weigh in on my job satisfaction.

Expressing the same concerns, Carson described how her desire for professional advancement alters as she begins her third year of teaching.

It's starting to be a big deal for me now. I think the first two years I was so focused on getting it down, getting what I was doing down and I think towards the end of last year and into this year I think I've gotten competent with my role as a classroom teacher and now I am starting to be able to look up and around and see what else is there for me.

Retention Theme 3: Administrative Support

Furthermore, although lack of administrative support did not greatly affect teachers' desire to leave the profession entirely, it did effect their movement in that they relocated to a different school. Many teachers indicated that lack of administrative support would force them to become (movers⁵), seeking greater support at a different school. Tracy conveyed why she might relocate.

I don't necessarily want to leave the classroom but I am at a place where I want to leave [this school]. I even said to myself, I could ride it out in the classroom if I'm in a different environment. I think it has gotten to a place, especially if everybody is on edge and tired and about to go at each other's throats. It's to a place where I think the teachers are starting to feel like [the administration is] putting more on us on top of all the extra stuff [they] are requiring us to do. Any time something doesn't happen the way [they] want, [they] threaten us [by saying,] "administrators will be following up with you," which never happens.

⁵ Teachers who change schools.

Carson, also a mover, compared administrative support from her old school to her new school. She explained why the unsupportive climate at her previous school compelled her to relocate:

I think that's how I felt at the previous school I felt like I was constantly criticized, not just me but teachers were constantly criticized and not criticized in a way to try to help them become better. It was like just like you're not doing this right and why aren't you. You're ineffective and here they give you helpful strategies they look at what you're doing and they applaud you or kind of point you in the direction in where you need to be in a helpful manner, not in a manner that makes you feel like oh my God my job is in jeopardy.

Along this same course of action, Rachel contemplated leaving her school for a new school but decided to remain one more year because of a new head principal. She recounted her decision to remain: "I was thinking about actually leaving last year, but I said I want to give this new principal a chance to prove himself as far as a coach." Shana also expressed the same frustrations regarding administrative support. Although satisfied in her profession, she required greater administrative support in order to remain in her current position.

It's the reason I want to leave. I mean am I still satisfied with the work that I do? Absolutely. I just don't feel supported in certain areas when it comes to administration, behavior, fights, just the day to day kind of systems that sometimes I am responsible for creating myself because there is nobody to create them.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings from this transcendental phenomenological study. Findings that addressed teacher job satisfaction were categorized into three themes: a) positioned in an urban, non-charter school, b) exposure to administrative support, teacher autonomy, positive student behavior, reasonable workload and paperwork, and c) commitment to teaching). Likewise, teacher retention results showed

that Black female teachers were more likely to remain in the classroom with a) salary increases overtime, b) the availability of professional advancement, and c) administrative support. The organization of this chapter was best thought to respond to the research questions while portraying the experiences of the participants' lived experiences.

Phase II

Phase II of the methodology offers quantitative insight in to teacher job satisfaction. This phase specifically addresses the second research questions. In inquiring about what factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, student behavior, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction, statistical numbers are provided and expand on the findings from Phase I. Informed by qualitative data findings in phase I, hierarchical multiple regression was employed to examine the following research question:

- 1) What factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, student behavior, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction?

The dependent variable associated with the hierarchical multiple regression was a construct of job satisfaction. As mentioned, this variable was a construct of job satisfaction, meaning questionnaire items were combined to construct the variable job satisfaction. Cronbach's alpha was used to test the reliability of this variable. The independent variables, which were entered into the model, are academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification, years of experience, percent of minority students, urbanicity, percent of students approved for free or reduced lunch, charter school, teacher autonomy, administrative support, student behavior, collegiality between principal and faculty, and commitment to teaching.

Assumptions

Missing Data and Outliers: Variables were examined for missing data. During the data examination process, though missing data was expected to appear at random, close attention was given to possible patterns, which would produce errors during data analysis. Ultimately, all missing data were removed from the major analysis. Much like missing data, any cases of multivariate outliers were removed prior to the analysis of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Collinearity: The data were examined for any potential collinearity issues. The presence of collinearity within an analysis is problematic in that it identifies independent variables as singular and unstable, suggesting high correlation among variables. Highly correlated variables weaken the analysis, inflating regression coefficients. In SPSS, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was used to test collinearity between independent variables. The VIF values for academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification, years of experience, percent of minority students, urbanicity, percent of students eligible for free or reduced lunch, charter school, teacher autonomy, administrative support, student behavior, collegiality between principal and faculty, and commitment to teaching were less than 2.0. This suggests the beta estimates are not problematic.

Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity of Residuals: Residuals scatterplots were examined in SPSS to test the following assumptions: normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Skewness and kurtosis generally did not indicate major departures from normality. The scatterplot did not indicate areas of concern.

Independence of Errors: Another assumption, independence of errors, was also tested through residual analysis. Independence of errors suggests that “errors of

prediction are independent of one another” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 128). Visual examination of the scatterplot ensured the absence of a pattern, meaning no independence of errors.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

As mentioned, estimate weights were used to provide accurate coefficients and replicate weights were used to provide accurate standard error (for statistical significance). Using AM, a statistical software package for large scale assessments, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine factors influencing Black female teachers’ job satisfaction. The research question guiding this analysis was: What factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers’ job satisfaction? Predictor variables were ordered into a three block model based on previous research and theory. The order of variables allowed the researcher to examine how much variance the predictor variables had after the previous variable were entered into the equation. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression is presented in Table 4.

In model 1, block 1 (birth year and grade ban) was combined with block one (academic degree, licensure, alternative certification, national board certification and years of experience). Controlling for birth year and grade ban, block 1 and block one were first stepped into the model. The variance accounted for (R^2) equaled .08, meaning variables in block 1 accounted for 8% of Black female teachers’ job satisfaction. None of the variables in step one were statistically significant.

In model 2, the second block of variables were entered and consisted of charter school, urbanicity, percent of minority students, and percent of students on free or

reduced lunch. The results showed an increase in regards to variability. Variance accounted for equaled .12. However, the change in variance accounted for ($\Delta R^2 = .04$) did not show a statistically significant increase when compared to the model in step one. Similar to step one, no variables in step two were statistically significant in regards to Black female teachers' job satisfaction.

In model 3, the third block of variables was entered (student behavior, teacher autonomy, administrative support, collegiality between principal and faculty, and commitment to teaching). This variance accounted for in this third model equaled .64, a significant increase. The change in variance accounted for ($\Delta R^2 = .52$) presented a statistically significant increase when compared to the model in step one and two, which means that variables in block 3 accounted for 64% of Black female teachers' job satisfaction. When the third block was stepped into the model, variables such as charter ($p < .04$), city ($p < .01$), student behavior ($p < .01$), administrative support ($p < .001$), and commitment to teaching ($p < .001$) became statistically significant. The results indicated that in-service Black female teachers in charter schools were less likely to have job satisfaction, while in-service Black female teachers in city schools with positive student behavior, administrative support, and a commitment to teaching were more likely to have job satisfaction. This 3rd and final block accounted for a significant amount of the variance for job satisfaction. The full model can explain 64% of the total variance associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction.

TABLE 4: Summary of hierarchical multiple regression analysis for variables predicting Black female teachers' job satisfaction

Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
(Constant)	34.02	80.48	13.61	84.00	-24.62	53.43
Birth year	-0.01	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.03
Middle	0.57	0.90	0.28	0.85	1.08	0.56
High	1.23	0.67	0.73	0.73	1.95	0.62
Combined	0.15	0.95	0.05	1.14	0.36	0.78
Years0_5	-1.32	1.48	-1.29	1.74	-1.01	1.08
Years6_1	-0.35	1.42	-0.30	1.67	0.15	0.97
Years11	-1.39	1.69	-1.47	1.85	-0.51	0.98
Years16	-1.39	1.52	-0.51	1.62	-0.21	1.05
Years26	-1.12	1.51	-1.31	1.61	-1.00	0.91
Masters	-0.57	0.68	-0.90	0.67	-0.07	0.49
Certified	1.75	1.11	0.71	1.21	-0.48	0.73
Lateral	0.65	1.38	0.14	1.37	-0.15	1.05
Altcert	-0.80	0.73	-0.79	0.80	-0.47	0.54
NBC	-0.52	0.4	-0.31	0.79	-0.12	0.66
Charter			-1.53	1.05	-1.54*	0.79
City			1.46	0.78	1.02**	0.49
Rural			0.02	0.88	-0.08	0.57
% of student approved for free or reduced lunch			-0.00	0.02	0.01	0.01
%of minority students			-0.03	0.02	-0.01	0.01
Student behavior					0.16**	0.07
Teacher control					0.10	0.10
Administrative support					0.85***	0.13
Collegiality between principal and faculty					0.20	0.13
Commitment to Teaching					0.65***	0.09
Model R ²	0.08		0.12		0.55	
F for Δ R ²			7.49***		236.60***	

Note. (*N* = 128,532) weighted; (*N* = 970) un-weighted

p* < .05, ** < .01, * < .001

Summary

In Phase I, investigating research question one and three, transcendental phenomenology was used and constant comparative analysis was performed. Findings indicate the following variables were associated with Black female teachers' job satisfaction: urbanicity (city), charter school, administrative support, teacher autonomy, student behavior, and workload and paperwork. Intention to remain in the classroom indicated that teachers were more likely to stay in the classroom or at their current position if schools had high administrative support, reduced workload and paper work, salary increases overtime, and the option to professionally advance. In phase II, which examines research question two, utilizes a hierarchical multiple regression in order to identify factors that impact Black female teachers job satisfaction. As a result, five factors (charter, city, student behavior, administrative support, and commitment to teaching were extracted from the variables. The results of the regression analysis suggested that there is a statistically significant relationship between these factors and Black female teachers' job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The results of this mixed method analysis describes Black female teachers' job satisfaction and how job satisfaction influences their decision to remain in the K-12 classroom. In addition, Black female teachers in this study unanimously felt their teacher education program (traditional and nontraditional certification program), to some extent, did not adequately prepare them for their role as classroom teachers. Though the participants expressed different areas of weakness, this finding strengthens Darling-Hammond's (2000) call for more teacher preparation in order to develop effective teachers who are able to teach diverse student groups and are more likely to remain in the classroom. Many of the qualitative findings in this study support and further existing literature. Often literature is from the perspective of those who compose the majority of the American teaching force—White, middle-class teachers. This study shows a specific subgroup within the teaching force possesses a unique perspective as well as shares commonalities with the masses.

Qualitative data affirm that Black female teachers possess greater job satisfaction and retention in urban schools. Quantitative findings offer additional support in the area of teacher job satisfaction. This finding supports current literature on teachers of color and locale. As noted by Achinstein et al. (2010), teachers of color are more likely than White teachers to work and remain in “hard-to-staff” urban schools. Although the literature shows teachers of color are employed at higher rates in low-income, urban

schools, Ingersoll and May (2011) contend Black teachers also have high turnover rates at these schools because these schools “tend to be less desirable as workplaces” (p. 64), leading to high turnover rates among teachers of color (Achinstein et al., 2010). As presented in the findings, Black female teachers’ job satisfaction in urban schools stems from their act of fulfilling an urgent need, more specifically meeting the diverse needs of disadvantaged students in urban schools. The literature in conjunction with this study’s findings suggest while high-poverty, urban schools house more Black teachers (Achinstein, 2010), bringing this group of teachers job satisfaction, the workplace environment of low-income, urban schools also influence teacher turnover, categorizing Black teachers as movers or leavers.

Much like the variable urban, the charter school variable is supported by the same data. While qualitative and quantitative data in this study posit Black female teachers have greater job satisfaction in non-charter schools, qualitative data did not reveal themes in regards to Black female teachers’ retention rates in charter schools. Black female teachers cited lack of an existing infrastructure in charter schools as the main reason for lacking job satisfaction. Primarily, Black female teachers’ dissatisfaction stemmed from the workload which accompanies the development of a new educational infrastructure. Many participants stressed how charter schools, deviating from the traditional public school education model, often require greater efforts from faculty in establishing an educational foundation. That is, charter schools and traditional public schools differ in job intensity. Johnson and Landman (2000) note the intense, and at times chaotic, environments within many charter schools and the high demands many place on teachers. Furthermore, many charter schools, though rooted in great educational ideals, often are

unable to fully adhere to their core tenants. Dissimilar from the educational structure many of their faculty members experienced during K-12 education, dissatisfaction regarding lack of an infrastructure may develop from an existing frame of reference. Teachers who possess knowledge about traditional educational models may compare the structural weakness of charters to a traditional public school.

High administrative support, teacher autonomy, positive student behavior, and reasonable workload and paperwork are all factors associated with teacher satisfaction. Although mixed research exists in regards to what variables are associated with teacher job satisfaction, adequate administrative support is consistently stressed in the literature as a means of increasing or maintaining teacher satisfaction (Woods & Weasmer, 2002). The literature supports that a highly-effective and supportive administrator can impact a teacher's level of satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Otto & Arnold, 2005). Similar to current data, this study affirms teachers' need for administrative support in that an unsupportive administrator can contribute to the development of passive, unmotivated, detached educators, consequently impacting student achievement.

Teacher autonomy, although notable in the qualitative findings and not quantitative findings, influences job satisfaction. The misalignment between qualitative and quantitative data results may stem from extraneous factors. Also, it should also be noted that participants in the qualitative portion of this study primarily commented on classroom autonomy rather than school autonomy, contrasting with Pearson and Moomaw (2005) study, which found no association between teacher satisfaction and curriculum autonomy. A majority of the participants specifically stressed the importance of having autonomy over classroom decisions and actions. Similar to Ingersoll's (2007)

work, the teachers in this study who experienced great dissatisfaction regarding autonomy possessed little control over those pertinent issues that directly or indirectly impacted their classroom.

Positive student behavior proved influential to teacher job satisfaction in this study. Confirmed by the literature (Certo & Fox, 2002; Garrahy, et al., 2005), student behavior affects teachers and their level of vocational enjoyment. One interesting element of student behavior in this study was teachers' perception of behavior. Many of the teachers in this study, though confirming positive student behavior influenced their job satisfaction; also expressed they seldom saw their students' behavior as disruptive, disrespectful, or problematic. This perception of student behavior may be attributed to the student demographics at teachers' respective schools. As noted, the participants in this study teach at Title I school, which house a large percentage of students of color. Possessing a shared racial and perhaps cultural identity with their students, Black female teachers in this study display cultural synchronicity (Evans, 1992; Hanushek, 1992; Meire, 1993) or cultural consonance (Harry & Klinger, 2006), and perhaps saw their students' classroom behavior through a shared cultural lens. Ashley captured this shared racial and cultural identity when she declared, "I'm Black; I can relate to these kids... They don't bother me." Rachel also reconceptualized "appropriate" or "positive" student behavior. She offered an explanation as to why she perceived her students' behavior in the classroom as positive.

I was again, that student who everyone said, "She is just off the hook, off the chain." It really wasn't about behaviors, just more misunderstood and not really having those teachers who were caring and committed, and who took the time out to actually say, "Oh, that's a good question," they were just like, "You are being defiant," because I would have a question about their question, and I want to know.

Ashley and Rachel's comments demonstrate how a shared racial and cultural background may influence one's perception of "positive" student behavior. Although positive student behavior produces job satisfaction, these findings suggest that behavior is subjective, impacting diverse teaching groups in varying ways.

With the exception of teacher autonomy and workload and paperwork, the remaining variables (high administrative support and positive student behavior) were prevalent in both qualitative and quantitative data. Teacher autonomy and teacher workload and paperwork were only salient throughout the qualitative data. Aligning with existing data, the factors listed above are heavily documented in regards to teacher satisfaction (Perie & Baker; 1997; Ingersoll, 2003; Garrahy, Kulinna, & Cothran, 2005), and add additional empirical support to the literature. The only factor which is scarce within the literature is teacher workload and paperwork. The majority of participants, both in traditional public schools and charter schools, stressed their dissatisfaction with teacher workload and paperwork, working more than 40 hours per week and completing cumbersome paperwork. Similar to the complaints of teachers in this study, Smethem (2007) explains the narrow and heightened focus on student performance has in turn decreased job satisfaction among teachers. Essentially, an environment of high-stakes standardized testing, which focuses more on scores than students' intellectual growth, is producing teacher stress and burnout (Haberman, 2005), ensuring low teacher job satisfaction.

Teacher job satisfaction findings in this study are notable because the factors that promote Black female teachers' job satisfaction are within-school variables versus between-school variables, meaning variables are unique to a particular school and may be

altered depending on school leadership and policy. Such findings suggest the teachers who are offered administrative support and autonomy, experience positive student behavior and a reasonable amount of workload and paperwork are more likely to possess job satisfaction.

Committed to teaching is an additional finding that emerged from both qualitative and quantitative data on teacher job satisfaction. On numerous occasions, teachers referred to teaching as a calling, requiring a certain type of individual, one who is committed to students and to students' academic progress. The Black female teachers expressed how through teaching they are making a difference in the lives of students and society. Purposefully, meaningful, and impactful are a few words that capture the teachers' sentiments in regards to their profession. In contrast to Currivan's (2000) analysis, committed to teaching brought teachers in this study job satisfaction. This difference in finding may stem from the student population (low-income, disadvantaged youth) Black female teachers teach in this study. Teaching at Title I schools with a high percentage of students of color, Black female teachers possessed a shared goal: to properly educate "these particular students" so that students have the opportunity to acquire economic and social mobility. This desire to educate students of color is similar to Dixon and Dingus' (2008) study, in which Black female teachers perceived teaching as community work, connecting to the Black community and students, and instrumental in racial uplift (Morris, 2004).

In addressing the Black teacher shortage, which may be attributed to the low retention rate of Black teachers (Ingersoll & May, 2011), retention results from the qualitative analysis indicate that Black female teachers were more likely to remain in the

classroom with a) salary increases overtime, b) the availability of professional advancement, and c) administrative support. Once again, similar to teacher job satisfaction, policy measures at the school and district level as well as school leadership proves influential in the retention of Black female teachers.

As mentioned, the question of teacher salary in regards to teacher retention often produces mixed results. This study, though affirming the importance of teacher compensation, also introduces the notion that the significance of salary in the lives of teachers increases overtime. As shown in Inman and Marlow's (2004) study, salary influenced beginning teachers' decision to enter and remain in the profession. With competitive beginning teacher compensation packages, this study posits new teachers possess a different perspective regarding salary than veteran teachers who have experienced minimal incremental increases in pay over the time span of their teaching careers. In this study, teacher advancement also falls within the same spear as compensation. Teachers, though not focused on advancement when entering the field, gradually shifted as they incurred years of teaching experience. Capturing the opinions of many of the participants that considered their occupational title after 15 to 20 years in the field of education, Carson candidly stated: "I would like to be more than just a classroom teacher." The issue of retention, through this lens, suggests years of teaching experience may be associated with compensation and advancement. Considering nearly 50 percent of teachers leave the profession within the first five years (Ingersoll, 2003), an examination of teacher compensation and advancement overtime may offer insight in increasing teacher retention.

In this study, lack of administrative support called teachers to either relocate permanently or seriously consider leaving their current teaching position, suggesting positive school leadership, who offer adequate support, may influence the current retention rate of Black teachers, more specifically Black female teachers' retention rate. Conveyed in the findings, some participants expressed great distress regarding their school's administrative staff. Teachers described the use of profanity by administration toward faculty. Also, teachers described fear, micromanagement, and intimidation as tactics employed by administration to produce results. This interaction between teachers and administrators, which yields little assistance in the classroom, may affect one's decision to remain in the classroom (Inman & Marlow, 2004). In seeking solutions, this study suggests substantial support from school administrators could possibly impact teacher retention. Likewise, district level policy changes could also potentially alter teacher pay and professional advancement. These recommendations, although not exhaustive, offer direction in the implementation of valid strategies that could potentially influence teacher retention.

Recommendations and Implications

The findings of this study inform various areas. First and foremost, this study recommends additional empirical research examining the effects of teacher workload and paperwork on Black female teachers' job satisfaction and retention. In this study, teacher workload and paperwork was only examined via qualitative data. Quantitative results were not collected for teacher workload and paperwork because this study used an existing dataset with fixed questionnaire questions, which limits variable selection. Additional research on teacher workload and paperwork is of great interest considering

its salient presence within the qualitative findings. Including teacher workload and paperwork, the findings in this study are particularly insightful for administrators, teacher education programs, and local school districts. The result of this analysis informs teacher education programs in their implementation of curriculum and instruction, administrators in their interactions and collaboration with faculty members, as well as local school districts in their development, revision, and execution of school policy.

Teacher education programs and teacher educators must do more to expose pre-service teacher candidates to the varying dimensions and roles of classroom teachers. These programs must provide intensive, realistic, and high quality experiences in settings where pre-service teachers can connect theory and practice and interact with diverse communities. If the goal of these programs is to develop highly-qualified teachers, then these programs must master and go beyond content, pedagogy and classroom management, inculcating their pre-service teachers about the social, political, and economic issues plaguing both the American public education system and the diverse student groups entrenched in American schools. Further, considering the emerging and diverse student population, it is imperative that all teachers, where whether of color or not, receive an education which equips them with skills and competencies needs to meet the needs of students of color from diverse backgrounds. In order for teacher education programs to promote adequate preparation, three recommendations are suggested: 1) altering and/or revising teacher education curriculum, 2) offering real-world examples and classroom application, and 3) expanding the length of teacher training programs. The criticisms from the participants in this study affirm the factory model, in which teachers are hastily ushered through preparation programs and where quantity rather than quality

is valued, cannot continue. Moreover, curriculum must reflect the current obstacles that are impeding the education of 21st century students. Teacher education curriculum, beyond educational theory, must encompass multiple perspectives, expanding students' understanding of the roles of classroom teachers. Topics such as race, gender, class, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, globalization, economics, and policy, just to name a few, should be infused in the curriculum because these topics, individually and collectively, are represented within an urban classroom, impacting both teacher instruction and student learning.

Secondly, real-world examples as well as classroom application and/or simulations of on-the-job training must be incorporated into teacher education programs. These often interactive, hands-on clinical experiences and observations can be achieved through the development of pre-service and practicing teacher mentorship programs, whether face-to-face or online. One example of such programs is Windows into Teaching and Learning (WiTL), a project created by researchers at one southeastern university. WiTL provides online clinical experiences for students during their content area methods course (Heafner, Petty, Plaisance, & Farinde, 2013; Petty & Farinde, 2013). It facilitates the synchronous and asynchronous viewings of practicing teachers' classrooms by pre-service teachers. In this online space, pre-service teachers can view, question, critique, as well as offer and receive feedback regarding classroom instruction. In conjunction with opportunities for real-world examples and classroom application, duration of time does matter when developing competent and effective future teachers. Understanding this assertion, some teacher education programs have implemented yearlong student-teaching, which occurs during students' senior year in college. Extending student-teaching from

one semester to a year-long experience will provide pre-service teachers more opportunities to hone their craft, critically examining the depths of their future profession.

School leaders, specifically administrators, could potentially improve the job satisfaction and retention of Black female teachers. As found in this study, administrative support, teacher autonomy, positive student behavior, and reasonable workload and paperwork are areas that may influence Black female teachers. These variables are not fixed structures, meaning the actions of school leaders may positively influence this particular group of teachers. Administrative support may positively or negatively affect teachers' perception of teacher autonomy, student behavior, and teacher workload and paperwork. Considering the complaints of the twelve participants, it is recommended that administrators advocate an open-door policy and develop an educational environment in which teachers feel valued and respected as professionals. Teacher autonomy, the control teachers' possess over their classroom, may strengthen or weaken teachers' identity as professionals. Likewise, micromanagement, excessive accountability measures, and a climate of fear may decrease teachers' sense of autonomy. In empowering teachers and promoting teacher autonomy, administrators should develop a professional partnership between themselves and teachers. Through language and action, administrators must request and consider teacher input in all school related issues. One example of promoting teacher autonomy is the formation of teacher advocacy committees. Teacher advocacy committees can serve the interest of teachers, strengthening their control over school actions. These acts send an implicit message, asserting that teachers' thoughts, concerns, and questions are both appreciated and needed.

Administrators must also render support in the area of student behavior. In order to promote positive student behavior in teachers' classroom, administrators must develop a climate of authority within the school toward faculty and staff members. Students must understand and internalize that destructive, disrespectful behavior will produce undesirable consequences every time. Likewise, teachers must trust administrators, knowing that these school leaders have the best interest of teachers and students in mind. In achieving this culture of authority, it is suggested that administrators 1) hold bi-weekly or monthly meetings with faculty in need of student behavior support, 2) offer a variety of aid to those teachers having difficulty with classroom management, 3) continually follow-up with classroom disturbances, and 4) maintain an active presence, both vocally and physically, within school classrooms and hallways. These purposeful actions, though seeming common place, may potentially promote positive student behavior when performed collectively.

Workload and paperwork were two areas of distress for the Black female teachers in this study. Obtaining no additional compensation due to their fixed salaries, teachers expressed working more than forty hours a week. Similar to other job related conditions within a school, administrators can affect the amount of work performed by teachers. Administrators can render support in various areas to reduce the number of "hats" teachers must wear throughout the day. For instance, teachers outlined countless occupations in addition to their role as a classroom teacher. The following is a compiled list of informal school titles teachers perform within their respective schools: mommy, auntie, doctor, nurse, counselor, police officer, hall monitor, social worker, financial aid specialist, mentor, tutor, role model, friend, taxi driver, secretary, etc. Teachers'

involvement in these various roles could significantly reduce if school administrators either provided or redirected human capital within the school. The presence of support systems for both students and teachers would offer teachers the opportunity to focus less on the exterior factors influencing students and more on student learning and progress within their classroom.

In addition to workload, excessive and time consuming accountability paperwork also weigh heavy on teachers and their effectiveness in the classroom. Rather than focusing on developing effective, student-centered lesson plans and diversifying instruction for high and low-level students, teachers are often mandated by school leaders to complete exorbitant amounts of documentation, shifting liability from the school system to students and their parents. While administrators must ethically ensure teachers are properly educating students and students are making academic gains, there are more concise, strategic methods in collecting data that does not place excess burden on teachers. In order to combat the staggering push of paperwork for the purposes of accountability and not student learning, it is recommended that administrators lighten the amount of documents dispersed per week to teachers, filtering out needless paperwork.

In reducing the amount of time teachers spend on filling out paperwork, which takes away from classroom instruction, the following recommendations are suggested. Administrators can curve paperwork time by restricting the completion of documents during teacher team meetings. In this group setting, teacher may efficiently and effectively complete school documentation. Likewise, paperwork may also be reserved for faculty meetings in which teachers can get guidance and direction on how best to fulfill requirements set forth by the administration. The third option consists of support

personnel (i.e., teacher's aides, volunteers, co-teachers, etc.) who can document student and classroom development while teaching and learning occurs. These suggestions serve as a starting point for administrators who are considerate and appreciate of teachers' time. In order to reduce unnecessary paperwork and alleviate the amount of work placed on teachers, school leaders must examine their respective schools and faculty, prioritizing which accountability measure will benefit teachers and students alike.

School districts, more specifically school boards, can greatly impact teacher salary and advancement. Although economic downturns and tight budgets plague the education system, from a policy standpoint, teacher compensation and advancement must be addressed. The notable financial burden placed on teachers because of low compensation speaks to the teacher shortages that often occur in many states. Although Black female teachers in this study did not choose the teaching profession as a career for its high paying salary, as mentioned, salary often deters many Black students from becoming classroom teachers (Wilder, 1999), inadvertently affecting the teaching pool. Moreover, once in the classroom, lack of incremental pay raises overtime affects teacher retention. It should also be noted that the cost associated with teacher turnover (recruiting, hiring, and training replacement teachers) is significant at the district and school level (Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; Carroll & Fulton, 2004). Perhaps if teacher retention were higher, the monetary aid that is devoted to teacher turnover each year could be reallocation to teacher salary, influencing teacher satisfaction. It is the recommendation of this study that school boards rebalance their budgets, increasing teacher compensation in accordance with teachers' years of teaching experience.

In conjunction with increase teacher pay overtime, teacher advancement should also be expanded. It is recommended that the school board establish auxiliary educational roles and careers paths for teachers. Although many of the Black female teachers in this study wished to seek positions outside of the classroom, classroom retention may increase if teachers were offered career options, that is, multiple roles and titles within the educational structure of their school. In developing additional occupations, teachers would experience a reduced class loads, giving them flexibility to adopt additional roles (i.e., co-teacher, facilitator, specialist, instructional coach, etc.) to their current classroom teacher title. As recognized, reduced school funding and limited budgets restrict policy alterations, but continuing down this path where teachers are over burden and under paid will produce detrimental consequences for the American public education system and its students. If we continue to maintaining the status quo, certain developments are imminent: the reduction of the number of Black teachers, the persistence of a largely homogenous teaching force, and the restricted educational possibilities of a diverse student population.

Summary

In this mixed methods analysis, incorporating both transcendental phenomenology and hierarchical multiple regression, numerous findings were revealed. With the exception of teacher autonomy and workload and paperwork, qualitative and quantitative data reveal that the following factors influence Black female teachers' job satisfaction: urbanicity (city), charter school, administrative support, and student behavior. Workload and paperwork were only pervasive in the qualitative findings. In regards to Black female teachers intention to remain in the classroom, qualitative results showed that teachers were more likely to remain in the classroom with a) salary increases

overtime, b) the availability of professional advancement, and c) administrative support. Through the lived experiences of the Black female participants, supported by statistical data, factors influencing their job satisfaction and intention to remain in the classroom were highlighted. Offering a different perspective this analysis furthers empirical research on teachers of color, teacher job satisfaction and retention. The twelve Black women in this study defined themselves through their words, affirming their unique experiences within the narrative of the American teaching force. Through these findings, their voices, interactions and encounters are acknowledged, contributing a verse to the growing discourse on diversity within the field of education.

TABLE 5: Research design

Design	RQ	Method	Data/ Participants	Variable/Data Collection	Data Analysis
<p>Exploratory Sequential Mixed Method Design</p> <p>Taxonomy Development Model</p> <p>QUAL↓</p> <p>quan↓</p> <p>Interpretation based on QUAL (quan)</p>	<p>1. How do in-service Black female teachers describe their job satisfaction?</p> <p>2. How does job satisfaction influence in-service Black female teachers' intention to stay in the K-12 classroom?</p>	<p>Qualitative: Transcendental Phenomenology</p> <p>-explores the lived experiences of individuals</p> <p>- essence of a phenomenon</p>	<p>12 Black female K-12 teachers.</p> <p>Sample: Purposive and snowball from researchers' contacts</p>	<p>An open-ended, semi-structured, audio-recorded interview (later transcribed), which will roughly last 60-90 minutes</p>	<p>Constant comparative data analysis method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).</p> <p>Open coding -many codes</p> <p>Axial coding - connections between categories -categories are formed from codes and themes from categories</p>

TABLE 5: Continued

Design	RQ	Method	Data/ Participants	Variable/Data Collection	Data Analysis
	1. What factors (e.g., autonomy, environment, etc.) are associated with in-service Black female teachers' job satisfaction and intention to stay in the K-12 classroom?	Quantitative: A cross-sectional survey research design	NCES' Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) -Teacher Questionnaire -School Questionnaire	Dependent: *Job Satisfaction Independent Variables: *Academic degree *Licensure *Alternative certification *National board certification *Years of Experience *% of Minority Students *Urbanicity *% of Students (free or reduced) *Charter *Teacher Autonomy *Student Behavior *Collegiality *Administrative Support *Commitment to Teaching	*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Based on literature, variables are stepped into the model. Step 1 *Academic degree *Licensure *Alternative certification *National board certification *Years of Experience Step 2 *Charter School *Urbanicity *Free or Reduced Lunch *Minority Students Step 3 *Student Behavior *Teacher Autonomy *Administrative Support *Collegiality *Commitment to Teaching

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APPENDIX A: RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Hello,

I hope this email finds you well. My name is Abiola Farinde. I am a PhD candidate at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. I am writing in hopes of recruiting you for my research study. My research examines Black female teachers' job satisfaction and their decisions to remain in the classroom. Specifically, how do current Black female teachers describe their experiences in the classroom and what influences their decision to remain in the K-12 classroom.

The following eligibility criteria were selected for my participants:

- 1) Black, female, current classroom teacher
- 2) Can have an alternative certification

Do you meet the selected criteria? If so, may I interview you? If you do agree to participate in this study, you will engage in a 60-90 minute interview, which will be recorded using a handheld audio recorder. The interview protocol questions are divided into four sections (i.e., rapport questions, teaching experiences, job satisfaction and retention, and the closing). The interviews will conclude by offering participants a platform to express any additional comments or concerns. Different locations (e.g., teachers' classrooms, UNCC College of Education, conference rooms, etc.) will be used to conduct the interviews, accommodating the schedules of all participants.

If you agree to an interview, I will need you to sign an informed consent form. I will bring this document to our scheduled interview. Please email (afarinde@uncc.edu) back specifying an interview date and time that works best with your schedule. I cannot thank you enough for assisting me in this matter, and I hope to hear from you soon.

Best,

Abiee

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APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

In-Service Black Female Teacher Interview Protocol

Rapport Questions

(Self-introduction) Please introduce yourself?

Tell me about your day. How did it go?

Teaching Experiences

1. What subject and grade level do you teach?
2. Of all the different professions, why did you initially choose to become a teacher?
3. Do you have a traditional certification or an alternative certification? As a pre-service teacher, did you understand the extensive roles and duties of a classroom teacher? Do you feel that your teacher education program adequately prepared you for your role as a classroom teacher?
4. What is the biggest difference between what you expected and what you experience as a classroom teacher?
5. Do you currently teach for a public or charter school? Have you ever taught at a charter school?
 - a. If you have not taught at a charter school, please describe based on your knowledge of charter schools, if you believe you would have greater or less job satisfaction in this setting.
 - b. If you have taught at a charter school, can you compare your experiences at a charter school to a public school? Did these differences affect your job satisfaction at each location?
6. Do you prefer to work in an urban, suburban or rural school? Why?

7. Can you list three reasons you enjoy being a teacher? Can you list three reasons you do not enjoy being a teacher?
8. How many years have you been a classroom teacher? Do you plan to remain in the classroom (veteran teacher)? Why?

Job Satisfaction and Retention

9. Tell me about your current salary. Do you feel adequately compensated for the amount of work you performed? Does your salary influence your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?
10. Tell me about the administrative staff. What is the relationship between the administrative staff and teachers? Do you feel that they offer support to the faculty? Does the relationship between teachers and the administrative staff affect your job satisfaction and intention to stay in the classroom? Does the lack or presence of administrative support affect your job satisfaction and intention to stay in the classroom?
11. Tell me about the level of autonomy you have in your classroom. How much control do you have over school decisions? Does teacher autonomy influence your job satisfaction or decision to remain in the classroom?
12. Describe student behavior in your classroom. Do students behave positively or negatively? Does student behavior affect your job satisfaction and intention to remain in the classroom?
13. Tell me about your students. What is the demographic and socio-economic status of students at your current or past school? What percentage of students is on free

or reduced lunch? Do the demographics of the students at your school affect your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?

14. Tell me about the different types of duties you perform throughout the week. How often do you put in over time? Are you able to balance your personal life with work? How so? Does the amount of workload or paperwork influence your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?
15. Have you obtained an advanced degree or National Board Certification? If so, why? If not, why? If you have obtained additional teacher education, has this knowledge improved your overall job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?
16. Tell me about how much importance is placed on student performance at your school and what is the climate and culture regarding student test scores. Does student performance influence your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?
17. Describe your feelings regarding the lack of advancement for teachers. Does the lack of professional advancement or promotion influence your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?
18. Do you think that you are committed to teaching? Does your commitment to teaching influence your job satisfaction and decision to remain in the classroom?

Closing

1. Is there anything else you want to add about factors that influenced your job satisfaction or your decision to remain in the classroom?