THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION, MOTIVATIONAL ATTITUDES, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC VERSUS PRIVATE SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION, MOTIVATIONAL ATTITUDES, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC VERSUS PRIVATE SCHOOLS

David Haimovich

During and after the Covid-19 pandemic, a high turnover rate of PreK-12 special education teachers continues to persist. To ensure all students with disabilities receive equitable access to a special education teacher, turnover intentions among private school teachers require further insight due to a long-standing gap in research. Using the theoretical frameworks of Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory and Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model of Commitment, this non-experimental correlational study examined the influence of six demographic factors related to teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment among special education teachers employed in PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. The study was conducted using the Teacher Satisfaction, Motivation, & Commitment of Present Employment (TSMCPE) Survey. Results found that all demographic factors had a significant influence on participants' job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment. Findings were further supported by special education teachers' comments on their perceived commitment. The present study offers recommendations to the PreK-12 leadership community on ways to increase the likelihood of their special education teachers to remain in their present school/district.

DEDICATION

I would first like to dedicate this study to my wife, Stacy, and our baby boy on the way. I'm so lucky to have met my soulmate and am very excited to be starting a family of three with you! Congratulations, you finally get your husband back! So long, *Dissertation Dave*, hello *Vacation Dave*. The latter is much more fun. If there's someone who truly knew every step I endured to complete this research, it would be a very close tie between you and my mom. I'll leave it to both of you to discuss who heard me commiserate the most. You always found a way to cheer me up with your witty one-liners and amusing stories that involve your TV show, our families, and friends. And thank you for all the little things you've done for me to make this process less stressful. Whether it was new episodes of The Amazing Race, Below Deck, or The Bear, thank you for bending my arm to take a break from my laptop.

To my mother, Sheryl, and father, Avi, you have always been in my corner from the very start, and thanks for always encouraging me to reach my fullest potential. I am truly blessed to have such incredible parents and hope I can teach my son all of life's important lessons you've imprinted on me. I've had the unique opportunity to see both of you in leadership roles, which has had a profound impact on how I make day-to-day decisions as an educational leader in my school.

To my nieces and nephew, each of you are remarkably gifted in your own unique way, and I can't wait to see how you all evolve into adulthood. Thanks in large part to how your parents raised you, I have no doubt you will make a positive impact in the world as you continue to fulfill your ambitions and passions.

And finally, to my fifth-grade teacher, Mr. Alan Gleicher. Thank you for seeing something in me that I never saw in myself as a 10-year-old boy. While it was roughly 30 years ago, I remember like it was yesterday the time you swiftly entered one of my classrooms and announced, “You! You! You received the highest math test score in the entire fifth grade!” Though this might be one of many notable achievements in your teaching career, whenever I feel something is too difficult to accomplish, I look back on that moment to remind myself I have the capacity to achieve anything I want regardless of its difficulty. The world would be a much better place if it had more Mr. Gleichers teaching fifth-grade math.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I am forever grateful to my mentor, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig. Your ongoing guidance, support, and encouragement have helped me every step of the way with bringing this study to life. To Dr. Richard Bernato and Dr. Anthony Annunziato, who enthusiastically agreed to serve on my dissertation committee. Your words of encouragement and positive feedback were an essential driving force that made me feel I could take on a study of this magnitude. I would also like to acknowledge the executive and building-level leadership of AHRC NYC (Christina Muccioli, Madelin Rivera, Louise Marchini, Denise Polanco-Nieves, and Christopher Uccellini), who generously offered their knowledge on the innerworkings of the private school system and gave me a platform to share my intended research with other organizations. In turn, I received countless networking opportunities, which made this research possible. And, finally, I would like to thank all the special education teachers who willingly volunteered to complete my survey. The time you set aside from your busy schedules to complete this survey was the main reason this research was possible. Your voices matter, and so does the well-being of your neurodiverse students.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Exacerbated by the consequences of Covid-19, the turnover rate among special education teachers employed in public schools across the United States has steadily risen while minimal focus has been placed upon special education teachers at the private school level. While the national teacher turnover rate is estimated between 13-15% each year, that frequency is projected to be twice as high among private school teachers (D'Ercole, 2019). Surprisingly, substantial attention from media outlets (Samuels & Harwin, 2019; Farmer, 2022; Gaines, 2022), educational researchers (Billingsley & Bettini, 2019; Hester et al., 2020), and research organizations (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2019; 2022a) have widely investigated this phenomenon at the public-school level, but unfortunately minimal concern has been placed upon special education teachers employed in private schools who similarly serve students with disabilities (SWDs). In accordance with federal law, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004) is designed to provide benefits and services SWDs ages 3-21 in public schools and requires school districts to make services and benefits available to SWDs enrolled by their parents in private schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Unfortunately, though, an insufficient supply of fully qualified and readily available special education teachers undermines IDEA's guarantee of a FAPE for SWDs (Peyton et al., 2021). Provided IDEA is legally obligated to serve SWDs in both public and private schools throughout the United States, there is a considerable need to address the literature gap concerning employment turnover factors among special education teachers at the private school level.

During pre-pandemic times, for over a decade, academic researchers and education policy experts raised concerns about a widespread shortage of teachers across the United States (Schmitt & deCourcy, 2022). The first wave of warnings arose in response to substantial budgetary cuts in state and local spending on education following the Great Recession from December 2007 to till June of 2009 (Federal Reserve History, 2013; Schmitt & deCourcy, 2022). The Learning Policy Institute (2020) indicated that between 2008 and 2010, the Great Recession resulted in an employment cut of more than 120,000 teaching positions. Although the Federal Recovery Act provided $97.4 billion in funds to public schools, the teacher employment gap persisted post-Great Recession (Learning Policy Institute, 2020). For instance, during June 2017, the US Department of Education reported that 46 states experienced a substantial shortage of special education teachers (Hester et al., 2020). Next, in a national sample of approximately N = 2,400 K-12 public schools, an August 2022 School Pulse Panel report found that special education vacancies were the most prevalent as compared to 24 other school-level positions. This report also identified special education teachers as the greatest anticipated (86%) and actual (78%) hiring difficulty among school leaders, followed by teachers in mathematics (anticipated = 82%, actual = 75%) and English language arts (anticipated = 70%, actual = 65%). Additionally, during 2019 there were 44 states who reported special education teacher shortages to the federal government; in 2022 that number jumped to 48 (Gaines, 2022).

Since March 2020, teachers have experienced the greatest disruption in the history of the United States education due to Covid-19 (Pressley et al., 2022). Between March 2020 and the 2021-2022 school year, teachers in the United States and throughout the

world were required (a) to teach in a manner that was outside traditional methods; (b) learn and use new educational hardware and software; (c) navigate multiple learning modalities of synchronous, asynchronous, and/or hybrid instruction; and (d) mitigating against the spread of Covid-19 (as cited in Pressley et al., 2022). For over three years of adapting and adjusting to the challenges of Covid-19, combined with a drastic increase in students' psychological needs and academic needs, many teachers have reached their breaking point (Peetz, 2023). Among those teachers who experienced substantial burnout were special education teachers who experienced an added layer of difficulty making learning accessible in a remote learning environment for SWDs whose cognitive, behavioral, attentive, and multi-sensory needs were not appropriately met through this platform (Averett, 2021). In a NCES (2022b) report, approximately 44% of public schools nationwide reported having at least one full- or part-time teaching vacancy. Based on those public schools with at least one reported vacancy, the NCES found that 61% specifically identified the Covid-19 pandemic as the cause of increased teaching and non-teaching staff vacancies. Next, the NCES found special education was identified as the leading position with the greatest number vacancies (45%) followed by general elementary teaching positions (31%), and substitute teachers (20%). Finally, this NCES report found resignation to be the leading cause of teacher vacancies (51%) followed by retirement (21%) since the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic.

To further explain this massive exodus from the teaching profession, Pressley (2021) found that Covid-19-related anxiety, concerns about excessive teaching demands, parent communication, and administrative support were all factors that contributed to widespread burnout. Moreover, as teachers returned to the classroom during the 2020-

2021 school year, they encountered a steep learning curve of implementing various alternative teaching approaches, safety measures, virtual instruction platforms, and software-based curriculums. Chapple (2022) added the combination of extra work and fewer resources due to Covid-19 caused unprecedented teacher stress, which increased teacher burnout. As a result of stress in the workplace, the education sector has lost educators due to teacher burnout and caused a teacher shortage.

In response to this burnout phenomenon, Toropova et al. (2019) argued that while job satisfaction was closely related to teacher retention, it also contributed to the well-being of teachers and their students, overall school cohesion, and enhanced status of the teaching profession. Scott et al. (2022) indicated the shortage of qualified teachers was especially concerning in special education, wherein their levels of retention were primarily based on burnout and emotional exhaustion, lack of formal induction support for new teachers, lack of support from school leadership, and other challenging work conditions. Findings from prior empirical literature also found that administrative support was important in managing teachers' stress, satisfaction, and commitment (Aldosiry, 2022).

To shed additional light on the matter of teacher morale, the Winston School of Education and Social Policy (WSESP) at Merrimack College surveyed approximately N = 1,178 public-school teachers (n = 442 elementary; n = 253 middle school; n = 409 high school; and n = multiple grade spans) during 2022 and 2023 using the Merrimack College Teacher Survey (MCTS). These researchers found that between 2022 and 2023, participants who completed the MCTS who were "very satisfied" with their jobs almost doubled from 12% in 2022 to 20% in 2023. While the 20% of "very satisfied" teachers

falls short of more than 50% of MetLife respondents who selected this rating between 1995 (54%) and 2008 (62%), the WSESP researchers contend the one-year-increase was worth noting. Although teacher job satisfaction does appear to have an upward trajectory, MCTS results indicated that some teachers were more satisfied than others. First, there was a substantial difference among teachers with 4 to 9 years of teaching experience who reported feeling "very satisfied" with their jobs (2022 = 7%; 2023 = 14%) as compared to teachers with less than 3 years of experience (2022 = 10%; 2023 = 32%). Second, men (2022 = 19%; 2023 = 24%) were more likely than women to be "very satisfied" with teaching (2022 = 10%; 2023 = 18%). Third, Millennials were less likely to be "very satisfied" (2022 = 6%; 2023 = 14%) than their Baby Boomer (2022 = 26%; 2023 = 28%), Generation X (2022 = 12%; 2023 = 19%), and Generation Z (2022 = 16%; 2023 = 35%) counterparts.

Also demonstrating improvement was the percentage of teachers who reported they were "very" or "fairly likely" to leave the teaching profession in the next two years. Furthermore, that sentiment fell to 35% during 2023 from 44% during 2022; however, it remains substantially than the 29% measured by the 2011 MetLife survey. Next, while the MCTS results show job satisfaction has risen, 46% of teachers reported that knowing when they now know, they would be fairly or very likely to advise their younger selves to choose teaching again. This morale indicator remained almost unchanged from 2022 at 45%. While the majority of Baby Boomers (57%) and Generation Z teachers (67%) would choose teaching again, if given a do-over, only 40% of Generation X teachers and 45% of Millennials felt the same. Men were more likely than women to say they would recommend teaching to their younger selves (51% versus 44%). Finally, while many rural

teachers felt they would advise their younger selves to choose the field of teaching (55%), only 44% of suburban and 45% of urban educators would do so.

According to Schaeffer (2022), even before the pandemic there were signs of a *pipeline problem* in terms of attracting people to the profession at the post-secondary level. A 2022 study from Pew Research Center found the number of bachelor's degrees in education has declined over the last few decades. During the 2019-20 school year, colleges and universities conferred 85,057 bachelor's degrees in education, which accounted for approximately 4% of the more than 2 million total degrees distributed that year. The prevalence of bachelor's degrees in education awarded during 2019-20 was down 19% from 2000-01, when colleges and universities issued more than 105,000 bachelor's degrees in education (approximately 8% of all undergraduate-level degrees) (Schaffer, 2022). Furthermore, with fewer college graduates obtaining degrees in education, younger teachers have declined as a share of the nation's overall elementary and secondary school teaching workforce (Schaffer, 2022). In 2017-18, the most recent year for which NCES published data on this topic, 15% of all public and private K-12 schoolteachers were younger than 30, which was down slightly from 17% in the 1999-2000 school year (as cited in Schaeffer, 2022).

To remediate this teacher-employment gap, several states across the U.S. have provided stipends for hard-to-fill teacher vacancies (e.g., Atlanta Public Schools) like special education. McCray (2021) reported the Atlanta school board approved stipends for more than 400 special education teachers where they would each receive $3000 during the 2021-22 school year. While stipends might be an effective way to lure and retain hard-to-fill teacher certifications, they do not yield long-term outcomes. Sawchuk

(2022) argued one-off bonuses do not seem to be much of a draw at all, unless school districts are really prepared to compensate teachers with a substantially large amount. Furthermore, according to a 2022 nationally representative (N = 564) report from EdWeek Research Center, only 14% of participants indicated a one-time bonus of $2,001 - $5,000 offered by their state/district would convince them to remain in the teaching profession for the long-term. Making matters worse, only 5% of teachers claimed they would remain in teaching for a long-term duration if they received a one-time bonus under $2,000. Conversely, the top five reasons for educators to remain in the teaching profession for the long run included (a) salary increase that exceeded increases in the cost of living (59%); (b) salary increase that covers increases in the cost of living (50%); (c) increase in pension/defined benefits (39%); (d) reduction in out-of-pocked health care expenses (37%); and I new tax credits for educators (30%).

While many states across the U.S. have lowered licensing standards to address the ongoing teacher shortage, they are legally unable to do so with special education teachers (Will, 2022). The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), the federal law on educating student with disabilities, requires special education teachers to appropriately and adequately prepared and trained as well as having content knowledge and skills necessary to serve SWDs (Will, 2022). A 2022 memorandum from the U.S. Department of Education outlined that states cannot waive special education certification or licensure requirements on an emergency, temporary, or provisional basis. The memo further outlined special education teachers must also hold at least a bachelor's degree. To bypass this challenge, several states had issued emergency permits to fill special education teacher vacancies. For instance, the Indiana State Board of Education issued more than

1,200 special education emergency teaching permits during the 2019-20 school year (Will, 2022). While the U.S. Education Department did not sanction the state of Alabama, Will (2022) argued the use of emergency permits left school districts vulnerable to potential legal challenges from families of SWDs.

Provided short-term financial incentives and less rigorous licensing standards cannot effectively address the teacher-employment gap for special education teachers, the researcher argues that deeper insight into job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and commitment are vital to cultivate highly capable and committed professionals who could minimize this ubiquitous employment gap for the long haul.

In an ideal state where the special education teacher-employment gap does not exist, teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivational needs are sufficiently met by their school leaders and educational policymakers to remain in their current school until they reach the age of retirement (Baroudi et al., 2022). A second ideal state would be for special education teachers in both public and private schools to receive an adequate base salary that surpasses their relative cost of living and nationwide consumer price index rate of inflation. The National Education Association estimated that the national average teacher salary for the 2021-22 school year was $66,397, which was only a 1.7% increase from the previous school year (as cited in Will, 2022). However, when adjusted for inflation, the average teacher salary decreased by an estimated 3.9% over the last decade (Will, 2022). Scott et al. (2022) found a significant association between adequate financial compensation in salary and benefits and teachers' intent to persist in their profession. Finally, teachers across the United States would receive an adequate level of prestige and recognition as compared to other countries, like China and Malaysia who

widely regard the profession of teaching on par with medical doctors (Walker, 2018). According to Geiger & Pivovarova (2018), low prestige of the teaching profession has been shown to contribute to burnout among teachers, which negatively impacts teacher retention. Additionally, MCTS results obtained during 2023 by the WSESP found differences among public school teachers who felt respected by the general public based on their race/ethnicity (Black = 79%; Hispanic = 58%; and White = 53%), gender (Men = 62%; Women = 52%), and years of teaching experience (3 years or less = 71%; 4-9 years = 49%; 10-14 years = 45%; and 15 or more years = 57%).

As teachers continue to resign at record-high levels, student achievement has also taken a negative toll due to the Covid-19 pandemic. According to the 2022 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Mathematics and Reading Assessment results for grades 4 and 8, test scores dropped to their lowest levels in decades. In 2022, the average reading score at both fourth and eighth grade decreased by 3% compared to 2019. At fourth grade, the average reading score was lower than all previous assessment years since 2005 and was not significantly different in comparison to 1992. At eighth grade, the average reading score was lower compared to all previous assessment years since 1998 and was not significantly different compared to 1992. In 2022, fourth- and eighth grade reading scores declined for most states/jurisdictions compared to 2019. In 2022, the average fourth-grade mathematics score decreased by 5% and was lower than all previous assessment years going back to 2005; the average score was one point higher compared to 2003. The average eighth-grade mathematics score decreased by 8 points compared to 2019 and was lower than all previous assessment years since 2003. In 2022,

fourth- and eighth-grade mathematics scores declined for most states/jurisdictions alongside most participating urban districts compared to 2019.

Sutcher et al. (2019) contend that each time a teacher leaves their school of employment it not only results in a vacancy, but also imposes replacement costs on their school district. According to the most recent data from the Learning Policy Institute (2017), the average cost of teacher turnover was approximately $20,000 per teacher. Upon further analysis, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (n.d.) Consumer-Price Index Inflation Calculator indicated a 22.2% increase of $24,443.93 to replace a teacher as of 2022. The cost of turnover included separation for the departing teacher, advertising, and recruitment of new teachers, hiring, and training. Francis (2017) added when teachers leave after only one or two years, the costs of turnover are not recouped. It should also be noted that countless hours of required orientation for employment onboarding, mentorship, observations, and professional development are factored into hiring a new teacher. Alternatively, a comprehensive approach to reduce the teacher employment gap would effectively lessen the demand for teacher hiring and would save money that could otherwise be better spent on mentoring, professional development, and other evidence-based approaches to support teacher development (Sutcher et al., 2019).

Limited empirical research has attempted to examine whether various school types (i.e., private versus public schools) have a significant impact on PreK-12 special education teachers' level of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and perception of organizational commitment. Accordingly, the researcher addressed the literature gap of examining teacher continuance outcomes among special education teachers employed in private schools who serve students classified with moderate-to-profound disabilities

versus their counterparts employed in public schools. The current research added to the scholarly literature and informed practices that can safeguard the longevity of continuance outcomes among special education teachers in their respective public and private schools.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative non-experimental correlational study first determined the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) as they related to job satisfaction, motivation, perception of organizational commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban public and private schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Next, this quantitative non-experiment correlational study determined the influence of participants' job satisfaction scores and motivation scores as they related to their overall commitment scores. Finally, this quantitative study used descriptive statistics and In Vivo Coding to determine: (a) if participants were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why; and (b) what participants perceive their administrative supervisors could do, if anything, to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school.

The independent variable of school type was public and private schools that serve students classified with mild-to-profound disabilities. The second independent variable was overall experience, which required participants to specify the entirety of years they have served as a teacher. The third independent variable was longevity of teaching at present school, which required participants to specify the number of years they have served as a teacher at their present school of employment. The fourth independent

variable was gender, which required participants to indicate whether they identify as male, female, or other. The fifth independent variable was teacher's level of education, which required participants to indicate whether they have obtained a bachelor's degree, master's degree, or doctoral degree to obtain their state-accredited license in special education. The sixth independent variable was race/ethnicity of teachers, which required participants to indicate whether they identify as American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White (non-Hispanic). The dependent variables were cross-sectional survey scores that measure participants' level of perceived job satisfaction, motivation, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and overall commitment.

Theoretical Framework

The present study used Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory to investigate special education teachers' job satisfaction and motivational attitudes. Within the domain of industrial psychology, this theory holds that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different constructs, caused by different facets of interaction between a stimulus (i.e., job, product) and the individuals. As the constructs are unrelated, one's level of satisfaction is independent of the level of dissatisfaction, wherein an individual may simultaneously be very satisfied and very dissatisfied (Maddox, 1981). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory outlines that humans are motivated by motivators and hygiene factors. As such, these two factors are both critical to motivation, wherein motivators encourage job satisfaction and hygiene factors prevent job dissatisfaction (Kurt, 2021). Motivation factors (e.g., achievement, recognition, advancement) are intrinsically related to workplace satisfaction, and permit employees to be content in their jobs and promote growth.

Hygiene factors are not related to workplace satisfaction but must be present in the workplace to prevent dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors cover extrinsic needs, such as salary, workplace policy, and relationships with their peers (Kurt, 2021).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivator-Hygiene Theory appropriately fits within the context of this study based upon the multitude of intrinsic and extrinsic factors necessary to retain special education teachers in schools. The researcher of the current study posits that school systems which establish a harmonious balance of *motivators* (e.g., responsibility at work, meaningful/fulfilling work, achievement, and recognition) and *hygiene factors* (e.g., salary and other financial rewards, working conditions, appropriate supervision, and school policies) have a greater likelihood of retaining their teachers as opposed to school systems which place greater emphasis on only one of those factors.

Next, the present study utilized Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model (TCM) of Organizational Commitment to investigate special education teachers' perception of commitment to remain in their present school and/or career. Based upon the TCM framework, the three dimensions of organizational commitment are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The TCM framework is recognized as the *net sum* of employees' psychological states, wherein each of these three components exist simultaneously (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997; Somers et al., 2019). First, *affective commitment* refers to as an employee's identification with, involvement in, and sentimental attachment to their organization (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Additionally, affective commitment expresses the extent to which employees become psychologically attached with their organization through feelings of loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness, and pleasure (Haque et al., 2020).

As shown through prior research, affective commitment leads to greater employee retention and job performance (Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Second, *continuance commitment* refers to commitment based on the perceived economic and social costs of leaving one's organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment is based upon employees' psychological state to remain in their job because they need to. Third, *normative commitment* refers to employees' emotion and feelings of compulsion to remain with their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Additionally, normative commitment exists when employees feel obligated toward their organization which has invested time and money into their professional development (Randall & Cote, 1991).

Meyer & Allen's (1997) TCM of Organizational Commitment appropriately fits within the context of this study based upon this model's usefulness from prior researchers to predict important employee outcomes, such as turnover, citizenship behaviors, job performance, absenteeism, and punctuality (Meyer et al., 2002). Based upon prior empirical research, the TCM model significantly has been shown to significantly predict the relationship between teachers' school culture (Gok, 2018) and work environment (Cheng & Kadir, 2018) on their level of organizational commitment. Prior research has also found the demographic factor of gender to have predictive measures on determining organizational commitment (Gok, 2018).

In this study, the researcher deemed it necessary to use Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory and Meyer & Allen's (1997) TCM of Organizational Commitment based on empirical research that determined significant correlations between these variables (Aldosiry, 2022; Chanana, 2021; Conley & You, 2017). Mwesigwa et al. (2020) argued

job satisfaction and organizational commitment received significant attention in studies of the workplace since those variables were major determinants of organizational performance and effectiveness. Culibrk et al. (2018) added that organizational commitment was considered an extension of job satisfaction as it dealt with an employee's attitude toward their job. As such, the researcher of the current study argued that once hygiene areas are addressed, the motivators promoted both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Richard, 2012). Accordingly, in reference to the present study, the researcher hoped to obtain a statistically significant findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment among K-12 special education teachers employed in public versus private school districts.

Conceptual Framework

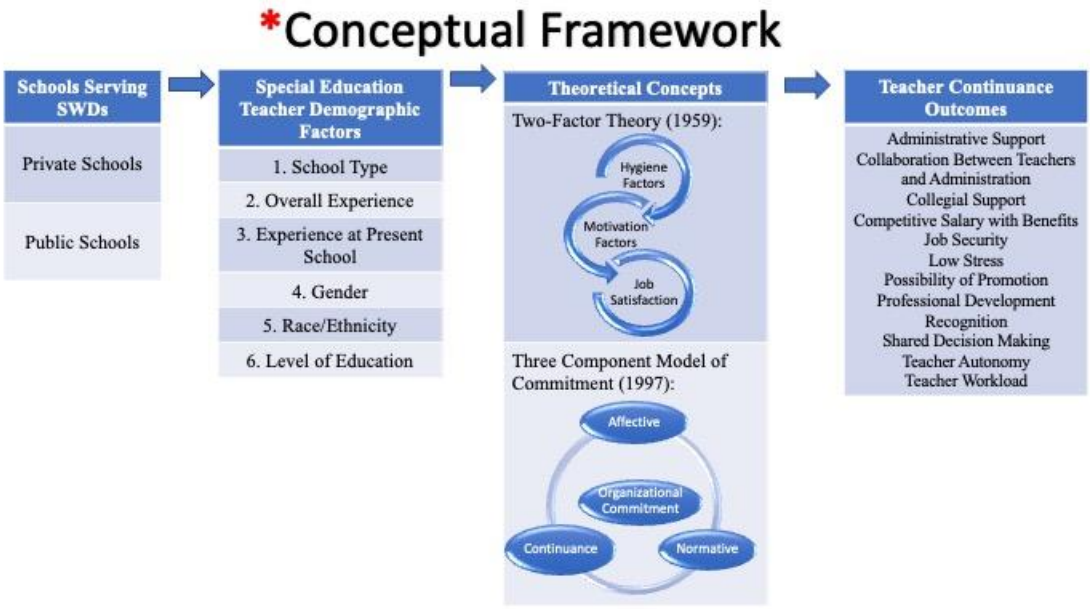
As shown in Figure 1, the Conceptual Framework provides an illustration of what provided the inspiration for the current study and the expectations for the teaching continuance outcomes. It demonstrates how the concepts from the theoretical framework are interwoven with the study's variables to establish a methodical order to the flow of the study. First, participants are arranged by school type based upon special education teachers who reside in public schools and serve students classified with mild-to-moderate disabilities, or private schools specifically intended to serve students with classified moderate-to-profound disabilities. Next, six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) are obtained from the special education teacher participants. Accordingly, the framework illustrates whether the six demographic factors reveal significant differences in

participants' self-reported survey scores of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment.

Connections evident in Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory investigate participants' motivational attitudes (i.e., motivation and hygiene factors) to determine whether their job satisfaction varies based upon the six demographic factors. In reference to the sequential visual of the Two-Factor Theory (i.e., Hygiene Factors → Motivation Factors → Job Satisfaction), Herzberg theorized that once hygiene areas were addressed the motivators will promote job satisfaction and encourage production (Richard, 2012). Furthermore, the framework illustrates analysis into whether the six demographic factors reveal significant differences in participants' self-reported survey scores of their organizational commitment. Connections evident in Meyer & Allen's (1997) TCM of Organizational Commitment investigate participants' organizational commitment based upon the three interrelated factors of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Finally, the Teaching Continuance Outcomes portion of the conceptual framework represents nineteen conclusive findings derived through prior empirical research (from 2016 to 2023) concerning teachers' job satisfaction, motivation, and continuance commitment.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework Demonstrating the Theoretical Concepts, Variables, and Constructs in the Study



Significance of the Study

Remedying this Great Teacher Resignation is necessary to ensure all PreK-12 students receive an appropriate and equitable learning experience from teachers who are satisfied with their job, possess positive motivational attitudes, and show long-term commitment to their school (Varghese, 2022). Standard 6a (Professional Capacity of School Personnel) of the PSEL (2015) requires educational leaders to recruit, hire, support, develop, and retain effective and caring teachers and other professional staff and form then into an educationally effective faculty.

Current employment data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics revealed PreK-12 public education will not return to pre-pandemic employment numbers until August 2032 if the job growth rate of the last 12 months (approximately 3,000 per month) is

maintained (Maiers, 2022). Additionally, the State of the State Report (2022) indicated that New York is facing a steep retirement cliff in the coming years that has been exacerbated by the ongoing pandemic. In particular, New York State requires approximately 180,000 new teachers over the next decade to meet workforce needs.

According to Farmer (2022), nearly half of public-school teachers who resigned from their position after February 2020 did so because of pandemic-related challenges, such as longer work hours and having trouble navigating through remote instruction. Furthermore, special education teachers have been leaving the field at almost double the rate of their general education counterparts, due to stress, low pay, and risks to their own physical health (Farmer, 2022). According to 2021 research findings by the National Center for Learning Disabilities, 58% of presently employed teachers reported feelings of burnout, and those who primarily worked with students with learning and attention issues were most likely to report feeling burnout.

Limited research has explored whether there is a significant difference on whether special education teachers employed within public and private schools experience varied levels of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, organizational commitment. Insofar as addressing an additional literature gap, the researcher exclusively recruited special education teacher participants at the private school level who serve SWDs classified with moderate-to-profound disabilities. The current research added to the scholarly literature, and informed practices that can benefit educational leaders, special education teachers, and policymakers at all levels of education.

Connection with Social Justice

The federal law of IDEA guarantees SWDs access to fully licensed special educators, but provisional teaching requirements have been lowered in several states due to a limited supply of these teachers (Gaines, 2022). When schools are unable to find qualified teachers, federal law allows them to hire people who are not fully qualified so long as they are pursuing special education certification (Gaines, 2022). For instance, California, Virginia, Connecticut, Vermont, and Maryland are among the states which offer provisional licenses to help staff special education classrooms (Gaines, 2022). The prevalence of SWDs in the United States continues to increase while fewer special education teachers are available to educate these children. According to the most recent reports from the US Department of Education (2021), from school year 2009-10 through 2020-21, the number of students aged 3-21 who receive special education services under IDEA increased from 6.5 million (13% of total public-school enrollment) to 7.2 million (15% of total school enrollment).

Understanding how to address the special education teacher employment gap is essential toward ensuring students with the most profound intellectual and physical impairments receive an equitable and appropriate education uniquely tailored to their individualized needs. The special education teacher shortage had declined during the Great Recession of 2012, shortages have increased to 6.8%, leaving approximately 23,000 positions in special education without a qualified teacher (Peyton et al., 2021). Shortages have been attributed to many factors, such as high attrition rates (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020) and an insufficient supply of new teachers entering the workforce (Mason-Williams et al., 2020). Thus, to meet the growing prevalence of SWDs the current will

investigate underlying demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years employed at present school, gender, level of education, ethnicity) that may influence special education teachers' perceived level of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided the current study were as follows:

Research Question 1

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' job satisfaction?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's job satisfaction scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's job satisfaction scores.

Research Question 2

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' motivation?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' motivation scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' motivation scores.

Research Question 3

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' affective commitment?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' affective commitment scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' affective commitment scores.

Research Question 4

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' continuance commitment?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' continuance commitment scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' continuance commitment scores.

Research Question 5

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' normative commitment?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' normative commitment scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' normative commitment scores.

Research Question 6

How do job satisfaction scores and motivation scores predict teachers' overall commitment scores?

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between job satisfaction scores and motivation scores to predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between job satisfaction scores and motivation scores to predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores.

Research Question 7 (Descriptive Statistics)

If special education teachers were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why?

Research Question 8 (Descriptive Statistics)

What do special education teachers perceive their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school?

Definition of Terms

Burnout characterized in the 11th Revision of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11) by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2019) is considered an occupational phenomenon as opposed to a medical condition. The ICD-11 defines burnout as a syndrome conceptualized as resulting from chronic workplace stress that has not been successfully managed and is characterized by the following three dimensions: (a) feelings of energy depletion or exhaustion; (b) increased mental distance from one's job, or feelings of negativism or cynicism related to one's job; and (c) reduced professional efficacy (WHO, 2019).

Job burnout is further characterized as a condition that results from ongoing exposure to stressful situations that may lead to emotional exhaustion, a sense of depersonalization, feelings of ineffectiveness, and a lack of personal accomplishment concerning one's work and personal life (Maslach, 2003; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Wong et al. (2017) found special education teachers' job burnout was associated with their teaching practice and engagement, which subsequently related to their students Individualized Education Program (IEP) outcomes.

Job satisfaction, according to Locke (1976) is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (as cited in Hilmi et al., 2016). Evans (1997) further described job satisfaction as "a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives [their] job-related needs to be met" (p. 328). Hilmi et al. (2016) identified teacher job satisfaction or motivation as a determinant of teacher retention, teacher commitment, and school effectiveness.

Motivation derives from the word "movere," which means mobilization and is defined as the process that initiates, maintains, and directs spiritual and physical activity that drives an organism into action to reach a certain object or situation (Budak, 2003; as cited in Akdemir, 2020). Motivation encourages employees to be more productive and committed toward their job (Denton, 1987; as cited in Anjum et al., 2021). Pinto & dos Santos (2018) stated that motivation boosts employees' morale and encourages them to willingly give their best efforts to accomplish an assigned task (as cited in Anjum et al., 2021). A well-organized and fair reward system positively affects employee motivation (Shafiq & Naseem, 2011), wherein rewards can be either extrinsic or intrinsic (Gkorezis & Kastritsi, 2017). Various forms of payment such as salary and other benefits (e.g., bonuses, allowances, medical claims, insurance plan) are extrinsic rewards that have a relationship with the monetary aspect of motivation (Pinto & dos Santos, 2018; as cited in Anjum et al., 2021). Conversely, intrinsic rewards are rewards where an employee does not gain any material or financial benefits (e.g., personal achievement, praise or recognition, advancement, autonomy in decision making, responsibility, the work itself, working conditions, growth or development of skills, job security) (Hughes, 2012; as cited in Anjum et al., 2021).

Organizational commitment was characterized by Meyer & Allen (1996) as an emotional bonding between the employee and their organization, wherein this personal attachment influenced longevity of retention. In turn, this organizational commitment affects whether an employee stays as a member of the organization or leaves to pursue another job (Colquitt et al., 2013). Allen & Meyer (1990) outlined that organizational commitment

comprised three constructs of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment represents one's emotional bond to the organization and their willingness to exert effort on behalf of their organization (Cheng & Kadir, 2018).

Continuance commitment represents a willingness to remain as a member of an organization based on the perceived cost of leaving (e.g., retirement fund) (Cheng & Kadir, 2018).

Normative commitment manifests based on socialization experiences and emphasized the feeling of obligation to one's organization (Cheng & Kadir, 2018).

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The prior chapter introduced the study and essential research questions. To better understand the ongoing nationwide teacher shortage, the researcher investigated whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, level of teachers' education, and race/ethnicity of teachers) has a significant impact on special education teachers' demographic factors, level of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and perceived employment commitment.

Chapter 2 provides an in-depth understanding of the theoretical framework and introduce the reader to the review of the related literature. The chapter concludes with a statement of how the present study contributes to the knowledge base on what influences the likelihood of special education teachers' level of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and perception of employment commitment in their schools. In the following chapter, the methods and procedures used to conduct the current research study will be explained.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical frameworks featured in the present study was Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factory Theory (also known as Motivation-Hygiene Theory), and Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three Conceptual Model (TMC) of Employee Commitment. Herzberg was a U.S. clinical scientist and professor at the University of Utah who theorized there were several intrinsic job factors that resulted in satisfaction, while there were other simultaneous extrinsic job factors at work that prevented feelings of dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017). Meyer & Allen are both psychology professors from the University of Western Ontario who theorized that organizational commitment was experienced by the employee

as three simultaneous mindsets encompassing affective (i.e., emotional ties), normative (i.e., perceived obligations), and continuance (i.e., perceived social and economic costs) organizational commitment (Noraazian & Khalip, 2016).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg was considered by many scholars in the late 1950s to be a pioneer in motivational theory regarding job-embedded *satisfiers* and *dissatisfiers* (Richard, 2012). During 1959, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman published the Two-Factor Model of Work Motivation and developed the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg's Two-Factory theory was derived from Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, which stated that human needs were arranged in a series of levels in a hierarchy of motivation-based importance (Herzberg et al., 1993). According to Herzberg (1974), Motivation-Hygiene theory suggests that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are conceived by different work factors. Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not obverse of one another but are essentially viewed as two distinct and parallel continua (Herzberg, 1965). Herzberg theorized that employee satisfaction depended upon two sets of issues: *hygiene* issues and *motivators* (Richard, 2012). Misener & Cox (2001) added these so-called satisfiers (i.e., motivational factors) and dissatisfiers (i.e., a lack of hygiene factors) were dynamic, constantly interacting, highly subject to change, and relative to the employee (as cited in Nickerson, 2023). Motivation factors resulted in positive job attitudes, while hygiene factors surrounded the *doing* of the job (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Hygiene factors, according to Herzberg, cannot motivate employees but can extrinsically minimize dissatisfaction, if handled properly. In other words, hygiene issues can only dissatisfy employees if they are absent or mishandled. Hygiene factors consist of

company policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions (Herzberg, 1965; Herzberg, 1974).

1. *Company policies* can be a great source of frustration for most employees if those rules/guidelines are perceived as vague, unnecessary, or not required by all employees to follow. While employees will never feel a great sense of motivation or satisfaction due to organizational policies, supervisors can decrease dissatisfaction in this area by making sure policies are unambiguously worded, undeniably relevant, and fairly/equally required among all stakeholders (Herzberg et al., 1993).
2. For *supervision*, Herzberg argued one must begin by making wise decisions when appointing an employer (Smith, 2012). The role of supervisor is considered extremely challenging, such that it requires leadership skills and the ability to treat all employees equitably. Herzberg et al. (1993) posited that supervisors need to use positive feedback whenever possible and should stablish means of employee evaluation and feedback so that no one feels singled out.
3. In terms of *salary*, if employees do not believe they are appropriately compensated, they will be unhappy working for an organization. To reduce dissatisfaction regarding one's compensation, Herzberg recommended for organizations to: (a) consult with similar organizations to what employees are paid, and (b) have clear policies related to salaries, raises, and bonuses (Richard, 2012).
4. *Interpersonal relations* involve the personal and working relationships between an employee and their supervisors, subordinates, and peers. These relationships

can manifest via job-related interactions as well as social discussions in both the work environment and during informal break times (Nickerson, 2023).

5. *Working conditions* involve the physical surroundings of the job regarding adequacy or inadequacy of ventilation, lighting, resources, space, and other such environmental characteristics (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Herzberg et al., 1997). Richard (2012) added the environment in which people work has a tremendous impact on their level of price for themselves and for the work they are performing. Working conditions may refer to the amount of work provided to the employees by their supervisor (Herzberg et al., 2017). Working conditions may also include the amount of work (i.e., workload) an employee is tasked to complete (Alshmemri et al., 2017).

Motivators, on the other hand, create intrinsic satisfaction by fulfilling individual's needs for meaning and personal growth. Motivation factors consist of achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, achievement, and possibility of growth (Herzberg, 1965; 1974).

1. *Achievement* is defined by Herzberg et al. (1997) as either positive, negative, or absent altogether. Positive achievement can involve completing a difficult task on time, solving a job-related problem, or seeing positive results from one's work (Nickerson, 2023). Negative achievement, on the other hand, includes failure to make progress at work or engage in poor job-related decision making (Alshmemri et al., 2017). To establish a work environment where achievement is possible, supervisors should allocate/place employees in positions that utilize their talents and are not set up for failure (Richard, 2012). Furthermore, supervisors should

establish clear, achievable goals and standards per each position, and make sure employees know what those goals and standards are. Employees should individually receive regular, timely feedback on how they are performing, and should feel adequately challenged in their jobs (Richard, 2012).

2. *Recognition* is characterized as when employees receive praise or rewards for reaching goals at their job or for producing high-quality work from a supervisor, some other individual in management, management as an impersonal force, a client, a peer, a professional colleague, or the 'general public' (Herzberg, 1997, 2017; Nickerson, 2023). Negative recognition, on the other hand, involves criticisms or blame for a poorly executed job (Alshmemri et al., 2017).
3. *The work itself* characterizes the perceived content of a particular job's inherent tasks that can have positive or negative effects on employees (Nickerson, 2023). The job's difficulty and level of engagement can dramatically impact satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace (Alshmemri et al., 2017). According to Herzberg et al. (1997), jobs can be routine or varied, creative or stultifying, overly easy or overly difficult. Furthermore, the duties of a position can entail an opportunity to carry through an entire operation or they can be restricted to one minute aspect of it (Herzberg et al., 1997). Richard (2012) added that supervisors should identify certain tasks that are truly superfluous and can be eradicated or streamlined, resulting in greater efficiency and satisfaction.
4. *Responsibility* encompasses both the accountabilities held by the individual and authority granted to the individual in their role. Herzberg et al. (1997) theorized that employees gain satisfaction from being delegated the responsibility and

authority to make decisions. Employees would be more motivated to perform their job well if they had ownership of their work. In turn, this requires providing employees with enough freedom and autonomy to carry out their tasks, so they feel they own the result of their labor (Richard, 2012). Conversely, a mismatch between responsibility and level of authority negatively impacts job satisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017).

5. *Advancement* refers to a change in one's position at work and involves the concept of promotion (Hilmi et al., 2016). Advancement of an employee should be rewarded based upon their loyalty and performance (Richard, 2012). Herzberg defined advancement as the upward or positive status, or position of an employee in a particular workplace (Nickerson, 2023). Meanwhile, a negative or neutral status of an employee at work represented negative advancement (Alshmemri et al., 2017).
6. *Possibility for growth* exists in the same paradigm as Maslow's self-actualization, such that there are opportunities for a person to experience personal growth and promotion in their workplace (Nickerson, 2023). Personal growth can result in professional growth, increased opportunities to cultivate new skills and techniques, and acquiring specialized knowledge (Alshmemri et al., 2017).

Herzberg theorized that once hygiene areas were effectively addressed, the motivators will produce job satisfaction and encourage productivity (Smith, 2012). While hygiene issues are not the source of satisfaction, these issues must initially be dealt with to create an environment in which employee satisfaction and motivation are possible (Richard, 2012). The presence of motivational factors can produce job satisfaction, but

their absence leads to no job satisfaction. Therefore, poor hygiene factors can produce job dissatisfaction, while better hygiene factors can diminish dissatisfaction but cannot produce job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg explained that the opposite of job dissatisfaction is the absence of job dissatisfaction. Similarly, the opposite of job satisfaction is the absence of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, 2003).

The following tables are summaries of Herzberg's two-factor theory. Table 1 displays the motivation and hygiene factors. Figure 2 provides comparisons between the motivation and hygiene factors.

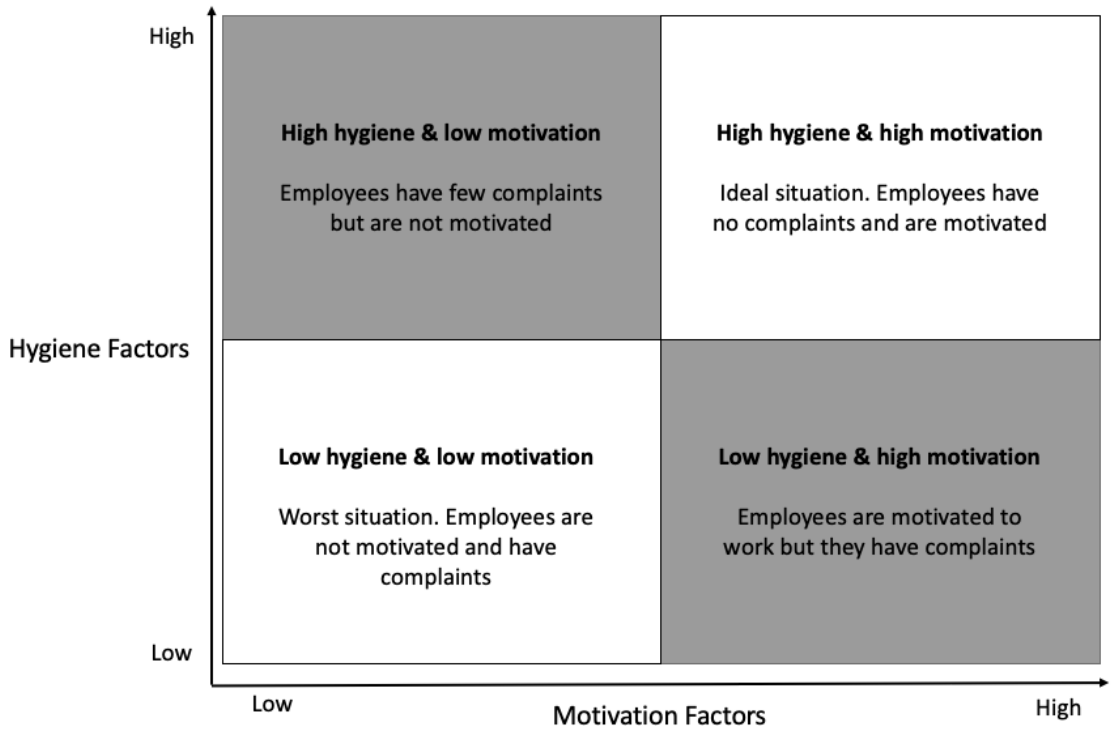
Table 1

Herzberg's Two Dimensions of Employee Satisfaction

Motivators (Intrinsic Satisfiers)	Hygiene Issues (Extrinsic Dissatisfiers)
Work itself	Company and Administrative polices
Achievement	Supervision
Recognition	Salary
Responsibility	Interpersonal relations
Advancement	Working conditions
Possibility of Growth	

Figure 2

Comparisons Between the Two Factors of Herzberg's Theory



Note. Illustration of the Two-Factor Theory in practice. From *Herzberg Two Factor Theory of Motivation: Factors and Advantages*, by Toolshero, 2023. (https://www.toolshero.com/psychology/two-factor-theory-herzberg/). Reprinted with permission.

Meyer & Allen's Three-Conceptual Model (TCM) Theory

The Side-Bet Theory (SBT) of employee commitment behavior has originally been conceptualized by Howard Becker (1960) and subsequently tested by Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three Conceptual Model (TMC). Becker posited that making a *side bet* is to increase the cost of failing to persist in a course of action (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Side bets are actions that link a person to a particular course of action by virtue of the fact something would be forfeited if they discontinued their position of employment. In terms of organizational commitment, the term *side bet* was used to refer to anything of value

the individual has invested (e.g., time, effort, money) that would be lost or deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if they left their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mohd et al., 2020). For instance, SBT could consist of the following examples for employees to remain in their present organization: nonrefundable pension plan, development of organization-wise skills or status, usage of organizational paybacks (e.g., tuition assistance stipend) (Mohd et al., 2020). Becker further argued that commitment to a course of action results from the accumulation of side bets a person makes. Accordingly, the course of action is to remain with the company (Powell & Meyer, 2004). For SBT, commitment behavior toward the organization and engagement in the one's behavior are thought influence an employee to: (1) stay in the organization to perform quality work, or (2) to quit their current job to for achieving better opportunities in other jobs (Mohd et al., 2020).

Meyer & Allen (1984, 1990, 1991) developed their three-component model to integrate existing unidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment of Becker's (1960) SBT (as cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004). They argued that the common element in all definitions was the belief that commitment binds an individual to a course of action. What differed was the mind-set believed to characterize the commitment (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Becker (1960) argued that commitment was accompanied by an *awareness of the costs* of discontinuing a course of action. Other theorists (e.g., Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982) viewed commitment as an *emotional attachment* to the organization, while others conceptualized commitment as a sense of *moral obligations* to comply with behavioral norms (e.g., Wiener, 1982). To acknowledge these differences of

commitment discourse, Meyer & Allen applied different labels to what they characterized as three components of commitment (TCM): *affective, continuance* and *normative*.

Affective commitment refers to the employees' identification with, involvement in, and sentimental attachment to their organizations (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). It also conveys the extent to which employees become psychologically attached with the organizations through various feelings (e.g., loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness, and pleasure) (Haque et al., 2020). Accordingly, employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment leads to higher employee retention and job performance (Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the perceived social and economic costs associated with leaving the organization (Haque et al., 2020). Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Furthermore, continuance commitment may be developed because of activities or events that raise the cost of leaving the organization and does not involve the psychological aspects connected with such decisions (Haque et al., 2020). Since continuance commitment reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, anything that increases perceived costs could be considered an antecedent (e.g., side-bets or investments, and availability for alternatives; Meyer & Allen, 1991). These side bets can take many forms and may be work- or non-work related. For instance, the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills, of losing attractive benefits, of giving up

seniority-based privileges, or having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships, can be perceived as potential costs of leaving an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1991).

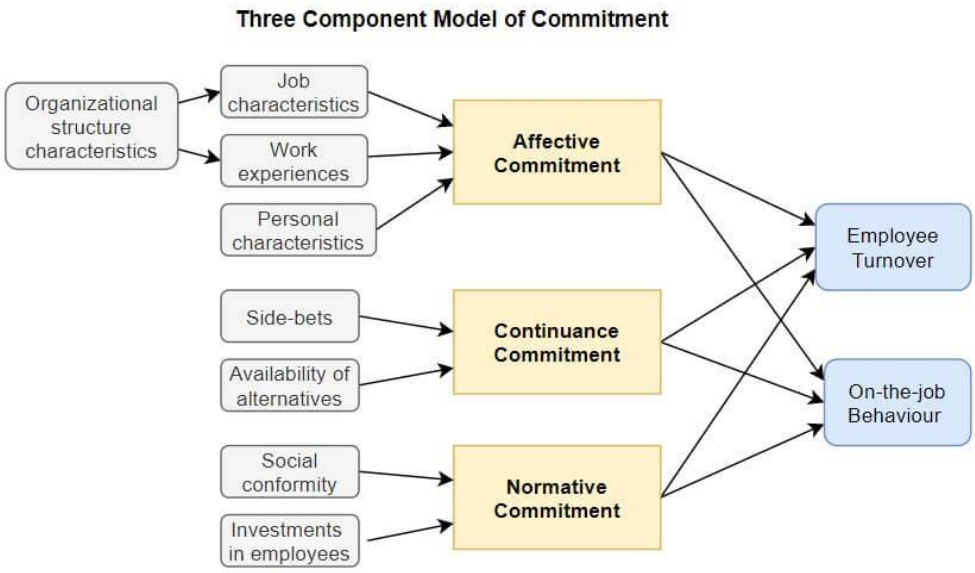
Normative commitment refers to employees' emotion and feelings of compulsion to remain with their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they *ought* to remain with their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In this instance, employees remain with their organization due to their sense of obligation and feel to remain with the organization because of their perceived reciprocal obligations to the organization (i.e., norm of reciprocity; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Employees with a greater normative commitment continue their jobs with the belief of the *right* and *moral* ways to perform for their organization (Haque et al., 2020). Wiener (1982) suggested that the feeling of obligation to remain with an organization may result from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into the organization (i.e., familiar, or cultural socialization), or following entry (i.e., organizational socialization; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normative commitment may also develop when an organization provides an employee with rewards in advance (e.g., paying for college tuition), or incurs significant costs in providing employment (e.g., costs associated with job training). Scholl (1981) added that recognition of these investments on the part of the organization might establish an imbalance in the employee/organization relationship and cause employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organization until the debt has been repaid (as cited in Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Haque et al. (2020) highlighted that several researchers have supported TCM as an influential concept in organizational studies (Bentein et al., 2005; Haque et al., 2019;

Somers et al., 2019). Solinger et al. (2008) suggested the following three perspectives on TCM: (1) all three elements reflect an employee's psychological state, such as needs and wants; (2) this model associates with organizations and reflects the notion of organizational commitment as employee attitude; and (3) each of the three components exist simultaneously. As such, the TCM of organizational commitment is recognized as the net sum of employees' psychological states. For more information on the organizational structure characteristics associated with each component of the TCM and their respective outcomes, please see Figure 3.

Figure 3

Organizational Structure Characteristics of TCM's Impact of Employee Turnover and Motivation.



Note. Illustration of the Three Component Model of Commitment in practice. From *Three Component Model of Commitment*, by 12Manage, 2023. (https://www.12manage.com/forum.asp?TB=organizational_commitment&S=26). Reprinted with permission.

Review of Related Research

The following review of related literature is divided into five sections: (1) Impact of Covid-19 on Teacher Turnover; (2) Teacher Burnout and Other Work-Related Stressors, (3) Job Satisfaction, (4) Motivational Attitudes, and (5) Continuance Commitment. Each section provides summaries of each study, which details critical reviews of the research and how each study is related to the current research. Any gaps found in the literature are noted. The review of related literature concludes with a demonstration on how the current study supports and extends the knowledge base of factors related to special education teacher retention and outcomes highlighted in the review.

Covid-19 Pandemic and the Effects on Teacher Turnover

When the World Health Organization (WHO, 2020) publicly declared the emergence of the coronavirus disease (Covid-19) as a global pandemic in March 2020, many governments, including the United States, required educational institutions to close and requested that educators work from home (Hilger et al., 2021). The Covid-19 crisis has generated an unprecedented scale of disruption for K-12 school systems, educators, and the students they serve (Bacher-Hicks et al., 2023). Abrupt nationwide school closures in March of 2020 marked the start of a long series of pandemic-related disruptions across three school years. During this time, educators experienced a wide range of additional pressures, such as unexpected shifts in schooling mode, learning new technologies, and managing personal health concerns (Bacher-Hicks et al., 2023). These pandemic-related challenges had the potential to alter both the retention of the existing

teacher workforce and the supply of new teachers willing to enter the profession (Bacher-Hicks et al., 2023; Zamarro et al., 2022).

Zamarro et al. (2022) used a nationally representative sample of teachers from the RAND American Teacher Panel (ATP) to investigate how the pandemic has changed teachers' intentions to remain in their current position and which factors were associated with increased consideration of leaving the profession. The researchers included questions on a survey administered to the nationally representative RAND ATP from March 22 to March 31, 2021. Their sample contained N = 1,045 teachers, wherein 73% were female and 83% were white. Regarding demographics of employment, 29% of participants taught in the city, 39% taught in the suburbs, and 31% taught in a town or rural area. Additionally, the researchers used responses from a pre-pandemic survey of N = 5,464 teachers, which took place from February 10 to March 16, 2020, and focused on teachers' retirement knowledge and preferences. Several questions on the 2020 survey were replicated on the 2021 survey, allowing the researchers to determine whether teachers' attitudes may have changed through the pandemic. The researchers used statistical logit models to study factors associated with the overall probability of teachers considering leaving or retiring from the profession during the 2020-21 school year.

Descriptive data found that teachers became less certain that they would work a full career in the classroom due to Covid-19. Participants were asked both in March 2020 and March 2021 surveys whether they planned to remain in the teaching profession until retirement. In March 2020, 74.2% of teachers indicated they expected to work as a teacher until retirement, whereas 9.3% stated they did not expect to, and 16.5% did not know. Conversely, in March 2021, the proportion who reported they expected to remain

in the teaching profession until retirement dropped to 69%, while the proportion who indicated they did not expect to remain similar at 9.5% and the proportion who stated they did not know increased to 21.5%. Both surveys also asked teachers to indicate their perceived probability of leaving their current state or the profession within the next 5 years. The reported probability of participants leaving their current state or the profession during the next 5 years increased 24% on average in March of 2020 to 30% in March 2021. Next, in March 2021, teachers were also asked about whether they considered leaving or retiring from their current position, and to what extent this was because of Covid-19 or other reasons. Overall, a high proportion of participants (41%) considered to leave or retire during the 2020-21 academic year, wherein 22% declared it was because of the Covid-19 pandemic versus 19% who declared it was for other reasons. Additionally, 34% of teachers 55 and older reported they considered leaving or retiring due to Covid-19 as compared to 22% for all respondents (i.e., ages 35-44, ages 45-54).

Results from the statistical logit models found that approaching retirement age, having to change instructional modes (i.e., in-person, hybrid, remote), and health concerns appeared to be important predictors of teachers' consideration to leave or retire from their profession because of Covid-19. Those teachers approaching retirement (i.e., 55 years or older) were approximately 11% more likely to indicate they considered leaving or retiring during 2021 because of Covid-19, as compared to teachers not approaching retirement age ($R^2 = .105, p < .01$). Having to change instructional modes at least once during the school year was associated with approximately 12% greater probability of having considered leaving or retiring ($R^2 = .124, p < .001$). Teaching in a hybrid model was also associated with a higher probability of considering leaving due to

Covid-19. Compared with in-person teaching, teachers who taught their students primarily via hybrid were estimated 7% more likely to consider leaving because of Covid-19 ($R^2 = .071, p < .05$). In terms of teachers' health concerns, compared to teachers who reported a zero percent likelihood of being hospitalized or dying because of Covid-19, those who believed they had a 50% chance were 10% more likely to have considered leaving or retiring due to the pandemic.

Bacher-Hicks et al. (2023) conducted a descriptive analysis to construct a longitudinal data set based on administrative records from the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MADESE) between 2015-2016 and 2021-2022 to determine: (a) how teacher turnover at 6 months and 18 months into the pandemic compared to pre-pandemic turnover; (b) how teacher turnover patterns among newly hired teachers varied during the pandemic; and (c) whether turnover differed by teacher and school characteristics. Using this data, the researchers constructed a teacher-year-level longitudinal data set spanning 7 years and comprised a sample of N = 116,760 teachers. Overall, teachers in the researchers' sample had 10.7 years of within-state experience, 10% were newly hired, and 76% of teachers were female. Additionally, 92% we White, 3% were Black, and 3% were Hispanic/Latinx.

Results concerning overall turnover were considered stable in the years before Covid-19 (2016-17 to 2019-20). Throughout this four-year period, the percentage of Massachusetts teachers exiting the state teacher workforce ranged from 8.1% to 8.8%. The percentage who remained teaching in Massachusetts but moved to a new school ranged between 6.6% to 6.8%. Collectively, between 14.8% and 15.5% of teachers transitioned out of teaching roles in their schools during the pre-pandemic timeframe.

During spring 2020 to fall 2020, these patterns of teacher turnover largely remained stable, such that the researchers found no evidence of a mass exodus of teachers in Massachusetts in Year 1. The percentage of teachers leaving the state workforce (8.0%) was lower than any of the prior 4 years, and the percentage of teachers who moved to a new school within the state (6.8%) was consistent with prior years. Combining these two forms of turnover, the researchers found that the total turnover rate of 14.8% was less than or equal to any of the pre-pandemic years examined in their study. The relative stability during Year 1 disappeared when examining turnover in Year 2. From spring to fall of 2021, both forms of turnover increased. As compared to 2019, the state-level turnover increased by 15% (from 8.2% to 9.4%), and within-state turnover increased by 19% (from 6.8% to 8.1%). In turn, a total turnover rate increased by 17% from (15.0% to 17.5%). While turnover in 2020 was slightly below pre-pandemic levels, turnover in 2021 was considerably above pre-pandemic levels, thereby escalating the average pandemic-era turnover above prior levels.

Next, the researchers found a dramatic increase in turnover rates in the fall of 2021 (Year 2) among newly hired teachers. Among those hired in Year 1, 28.1% left the state teaching workforce by Year 2, amounting to a 42% increase compared to 2019. There were also increases in the within-state movement that amounted to a total turnover of 44.8%, which represented a 31% increase compared to 2019.

Finally, turnover rates were examined based on within-state teaching experience, race/ethnicity, and gender. Results found that turnover rates in 2020 decreased among the least experienced teachers but increased for those with more experience. Compared to 2019, turnover decreased in 2020 by almost 10% (from 24.5% to 22.3%) for teachers in

their first 5 years of teaching but increased by nearly 20% for teachers with 10-to-14 and 15-to-19 years of experience. During Year 2 of 2021, turnover was considerably greater than pre-pandemic levels for every subgroup apart from those with 20 or more years of experience. Turnover trends also differed considerably by race/ethnicity. In 2020 (Year 1), turnover rates decreased for all racial/ethnic groups other than White teachers who left at nearly identical rates to pre-pandemic years. However, in 2021 (Year 2), turnover increased for all racial/ethnic groups. The largest increase was among White teachers who left at 17% higher rate than in 2019, while turnover increased by only 5% among both Black and Hispanic/Latinx teachers during that same year. Regarding gender, female teachers who comprised more than three-quarters of the overall teaching workforce in Massachusetts had rates of turnover in Year 1 that were almost identical to prior years. However, turnover among female teachers increased by 19% in Year 2 (from 15.2% to 18.1%) compared to 2019. Male teachers, on the other hand, left at slightly lower rates in Year 1 versus 2019, and the increase in Year 2 was slightly lower (from 13.8% to 15.8%).

Teacher Burnout and Other Work-Related Stressors

Teaching is widely recognized as a high-stress profession, where high levels of teacher burnout and subsequent attrition brings considerable financial costs to educational organizations. With respect to teachers, burnout and attrition can also have a negative effect on school climate, school effectiveness, and on student performance outcomes (Sokal et al., 2021). The need to support teachers and prevent burnout and attrition is arguably more urgent than ever based on the challenges of Covid-19 (Sokal et al., 2021). The pandemic has negatively impacted the mental health and well-being (MHWB) of

teachers worldwide (Kim et al., 2022). Teachers faced with increased demands and limited resources since March 2020, have faced substantial adversity toward their MHWB. While the dominant narrative around MHWB in schools have largely focused on students, teachers' experiences and needs have been less vocalized or considered (Lee, 2020). According to Kim et al. (2022), understanding teachers' MHWB is critical, provided low MHWB could have serious consequences for the teacher employment pipeline. For instance, low MHWB can lead to teachers leaving the profession (Madigan & Kim, 2021b), which can be financially costly for schools and the educational system (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017), and detrimental to student outcomes (Madigan & Kim, 2021a; as cited in Kim et al., 2022).

Hester et al. (2020) explored two open-ended questions that were part of a larger mixed-methods analysis during the 2016-17 school year to uncover perspectives of current Special education teachers (N = 366) from 34 states across the United States to identify work-related stressors and their reasons behind leaving the field of education. The larger mixed-methods study examined the factors that contributed to burnout among special education teachers. The first open-ended question asked: *What are some of the most stressful components of your job?* Next, the first open-ended question was followed by a dichotomous response question: *Are you considering leaving the field in the next five years?* If the participant responded '*Yes,'* then a final open-ended question asked: *Why are you considering leaving the field?* A purposeful snowball sampling technique was used to recruit participants exclusively from special educators currently teaching students with disabilities in public elementary, middle, and high, and alternative schools regardless of their classroom type (i.e., resource, self-contained, inclusion) or number of

years of teaching. Data were analyzed using both deductive and inductive qualitative approaches. First, a deductive qualitative technique called *idea unit analysis* (i.e., an open-coding approach to break data into small segments that carry distinct meaning and themes) was used to analyze participants' responses to open-ended questions. Next, the researchers used an inductive reasoning technique to arrive at emerging themes and general conclusions, which allowed them to detect and identify patterns between demographic and teaching characteristics of the participants and their responses to the open-ended questions. The majority of the researchers' sample were comprised of participants who were: (a) female (*n* = 296, 82.0%); (b) white (*n* = 327, 90.6%); (c) between 20 to 39 years old (*n* = 167, 46.3%) versus 53.7% (*n* = 194) were 40 or older; (d) in possession of a master's degree (*n* = 237, 64.8%) while only 26.8% (*n* = 98) indicated their highest degree was a bachelor's; (e) reported to have between 0 to 5 years of teaching experience (*n* = 106, 29.0%), while 31.7% (*n* = 116) indicated they had 16 or more years of teaching experience in special education; and (f) predominantly located in the Southern (*n* = 237, 65.3%), followed by the West (*n* = 58, 16.0%), Midwest (*n* = 51, 14.0%), and Northeast (*n* = 17, 4.7%).

All 366 participants answered the first open-ended question related to job stress, whereupon five idea units were identified as the most stressful aspects of their job (i.e., administrators, legal mandates, other responsibilities, students, personal reasons). Based on the first idea unit, a total of 108 participants specifically identified their 'administrator' as causing them the most stress. Participants referred to administration as not only their principals but also central office personnel. Additionally, administration was also in reference to the lack of resources (i.e., classroom materials, technology,

professional development opportunities) provided by their principals or school district. Several participants also described administrators as 'totally clueless' about special education and 'unable to see the students as valuable people.' In the second idea unit, participants also associated stress with legal mandated, which included requirements by the State or Federal Government, as well as references to paperwork, policies, testing, caseloads, IEPs, and Section 504 requirements. Fifty participants explicitly mentioned 'paperwork' as being a significant contributor to their stress. As the third idea unit, participants cited other responsibilities, such as collaborating with other teachers, communication with parents, time management and scheduling, and working with para-educators as stressful aspects of their jobs. Other responsibilities encompassed all the other factors that went into their job besides directly teaching students. As the fourth idea unit, participants identified the students they taught as causing them stress in relation to student behaviors, needs and diagnosis. The participants' descriptions linked their stress to their inability to meet students' academic and/or behavioral needs due to a lack of supports and resources. Several participants expressed general worry or helplessness that they could not fix some of the problems their students faced at home. As per the fifth idea unit, participants described various personal reasons in relation to their job stress, such as missing opportunities with their families or the health risks they experienced from the demands of the job.

Prior to the second and final open-ended question, all participants responded to the dichotomous question. Over half (n = 199, 52.0%) of participants identified they were planning to leave the field. Accordingly, 199 participants answered the final open-ended question examining why they were considering leaving. Upon analysis of the second

open-ended question, five idea units were derived by the researchers (i.e., emotional and physical health, support and resources, job demands, additional education or changing careers, retirement). In the first idea unit, 'emotional and physical health' referred to any phrases or words that the teacher felt expressed as directly impacting their emotional or physical well-being. When voicing emotional strains, participants used phrases such as: *emotionally draining, feeling ineffective as a teacher, worthlessness, helpless,* and *defeated*. Participants identified health-related concerns such as high blood pressure, thinning hair, weight gain, and chronic stress. Several participants also mentioned additional medications they took due to the stress of their careers, such as heartburn medication and antidepressants. For the second idea unit, participants frequently described the lack of support and resources they received from their schools including from their administration, district, and other teachers in the school as reasons they planned on leaving the field of special education. When discussing support and resources, participants referred to their salary, level of support, access to professional development opportunities, classroom materials, and the overall school environment. For the third idea unit, participants outlined their job demands, such as IEPs, workload, deadlines, and paperwork as reasons they considered leaving the profession. Participants additionally mentioned being torn between working outside of school hours and spending quality time with their own families and/or children. In the fourth idea unit, participants discussed leaving the field to obtain additional education or changing careers. Several participants discussed the need to pursue more education to 'gain respect' in education and to have a 'voice.' As the fifth and final idea unit, reaching the ability to retire was also identified as the reason participants were leaving the field. Numerous participants also shared their

desire to take on an early retirement while several stated they would retire 'tomorrow' if they 'could afford it.'

Kim et al. (2022) examined the mental health and well-being (MHWB) experiences of 24 state schoolteachers via semi-structured interviews over Zoom across three timepoints during April, July, and November of 2020 using longitudinal qualitative trajectory analysis. The researchers used a combination of inductive and deductive coding, based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, to identify the job demands (i.e., aspects of the job that could be physically or psychologically costly) and job resources (i.e., aspects of the job that can buffer the effects of job demands and promote achievement and growth) that teachers reported experiencing across three time points. Participant interviews were auto transcribed by Zoom and the transcriptions were anonymized, checked, and edited against the audio recording by the research team. One team member (i.e., the second researcher) read and re-read the data and generated initial codes and themes which were assigned to the relevant sections of the transcript. The coding and its framework were modified, reapplied, and finalized after ongoing discussions with the research team. Discrepancies in the codes and analyses were resolved by referring to prior literature frameworks and practices, led by the first researcher. In this study, participants were grouped according to their school type (primary or secondary) and their teaching role as a Senior Leadership Teacher (SLT; e.g., headteachers, deputy head teachers) or classroom teachers (CT). Accordingly, this resulted in four of the following groupings: Primary SLTs (participants 1-5), Secondary SLTs (participants 6-9), Primary CTs (participants 10-15), and Secondary CTs (participants 16-24).

Participants in this study taught in primary (n = 11) and secondary (n = 13) schools, identified as male (n = 6) or female (n = 18), had 1 to 32 years of teaching experience (M = 12.55, SD = 8.94). Using the JD-R model, two themes of job demands and resources were identified in the results. Six job demands identified as contributing to negative MHWB were uncertainty, workload, negative perception of the profession, concern for others' well-being, health struggles, and multiple roles. The three resources said to contribute to positive MHWB were social support, work autonomy, and coping strategies. All teacher groups identified uncertainty as a consistent detrimental influence on their MHWB across all three timepoints. Uncertainty appeared to create heightened anxiety and meant the teachers were unable to plan their workload easily as they did not know when or how those changes would occur. All teacher groups indicated their workload had increased over time, and that this had a negative impact on their MHWB.

Specifically, increased and ongoing workload appeared to have negatively affected participants' MHWB over time. Their descriptions of feeling exhausted suggest possible early signs of burnout. Next, the negative perception of the teaching profession concerning, mainstream and social media portrayal was reported to have a detrimental impact on teachers' MHWB. As such, it left participants feeling their work was undervalued and that the public did not have confidence in them as professionals. Primary and Secondary SLTs both raised concerns for the well-being of other staff across all time points. SLTs indicated they wanted to support other staff but were finding this difficult to balance with the other demands on their time. The impact of managing new and pre-existing health conditions had a detrimental impact on several teachers' MHWB. However, there were also protective factors by participants using coping strategies (e.g.,

being mindful of antecedent triggers) that had been successful in the past for maintaining their MHWB. Over time, Primary CTs increasingly raised the issue of competing demands on their time. Two participants within this group shared there was a feeling that SLT instructors and parental expectations were not always aligned, leaving them confused and conflicted regarding their duties and roles as teachers. Several types of job resources were more prevalent than others in supporting teachers' MHWB. For instance, social support and work autonomy were mentioned by all teacher groups across all time points, while coping strategies were not reported by Primary CTs. Contact with others was indicated to be a protective factor, which was mentioned by all teacher groups across all timepoints. Participants found the lack of social contact with colleagues and pupils especially difficult, since their physical isolation provided them with more time to overly focus on the coronavirus. Accordingly, opportunities for increased social contact with others (i.e., friends and family; working in a school building with colleagues and students) were a protective factor in teachers' MHWB. Finally, all teacher groups apart from Primary CTs discussed new and existing coping strategies they used to help them maintain their MHWB during the pandemic, such as taking breaks from meetings and social media, exercise, and using a meditation app (e.g., Headspace). Consequently, job resources appeared less abundance than job demands, and social support was the strongest positive contributor to MHWB.

Pressley et al. (2023) used the Job Demands-Resource (JD-R) model as a framework to identify factors contributing to teacher burnout following the Covid-19 pandemic. Furthermore, the researchers conducted an exploratory study that focused on understanding the relationship between demographic, Covid-19 related, and job

demand/resource variables, and teacher burnout at the end of the 2021-22 school year. To examine predictors of teacher burnout, the researchers used convenience and snowball sampling to collect survey data from PreK-12 teachers across the United States. The sample included N = 779 PreK-12 teachers across 49 states in the United States. Participants' average age was 40 (M = 40.4, SD = 10.34), had 13 years of teaching experience (M = 13.36, SD = 9.56), were predominantly white (87.6%), female (88.1%), and taught at the elementary level (PreK-5; n = 459, 59.0%). More than half of participants (60.1%) taught at a Title 1 school, and more than four-in-five (82.5%) taught in a traditional public school. Approximately half of participants (48.1%) was employed in a suburban school, one-quarter taught in an urban setting (25.1%), and the remaining participants taught in either a rural or small-town setting. The survey was developed/adapted by the researchers and incorporated questions focused on teacher and school demographics, teacher burnout, school resources, and mental health. Furthermore, the survey included items that measured administrative support (Seidman & Zager, 1986), teacher autonomy (Virginia Department of Education, 2021), and job satisfaction using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Test reliability coefficients were verified using Cronbach alpha formula, showing the results of $\alpha = .89$ for the Teacher Burnout scale, $\alpha = .90$ for the Administrative Support scale, and $\alpha = .84$ for the Teacher Autonomy scale.

The researchers' analysis included hierarchical regression models including demographics, Covid-19 implementations, and demands/resources to predict teacher burnout. The researchers tested three model levels (demographics, Covid-19 implementations, and demands/resources). The first model included four demographic

variables, which included: (1) teaching experience and dummy variables for (2) non-White teachers; (3) female teachers; and (4) the participants' school's Title 1 status. The second model added three variables related to Covid-19, which included: (1) allowing students to attend virtually when absent, (2) providing one-to-one devices for students, and (3) the use of a learning management system. The third model added variables related to the JD-R model, which included teacher mental health, administrative support, and teacher autonomy.

The first model (demographics) tested four factors related to teacher and school demographics and was significant ($p < .001$), with approximately 2.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .021$) explained by these variables. Teaching experience was the only significant predictor of teacher burnout in the first model ($\beta = -.046, p < .001$). The second model added three Covid-19 related variables to the demographic factors. The second model did not significantly improve compared to the first model tested ($p = .488$) with the model still explaining only approximately 2% of the variance ($R^2 = .024$). Accordingly, teaching experience was again the only significant predictor of teacher burnout in the second model ($\beta = -.044, p < .001$). The third model added three factors that may be either demands or resources for teachers to test for the effects of administrative support, teacher autonomy, and teacher mental health. In turn, the third model significantly improved over the first two models at $p < .001$. The full regression model explained approximately 41% of the variance ($R^2 = .407$), was significant $F(10,768) = 52.78$, $p < .001$, and indicated a significant improvement over the first two models at $p < .001$. In particular, the model comprised four significant predictors for teacher burnout, which included the following: (1) learning management systems ($\beta = .385, p = .045$); (2)

administrative support ($\beta = -.059, p < .001$); (3) teacher autonomy ($\beta = -.781, p < .001$); and (4) teacher mental health ($\beta = -.637, p < .001$).

Job Satisfaction

According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is considered a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's career or experience on the job (as cited in Thant & Chang, 2021). Shen et al. (2012) highlighted that teachers satisfied with their job are more likely to decide to remain in their profession, dissatisfied teachers tend to leave the profession resulting in economic and educational costs (as cited in Kang & Mavrogordato, 2023). Unfortunately, the role of teachers' work for student outcomes and well-being are widely recognized, the question on whether teachers are satisfied with their working environment is typically overlooked (Toropova et al., 2021). Busatlic & Mujabasic (2018) posited that nearly every employee works with the purpose of satisfying their needs and/or the needs of their families, while also constantly striving for satisfaction. Numerous studies have found employees satisfied with their jobs commit more to their organization, perform better, engage in organizational citizenship behaviors, are more likely to stay, and are less likely to leave their organization (Thant & Chang, 2021; Huang et al., 2020). Chanana (2021) reported a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The following empirical literature has reported that factors of interpersonal relationships (Busatlic & Mujabasic, 2018; Thang & Chang, 2021), collegial support (Hilger, 2021; Toropova et al., 2021), and professional development (PD) opportunities (Kang & Mavrogordato, 2023) significantly determines job satisfaction among teachers and/or other government employees.

Mertler (2016) explored the status of teachers' job satisfaction among PK-12 public and charter schoolteachers in the state of Arizona. With a response rate of approximately 18% of usable teacher surveys (51,000), a sample size of N = 9,053 PreK-12 public and charter schoolteachers within the state of Arizona completed a web-based 59-item Teacher Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Retention (TMJSR) survey using Qualtrics during the 2015-16 school year. Mertler indicated his analysis of the total sample size yielded an acceptable overall level of reliability of his self-developed instrument ($\alpha = .74$). Participants were predominantly comprised of female teachers (78%). Most respondents were considered White (non-Hispanic) (81%) followed by Hispanic (10%). Thirty-nine percent of participants held at least a bachelor's degree (with some additional hours), 54% held a master's degree (also with some additional hours), and only 2% held a terminal degree (i.e., Ed.D. or Ph.D.). Eighty-seven percent of participants reported teaching in public schools, while 13% identified as working in a charter school. The distribution of age categories was evenly distributed with the greatest percentage of respondents (16%) being 56 years or older, followed by those who indicated they were 41-45 (14%), 51-55 (14%), 46-50 (13%), 36-40 (12%), 31-35 (12%), 26-30 (11%), and 21-25 (8%).

First, Mertler investigated participants' satisfaction with their jobs as teachers, and found 26% indicated they were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied. An additional 17% indicated they were neutral about their level of satisfaction, and 58% indicated they were either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. In terms of gender, 28% of males were significantly more dissatisfied with their teaching positions as compared to 25% of females, $X^2(1, N = 8{,}853) = 7.99, p = .018, v = .03$. Similarly, significant differences

were found among teachers' reported ethnicity and levels of job satisfaction, $X^2(10, N = 8{,}815) = 31.72, p < .001, V = .04$. Significantly greater proportions of teachers whose ethnicity were reported as Other (29%) and White (non-Hispanic) (26%) than those reporting as Hispanic (23%), African American (22%), Native American (19%) and Asian or Pacific Islander (13%) were dissatisfied with teaching. Significant differences were also found between highest levels of education $X^2(14, N = 8{,}861) = 58.69, p < .001, V = .06$, with those holding a Masters + 15 hours (30%), an Ed.D. or Ph.D. (29%), a Bachelors + 30 hours (28%), or a Masters + 30 hours (27%) who reported higher levels of job dissatisfaction than those who held a Masters (26%), a Bachelors + 15 hours (25%), or a Bachelors (20%).

Significantly greater levels of job dissatisfaction were reported by teachers at upper age category levels, $X^2(14, N = 8{,}852) = 84.61, p < .001, V = .07$. Teachers ages 46-50 (30%), 51-55 (28%), 41-45 (28%), 36-40 (26%), and those 56 and older (26%) were significantly more dissatisfied than those aged 31-35 (23%), 26-30 (21%), and 21-25 (19%). Mertler reported a similar pattern was apparent for longevity of teaching experience, with those having more years of experience reporting greater job dissatisfaction, $X^2(14, N = 8{,}863) = 72.11, p < .001, V - .06$. Teachers with 21-25 years of teaching experience (31%), those with 16-20 years (29%), 11-15 years (28%), and 26-30 years of experience (27%) showed significantly greater job dissatisfaction than those with 31-35 years (25%), 6-10 years (24%), 1-5 years (21%).

Teachers currently working in public schools reported significantly greater levels of dissatisfaction with teaching than did their charter school counterparts, $X^2(2, N = 8{,}861) = 34.01, p < .001, V = .06$. Twenty-six percent of public-school

teachers reported they were dissatisfied with teaching, whereas 20% of charter-school teachers indicated being dissatisfied. Teachers in suburban schools with high to very high income (32%), those in urban schools with very high poverty (31%), and those in urban schools with high poverty (27%) reported significantly higher levels of dissatisfaction than did teachers in rural schools with high poverty (25%), those in suburban schools with moderate to high income (23%), and those in rural schools with low poverty (18%), $X^2(12, N = 8{,}847) = 67.74, p < .001, V = .06$. Finally, middle school teachers (27%) and elementary teachers (26%) reported significantly greater dissatisfaction than did high school teachers (25%) and teachers in PreK-12 positions (24%), $X^2(8, N = 8{,}860) = 16.56, p = .035, V = .03$.

In the job satisfaction portion of the survey, participants were also asked to indicate their desire to become a teacher if they had the opportunity to start over in a new career. Less than one-third (31%) of the total number of teachers responded in the affirmative ("Yes, definitely!"). Almost one-fourth (24%) selected the "No Way!" option, and nearly half (45%) of respondents said they were "I'm really not sure…" Finally, teachers were asked to indicate the approximate number of teachers with whom they currently work with that are believed to be satisfied with their job. Thirty-six percent believed "a majority are satisfied," 52% indicated that only "a few are satisfied," and 11% reported they believed that "no teachers are satisfied" with their jobs.

Busatlic & Mujabasic (2018) conducted a cross-sectional analysis to investigate the difference between motivator and hygiene factors of job satisfaction and the total level of satisfaction among *N* = 150 high school teacher participants in Canton Sarajevo. The sample was chosen via stratified random sampling techniques, wherein *n* = 15 (10%)

were employed in a private high school and n = 135 (90%) employed in a public high school. First, a personal data sheet was used to collect demographic information of participants (i.e., age, gender, education, experience, earnings, marital status). Next, participants completed the 1967 Long Form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). According to the researchers, the MSQ was widely used for measuring teacher's job satisfaction in Herzberg's dimension of satisfaction (i.e., motivator and hygiene). As opposed to 100 items in the original MSQ, the researchers' adapted version contained 45 items that was also translated from English to Bosnian language by a certified court translator. The adapted version of the MSQ passed a pilot study for examination of understanding and clearance. Test reliability coefficients were verified using Cronbach alpha formula, showing the results of $\alpha = 0.803$ for Motivator variables (17 items) and $\alpha = 0.756$ for Hygiene variables (28 items). In turn, these results made the adopted test reliable to be used for this study since a minimum α coefficient between 0.65 and 0.8.

First, results obtained through computation of Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that all factors from hygiene factors of motivation (i.e., school policy and administration, interpersonal relationship with supervisor, salary, work conditions, interpersonal relationship with subordinates, job security, status, job satisfaction) had a statistically significant positive relationship with job satisfaction at $p < .01$. All obtained coefficients for hygiene factors were above 0 (positive association) and close to 1 (perfect linear relationship). Next, results obtained through computation of Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that all motivation factors (i.e., achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, possibility for personal growth, work itself, job satisfaction) had statistically significant positive relationship with job satisfaction at $p < .01$. Finally,

to test whether there was a significant difference between two groups (public, private) among high school teacher participants, an independent samples *t*-test was computed. The difference in mean value between private (M = 3.80, SD = 0.70) and public (M = 3.52, SD = 0.60) high school teachers was significant at (t (175) = 4.23, $p < .01$). Accordingly, there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between private and public high school teachers in Canton Sarajevo.

Thant & Chang (2021) applied Herzberg's Two-Factor theory to examine the determinants of job satisfaction of public employees in Myanmar. In particular, the researchers undertook an inductive approach to qualitatively examine job satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors based upon a sample of randomly selected N = 226 government public employees from the Ministry of Border Affairs (MoBA) in Myanmar. The researchers applied Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory to conclude that both motivators and hygiene factors influenced job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the public employees. Data were collected through face-to-face, semi-structured, interviews. To represent all types of employees within the MoBA, researchers ensured the sample consisted of administrative (n = 100, 44.25%) and teaching staff (n = 126, 55.75%) from the ministry headquarters and various training schools (N = 226). The respondents were predominantly female (n = 172, 76.11%), ranged between ages of 30 to 39 (n = 91, 40.26%), and had a length of service between 11 to 15 years (n = 68, 30.09%). In the interviews, respondents identified various hygiene factors and motivators that affected their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. There were 16 factors and coding reference (CR) that contributed to the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the respondents.

Based on the analysis of the interview data, Thant & Chang found that interpersonal relationships (CR = 105), factors in their personal life (CR = 97), work itself (CR = 89), recognition (CR = 77), and policy and administration (CR = 56) were the most important factors in job satisfaction. Similarly, working conditions (CR = 85), interpersonal relationships (CR = 69), issues in their personal life (CR = 59), and supervision-technical (CR = 59) were the main job dissatisfaction factors of public employees in the MoBA. According to the researchers, these findings differed from Herzberg's theory because the motivators and hygiene factors made mixed contributions to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Among the hygiene factors, only discrimination independently affected job dissatisfaction. Among the motivators, only achievement independently influenced job satisfaction. It was also noted by Thant & Chang that many public officials in this study considered the opportunity to live with their family or parents as both a significant job satisfaction and dissatisfaction factor. Moreover, this unique factor reflected the family-oriented cultural of Myanmar, where the family is not only valued but also social patterns are uniquely community-based.

Toropova et al. (2021) investigated the relations between teacher job satisfaction, school-working conditions, and teacher characteristics for $N = 200$ eighth grade mathematics teachers. The data in their study were obtained from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 2015). The analytical methods used in their study were mainly confirmatory factor analysis and a structural equation modeling (SEM). Results indicated that teacher cooperation ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < .05$), school resources ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < .05$), and student discipline ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < .05$) had a moderate relation

with job satisfaction, while teacher workload ($\beta = 0.23$, p <.05) had a slightly weaker positive relation to job satisfaction. Results also demonstrated that teacher gender, the amount of professional development, and teacher self-efficacy beliefs were related to job satisfaction. The association with teacher gender was $\beta = 0.18$, meaning that women indicated higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts at $p < .05$. The amount of professional development was positively related to job satisfaction at $\beta = 0.28$, meaning that teachers with longer exposure to professional development likely had more job satisfaction at $p < .05$. Higher levels of teacher self-efficacy beliefs were also related to higher levels of job satisfaction at $\beta = 0.42$, thereby indicating that more efficacious teachers were more satisfied with their job at $p < .05$. In the interaction between teacher gender and all three aspects of school-working conditions, results showed a significant interaction between teacher gender and teacher cooperation ($\beta = -0.16, p < .05$), while there were no significant interactions found between student discipline ($\beta = 0.01, p > .05$) and teacher workload ($\beta = 0.05, p > .05$). Upon visual inspection of the researchers' linear graph, the steepness of the slope for men concluded that male teachers working in schools characterized by higher levels of cooperation tend to be more satisfied with their job than male teachers in other schools. Women, who generally indicated higher levels of job satisfaction, also had higher levels of job satisfaction when experiencing higher levels of teacher cooperation, but not to the same magnitude as men.

Baroudi et al. (2022) investigated teachers' job satisfaction as well as their perceptions of their principals' self-efficacy levels. A convenient sampling approach was used based on geographic location and accessibility in Mount Lebanon governate to

recruit $N = 133$ participants from six public ($n = 42$) and six private schools ($n = 91$). These twelve Lebanese schools were a mix of elementary, middle, and high school teachers. The researchers required participants to complete a questionnaire comprised of 36 items from the Teacher's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) and nine extra items from the Norwegian Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (NPSES). In its final form, the researchers' instrument included two sections. Section A focused on respondents' demographic information, while Section B included various dimensions of intrinsic and extrinsic factors related to teachers' job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). From the 300 distributed questionnaires, a total of 133 surveys were returned and reflected a 44% return rate. Females largely comprised the sample at 76% ($n = 101$), and 57% ($n = 75$) of participants had more than 10 years teaching experience.

First, when investigating significant factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction, the researchers found the lowest five factors comprised the Nature of Work Itself ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 1.27$), Recognition ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.92$), Working Conditions ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.83$), Professional Development ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.04$), Teacher Autonomy ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 0.72$). On the other hand, the top five factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction comprised Working with Students ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 0.55$), Professionalism and Respect ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 0.90$), Supervisory Support ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 0.90$), Remuneration ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.11$), and Teachers' Perceptions of their Principal Leadership Self-Efficacy ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 0.56$).

Second, researchers investigated whether there was a significant difference in factors affecting teacher job satisfaction between type of schools, gender, qualifications,

and years of experience. For the Nature of Work, an independent sample *t*-test found significant difference in participants' scores for public (*M* = 4.05, *SD* = 0.85) and private schools (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = 1.39) at $t(121) = 3.21, p = .002$. A significant difference was also found for Working Conditions between public (*M* = 4.06, *SD* = 0.54) and private schools (*M* = 3.75, *SD* = 0.92) at $t(123) = 2.39, p = .018$. Teachers in public schools (*M* = 4.01, *SD* = 0.59) were significantly more satisfied in their Professional Development than those in private schools (*M* = 3.42, *SD* = 1.14) at $t(129) = 3.95, p < .01$. Although teachers working in private schools were slightly more satisfied in their principals' leadership self-efficacy (*M* = 4.22, *SD* = 0.55) than teachers working in public schools (*M* = 4.07, *SD* = 0.58), but no significant difference between these groups were found. Significant differences in participants' scores for Recognition were evident for males (*M* = 4.16, *SD* = 0.85) and females (*M* = 3.74, *SD* = 0.93) at $t(131) = 2.31, p = .022$. Significant differences in means were evident for males (*M* = 3.08, *SD* = 1.46) and females (*M* = 3.80, *SD* = 1.13) for the Nature of Work at $t(131) = -2.98, p = .003$. For Professional Development, males' scores were significantly different (*M* = 3.07, *SD* = 1.09 than females (*M* = 3.80, *SD* = 0.95) at $t(131) = -3.71, p < .01$.

ANOVA results revealed that Teacher Autonomy was the only dimension related with teacher's qualifications. There was a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the teacher autonomy scores for the 4 qualification groups (secondary, diploma, bachelor, postgraduates) at F (3, 129) = 3.102, p = .02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated postgraduate and diploma teachers felt more significantly autonomous than those with a bachelors' degree and high school diploma.

Years of experience only had an impact on the Nature of Work dimension. ANOVA results revealed there was a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the participants' scores between the three groups (less than 5 years, 5 to 10 years, more than 10 years) at F (2, 130) = 3.09, $p = .049$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated the teachers with more than 10 years were more satisfied with the Nature of Work than the ones with less than 5 years of experience.

Finally, the researchers investigated the dimensions of Teacher Job Satisfaction that were associated with participants' perceptions of their Nature of Work. Pearson correlation coefficient results revealed a significant large positive correlation with their Working Conditions ($r = .595$, $p < .01$) and Professional Development ($r = .618$, $p < .01$). Medium positive correlations, on the other hand, consisted of Professionalism and Respect ($r = .319$, $p < .01$), Remuneration ($r = .369$, $p < .01$) Supervisory Support ($r = .358$, $p < .01$). There was also one significant small positive correlation of Recognition ($r = .182$, $p = .036$).

Kang & Mavrogordato (2023) used data from the 2018 United States Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) to examine the relationship between aspects of professional development (i.e., teacher participation in different formats, content duration, quality, and barriers to participation) and teacher job satisfaction. The 2018 TALIS data was nationally representative of lower secondary school teachers and principals in grades 7 through 9. This 2018 TALIS data contained of responses from N = 2,560 teachers employed within 165 schools across the United States. The researchers used a two-level hierarchical linear model to control for various factors at both the teacher and school levels, and to address the clustering effects in the data derived from

the TALIS 2018's stratified two-step probability sampling design. Their first level involved the between-teachers within-school model, and second level involved the between-school model. In essence, Kang & Mavrogordato's (2023) study investigated the direct association between PD and teacher job satisfaction, accounting for multiple teacher and school controls that arguably shape job satisfaction. Teacher factors were characterized as gender, years of teaching experience, full-time employment status, stress in workloads, and teacher-to-student relationship. School backgrounds were characterized as private school, small/medium/large enrollment public schools from economically stable homes, and small/medium/large enrollment public schools from economically disadvantaged homes.

In their study, Kang & Mavrogordato (2023) uncovered two significant findings concerning the relationship between quality PD and teacher satisfaction, and the degree of barriers to participation in PD related to teacher satisfaction. First, when teachers participated in PD activities with elements of quality PD, they were inclined to have greater job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.12, 95\%\ CI[0.01, 0.22]$; effect size = 0.02). The quality of PD's positive relationship with teacher job satisfaction remained at a relatively constant level even when holding teacher factors and school backgrounds constant ($\beta = 0.10, 95\%\ CI = [0.01, 0.18]$; effect size = 0.02). Second, Kang & Mavrogordato (2023) determined whether barriers to participation in PD were related to job satisfaction. Barriers to participation in PD revealed a negative relationship with teacher job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.25, 95\%\ CI = [-0.38, -0.13]$; effect size = 0.05). The researchers also found that teacher and school controls explained some of the association between barriers to participation in PD and teacher satisfaction ($\beta = -0.13, 95\%\ CI = [-0.20, =$

0.06]; effect size = 0.02). Based on these findings the researchers suggested that ensuring accessible pathways for teachers to engage in their PD opportunities is equally important as receiving high-quality PD. Next, the researchers recommended minimizing barriers and facilitating teachers' focus on PD can be achieved by providing them with support systems (e.g., compensation for attendance, facilitating access to substitute teachers, or dedicated PD days).

Motivational Attitudes

Motivation plays a significant role in boosting enthusiasm while mitigating against the frustration and fears of work among employees (Anjum et al., 2021). Denton (1987) posited that motivation encourages employees to be more productive and committed to their job (as cited in Anjum et al., 2021). There remain a limited number of peer-reviewed studies that investigate teachers' motivational attitudes through a lens of Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Mertler, 2016; Tran & Smith, 2020; Thant & Chang, 2021; Baroudi et al., 2022). Griffeth et al. (2000) asserted that Herzberg's seminal theory of work-based motivation provides a foundational understanding for job satisfaction, which significantly predicted workforce retention. Tran & Smith (2020) contended that to keep employees motivated and satisfied, teacher supply strategies must simultaneously tackle both hygiene and motivating factors. Solely addressing hygiene factors only alleviates dissatisfaction without motivation, while solely addressing motivators only leaves employees with a byproduct of dissatisfaction. The following empirical literature has reported that motivators and hygiene factors significantly determine teachers' job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and willingness to remain employed within their school.

Mertler (2016) additionally explored the status of teacher motivation among PK-12 public and charter schoolteachers in the state of Arizona. Using a self-developed survey, titled Teacher Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Retention (TMJSR), Mertler investigated how participants rated various aspects of their job as motivators or detractors. Based upon descriptive results from the TMJSR survey, the top-five, highest-rated, motivational job factors were Sense of Achievement (91.3%), Interpersonal Relationships with Students (90.7%), Recognition (88.3%), Interpersonal Relationships with Colleagues (84.2%) and Responsibility (78.1%). The lowest rated motivational job factors consisted of District Policies (51.4%), Sense of Accountability (51.0%), Status of the Profession (50.7%), Factors in Personal Life (49.8%) and Teacher Evaluation (45.1%).

Next, Mertler investigated how participants rated various intrinsic and extrinsic incentives in terms of their degree of motivation. The highest-rated incentives of teaching were Having students thank you for assisting in the understanding of a difficult concept (96.6%); Observing Vast Improvements In Your Students' Performance Since The Beginning Of The Year (96.4%); Being Permitted To Purchase Additional Equipment, Technology, And/Or Supplies For Your Classroom (82.8%); One-time Monetary Award (77.5%); and Being Awarded A Plaque By Your Students (73.1%). Conversely, the lowest ranking incentives were Being Supported To Engage In Your Own Professional Growth Through The Implementation Of Classroom-Based Action Research (69.9%); An Instructional Professional Development Workshop Offered By The District (District Pays) (67.4%); Being Selected As Teacher Of The Year In The District (57.7%); Early Retirement/Contract Buy-Out (56.7%); Being Given The Opportunity To Participate In

Teacher Projects (E.G., Curriculum Development) (56.2%); and An Instructional Professional Development Workshop Offered By The District (You Pay) (10.3%).

Yasmeen et al. (2019) qualitatively identified forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that teachers had in government-regulated special education secondary schools of hearing, visual, and physically impaired children in Punjab, Pakistan. Using semi-structured interview scheme, face-to-face in-depth interviews were conducted with nine head teachers at government special education secondary schools. A purposive sampling technique was utilized to enlist participants. A thematic approach was used for analyzing data. Audio recordings of interviews were transcribed and translated verbatim from Urdu to English. The transcript of each interview was read three-to-four times and the responses per each question were underlined to generate codes. The coded data were then reduced to draw themes and subthemes. The main themes and sub-themes were selected representing head teachers' perspectives on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In turn, themes and sub-themes emerged, wherein crosschecking was undertaken to confirm data credibility.

The first grouping of themes categorized under intrinsic motivation were *satisfaction, achievements,* and *joy*. Special education teachers widely reported feeling enjoyment and pleasure while creatively teaching children with special needs. This sentiment was considered the most important motivational factor among participants of this study concerning their occupation. It should also be mentioned that five participants believed that teaching students with special needs had divine purpose. Second, the next grouping of themes for intrinsic motivation were *strength of students* and *strict rules*. The head teachers expressed that teaching students with special needs was a challenging task

for special education teachers, and the difficulty level is substantially greater as compared to teaching in general (i.e., neurotypical) schools. The third theme for intrinsic motivation was *appreciation*. Under this theme, participants indicated that special education teachers should be appreciated during faculty meetings by receiving a prize/award or recognition (e.g., verbal appreciation, title of "star teacher" with their photo displayed on a bulletin board) from their head teacher and/or government official to motivate and acknowledge their exceptional performance. One participant also mentioned that teachers' exceptional performance should be appreciated by society and government.

The first theme that emerged for extrinsic motivation was *promotion, salary,* and *other facilities*. Under this theme, head teachers of special education schools expressed their dissatisfaction concerning their current promotion system and mentioned that likelihood of promotion was very limited for teachers. Participants further revealed that teachers remain within their initial teaching scale/rank until retirement. Participants blamed the system imposed by the Pakistani government, and additionally pointed out that special education teachers' salaries were not reasonable. Participants also shared their schools provided insufficient medical, travel, childcare allowances to motivate and incentivize special education teachers. The second emergent theme for extrinsic motivation was *special teacher allowance*. Three participants reported that mostly teachers came into the field of special education due to its double pay package and special teachers' salary, but recently this allowance has ended. These participants mentioned that teaching students with special needs was very difficult, so special teacher allowance should be given to motivate these teachers.

Göktürk et al. (2021) qualitatively conducted a comparative case study to investigate the motivational perspective of teacher retention in special education. The researchers interviewed $N = 14$ general education homeroom teachers who were transferred to special education by the Ministry of Education in Turkey against their own volition in 2012 and later preferred to remain in special education after they were afforded the right to return to general education in 2014. Among the fourteen participants in this study, five were classified as *stayers*, and eight were classified as *leavers*. Seven of the fourteen participants identified as female, while the remaining 50% identified as male. Participants' ages ranged from 29 to 48 ($M = 35.57$), and their years of teaching ranged from 6 to 25 ($M = 15.57$). Staying for at least three years or more in the field was assumed to be a sign of the stayers' determination to remain in special education.

Data for this study were gathered through approximately one-hour long, semi-structured, interviews which were held three years after participants decided to stay in or leave the special education field. The results of the thematic analysis had close linkages to Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of motivation, which indicated that primarily internal factors (motivation factors) affected teachers' decision to stay or leave, and external (hygiene) factors supported their decisions. Furthermore, Herzberg's theory posited that motivation factors are intrinsic and support one's satisfaction with the job, while hygiene factors are extrinsic and serve to decrease job dissatisfaction.

Based on the data results, four categories were identified with respect to two general themes (i.e., *reasons to stay* and *reasons to leave*). The four categories associated with the first theme of *reasons to stay* entailed: (a) teacher autonomy, (b) genuine interest in the field, (c) realistic expectations, and (d) administrative and collegial support. Next,

two categories associated with the second theme of *reasons to leave* entailed: (a) unsatisfactory teaching experience, and (b) lack of support, recognition, and esteem.

Teacher autonomy was a leading issue brought into discussion among stayers, such that being a special education teacher removed the pressure of following a strictly defined curriculum to teach to high stakes national exams while also allowing them to be more creative in their instruction (e.g., play music, sing songs, play games outside for students when they appear bored). Some participants expressed their genuine interest and empathy for people with special needs in society. In terms of realistic expectations, participants who chose to remain in the special education field had a positive attitude towards the challenges facing them in the special education field (e.g., slow learning pace of students, behavioral challenges of students). Moreover, several participants expressed they were not discouraged easily when they could not see the immediate results of their teaching unlike other teachers who preferred to leave the special education field. Finally, stayers who received support from administration and their colleagues in their schools were more optimistic and resilient to the challenges in special education.

As per the first leaver category, participants were dissatisfied with the experience of teaching students in need of specialized care. For instance, two participants mentioned that teaching SWDs was painful, and they neither be certain the students had learned nor were they content with their students' development. Furthermore, contrary to stayers' who appeared to demonstrate a more positive attitude toward these students' learning difficulties, teachers who decided to leave seemed to have expected to fulfil the same objectives with these students as the ones in general education. Finally, the second leaver category revealed a perceived lack support and recognition by administration, their

colleagues, and SWDs' families were highly influential in these teachers' decision to leave the special education field. Leaver participants frequently expressed that despite the need for professional and psychological support, they lacked experience and training in the field, administrators were indifferent to their needs (even to their existence in some schools), and they were mostly the only special education teacher in their school. Some leaver participants also mentioned that principals in their schools lacked knowledge and training in special education as their schools were offering only general education until these special education classes formed in their schools.

Anjum et al. (2021) investigated the impact of intrinsic rewards (i.e., recognition, training and development, work environment, participation in decision making, and workplace flexibility) on primary school teachers' motivation in the workplace. A sample of N = 200 teachers were taken from different primary schools across Bangladesh. To collect preliminary data via random sampling, a survey was conducted using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) among teachers of different primary schools. Reliability testing of the researchers' survey showed Cronbach Alpha (α) values for Recognition (.726), Training (.705), Development (.712), Work Environment (.784), Participation in Decision Making (.856), Workplace Flexibility and Motivation (.724). Furthermore, these values were (α) > 0.70, which ensured the reliability of the survey questions as acceptable for the researchers' study. Next, secondary data was collected from several published research articles and peer-reviewed studies.

In their study, female respondents (n = 113, 56.5%) were slightly higher than males (n = 87, 43.5%). Regarding age, most participants were from 20 to 30 years (n =

88, 40.0%), whereas 31 to 40 years (n = 68, 34.0%), 41 to 50 years (n = 32, 16.0%), and above 50 (n = 12, 6.0%). As for work experience, most teachers had less than five years (n = 34, 17.0%), 16 to 20 years (n = 19, 9.5%), and above 20 years (n = 15, 7.5%). Finally, participants' level of education was mostly from Graduate level (n = 71, 35.5%), Higher Secondary School Certificate (n = 57, 28.5%) Graduation (running) (n = 46, 23.0%), post-Graduation (running) (n = 6, 3.0%), and post-Graduation or above (n = 20, 10.0%).

Pearson Correlation results revealed that motivation positively correlated with recognition (r = .214, p < .001). Additionally, motivation was positively correlated with training and development (r = .256, p < .001) as well as work environment (r = .273, p < .001). Conversely, motivation had a negative correlation with participating in decision making (r = -.125, p < .001) and Workplace flexibility (r = -.253, p < .001). Recognition was positively correlated with work environment (r = .002, p < .001) and workplace flexibility (r = 0.87, p < .001). Recognition negatively correlated with training and development (r = -.004, p = .954) and participation in decision making (r = -.024, p < .001). Training and development had a positive association with work environment (r = .265, p < .001) and participation in decision making (r = .178, p < .01). Work environment found a positive relationship with participation in decision making (r = .161, p < .01). The researchers' regression model showed a good fit with (F = 13.150, p < .05), and R^2 = .253, indicating 25.3% of the variation in motivation can be predicted from the independent variables of Recognition, Training, Development, Work Environment, Participation in Decision Making and Workplace Flexibility.

Continuance Commitment

There remains a limited number of peer-reviewed literature that investigates the influence of demographic factors (i.e., school type, longevity of teaching, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education) on teachers' level of continuance commitment to their present school. Conley & You (2017) argued commitment to the job strongly affected teachers' intent to continue their profession and teacher commitment and job satisfaction were influenced by administrative support (as cited in Aldosiry, 2022). Gyeltshen (2021) argued teachers' commitment towards their job was regarded as one of the key elements in building a quality education system of the country. Kelchtermans (2019) posited that early-career teachers often experience a reality shock or a difficult transition from the relative comfort of being student teachers to the many responsibilities in their own classrooms. Borre et al. (2021) further highlighted the early stages of one's teaching career can be an overwhelming and stressful period, such that they are expected to be instantaneous experts in their subject matter and pedagogy as well as being captivating performers, classroom managers, and administrative workers. In terms of gender, prior research revealed that female teachers who were found to be significantly more committed to their organization than their male counterparts (Gyeltshen, et al. 2021), as well as significantly more satisfied in their teaching position (Mertler, 2016; Toropova et al. (2021). Alternatively, other peer-reviewed literature concluded male teachers were significantly more committed than females (Borre et al., 2021; Chanana, 2021). Nonetheless, there remains a literature gap as to whether gender differences concerning Special education teachers as well as those identify as *other* (i.e., non-binary) would

consider themselves to be significantly more or less committed to their respective public or private school.

Mertler (2016) also explored participants' perceptions of their own retention in the teaching profession. Almost 69% of teachers indicated they had seriously considered leaving the profession. Furthermore, teachers indicated the most influential reason to leave the teaching profession would be to *seek a more competitive salary* (70.9%). The other most influential factors were to pursue a career change both outside of (47.8%) and within the field of education (42.7%). *Lack of a supportive work environment* (41.4%), *administrative leadership* (39.3%), and *unethical treatment* (34.0%) were also cited by at least one-third of the responding teachers. Less influential reasons included *inadequate mentoring* (11.0%), *inadequate training necessary for a position* (11.1%), and a *lack of shared leadership* (14.2%). Finally, teachers were asked to indicate which circumstances might entice them to stay in the profession, should they ever consider leaving. A *pay increase* was cited by a vast majority (85.2%) of teachers as a major incentive to entice them to stay in the profession. A majority also indicted that they would be enticed by having *more time to plan or prepare* (60.0%) and having *smaller classes* (54.8%).

Cheng & Kadir (2018) conducted a descriptive research design to investigate the relationship between work environment and organizational commitment among private school teachers in Klang Valley, Malaysia. Survey questionnaires were distributed to five private schools, wherein $N = 110$ teachers completed the survey. The Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey Questionnaire was the instrument used to measure teachers' perception of organizational commitment. In the TCM Employee Commitment Survey, there were three dimensions of organizational commitment that

each contained 8 items: (1) affective commitment, (2) continuance commitment, and (3) normative commitment. Work environment was measured by a school-level environment questionnaire by Fisher & Fraser (1990). Descriptive analysis was used to determine the level of organizational commitment and work environment among private school teachers in Klang Valley. Pearson correlation was used to analyze the relationship between work environment and organizational commitment among private school teachers. Next, an independent-samples *t*-test was used to compare the organizational commitment for males and females.

Among the participants who completed the survey, 68.2% (n = 75) were female and 31.8% (n = 35) were male. Forty percent (n = 44) of respondents were between the ages of 31 to 40, 37.3% (n = 41) were between the ages of 21 to 30, and 13.6% (n = 15) were between the ages of 41 to 50. Only 4.5% (n = 5) of participants were in the age group of 51 to 60, as well as 4.5% (n = 5) of participants that were in the age group of 61 to 70. Based on the mean results from the TCM Employee Commitment Survey, affective commitment was 3.20 (SD = .625), continuance commitment was 3.15 (SD = .445), normative commitment was 3.07 (SD = .495), and overall commitment was 3.14 (SD = .358). Accordingly, these findings revealed that overall teachers' level of organizational commitment was considered moderate by the researchers. The overall mean of work environment was 3.29 (SD = .390), wherein the top four work environment factors were: (1) Affiliation (M = 3.72, SD = .725); (2) Professional Interest (M = 3.61, SD = .553); (3) Staff Freedom (M = 3.60, SD = .616); and (4) Resource Adequacy (M = 3.34, SD = .781). The bottom four work environment factors were: (5) Innovation (M = 3.26, SD = .501); (6) Student Support (M = 3.25, SD = .501); (7) Work Pressure (M = 2.81, SD = .648); and

(8) Participatory Decision Making (*M* = 2.53, *SD* = .679). Next, an independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the organizational commitment for males and females. There was no significant difference in organizational commitment for females (*M* = 3.12, *SD* = .365) and males (*M* = 3.18, *SD* = .346; t (108) = - .839, p = .403). Finally, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between work environment and organizational commitment. There was a moderate positive correlation between the two variables (*r* = .450, *n* = 110, *p* < .001). Overall, there was a moderate positive significant relationship between work environment and organizational commitment.

Gok et al. (2021) explored relations between school culture and teachers' organizational commitment through several demographic factors. A correlational survey and descriptive models were used. Purposive sampling was used to obtain *N* = 198 teachers, who worked in Antalya, Turkey, during the 2020-2021 academic year. Regarding gender, *n* = 133 (67.2%) were female and *n* = 65 (32.8%) identified as male. As for years of teaching experience, *n* = 85 (42.9%) had 0-5 years, *n* = 78 (39.4%) had 6-10 years, and *n* = 35 (17.7%) had 11 years or more. The Organizational Commitment Scale (developed by Meyer & Allen, 1996) was used as one of the researcher's data collection tools.

Teachers who participated in Gok et al.'s (2021) study showed the highest participation in affective commitment (*M* = 3.50, *SD* = 0.92), continuance commitment (*M* = 3.25, *SD* = 0.87), and normative commitment (*M* = 2.99, *SD* = 0.90). Next, a *t*-test analysis was conducted to compare organizational commitment dimensions based on gender. The views of participants on affective commitment ($t_{(196)} = -1.16, p = .25$) and

continuance commitment ($t_{(196)} = -247, p = .80$) did not differ based on gender. However, the findings of participants on the dimension of normative commitment did significantly differ based on gender $t_{(196)} = -2.14, p < .05$. Finally, an ANOVA analysis was carried out with the purpose of comparing organizational commitment dimensions based on participants' years of teaching experience. Results found that participants' continuance commitment ($F_{(2,-195)} = 2.24, p > .05$) and normative commitment ($F_{(2,-195)} = 2.11, p > .05$) did not differ based on years of teaching experience. However, the views of participants on affective commitment dimension significantly differed based upon their years of teaching experience ($F_{(2,-195)} = 3.83, p < .05$). Furthermore, in this dimension, teachers with 11 or more years of experience (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = 0.67) had greater affective commitment than teachers working 0-5 years (*M* = 3.32, *SD* = 0.99).

Van den Borre et al. (2021) conducted a nine-stage multilevel linear regression analysis on the number of years early career teachers (ECTs) expect to continue teaching. Their multilevel the relative importance of three main mechanisms through the investigation of relevant teacher, school, and country characteristics: (a) selection mechanisms related to whom becomes a teacher; (b) early career support resources related to entering the profession; and (c) long-term support resources related to developing a teaching career. The researchers used 2018 Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) data to analyze retention intention from *N* = 11,613 ECT participants in 31 countries. Schools were selected using systematic two-stage random sampling with probability proportional to size within explicit strata by country. The study focused on European countries as well as a selection of high-achieving Asian and North

American educational systems. ECTs were defined as teachers with no more than 5 years of teaching experience. Teachers older than 45 years were omitted in the researchers' analysis in accordance with prior studies on the retirement intention of older employees.

At the individual level, the researchers' first included control variables age and gender together with the seven teacher characteristics. Age and gender were related to ECT retention indicating that younger ECTs and male ECTs expect to continue teaching for a longer period than their elder and female counterparts. ECTs reported significantly longer expected careers if teaching was their first career choice ($\beta = 0.16, p < .001$). Researchers found a positive association between teaching motivations and ECT retention intention. ECTs with higher levels of intrinsic motivation (e.g., wanting to contribute to the development of adolescents) reported significantly longer expected teaching careers ($\beta = 0.12, p < .001$). Results also shows a relationship with extrinsic motivators, although the effect parameter ($\beta = 0.03, p < .001$) was smaller compared to the measure for intrinsic motivation. Findings also indicated that ECTs who were more satisfied with their salaries reported longer expected teaching careers ($\beta = 0.05, p < .001$). Significantly longer expected teaching careers were found among ECTs who felt their profession was valued in society ($\beta = 0.07, p < .001$). At the school level, ECTs reported shorter expected teaching careers when their schools had a higher share of socio-economically disadvantaged students ($\beta = -0.03, p < .01$). Regarding starting salaries, researchers found that ECTs in countries with higher starting salaries reported considerably longer expected teaching careers ($\beta = 0.25, p < .001$). Furthermore, researchers found a significant association between mandatory competitive exams before their pre-service training and ECT retention intention. ECTs who passed a competitive

exam also expected to remain in teaching for longer periods ($\beta = 0.15, p < .05$). The researchers also noted ECT retention intention was not related to how ECTs perceived the societal appreciation of their profession, on average, in their country.

The final part of the analysis assessed the relevance of three long-term support resources that were relevant in developing a career in teaching: (a) a collaborative school culture, (b) teacher appraisal from leadership, and (c) professional barriers. At the individual level, the researchers found all three factors were minimally related to ECT retention intention. The likelihood of retaining ECTs was slightly higher when teachers perceived a collaborative school culture ($\beta = 0.06, p < .001$), received more and diverse appraisal from leadership ($\beta = 0.02, p < .01$), and experienced fewer barriers to participate in professional development programs ($\beta = 0.03, p < .001$). Results for school characteristics showed significant net relationships for collaborative school culture ($\beta = 0.05, p < .001$) and professional development barriers ($\beta = -0.03, p < .01$) at the school level, but not for teacher appraisal from leadership ($\beta = -0.01, p > .05$). The inclusion of country-level support resources showed a relationship between the average level of professional development barriers in a country and ECT retention intention. ECTs expected shorter teaching careers when there were higher average levels of barriers to professional development programs reported in each country ($\beta = -0.09, p < .10$). In addition to this between-country effect, separate effects of professional development barriers were found at the individual and school-level. The level of collaborative school cultures in each country were not related to ECTs retention intention.

Gyeltshen (2021) quantitatively examined higher secondary teachers' levels of organizational commitment as well as their perception of organizational commitment based on gender, educational qualification, and teaching experience. Participants consisted of schoolteachers employed in different higher secondary schools of Bhutan during the academic year of 2018. A self-administered 5-point Likert questionnaire was distributed to $N = 305$ higher secondary school teachers selected via simple random sampling. Section A of the survey consisted of demographic data, while Section B consisted of 14-items on organizational commitment adapted from the *Organizational Commitment Scale* from Meyer & Allen (1991). The reliability for the questionnaire was evaluated by 30 teachers who were not part of the sample study. The Cronbach's α (alpha) reliability coefficient was shown at .836 for organizational commitment, which indicated greater internal consistency of items in the scale.

Descriptive analysis revealed that overall teacher' organizational commitment level was shown to be high ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .625$). Of 14 survey questionnaire items, the respondents' level of commitment was shown to be high for the following items: (a) they enjoyed discussing their organization with people outside it ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.06$); (b) they felt an organization problem was their problem ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .989$); (c) their values and organization values were similar ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .894$); (d) they felt a strong sense of belonging to their organization ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .971$); (e) they believed that a person must always be loyal to their organization ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .951$); (f) they would accept any type of job assignment to work in their organization ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.03$); and (g) they were willing to put great deal of effort to help their organization ($M = 4.03$, $SD = .862$). Results from the independent *t*-test revealed a significant difference between

teachers' organizational commitment level of males and females $t(303) = -2.017, p = .045$. The results signified female teachers (M = 3.59) showed higher commitment level towards their job than male teachers (M = 3.45) at a significant level of $p < .05$. A one-way ANOVA confirmed there was no relationship between levels of teachers' organizational commitment and educational qualification (bachelor's degree, master's degree, post graduate diploma in education). Moreover, the data was not statistically significant with (F = 2.378, p = .094). Finally, a comparison on teachers' organizational commitment level and teachers' teaching experience indicated no significant difference on teacher's organizational commitment by teaching experience (F = 1.549, p = .188).

Chanana (2021) examined the level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction among male and female schoolteachers working in private schools during the Covid-19 pandemic. A sample of N = 181 private school teachers who worked in Haryana were drawn using a purposive sampling procedure. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Allen & Meyer (1990) and Job Satisfaction Index developed by Brayfield & Rothe (1951) were used by the researcher to create an online survey that was sent to 240 potential participants in November 2020 with a 75.4% response rate. Chanana outlined that organizational commitment has three labels, which are *affective commitment* (the individual's emotional attachment to the organization), *continuance commitment* (the individual's perception of weighing of costs associated with leaving their current organization), and *normative commitment* (the individual's commitment to remaining within their organization based upon the give-and-take/reciprocal benefits they receive). The researcher further posited that all three of these constructs were linked to turnover.

Descriptive results revealed the affective commitment mean score of male teachers (M = 17.09) was slightly lower than the mean score of female teachers (M = 17.15). In continuous commitment, male teachers' mean score (M = 19.492) was lower than female teachers' mean score (M = 26.575). In normative commitment, mean score of male teachers (M = 17.23) was slightly higher than the female teachers' mean scores (M = 16.79). Overall, the organizational commitment mean score of female teachers (M = 60.517) was higher than male teachers mean score (M = 50.82). In the case of job satisfaction, female teachers' mean score (M = 36.683) was slightly higher than the male teachers' mean score (M = 35.508).

For affective commitment, it was revealed that the observed mean score of male teachers (M = 17.098) was significantly lower than the standard mean score of 24 (z = -13.680, p < .01). Thus, the obtained findings revealed that male schoolteachers had a lower level of affective commitment. Female teachers, on the other hand, held a lower level of affective commitment (z = -20.417, p < .01). The observed mean score obtained by female teachers (M = 17.15) was lower than the standard mean score of 24, suggesting that their emotional attachment to their respective school was lower during the Covid-19 pandemic. For continuance commitment, the mean scores of male teachers (M = 19.492) were different from the standard mean score of 24. Furthermore, z value of male teachers (z = -6.244, p < .01) revealed that the observed mean score was significantly different from the standard mean score. This indicated male teachers were less committed to their respective schools. Female teachers had a greater continuance commitment level toward their school (z = 7.327, p < .01) between observed mean score (M = 25.575) and standard mean score of 24. As such, the result found that female teachers had greater continuance

commitment as compared to male teachers during Covid-19. For normative commitment, male teachers (z = -12.999, p < .01) observed mean score (M = 17.230) was lower than the standard mean score of 24. As for female teachers' normative commitment (z = -19.742, p < .01), they had a mean score (M = 16.792) that was lower than the standard mean score of 24. Thus, this result indicated male and female teachers were lower on normative commitment because they did not feel highly obliged to continue employment due to Covid-19. For overall organizational commitment, the observed mean score obtained by male teachers (M = 53.820) was lower than the standard mean score of 72, and a z value (-16.445, p < .01) indicated the observed mean score was significantly different from the standard mean score. The overall commitment of female teachers was significantly lower with an observed mean score (M = 60.517) lower than the standard mean score of 72. The value of z (-19.244) was found significant at p < .01.

Thus, based on the results of overall organizational commitment, the impact of Covid-19 resulted in a lower level of commitment among male and female teachers who worked in private schools. In terms of job satisfaction, Chanana (2021) found the observed mean score obtained by male teachers was 35.51 lower than the standard mean score of 54. *Z* values revealed the observed mean score was significantly different from the standard mean score (z = -25.576, p < .01). The observed mean score for female teachers was 36.68 as compared to the standard mean score of 54. The z value of female teachers (z = -33.828, p < .01) revealed that the observed mean score was significantly different from the standard mean score. Thus, both male and female teachers were dissatisfied with their job during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Based on the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene statistics results, the assumption of normality and homogeneity of variances were violated, which led Chanana (2021) to use non-parametric tests of Mann Whitney *U* for comparison. For affective commitment, there were no significant differences found between male and female teachers during Covid-19 (Mann-Whitney $U = 2612.500$, $z = -1.43$, $p = 0.886$). Next, there was a significant difference in continuance commitment among male and female teachers, such that male and female teachers had different opinion about continuance commitment during Covid-19 (Mann-Whitney $U = 1133.000$, $z = -7.606$, $p < .001$). Third, for normative commitment, there were no significant differences found between male and female teachers (Mann-Whitney $U = 3392.500$, $z = -0.806$, $p = > .05$). Fourth, there was a significant difference between male and female teachers on overall organizational commitment during Covid-19 (Mann-Whitney $U = 1996.500$, $z = -4.997$, $p < .001$). Fifth, there were no significant differences found between male and female teachers for overall job satisfaction during Covid-19 (Mann-Whitney $U = 3263.500$, $z = -1.193$, $p > .05$). Finally, a positive significant relationship was found between organizational commitment and job satisfaction during the Covid-19 pandemic ($r = 0.170$, $p < .05$).

Aldosiry (2022) used a national sample $N = 343$ of full-time special education teachers employed in elementary ($n = 211$, 61.0%) and secondary schools ($n = 132$, 39.0%) in Saudi Arabia to examine the importance and amount of administrative support they received and its effect on their intent to continue teaching, stress, job satisfaction, and school commitment. A comprehensive list of public and private schools was obtained from the Ministry of Education to build the sampling frame. The population was divided into strata based on administrative areas where schools were located (i.e., north, west,

east, south, middle), resulting in 1036 schools. Next, convenience sampling was employed to recruit special education teachers from districts within each administrative area. Emails were sent to school districts that were both available and willing to participate, resulting in 276 schools with 753 teachers. the survey link was emailed to all teachers during the Fall of 2018 by their school districts, asking them to fill it out only if they were currently full-time special education teachers. In turn, the response rate was 46%. The survey comprised the following six sections: (1) demographic information; (2) support items using frameworks from House (1981) and Littrell et al. (1994); (3) job satisfaction adapted from Littrell et al. (1994); (4) stress using Parasuraman's (1982) scale and Cancio et al.'s (2013) survey; (5) school commitment developed using the attitudinal items by Porter et al. (1974); and (6) one question that measured teachers' intent to stay. To assess validity and reliability of the survey, a pilot study was conducted for a group of special education teachers to critique and comment. The Cronbach Alpha (α) was .84 or greater for each of the subscale. Accordingly, the internal consistency reliability coefficients indicated the instrument's reliability.

In Aldosiry's study, female respondents (n = 230, 67.0%) were higher than males (n = 113, 32.9%). Concerning participants' level of education, most teachers had a bachelor's degree (n = 300, 87.5%), followed by a master's degree (n = 42, 12.2%), and doctorate (n = 1, 0.3%). Most participants taught in public schools (n = 252, 73.0%) as opposed to private schools (n = 91, 27.0%). As for years of experience, participants ranged between 0 to 3 (n = 90, 26.2%), 4 to 6 years (n = 88, 25.6%), 7 to 10 years (n = 71, 20.7%), and greater than 10 years (n = 94, 27.0%). Finally, student caseloads ranged between 1 to 5 (n = 164, 47.0%), 6 to 10 (n = 118, 35.0%), and greater than 11 (n = 61,

18.0%). Regression analysis was calculated to predict stress based on school level, range of disability, years of experience, and caseload and found (F (7,335) = 17.89, $p < .001$) with an R^2 = .27 accounting for 27% of the variance. Teachers with ten or more years of experience on average had lower levels of stress compared to those with less experience ($\beta = .29, p < .01$). The mean difference of stress level increased as the amount of experience decreased. Regarding job satisfaction, teachers with less than three years of experience had a mean of - 0.60 points ($p < .01$) below that of teachers with greater than 10 years of experience. For teachers with four to six and seven to ten years of experience (- 0.32, $p < .01$), the mean was also lower compared to those with ten or more years of experience (- 0.30, $p < .01$). Thus, the mean difference showed that satisfaction increased as participants' years of experience increased. Finally, regression analysis for commitment resulted in a significant regression equation (F (7,335) = 10.43, $p < .001$) with an R^2 = .18 that accounted for 18% of the variance. The model showed that the mean difference of commitment level increased as years of experience decreased. Furthermore, teachers with three or less years of experience had a mean of 0.66 points ($p < .01$) below the commitment mean of those with more than ten years of experience.

Conclusion

Due to the challenges of Covid-19, several studies have shown substantial teacher turnover trends based on demographic factors as well as teachers' perceptions of overall safety concerns (Zamarro et al., 2022; Bacher-Hicks et al., 2023). Zamarro et al. (2022) found that teachers who approached retirement age (i.e., 55 or older), had to teach using the hybrid model, and had preconceived health concerns (i.e., likelihood of being hospitalized or dying) were significant predictors on their consideration to leave their

profession due to Covid-19. Next, Bacher-Hicks et al. (2023) used descriptive statistics to compare pre-pandemic versus pandemic turnover trends in Massachusetts to conclude that: (a) compared to turnover in 2019, the percentage of teachers leaving teaching workforce in Year 2 (i.e., spring to fall of 2021) increased by 15% and the percentage of teachers leaving their school increased by 17%; (b) newly hired teachers were more susceptible to turnover as evidenced by 42% increase when comparing Year 2 to 2019; (c) from 2019 to Year 2, White teachers left at a 17% higher rate as compared to only 5% of Black and Hispanic/Latinx teachers; and (d) male teachers were less likely to experience turnover than their female counterparts (e.g., 18.1% female turnover versus 15.8% male turnover in 2021).

Teaching and caring for students during the Covid-19 pandemic has also been a substantial challenge for many teachers, and its impact on teacher's mental health and well-being (MHWB) that should be of great national and international concern (Kim et al., 2022). The research conducted on factors associated with turnover found that teachers significantly experience burnout due to a lack of administrative support as well as the adverse effects their career (i.e., work-related stressors, limited resources) had upon their overall quality of life (Hester et al., 2020; Sokal et al., 2021; Jeon et al., 2022; Pressley et al., 2022). It was also found that teacher's job commitment was negatively associated with job burnout (Jeon et al., 2022). Kim et al. (2022) found that six job demands contributed negatively to teachers' MHWB (i.e., uncertainty, workload, negative perception of the profession, concern for other's well-being, health struggles, multiple roles), while three other factors contributed positively (i.e., social support, work autonomy, coping strategies).

Since teacher shortage remains an international problem, teacher job satisfaction should arguably merit closer attention. In addition to job satisfaction being closely related to teacher retention, it also contributes to the well-being of teachers and their students, overall school cohesion, and enhanced status of the teaching profession (Toropova et al., 2021). Within the field of education, job satisfaction is considered a fundamental factor both school and district administrators need to measure and understand to sustain a productive and satisfied teaching faculty (Baroudi & Hojeij, 2022). The existing literature has found significant associations between teacher job satisfaction and factors associated with interpersonal relationships (Busatlic & Mujabasic, 2018; Thant & Chang, 2021), collegial support (Hilger, 2021; Toropova et al., 2021), professional development opportunities (Baroudi & Hojeij, 2022; Kang & Mavrogordato, 2023), and working conditions (Busatlic & Mujabasic, 2018; Anjum et al., 2021; Hilger, 2021; Thant & Chang, 2021; Toropova et al., 2021; Baroudi & Hojeij, 2022).

Motivation encourages employees to be more productive and committed to their job (Denton, 1987), and drives an employee toward achieving both individual and organizational goals (Hughes, 2012) (as cited in Anjum et al., 2021). Several studies found that Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory significantly determined that internal (motivational) factors and external (hygiene) factors that explained teachers' intent to stay or leave their profession (Mertler, 2016; Göktürk et al., 2021; Thant & Chang, 2021; Baroudi et al., 2022). Intrinsic motivational factors that explained teachers' intent to stay in their profession comprised their sense of achievement, interpersonal relationships with students and colleagues, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself (Mertler, 2016; Yasmeen et al., 2019; Anjum et al., 2021; Thant & Chang, 2021). Extrinsic hygiene

factors that explained teachers' intent to leave their profession comprised their desire to seek a more competitive salary, a lack of a supportive work environment, limited job security, and administrative leadership (Mertler, 2016; Yasmeen et al., 2019; Borre et al., 2021; Thant & Chang, 2021).

Prior empirical research has revealed that providing administrative support is important in managing teachers' stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Aldosiry, 2022). Many researchers have found that female teachers were more continuance committed and had greater levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts (Chanana, 2021; Gyeltshen, 2021; Shah & Mahmood, 2021; Toropova et al., 2021). Conversely, Gok et al. (2021) found that male teachers reported higher levels of commitment than female teachers in normative commitment. Borre et al. (2021) found that age and gender were significantly related to ECT teacher retention, such that ECT males continued teaching for a longer period than their elder and ECT female counterparts. Aldosiry (2022) similarly found that fewer years of teaching experience was associated with decreased levels of teachers' job satisfaction and commitment. Additionally, Gok et al. (2021) stated that teachers with more than 11 years of teaching experience had greater levels of affective commitment than those with only 0-5 years of teaching experience.

The present study extended the existing literature by examining whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender of teacher, level of education, and teachers' race/ethnicity) significantly influence special education teachers' job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and perception of commitment. Despite the dense array of literature concerning employment turnover

factors, job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment, there remains a substantial literature gap concerning special education teachers employed within private schools who serve the needs of students classified with moderate-to-profound disabilities. Provided students classified with moderate-to-profound disabilities require the most restrictive and consistent interventions possible, it is vital to explore whether their teachers' level of job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment are measured to determine whether substantially greater incentives should be enacted to mitigate against their eventual turnover.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research methodology, including research questions, null hypotheses, sample population, instrumentation, data collection processes, and data analyses of the current study. The purpose of this quantitative non-experiment correlational study determined the influence of various demographic factors as they related to job satisfaction, motivation, and perceptions of employment commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Next, this quantitative non-experiment correlational study determined the influence of participants' job satisfaction scores and motivation scores as they related to their overall commitment scores. Finally, this quantitative study used descriptive statistics and In Vivo Coding to determine: (a) if participants were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why; and (b) what participants perceive their administrative supervisors could do, if anything, to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided the current study.

Research Question 1

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' job satisfaction?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's job satisfaction scores.

Research Question 2

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' motivation?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' motivation scores.

Research Question 3

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' affective commitment?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' affective commitment scores.

Research Question 4

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' continuance commitment?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' continuance commitment scores.

Research Question 5

How does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' normative commitment?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education of special education teachers' normative commitment scores.

Research Question 6

How do job satisfaction scores and motivation scores predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between job satisfaction scores and motivation scores to predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores.

Research Question 7 (Descriptive Statistics)

If special education teachers were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why?

Research Question 8 (Descriptive Statistics)

What do special education teachers perceive their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school?

Research Design and Data Analysis

First, a non-experimental correlational survey study determined the relationship of descriptive demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, level of teachers' education, and race/ethnicity of teachers) with special education teachers' perception scores of their job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, perception of commitment. To further connect Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory to the career of K-12 teaching, simple linear regression analysis was additionally conducted to predict whether mean hygiene factor scores predicted mean motivational factor scores.

Next, this quantitative non-experimental correlational study determined the influence of participants' job satisfaction scores and motivation scores as they related to their overall commitment scores. Correlational design is defined as a procedure in quantitative research wherein an investigator measures the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores (Creswell, 2012). Finally, this quantitative study used descriptive statistics to determine: (a) if participants were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why; and (b) what participants perceive their administrative supervisors could do, if anything, to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school. A survey method that cross-sectionally obtains data was the preferred approach for this study, such that special education teacher participants produced a rapid turnaround response rate within a similar timeframe of

approximately 60 days. Unlike longitudinal studies, which examine a group of people over an extended period, the researcher prefers to cross-sectionally collect data to obtain special education teacher participants' present levels of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and commitment likelihood within a relatively similar timepoint. Since cross-sectional data is only collected at one point in time, it is often obtained inexpensively using self-reported surveys to potentially amass large amounts of information from a greater pool of participants (Cherry, 2022; Creswell, 2022).

The first research question, how does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' job satisfaction, was measured by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between school type (public, private), overall experience, experience at present school, gender (male, female, other), level of education (bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree), and race/ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White non-Hispanic) on special education teachers' mean job satisfaction scores. This analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between seven variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, and gender on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall

experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores.

The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases biasing the model. The independent variables for this research question are school type, total number of years teaching, experience at present school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity of teachers. The dependent variable for this research question is mean job satisfaction scores. The alpha level of ($p < .05$) was used to test for significance.

The second research question, how does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' motivation, were measured by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between school type (public, private), overall experience, experience at present school, gender (male, female, other), level of education (bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree), and race/ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White non-Hispanic) on special education teachers' mean motivational attitude scores. This analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between seven variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present

school, and gender on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitude scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitude scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitude scores.

The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases biasing the model. The independent variables for this research question are school type, total number of years teaching, experience at present school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity of teachers. The dependent variable for this research question is mean motivational attitude scores. The alpha level of ($p <$ .05) was used to test for significance.

The third research question, how does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' affective commitment, were measured by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between school type (public, private), overall experience, experience at present school, gender (male, female, other), level of education (bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree), and race/ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African

American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White non-Hispanic) on special education teachers' mean perception of affective commitment scores. This analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between seven variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, and gender on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores.

The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases biasing the model. The independent variables for this research question are school type, total number of years teaching, experience at present school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity of teachers. The dependent variable for this research question is mean perception of affective commitment scores. The alpha level of ($p < .05$) was used to test for significance.

The fourth research question, how does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence

special education teachers' continuous commitment, were measured by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between school type (public, private), overall experience, experience at present school, gender (male, female, other), level of education (bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree), and race/ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White non-Hispanic) on special education teachers' mean perception of continuance commitment scores. This analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between seven variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, and gender on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores.

The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases biasing the model. The independent variables for this research question are school type, total number of years teaching, experience at present

school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity of teachers. The dependent variable for this research question is mean perception of continuance commitment scores. The alpha level of ($p < .05$) was used to test for significance.

The fifth research question, how does school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' normative commitment, were measured by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between school type (public, private), overall experience, experience at present school, gender (male, female, other), level of education (bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree), and race/ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latinx, or White non-Hispanic) on special education teachers' mean perception of normative commitment scores. This analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between seven variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, and gender on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores.

The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases biasing the model. The independent variables for this research question are school type, total number of years teaching, experience at present school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity of teachers. The dependent variable for this research question is mean perception of normative commitment scores. The alpha level of ($p < .05$) was used to test for significance.

The sixth research question, how do job satisfaction scores and motivation scores predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores, were measured by a multiple linear regression to predict special education teachers' overall organizational commitment scores based on their scores for job satisfaction and motivation. The rationale for using a multiple regression was to predict the value of one continuous outcome dependent variable based on the value of two other continuous predictor independent variables.

Prior to running the multiple regression analysis, six assumption tests were conducted. The assumption tests for this statistical analysis were the relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be linear, there cannot be any multicollinearity in the data, the values of the residuals must be independent, the variance of residuals must be constant, the values of the residuals must be normally distributed, and there cannot be any influential cases of biasing or outliers evident in the data. The independent variables for this research question are mean job satisfaction and motivation

scores. The dependent variable for this research question is mean overall organizational commitment scores. The alpha level of ($p < .05$) was used to test for significance.

The seventh research question, if special education teachers were given a choice, would they become a teacher again and why, was measured by obtaining descriptive statistics. The researcher obtained mean scores of participant responses to question 44 as to whether they would still choose to become a teacher if they could start over in their career by selecting one-of-three forced-choice items: 1 = *Yes, definitely!*; 2 = *No way!*; and 3 = *I'm really not sure*. Additionally, participants were then required to briefly explain why they selected choice 1, 2 or 3 for question 44.

The eighth research question, what do special education teachers perceive their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school, was measured by examining qualitative coding of open-ended word responses. Participants' written responses for questions 44 and 45 were used to answer the seventh and eighth research questions using In Vivo Coding. The root meaning of In Vivo is *in that which is alive*, and as a code refers to a word or short phrase from the actual language found in the qualitative data record (Strauss, 1987). According to Saldana (2016), In Vivo Coding is especially applicable to practitioner research since one of its primary goals is to adhere to the *verbatim principle*, using terms and concepts drawn from the words of participants. In turn, Stringer (2014) contends the researcher will more likely capture the meaning inherent in participants experiences (as cited in Saldana, 2016). Saldana (2013) stated that in qualitative research, a code is a word or short phrase that is symbolically assigned to a data that is very meaningful to the research. Coding is done to derive patterns from participants' written responses. A pattern is defined as a

repetitive and consistent occurrence of action/data that appear more than two instances (Jugessur, 2022). Upon reviewing participants' written responses, the researcher adopted Saldana's (2016) framework to highlight textual features, such as impacting nouns, action-oriented verbs, evocative vocabulary, clever or ironic phrases, similes, and metaphors. If the same words, phrases, or variations are often used by the participants, the researcher applied an In Vivo Code approach. To keep track of codes that are participant-inspired rather than researcher-generated, the researcher placed In Vivo Codes in quotation marks (e.g., "Disliked Salary"). To organize the array of In Vivo Codes, the researcher listed them on a text-editing page, followed by cutting and pasting them into outlined clusters that suggest categories of belonging and hierarchical order (Saldana, 2016).

Reliability and Validity of the Research Design

There are known threats to the non-experimental correlational design, which may include statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, and external threats to validity. A possible threat to statistical conclusion validity is low statistical power (Kirk, 1982). Due to an inadequate sample size, the researcher could either commit: (1) a Type I error of rejecting the null hypothesis of no effect when it was true; or (2) a Type II error of not rejecting the null hypothesis of no effect when it was false (Bhandari, 2022). Based on the n^* for Power for Pearson Correlation Test at $\alpha = .05$, the number of minimum participants needed to achieve a .30 medium effect size and power of .80 was 124 participants. To mitigate against this statistical threat, the researcher recruited $N = 164$ participants via convenience and snowball sampling to complete the Teacher Satisfaction,

Motivation, & Commitment of Present Employment (TSMCPE) survey (e.g., "see Appendix B").

A possible threat to internal validity was simultaneous events/history (Kirk, 1982). Since the beginning of 2020, the sudden impact Covid-19 had upon the perceived safety, livelihood, and workload of teachers, perhaps the majority of those who strongly considered resigning from their school or leaving the field entirely have already done so. Based upon findings from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), from February 2020 to May 2022 approximately 300,000 public school teachers and other staff left the field (as cited in Dill, 2022). This data from the BLS does not even account for educators at the private school level, which could be substantially worse based upon limited incentives to remain in the profession (e.g., no tenure or pension). To minimize this internal threat, the researcher standardized all procedures for sending out the online survey to recruit the greatest number of participants possible. For instance, the researcher used the same verbiage in his email for each potential participant to clearly understand the survey instrument's overview/rationale, criteria of completion, and confidentiality safeguards.

A possible threat to external validity was the interaction of setting and treatment (Kirk, 1982). Participants in this study were recruited from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Since there is a greater prevalence of teacher and student diversity within urban schools throughout the United States, the findings of this study would be difficult to generalize to other regions. According to Ingersoll et al. (2022), teachers of color are two-to-three times more likely than White non-Hispanic teachers to work in hard-to-staff schools serving low-income, highly diverse, urban communities. Ingersoll et al. (2022) further highlighted there are very few teachers of

color in more affluent suburban schools, and this pattern has shown little variance over time. To mitigate against the effects of this external threat, the researcher attempted to recruit participants from suburban regions that are socio-economically and ethnically diverse.

The Sample and Population

Sample

The researcher recruited $N = 164$ special education teachers to complete the survey in this study. The researcher recruited participants based on the criteria of being a licensed PreK-12 special education teacher and employed in a public or private school within a suburban northeastern region of the United States. Insofar as predetermining this minimum sample size, the researcher underwent two steps. First, the researcher referenced Knapp's (2018) guidelines to compute an *n* quota to determine a minimum sample size for a multiple regression of 110 participants. Next, to determine an appropriate effect size, the researcher referenced Cohen's (1988) sample size for Power for Pearson's Correlation Chart at $\alpha = .05$. It was subsequently determined that a minimum sample size of 112 participants would yield a medium effect size of (.30), and a power of (.90). A sufficient sample size should be maintained to obtain a Type I error as low as 0.05 and a power as high as 0.8 or 0.9 (Cohen, 1988; Serdar et al., 2021). Tables 2 and 3 represent the continuous and categorical demographic data that the researcher of this study will report based upon participants who complete the survey of this study.

Convenience sampling was used to access public and private school districts. To access public school districts, the researcher pursued geographically adjacent school districts within a 60-mile radius of the researcher's residence. To access private school

districts, the researcher received collegial support from his executive-level supervisors of AHRC. These executive leaders of AHRC aided the researcher in receiving support from the administrators of a state-wide private school organization. The administrators within this state-wide organization contacted their executive-level directors to determine whether they would be interested in participating in the researcher's study. Executive-level directors who were interested in participating in the study contacted the researcher via email.

Jager et al. (2017) merits convenience sampling as a cost-effective, efficient, and simpler approach to recruit participants. On the other hand, Jager et al. (2017) and Creswell (2018) both classify convenience sampling as a nonprobability approach that lacks clear generalizability. Furthermore, since generalizability of convenience sampling is unclear, the estimates obtained from convenience samples could be considered biased. To avoid sampling bias and strengthen the generalizability of results, Fraenkel et al. (2012) recommended that researchers who use convenience sampling should: (1) include demographic characteristics of participants to promote generalizability; and (2) conduct repeated trials of their experiment to decrease the likelihood that results obtained were simply a one-time occurrence. Next, the researcher used purposive sampling to conduct a Google search to generate a list of K-12 private and public schools within the northeastern suburban region of the United States who employ special education teachers.

Alchemer (2021) posited that purposive sampling is a popular method used by researchers based on the notion it is extremely time and cost-effective when compared to other sampling methods. In contrast, Fraenkel et al. (2012) argued the major disadvantage of purposive sampling is that the researcher's judgement might be in error, wherein the

researcher may not be correct in estimating the representativeness of a sample or their expertise regarding the information required. Finally, the researcher used snowball sampling to determine whether any participating district- or building-level administrators could recommend any outside administrative contacts in their social networks to consider participating in this study (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The benefit of snowball sampling allowed the researcher to draw upon the social networks of participant administrators and could arguably be an effective way to investigate hard-to-reach groups (Moss et al., 2023). In contrast, the potential drawback of using snowball sampling could undermine the representativeness of the sample. Furthermore, sampling bias could occur due to the likelihood participant district- or school-level administrators would recommend administrative contacts employed in districts that share similar traits and demographics of their special education teachers (Explorable, 2009).

Table 2

Continuous Demographic Characteristics of Special Education Teacher Participants

	Overall Years of Teaching Experience	Years of Teaching at Present School
N	164	164
Mean	16.6	11.5
Median	17.0	8.0
Mode	20.0	1.0
Std. Deviation	10.1	9.5

Table 3

Categorical Demographic Characteristics of Special Education Teacher Participants

	n	%
School Type		
Public School	75	45.7
Private School	89	54.3
Gender		
Male	17	10.4
Female	147	89.6
Other	0	0
Race/Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaskan Native	0	0
Asian or Pacific Islander	4	2.4
Black or African American	11	6.7
Hispanic or Latinx	5	3.1
White (non-Hispanic)	144	87.8
Level of Education		
Bachelor's Degree (B.A. or B.S.)	7	4.3
Master's Degree (M.A. or M.S.)	149	90.9
Doctoral Degree (Ed.D. or Ph.D.)	8	4.9

Population

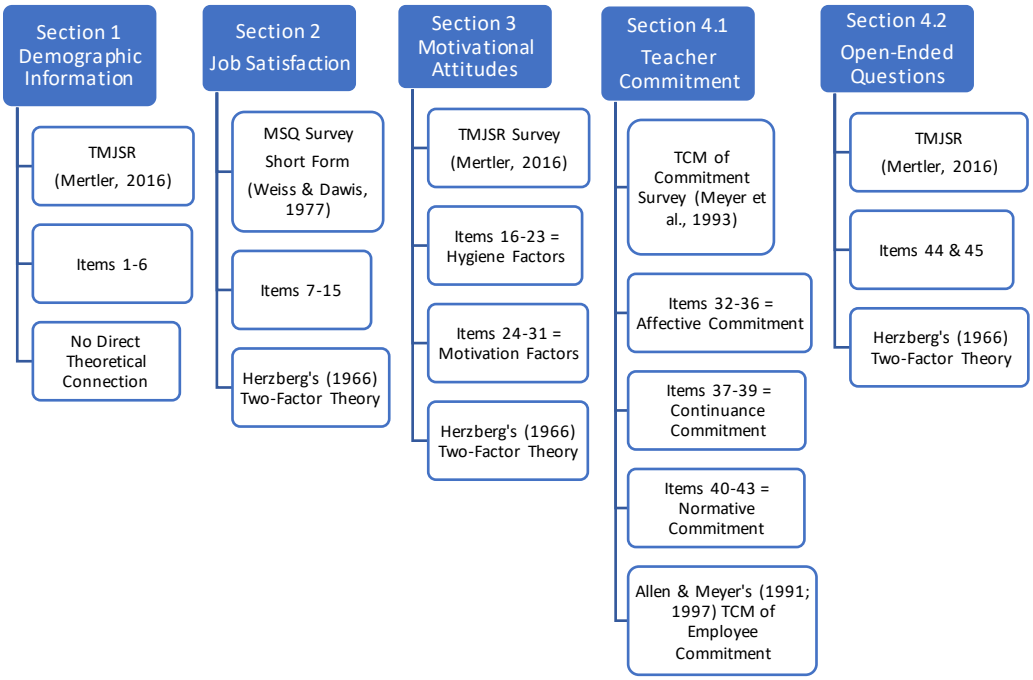
The results in this study were generalized to special education teachers employed in PreK-12 schools within the suburban Northeastern region of the United States at the public and private level. Zippia (2022) found that N = 667,914 special education teachers are presently employed in the United States, along with the following demographic characteristics: (a) 75.4% of all special education teachers were female and 24.6% were male; (b) the most common ethnicity of special education teachers was White non-Hispanic (71.1%), followed by Hispanic or Latino (11.6%), Black or African American (9.4%), Unknown (4.0%), Asian or Pacific Islander (3.6%), and American Indian or Alaskan Native (0.3%).

Instruments

The survey instrument, Teacher Satisfaction, Motivation, & Commitment of Present Employment Survey (TSMCPE), was used in this study and consisted of 45 items organized into four sections that combined three distinct, research-validated, surveys (see Appendix A). As shown in Figure 4, the TSMCPE survey is a combination of items derived from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Teacher Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Retention (TMJSR) instrument with both having direct theoretical ties to Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory (Ramadhani & Marwa, 2016; Mertler, 2016). Figure 4 also included items from the Three-Component Model (TCM) of Commitment, which had direct theoretical ties to Affective Commitment (AC), Continuance Commitment (CC), and Normative Commitment (NC) (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Figure 4

TSMCPE Survey Itemized by Instrument Adoption & Theoretical Connections



Note. Item 45 of the TSMCPE was developed by the researcher and theoretically grounded in TCM of Employee Commitment.

In Section 1 of the TSMCPE survey, participants were asked to indicate their school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, level of education, and race/ethnicity. Demographic data was used to address research questions one through six in this study. In Section 2 of the survey, participants were asked to rate their level of job satisfaction using a Likert scale (1 = Very Dissatisfied; 2 = Dissatisfied; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Satisfied; 5 = Very Satisfied).

Section two of the TSMCPE used 10-of-20 items from the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss & Dawis (1977). The MSQ is designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with their job.

The higher the score, the higher job satisfaction is presented. The internal reliability of the MSQ Cronbach's α was between 0.85 and 0.91 in the original studies (Weiss & Dawis, 1967), while Rogowska et al.'s (2022) study standardized Cronbach's α = 0.93, and Verma's (2020) Cronbach's α = 0.86. The MSQ short form was developed by Weiss et al. (1967) from their Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota for a study conducted at the collegiate level on client vocational needs and reinforcers in their jobs. The VPR department from the University of Minnesota formally declared that all MSQ forms are available under a Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial 4.0 International License, which allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent (see Appendix C). An average was completed for the whole scale of the MSQ to address the first research question.

In Section 3 of the TSMCPE survey, participants were asked to rate their level of Motivational Attitudes using a Likert scale (1 = Highly Unmotivating; 2 = Somewhat Unmotivating; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Somewhat Motivating; 5 = Highly Motivating). Section 3 consisted of 16 items from Mertler's (2016) Teacher Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Retention (TMJSR) instrument. Questions 16 through 23 focused on hygiene factors, while questions 24 through 31 focused on motivation factors. Mertler (2016) was an Associate Professor in Leadership and Innovation at Arizona State University, where he investigated the status of teacher motivation, job satisfaction, and retention among N = 9,053 PreK-12 public and charter schoolteachers from Arizona. Additionally, Mertler's (2016) TMJSR instrument resulted in an acceptable overall level of reliability at α = 0.74. Permission was gained by the author to use this survey tool on November 8, 2022.

The updated 2016 version of Mertler's TMJSR comprised of 59 content-based, forced-choice items, three open-ended items, and 10 demographic items (e.g., "see Appendix C"). The content items were categorized under three sub-headings: *Model 1 - Teacher Job Satisfaction, Model 2 – Teacher Motivation, Model 3 – Teacher Retention*. Mertler's 2016 version of the TMJSR was developed from his prior 2001 version that contained 32-content-based, forced-choice items, and six demographic items. Mertler was the author of this instrument, who granted permission for the researcher to adapt the TMJSR to conduct the present study (e.g., "see Appendix D"). The researcher selected 16-of-29 content-based items from Model 2. Since there remains a limited number of peer-reviewed studies which use the TMJSR, this study aimed to further validate Model 2 of this instrument.

In Section 4.1 of the TSMCPE survey, participants were asked to rate their perceived employment commitment beliefs using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Slightly Disagree; 3 = Undecided; 4 = Slightly Agree; 5 = Strongly agree). Questions 32 through 36 focused on affective commitment (AC), questions 37 through 39 focused on continuance commitment (CC), and questions 40 through 43 focused on normative commitment (NC). Section 4.1 used the Revised Version of Three Component Model of Employee Commitment (TCM) Survey (Meyer et al., 1993), which had been used in previous studies to measure three forms of employee commitment to an organization: desire-based (affective commitment), obligation-based (normative commitment), and cost-based (continuance commitment) (Cheng & Kadir, 2018; Chanana, 2021). Several studies have examined the reliability (alphas) of the TCM questionnaire. Allen & Meyer (1990) reported α = 0.87 for affective commitment, α =

0.75 for continuance commitment, and $\alpha = 0.79$ for normative commitment. Dunham et al. (1994) found alpha ranges from 0.74 to 0.87 for affective commitment, 0.73 to 0.81 for continuance commitment, and 0.67 to 0.78 for normative commitment. The TCM Employee Commitment Survey (2023) grants permission for academic researchers to conduct a single research project using this survey instrument under the guidelines of their license for their *Academic Package* (e.g., "see Appendix E").

Finally, in Section 4.2 of the TSMCPE survey, participants were required to complete one forced-choice item and two open-ended questions concerning their perceived level of commitment. Questions 44 and 45 were directly taken from Mertler's (2016) TMJSR, and question 45 was self-developed by the researcher based upon prior findings derived from peer-reviewed literature (Van den Borre et al., 2021).

Reliability & Validity of the Instrument

Prior to administering the TSMCPE survey to address the research questions in this study, the researcher recruited $N = 20$ volunteer educators to serve on a judgement panel to test the instrument's internal reliability. The judgement panel consisted of $n = 3$ principals, $n = 2$ assistant principals, and $n = 15$ special education teachers. Those who served on the judgement panel completed the TSMCPE survey and reviewed its questions for clarity and consistency. In doing so, the researcher's judgement panel analyzed the questions of the TSMCPE to ensure they understood the context of what each question asked. Furthermore, at the end of each section of the TSMCPE, members of the judgement panel had the option to provide an open-ended response to the question, "Do you have any questions, comments, and/or concerns about this part of this survey?" All concerns were addressed by the researcher, and changes were made accordingly. For

instance, there were two reverse-scored items used verbatim from the AC subscale of the TCM survey (i.e., Question 33: *I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my school*; Question 34: *I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this school*) that were reported by two members of the judgement panel as distracting and confusing. Initial analysis of the AC subscale was congruent to the sentiments expressed by members of the judgement panel. Furthermore, question 33 had an alpha level of α = -3.325 and question 34 had an alpha level of α = -.321. Accordingly, this negatively impacted the reliability of the AC subscale as indicated by a Cronbach alpha level of α = - 2.275. As per the TCM Employee Commitment Survey Academic Users Guide (2004), the researcher was permitted by the developers of this instrument to reverse the negatively keyed items for questions 33 and 34. Thereafter, members of the judgement panel again completed the updated version of the TSMCPE survey, which yielded higher alpha scores.

The overall reliability for the TSMCPE survey instrument representing all N = 37 items of ordinal data in the researcher's study were considered excellent (Cronbach's alpha α = .947). As shown in Table 4, each subscale of the TSMCPE survey ranged from good to excellent: (1) *Job Satisfaction* (α = .860), (2) *Motivational Attitudes* (α = .922), (3) *Affective Commitment* (α = .822), (4) *Continuance Commitment* (α = .845), and (5) *Normative Commitment* (α = .916).

Table 4

Cronbach Alpha Reliability Results for TSMCPE Survey Instrument

	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha (α)	Internal Consistency
Job Satisfaction	9	0.860	Good
Motivational Attitudes	16	0.922	Excellent
Affective Commitment	5	0.822	Good
Continuance Commitment	3	0.845	Good
Normative Commitment	4	0.916	Excellent
Overall Reliability	37	0.947	Excellent

Procedures for Collecting Data

First, the researcher applied and received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of St. John's University. The decision made by the IRB was deemed "Exempt," such that the research conducted in this study posed virtually no known risk to human subjects who completed the TSMCPE survey. After receiving IRB approval (e.g., "see Appendix A"), convenience sampling was used to initially locate public and private school districts within a 60-mile radius from where the researcher resides. Thereafter, the researcher used purposive sampling to contact superintendents and executive administrators to request permission to recruit PreK-12 special education teacher participants to complete the TSMCPE survey. In doing so, the researcher corresponded with superintendents and executive directors via WebEx, telephone, and/or email to explain the study's overall purpose and methodology, discuss guidelines for participation,

and address any questions and/or concerns. Among those superintendents and executive directors who agreed to participate in this study, the researcher required them to complete/sign an Informed Letter of Consent (see Appendices F & G).

After receiving permission from each superintendent and executive director, the researcher met with each principal and school director to obtain their approval to conduct this study. Principals and school directors who consented to allowing their PreK-12 special education teachers participate in this study also needed to complete/sign the researcher's Informed Letter of Consent (e.g., "see Appendices F-I"). After receiving approval from each principal and school director, the researcher requested they forward a brief message from the researcher to their PreK-12 special education teachers that contained: (1) a brief overview of the study; (2) a weblink that directs participants to complete the TSMCPE survey via Survey Monkey; and (3) an alternative weblink that directs those who do not opt to participate to a separate webpage that states, "Thank you" (e.g., "see Appendix J").

In each discussion with superintendents, executive directors, principals, and school director, the researcher explained that the TSMCPE survey link had no identifiable school markers, subjects would remain anonymous, and email addresses would not be collected by Survey Monkey or the researcher.

Based on the administrators who consented to participate in this study, the researcher used snowball sampling to ask whether any of their colleagues employed in other public or private school districts would also be willing to participate in this study. Several administrators who provided the researcher with additional contacts disclosed

their colleague's full name, school district and/or building of employment, employment title, telephone number and/or work email address.

The TSMCPE survey instrument was formatted using Survey Monkey, and results were exported onto a spreadsheet using Microsoft Excel. Participants had the option of completing the researcher's online survey in a setting they deemed appropriate. This technique provided participants with the option of completing the survey without time constraints or pressure of being in a work-related environment (Hester et al., 2020). Next, the survey data was subsequently imported into IBM's SPSS statistical software to test hypotheses for research questions one through six. For research questions seven and eight, descriptive statistics and In Vivo Coding were conducted by the researcher.

Research Ethics

To address ethical issues, the researcher applied for IRB approval to ensure the rights and welfare of the special education teacher participants recruited to participate in study are under the auspices of the institution with which the researcher is affiliated. After IRB approval was obtained, the researcher contacted superintendents and executive-level supervisors to obtain their approval to conduct this study in form of written consent via email. Upon receiving written consent from superintendents and executive-level supervisors, the researcher subsequently introduced himself to their respective principals (i.e., public schools) and school directors (i.e., private schools) to review the contents of the letter of informed consent required to recruit potential special education teacher participants employed in their school. The letter of informed consent provided to each principal and school director clarified the purpose of this study, participation requirements, potential risks and benefits, anonymity and confidentiality

safeguards, and the rights for participants to withdraw. Should any principals require further clarification, the letter of informed consent also contained the email and telephone contact information of the researcher (i.e., Principal Investigator), the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University. Among those principals who provide the researcher with a completed letter of informed consent, the researcher then individually met with each of those principals to discuss guidelines on how special education teachers were contacted by the researcher via email. The researcher used his St. John's University email address to contact special education teacher candidates via their work email addresses. In this email sent to special education teachers, the researcher clarified the overall purpose of this study, disclose participation requirements, explain anonymity/confidentiality safeguards, and discuss their rights to withdraw. Additionally, this email sent to special education teachers included a highlighted web link for willing participants to complete the researcher's survey instrument (e.g., "see Appendix J").

The data results from this study were provided anonymously without any reference to specific teachers or their school/district of employment. Responses from the survey were securely kept on a locked, password protected laptop in a drawer in the researcher's locked office.

Conclusion

Chapter 3 described the research methodology and described the following aspects of the study: (1) research questions and null hypotheses, (2) research design and data analysis, (3) the sample and population, (4) instruments, (5) procedures for collecting data, and (6) research ethics. Findings from data collection and analysis were subsequently reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

The purpose of this quantitative non-experiment correlational study determined the influence of various demographic factors as they related to job satisfaction, motivation, and perceptions of employment commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Next, this quantitative non-experiment correlational study determined the influence of participants' job satisfaction scores and motivation scores as they related to their overall commitment scores. Finally, using the theoretical frameworks of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation-Hygiene and Allen's Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment, and this quantitative study used descriptive statistics and In Vivo Coding to determine: (a) if given a choice, would participants become a teacher again and why; and (b) what participants perceive their administrative supervisors could do, if anything, to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school. These results and findings provide context for the discussion and conclusion in the last chapter.

The sample studied included $N = 164$ PreK-12 special education teachers who completed the TSMCPE cross-sectional survey about their perceived levels of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment. Participants in the sample were employed in either a public or private suburban school district located in the northeastern region of the United States. Participants were provided an approximate three-month window from 06/20/2023 to 09/23/2023 to asynchronously complete the TSMCPE.

Research Question 1

The researcher wished to investigate whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) would significantly predict participants' Job Satisfaction score. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between the above stated variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, and gender on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Job Satisfaction scores. The research question for the study was: How does school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' job satisfaction?

The hypotheses selected were:

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's job satisfaction scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall

experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's job satisfaction scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, school type was dummy coded 0 (private) and 1 (public), and gender was dummy coded 0 (male) and 1 (female) since they were dichotomous (two levels). The variables race/ethnicity and level of education were polychotomous (more than two levels) and needed to be dummy coded for the multiple regression. The dummy variable private school was assigned as the reference against the target variable in the school type group (i.e., public school), since most participants indicated they worked at a private school (n = 89, 54.3%). The dummy variable female was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variable in the gender group (i.e., male), since most participants indicated they were female (n = 147, 89.6%). The dummy variable White non-Hispanic was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in the race/ethnicity group (i.e., Black or African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latinx), since most participants indicated they were White non-Hispanic (n = 144, 87.8%). The variable master's degree was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in level of education (i.e., bachelor's degree, doctorate), since most participants indicated their highest achievement was a master's degree (n = 149, 90.9%). Overall experience and experience at present school were quantitative variables.

There were assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The n quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study.

A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Overall experience demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Job Satisfaction scores. The second scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Experience at Present School similarly demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Job Satisfaction scores. In Model 1, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.113, Overall experience = 2.518, Experience at Present School = 2.363, Male = 1.010). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.157, Overall experience = 2.521, Experience at Present School = 2.369, Male = 1.023, Black or African American = 1.033, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.014, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.024). In Model 3, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.186, Overall Experience = 2.628, Experience at Present School = 2.371, Male = 1.026, Black or African American = 1.060, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.018, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.041, Bachelor's = 1.102, Doctorate = 1.117). The values of the residuals were independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.828). The variance of residuals is constant as the values showed no signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the P-P plot demonstrated the dots were close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted Job Satisfaction scores. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between school type,

overall years of teaching, years of teaching at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education, and mean job satisfaction scores (Table 5).

Table 5

Pearson Correlations of Variables for Job Satisfaction

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mean Job Satisfaction	-											
2. School Type	.191*	-										
3. Overall Experience	.193*	.291**	-									
4. Experience at Present School	.030	.161*	.757**	-								
5. Gender	-.013	-.089	.887	-.003	-							
6. White Non-Hispanic	-.054	-.144	-.014	-.008	.118	-						
7. Black or African American	.050	.145	.039	.048	-.069	-.719**	-					
8. Asian or Pacific Islander	.030	-.066	-.041	-.042	-.076	-.424**	-.042	-				
9. Hispanic or Latinx	.003	.122	.007	-.017	-.056	-.476**	-.048	-.028	-			
10. Bachelor's Degree	-.095	-.264	-.264**	-.177*	-.027	.079	-.057	-.033	-.037	-		
11. Master's Degree	.169*	.013	.013	-.012	.031	.076	-.084	.050	-.067	-.665**	-	
12. Doctorate	-.137	.230**	.230**	.183*	-.016	-.175*	.166*	-.036	.124	-.048	-.714**	-

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

In Model 1, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(4, 159) = 3.652$, $p = .007$, accounting for approximately 8.4% of the variance of Job Satisfaction scores ($R^2 = .084$, $R^2_{\text{Adj}} = .061$). Overall experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction scores ($\beta = .346, p = .005$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{overall\_experience}} = .047$, accounting for approximately 4.7% of the variance. The significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall experience participants scored 0.022 points higher in mean job satisfaction. Next, experience at present school had the strongest negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction Scores ($\beta = -.253, p = .032$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{experience\_at\_present\_school}} = .026$, accounting for approximately 2.6% of the

variance. From the analysis of Model 1, it was concluded that school type, years at present school, and gender had no significant correlation for predicting mean Job Satisfaction scores. As shown in Table 6, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 1 predicted the equation: Predicted Z $_{JOB\_SATISFACTION\_MODEL\_1}$ = 3.259 + .171*(Public School) + .022*(Overall Experience) + [-.017*(Experience at Present School)] + [.012*(Male)].

Table 6

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction Scores for Model 1

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	3.259			
School Type	.171	.104	.131	.015
Overall Experience	.022	.008	.346**	.048
Experience at Present School	-.017	.008	-.253*	.027
Male	-.012	.162	-.006	< .001

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

In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(7, 156) = 2.128$, $p = 0.44$, accounting for approximately 8.7% of the variance of Job Satisfaction scores ($R^2 = .087$, $R^2_{Adj} = .046$). Overall experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction scores ($\beta = .347, p = .005$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{overall\_experience}$ = .047, accounting for approximately 4.7% of the variance. The significant result in Model

2 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall experience participants similarly scored 0.022 points higher in mean job satisfaction. Next, experience at present school had the strongest negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction Scores ($\beta = -.254, p = .033$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{experience\_at\_present\_school} = .027$, accounting for approximately 2.7% of the variance. From the analysis of Model 2, it was concluded that school type, years at present school, gender, and race/ethnicity had no significant correlation on predicting mean Job Satisfaction scores. In the Model Summary for Model 2, the inclusion of race/ethnicity as a predictor did not yield a significant increase, $F(3, 156) = .173$, $p = .915$. In Model 2, the $R^2_{Change} = .003$, which only accounted for a 0.3% increase in variance from Model 1 to predict Job Satisfaction. As shown in Table 7, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 2 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{JOB\_SATISFACTION\_MODEL\_2}$ = 3.259 + .171*(Public School) + .022*(Overall Experience) + [-.017*(Experience at Present School)] + [.002*(Male)] + .080*(Black or African American) + .180*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [-.064*(Hispanic or Latinx)].

Table 7

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction Scores for Model 2

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	3.232			
School Type	.171	.107	.132	.015
Overall Experience	.022	.008	.347**	.048
Experience at Present School	-.017	.008	-.254*	.027
Male	-.002	.165	-.001	<.001
Black or African American	.080	.202	.031	.001
Asian or Pacific Islander	.180	.324	.043	.002
Hispanic or Latinx	-.064	.292	-.017	<.001

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

In Model 3, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(9, 154) = 2.568$, $p = .009$, accounting for approximately 13.1% of the variance of Job Satisfaction scores ($R^2 = .131$, $R^2_{Adj} = .080$). Overall experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction scores ($\beta = .380, p = .002$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{overall\_experience}$ = .055, accounting for approximately 5.5% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall experience participants similarly scored 0.022 points higher in mean job

satisfaction. Experience at present school had the strongest negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction Scores ($\beta = -.246, p = .035$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{experience\_at\_present\_school}} = .025$, accounting for approximately 2.5% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained at their present school participants scored - 0.017 points lower in mean job satisfaction. Participants who earned a Doctorate had the second strongest negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Job Satisfaction Scores ($\beta = -.219, p = .007$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{doctorate}} = .042$, accounting for approximately 4.2% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year worked participants with a doctorate scored -0.660 points lower in mean job satisfaction than those who earned a master's degree. From the analysis of Model 3, it was further concluded that school type, gender, race/ethnicity, and certain factors for level of education (i.e., bachelors, masters) had no significant correlation on predicting mean Job Satisfaction scores. In the Model Summary for Model 3, the inclusion of level of education as a predictor did yield a significant increase, $F(2, 154) = 3.838$, $p = .024$. In Model 3, the $R^2_{\text{Change}} = .043$, which accounted for a 4.3% increase in the variance from Model 2 to predict Job Satisfaction. As shown in Table 8, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 3 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{\text{JOB\_SATISFACTION\_MODEL\_3}}$ = 3.173 + .198*(Public School) + .024*(Overall Experience) + [-.017*(Experience at Present School)] + .000*(Male) + .163*(Black or African American) + . 167*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [.033*(Hispanic or Latinx)] + [-.043*(Bachelors)] + [-.660*(Doctorate)]. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 8

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction Scores for Model 3

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	3.173			
Public School	.198	.107	.152	.019
Overall Experience	.024	.008	.380**	.055
Experience at Present School	-.017	.008	-.246*	.026
Male	.000	.162	.000	.000
Black or African American	.163	.201	.063	.004
Asian or Pacific Islander	.167	.319	.040	.002
Hispanic or Latinx	.033	.289	.009	.000
Bachelors	-.043	.253	-.013	.000
Doctorate	-.660	.239	-.219**	.043

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

Research Question 2

The researcher wished to investigate whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) would significantly predict participants' Motivational Attitudes score. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between the above stated variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise

fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, and gender on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitudes scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitudes scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Motivational Attitudes scores. The research question for the study was: How does school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' Motivational Attitudes?

The hypotheses selected were:

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Motivational Attitudes scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Motivational Attitudes scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, school type was dummy coded 0 (private) and 1 (public), and gender was dummy coded 0 (male) and 1 (female) since they were dichotomous (two levels). The variables race/ethnicity and level of education were

polychotomous (more than two levels) and needed to be dummy coded for the multiple regression. The dummy variable private school was assigned as the reference against the target variable in the school type group (i.e., public school), since most participants indicated they worked at a private school (*n* = 89, 54.3%). The dummy variable female was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variable in the gender group (i.e., male), since most participants indicated they were female (*n* = 147, 89.6%). The dummy variable White non-Hispanic was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in the race/ethnicity group (i.e., Black or African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latinx), since most participants indicated they were White non-Hispanic (*n* = 144, 87.8%). The variable master's degree was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in level of education (i.e., bachelor's degree, doctorate), since most participants indicated their highest achievement was a master's degree (*n* = 149, 90.9%). Overall experience and experience at present school were quantitative variables.

There were assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The *n* quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study. A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Overall experience demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Motivational Attitudes scores. The second scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Experience at Present School similarly demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Motivational Attitudes scores. In Model 1, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.113, Overall experience = 2.518, Experience at Present School = 2.363, Male = 1.010). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well

below 10 (Public School = 1.157, Overall experience = 2.521, Experience at Present School = 2.369, Male = 1.023, Black or African American = 1.033, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.014, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.024). In Model 3, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.186, Overall Experience = 2.628, Experience at Present School = 2.371, Male = 1.026, Black or African American = 1.060, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.018, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.041, Bachelor's = 1.102, Doctorate = 1.117). The values of the residuals were independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.707). The variance of residuals is constant as the values showed no signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the P-P plot demonstrated the dots were close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted Motivational Attitudes scores.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted motivational attitudes scores. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between school type, overall years of teaching, years of teaching at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education, and mean motivational attitudes scores (Table 9).

Table 9

Pearson Correlations of Variables for Motivational Attitudes

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mean Job Satisfaction	-											
2. School Type	.197*	-										
3. Overall Experience	.127	.291**	-									
4. Experience at Present School	-.027	.161*	.757**	-								
5. Gender	.140	-.089	.011	-.003	-							
6. White Non-Hispanic	-.123	-.114	-.014	-.008	.118	-						
7. Black or African American	.099	.145	.039	.048	.382	-.719**	-					
8. Asian or Pacific Islander	.005	-.066	-.041	-.042	-.076	-.424**	-.042	-				
9. Hispanic or Latinx	.085	.122	.007	.017	-.056	-.476**	-.048	-.028	-			
10. Bachelor's Degree	-.038	-.194*	-.264**	-.177*	-.027	.079	-.057	-.033	-.037	-		
11. Master's Degree	.050	-.006	.013	-.012	.031	.076	-.084	.050	-.067	-.665**	-	
12. Doctorate	-.031	.190*	.230**	.183*	-.016	-.175*	.166*	-.036	.124	-.048	-.174**	-

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

In Model 1, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(4, 159) = 4.256$, $p = .003$, accounting for approximately 9.7% of the variance of Motivational Attitudes scores ($R^2 = .097$, $R^2_{Adj} = .074$). Overall experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = .270, p = .025$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{overall\_experience} = .028$, accounting for approximately 2.8% of the variance. The significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall experience participants scored 0.016 points higher in mean motivational attitudes. Public School had the second strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = .174, p = .03$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{school\_type} = .027$, accounting for approximately 2.7% of the variance. The significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables

were held constant, for each year gained in public school participants scored 0.209 points higher in mean motivational attitudes than participants employed in private schools. Male had the third strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = .151, p = .047$) with a unique contribution of sr^2_{Male} = .022, accounting for approximately 2.2% of the variance. The significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year worked male participants scored -0.298 points lower in mean motivational attitudes than female participants. Experience at present school was determined to be a negative coefficient whose negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = -.259$, p =.027), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{experience\_at\_present\_school}}$ = .028, accounting for approximately 2.8% of the variance. The significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained at their present school participants scored - 0.016 points lower in mean motivational attitudes. As shown in Table 10, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 1 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{\text{Motivational\_Attitudes\_Model\_1}}$ = 2.813 + .209*(Public School) + .016*(Overall Experience) + [-.016*(Experience at Present School)] + [-.298*(Male)].

Table 10

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Motivational Attitudes Scores for Model 1

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	2.813			
School Type	.209	.096	.174*	.027
Overall Experience	.016	.007	.270*	.029
Experience at Present School	-.016	.007	-.259*	.028
Male	-.289	.149	.151*	.023

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

In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(7, 156) = 2.779$, $p = .009$, accounting for approximately 11.1% of the variance of Motivational Attitudes scores ($R^2 = .111$, $R^2_{Adj} = .071$). Overall experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitude scores ($\beta = .275, p = .023$), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{overall\_experience} = .029$, accounting for approximately 3% of the variance. The significant result in Model 2 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall experience participants scored 0.016 points higher in mean motivational attitudes. Male had the second strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitude scores ($\beta = .163, p = .035$), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{Male} = .025$, accounting for approximately 2.5% of the variance. The significant result in Model 2 indicated that when all other variables were held constant,

for each year worked male participants scored -0.320 points lower in mean motivational attitudes than female participants. Experience at present school was determined to be a negative coefficient whose negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = -.261, p = .026$), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{experience\_at\_present\_school} = .028$, accounting for approximately 2.8% of the variance. The significant result in Model 2 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained at their present school participants scored - 0.017 points lower in mean motivational attitudes. Upon further analysis of race/ethnicity in Model 2, it was concluded this variable had no significant impact on predicting Motivational Attitudes scores at $p > .05$. In the Model Summary for Model 2, the inclusion of race/ethnicity as a predictor did not yield a significant increase $F(3, 156) = .829$, $p = .480$. In Model 2, the $R^2_{Change} = .014$, which accounted for only a 1.4% increase in the variance from Model 1 to predict Motivational Attitude. As shown in Table 11, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 2 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Motivational\_Attitudes\_Model\_2} = 2.777 + .184*(\text{Public School}) + .016*(\text{Overall Experience}) + [-.017*(\text{Experience at Present School})] + [-.320*(\text{Male})] + .228*(\text{Black or African American}) + .133*(\text{Asian or Pacific Islander}) + .262*(\text{Hispanic or Latinx})$.

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Motivational Attitudes Scores for Model 2

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	2.777			
School Type	.184	.098	.153	.020
Overall Experience	.016	.007	.275*	.030
Experience at Present School	-.017	.007	-.261*	.029
Male	-.320	.150	.163*	.026
Black or African American	.228	.184	.095	.009
Asian or Pacific Islander	.133	.296	.034	.001
Hispanic or Latinx	.262	.266	.075	.005

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

In Model 3, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(9, 154) = 2.393$, $p = .014$, accounting for approximately 12.3% of the variance of Motivational Attitudes scores ($R^2 = .123$, $R^2_{Adj} = .071$). From the analysis of Model 3, it was concluded that race/ethnicity and level of education had no significant effects on Motivational Attitude scores. Overall Experience had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitude scores ($\beta = .303, p = .014$), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{overall\_experience} = .034$, which accounted for approximately 3.4% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in overall

experience participants scored 0.018 points higher in mean motivational attitudes. Public School had the second strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitude scores (β =.169, p = .042), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{school\_type}$ = .024, which accounted for approximately 2.4% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in public school participants scored 0.203 points higher in mean motivational attitudes than participants employed in private schools. Male accounted for the third strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitude scores ($\beta = .165, p = .032$), with a unique contribution of sr^2_{Male} = .026, which accounted for approximately 2.6% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year worked male participants scored -0.325 points lower in mean motivational attitudes than female participants. Experience at present school was determined to be a negative coefficient whose negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Motivational Attitudes scores ($\beta = -.258, p = .028$), with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{experience\_at\_present\_school}$ = .028, accounting for approximately 2.8% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained at their present school participants scored - 0.016 points lower in mean motivational attitudes. From the analysis of Model 3, it was further concluded that race/ethnicity and level of education had no significant impact on predicting Motivational Attitudes scores after controlling for the other factors. In the Model Summary for Model 3, the inclusion of level of education as a predictor did not yield a significant increase, $F(2, 154) = 1.036$, p = .357. In Model 3, the R^2_{Change} = .012, which accounted for a 1.2%

increase in the variance from Model 2 to predict Motivational Attitudes. As shown in Table 12, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 3 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Motivational\_Attitudes\_Model\_3}$ = 2.716 + .203*(Public School) + .018*(Overall Experience) + [-.016*(Experience at Present School)] + [-.325*(Male)] + .270*(Black or African American) + .137*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + .311*(Hispanic or Latinx) + .115*(Bachelors) + [-.305*(Doctorate)]. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 12

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Motivational Attitudes Scores for Model 3

Variable	B	*SE B*	*β*	sr^2
Constant	2.716			
Public School	.203	.099	.169*	.024
Overall Experience	.018	.007	.303*	.035
Experience at Present School	-.016	.007	-.258*	.028
Male	-.325	.150	.165*	.027
Black or African American	.270	.186	.113	.012
Asian or Pacific Islander	.137	.296	.035	.001
Hispanic or Latinx	.311	.269	.089	.008
Bachelors	.115	.235	.039	.001
Doctorate	-.305	.222	-.109	.011

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

Research Question 2 (Extended Analysis)

Herzberg contended that hygiene factors (i.e., characteristics associated with job dissatisfaction) must be present to allow motivational factors to emerge and thereby prevent job dissatisfaction (as cited in Alrawahi et al., 2020). Related to an employee's extrinsic needs, hygiene factors do not contribute to workplace satisfaction but must be present to prevent workplace dissatisfaction (Kurt, 2021). Subsequently, to create satisfaction Herzberg argued that supervisors need to address the motivating factors associated with the intrinsic aspects (i.e., job enrichment) of their work (as cited in Mind Tools, 2023).

Based on these theoretical premises of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, the researcher extended the analysis of research question two to determine whether there was a relationship between mean hygiene factor scores (i.e., the predictor variable) and mean motivational factor scores (i.e., the outcome variable). Within section 3 of the TSMCPE, motivational factors represented items 16 though 23, while hygiene factors represented items 24 through 31.

A simple linear regression analysis was chosen to predict whether participants' mean hygiene factor scores could predict their mean motivational factors scores. The rationale for using a simple linear regression is to predict the value of a variable based on the value of another variable. In the current study, there was one ordinal outcome variable and one ordinal predictor independent variable. The research question for the study was: To what extent do special education teachers' mean scores hygiene factor scores influence their mean motivational factor scores?

The hypotheses chosen were:

H_0: There will be no relationship between mean hygiene factor scores and mean motivational factor scores. $\beta = 0$.

H_1: There will be a relationship between mean hygiene factor scores and mean motivational factor scores. $\beta \neq 0$.

The alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was chosen to test for significance.

Prior to running the simple linear regression analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values. The assumption tests were conducted next. The relationship between the independent and dependent variables was linear, as was demonstrated with a scatterplot. The values of the residuals were independent as were noted by the Durbin-Watson statistic, which was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.943). The variance of the residuals was constant, which was identified by the plot showing no signs of funneling, which suggests the assumption of homoscedasticity has been met. The values of the residuals were normally distributed, which was evidenced by the P-P plot. Finally, there were no influential cases of biasing or outliers evident in the data, which was verified by calculating Cook's Distance values, which were all less than 1.00.

A simple linear regression analysis was run using SPSS and the correlation of the independent variable (mean hygiene factor scores) was significantly correlated with the dependent variable (mean motivational factor scores). A significant regression equation was found $F(1, 162) = 148.625$, $p < .001$, and accounted for approximately 48% of the variance of motivational factors ($R^2 = .478$, adjusted $R^2 = .475$). As shown in Table 13, results from the Pearson Correlation computation found a significant large positive linear relationship between mean hygiene scores and mean motivational factor scores ($\beta = .692$, $p < .001$). The significant results indicated that a person's perceived hygiene factors

strongly determined their perceived motivational factors. Special education teachers who rated motivational factors one point more motivating, have scores that are .783 points higher on average than the average special education teacher. Results predicting mean motivational factor scores was equal to the regression equation of: Predicted MOTIVATIONAL FACTOR MEAN SCORE = .626 + .783*(Hygiene Factor Mean Score). The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 13

Summary of Simple Linear Regression Analysis for Mean Hygiene Factor Scores Predicting Mean Motivational Factor Scores

	Mean Motivational Factor Scores		
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β***
Mean Hygiene Factor Scores	.783	.252	.692
R^2		.478	
F		148.625	

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

Research Question 3

The researcher wished to investigate whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) would significantly predict participants' Affective Commitment score. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between the above stated variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression

examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, and gender on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Affective Commitment scores. The research question for the study was: How does school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' Affective Commitment?

The hypotheses selected were:

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Affective Commitment scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Affective Commitment scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, school type was dummy coded 0 (private) and 1 (public), and gender was dummy coded 0 (male) and 1 (female) since they were dichotomous (two levels). The variables race/ethnicity and level of education were polychotomous (more than two levels) and needed to be dummy coded for the multiple

regression. The dummy variable private school was assigned as the reference against the target variable in the school type group (i.e., public school), since most participants indicated they worked at a private school (*n* = 89, 54.3%). The dummy variable female was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variable in the gender group (i.e., male), since most participants indicated they were female (*n* = 147, 89.6%). The dummy variable White non-Hispanic was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in the race/ethnicity group (i.e., Black or African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latinx), since most participants indicated they were White non-Hispanic (*n* = 144, 87.8%). The variable master's degree was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in level of education (i.e., bachelor's degree, doctorate), since most participants indicated their highest achievement was a master's degree (*n* = 149, 90.9%). Overall experience and experience at present school were quantitative variables.

There were assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The *n* quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study. A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Overall experience demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Affective Commitment scores. The second scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Experience at Present School similarly demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Affective Commitment scores. In Model 1, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.113, Overall Experience = 2.518, Experience at Present School = 2.363, Male = 1.010). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.157, Overall Experience = 2.521, Experience at Present

School = 2.369, Male = 1.023, Black or African American = 1.033, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.014, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.024). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.186, Overall Experience = 2.628, Experience at Present School = 2.371, Male = 1.026, Black or African American = 1.060, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.018, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.041, Bachelors = 1.102, Doctorate = 1.117). The values of the residuals were independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.785). The variance of residuals is constant as the values showed no signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the P-P plot demonstrated the dots were close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted motivational attitudes scores. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between school type, overall years of teaching, years of teaching at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education, and mean affective commitment scores (Table 14).

Table 14

Pearson Correlations of Variables for Affective Commitment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mean Affective Commitment	-											
2. School Type	.131	-										
3. Overall Experience	.252**	.291*	-									
4. Experience at Present School	.210**	.161*	.757**	-								
5. Gender	.077	-.089	.887	-.003	-							
6. White Non-Hispanic	-.084	-.144	-.014	-.008	.118	-						
7. Black or African American	.041	.145	.039	.048	-.069	-.719**	-					
8. Asian or Pacific Islander	.078	-.066	-.041	-.042	-.076	-424**	-.042	-				
9. Hispanic or Latinx	.031	.122	.007	-.017	-.056	-.476**	-.048	-.028	-			
10. Bachelor's Degree	-.156*	-.194*	-.264**	-.177*	-.027	.079	-.057	-.033	-037	-		
11. Master's Degree	.183*	-.006	.013	.012	.031	.076	-.084	.050	-.067	-.665**	-	
12. Doctorate	-.099	.190*	.230**	.183*	-.016	-.175*	.166*	-.036	.124	-.048	-.714**	-

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

In Model 1, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(4, 159) = 3.216$, $p = .014$, accounting for approximately 7.5% of the variance of Affective Commitment scores ($R^2 = .075$, $R^2_{Adj} = .052$). Upon closer analysis of the variables within Model 1 (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender), there were no other significant findings ($p > .05$) that could predict Affective Commitment scores. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 1 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Affective\_Commitment\_Model\_1} = 2.797 + .142*(\text{Public School}) + .017*(\text{Overall Experience}) + .006*(\text{Experience at Present School}) + [-.253*(\text{Male})]$.

In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(7, 156) = 2.114$, $p = .045$, accounting for approximately 8.7% of

the variance of Affective Commitment scores (R^2 = .087, R^2_{Adj} = .046). Upon closer analysis of the variables within Model 2 (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity), there were no other significant findings (p > .05) that could predict Affective Commitment scores. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 2 predicted the equation: Predicted Z $_{Affective\_Commitment\_Model\_2}$ = 2.700 + .139*(Public School) + .017*(Overall Experience) + .006*(Experience at Present School) + [-.289*(Male)] + .123*(Black or African American) + .624*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + .171*(Hispanic or Latinx).

In Model 3, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(9, 154) = 2.423$, p = .013, accounting for approximately 12.4% of the variance of Affective Commitment scores (R^2 = .124, R^2_{Adj} = .073). Doctorate had the strongest negative weight and did make a significant contribution to predict Affective Commitment scores ($\beta = -.188, p = .020$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{doctorate}$ = .032, accounting for approximately 3.2% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year worked participants with a doctorate scored -0.822 points lower in mean affective commitment than those who earned a master's degree. In the Model Summary for Model 3, the inclusion of level of education for Doctorate did yield a significant increase, $F(2, 154)$ = 3.287, p = 040. In Model 3, the R^2_{Change} = .037, which accounted for a 3.7% increase in the variance from Model 2 to predict Affective Commitment. Upon closer analysis of the variables within Model 3 (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, bachelors), there were no other significant findings (p > .05) that could predict Affective Commitment scores. As shown in Table 15, results of

the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 3 predicted the equation: Predicted Z $_{Affective\_Commitment\_Model\_3}$ = 2.699 + .157*(Public School) + .019*(Overall Experience) + .007*(Experience at Present School) + [-.283*(Male)] + .218*(Black or African American) + .587*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + .284*(Hispanic or Latinx) + [-.338*(Bachelors)] + [-.822*(Doctorate)]. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 15

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Affective Commitment Scores for Model 3

Variable	B	*SE B*	*β*	sr^2
Constant	2.699			
Public School	.157	.155	.083	.006
Overall Experience	.019	.011	.198	.015
Experience at Present School	.007	.012	.071	.002
Male	-.283	.236	.092	.008
Black or African American	.218	.292	.058	.003
Asian or Pacific Islander	.587	.465	.096	.009
Hispanic or Latinx	.284	.422	.052	.003
Bachelors	-.338	.369	-.073	.005
Doctorate	-.822	.349	-.188*	.032

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

Research Question 4

The researcher wished to investigate whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) would significantly predict participants' Continuance Commitment score. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between the above stated variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, and gender on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Continuance Commitment scores. The research question for the study was: How does school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' Continuance Commitment?

The hypotheses selected were:

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Continuance Commitment scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall

experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Continuance Commitment scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, school type was dummy coded 0 (private) and 1 (public), and gender was dummy coded 0 (male) and 1 (female) since they were dichotomous (two levels). The variables race/ethnicity and level of education were polychotomous (more than two levels) and needed to be dummy coded for the multiple regression. The dummy variable private school was assigned as the reference against the target variable in the school type group (i.e., public school), since most participants indicated they worked at a private school (n = 89, 54.3%). The dummy variable female was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variable in the gender group (i.e., male), since most participants indicated they were female (n = 147, 89.6%). The dummy variable White non-Hispanic was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in the race/ethnicity group (i.e., Black or African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latinx), since most participants indicated they were White non-Hispanic (n = 144, 87.8%). The variable master's degree was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in level of education (i.e., bachelor's degree, doctorate), since most participants indicated their highest achievement was a master's degree (n = 149, 90.9%). Overall experience and experience at present school were quantitative variables.

There were assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The n quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study.

A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Overall experience demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Continuance Commitment scores. The second scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Experience at Present School similarly demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Continuance Commitment scores.

In Model 1, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.113, Overall Experience = 2.518, Experience at Present School = 2.363, Male = 1.010). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.157, Overall Experience = 2.521, Experience at Present School = 2.369, Male = 1.023, Black or African American = 1.033, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.014, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.024). In Model 3, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (Public School = 1.186, Overall Experience = 2.628, Experience at Present School = 2.371, Male = 1.026, Black or African American = 1.060, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.018, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.041, Bachelors = 1.102, Doctorate = 1.117). The values of the residuals were independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.925). The variance of residuals is constant as the values showed no signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the P-P plot demonstrated the dots were close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted continuance commitment scores. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between school

type, overall years of teaching, years of teaching at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education with the mean score of continuance commitment (Table 16).

Table 16

Pearson Correlations of Variables for Continuance Commitment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mean Continuance Commitment	-											
2. School Type	.305**	-										
3. Overall Experience	.215**	.291**	-									
4. Experience at Present School	.169*	.161*	.757**	-								
5. Gender	.008	-.089	.011	-.003	-							
6. White Non-Hispanic	.002	-.144	-.014	-.008	.118	-						
7. Black or African American	.045	.145	.039	.048	-.069	-.719**	-					
8. Asian or Pacific Islander	.038	-.066	-.041	-.042	-.076	.424**	-.042	-				
9. Hispanic or Latinx	-.104	.122	.007	-.017	.056	-.476**	-.048	-.028	-			
10. Bachelor's Degree	-.122	-.194*	-.264**	-.177*	-.027	.079	-.057	-.033	-.037	-		
11. Master's Degree	.060	-.006	.013	-.012	.031	.076	-.084	.050	-.067	-.665**	-	
12. Doctorate	.034	.190*	.230**	.183*	-.016	-.175*	.166*	-.036	.124	.543	-.714**	-

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

In Model 1, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(4, 159) = 5.049$, $p < .001$, accounting for approximately 11.3% of the variance of Continuance Commitment scores ($R^2 = .113$, $R^2_{\text{Adj}} = .090$). Public school had the strongest positive weight and made a significant contribution to predict Continuance Commitment scores ($\beta = .272, p < .001$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{\text{school\_type}} = .067$, accounting for approximately 6.7% of the variance. This significant result in Model 1 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, participants employed in public schools scored 0.517 points higher in continuance commitment than participants in private schools. Upon further analysis of the remaining variables within Model 1 (i.e., overall experience, experience at present school, gender), there were no

other significant findings ($p > .05$) that could predict Continuance Commitment scores. As shown in Table 17, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 1 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Continuance\_Commitment\_Model\_1} = 1.872 + .517*(\text{Public School}) + .009*(\text{Overall Experience}) + .005*(\text{Experience at Present School}) + [-.098*(\text{Male})]$.

Table 17

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continuance Commitment Scores for Model 1

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	1.872			
Public School	.517	.150	.272***	.067
Overall Experience	.009	.011	.095	.004
Experience at Present School	.005	.012	.053	.001
Male	-.098	.234	.031	.001

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

In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(7, 156) = 3.480$, $p = .002$, accounting for approximately 13.5% of the variance of Continuance Commitment scores ($R^2 = .135$, $R^2_{Adj} = .096$). Public school had the strongest positive weight and made a significant contribution to predict Continuance Commitment scores ($\beta = .294, p < .001$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{school\_type} = .075$, accounting for approximately 7.5% of the variance. The significant

result in Model 2 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in public school participants scored 0.559 points higher in mean continuance commitment than participants employed in private schools. Upon further analysis of the remaining variables within Model 2 (i.e., overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity), there were no other significant findings ($p > .05$) that could predict Continuance Commitment scores. As shown in Table 18, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 2 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Continuance\_Commitment\_Model\_2} = 1.839 + .559$(Public School) + .009(Overall Experience) + .005(Experience at Present School) + [-.093(Male)] + [-.021(Black or African American)] + .378(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [-.752(Hispanic or Latinx)]. Upon further inspection of the Model Summary, Model 2 [$F(3, 156) = 1.344$, $p = .262$] and Model 3 [$F(2, 154) = .201$, $p = .818$] did not yield significant results as compared to Model 1 [$F(4, 159) = 5.049$, $p < .001$]. Therefore, only Model 1 should be considered when addressing research question four in this study.

Table 18

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continuance Commitment Scores for Model 2

Variable	B	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Constant	1.839			
Public School	.559	.153	.294***	.075
Overall Experience	.009	.011	.094	.003
Experience at Present School	.005	.012	.051	.001
Male	-.093	.234	.030	.001
Black or African American	-.021	.287	-.006	.000
Asian or Pacific Islander	.378	.461	.062	.004
Hispanic or Latinx	-.752	.416	-.136	.018

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

In Model 3, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(9, 154) = 2.724$, p .006, accounting for approximately 13.7% of the variance in Continuance Commitment scores ($R^2 = .137$, $R^2_{Adj} = .087$). Public school had the strongest positive weight and made a significant contribution to predict Continuance Commitment scores ($\beta = .293, p < .001$) with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{school\_type} = .072$, accounting for approximately 7.2% of the variance. The significant result in Model 3 indicated that when all other variables were held constant, for each year gained in public school participants scored 0.557 points higher in mean continuance

commitment than participants employed in private schools. Upon further analysis of the remaining variables within Model 3 (i.e., overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education), there were no other significant findings ($p > .05$) that could predict Continuance Commitment scores. As shown in Table 19, results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 3 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Continuance\_Commitment\_Model\_3}$ = 1.864 + .557*(Public School) + .009*(Overall Experience) + .005*(Experience at Present School) + [-.089*(Male)] + [-.007*(Black or African American)] + .364*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [-.735*(Hispanic or Latinx)] + [-.165*(Bachelors)] + [-.150*(Doctorate)]. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 19

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continuance Commitment Scores for Model 3

Variable	B	*SE B*	*β*	sr^2
Constant	1.864			
Public School	.557	.155	.293***	.072
Overall Experience	.009	.011	.091	.003
Experience at Present School	.005	.012	.053	.001
Male	-.089	.236	.029	.001
Black or African American	-.007	.292	-.002	.000
Asian or Pacific Islander	.364	.464	.059	.003
Hispanic or Latinx	-.735	.421	-.133	.017
Bachelors	-.165	.369	-.035	.001
Doctorate	-.150	.348	-.034	.001

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

Research Question 5

The researcher wished to investigate whether demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) would significantly predict participants' Normative Commitment score. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was chosen to investigate the relationship between the above stated variables. Entering the independent variables in a stepwise fashion allowed for an interpretation of model changes. Model 1 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, and gender on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores. Model 2 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, and race/ethnicity on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores. Model 3 within the regression examined the relationship between school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education on special education teachers' mean Normative Commitment scores. The research question for the study was: How does school type, overall experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education influence special education teachers' Continuance Commitment?

The hypotheses selected were:

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between school type, total years of teaching, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Normative Commitment scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between school type, overall

experience, Experience at Present School, gender, race/ethnicity, or level of education and special education teacher's Normative Commitment scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, school type was dummy coded 0 (private) and 1 (public), and gender was dummy coded 0 (male) and 1 (female) since they were dichotomous (two levels). The variables race/ethnicity and level of education were polychotomous (more than two levels) and needed to be dummy coded for the multiple regression. The dummy variable private school was assigned as the reference against the target variable in the school type group (i.e., public school), since most participants indicated they worked at a private school (n = 89, 54.3%). The dummy variable female was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variable in the gender group (i.e., male), since most participants indicated they were female (n = 147, 89.6%). The dummy variable White non-Hispanic was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in the race/ethnicity group (i.e., Black or African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latinx), since most participants indicated they were White non-Hispanic (n = 144, 87.8%). The variable master's degree was assigned as the reference to dummy code against the target variables in level of education (i.e., bachelor's degree, doctorate), since most participants indicated their highest achievement was a master's degree (n = 149, 90.9%). Overall experience and experience at present school were quantitative variables.

There were assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The n quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study.

A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Overall experience demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Normative Commitment scores. The second scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Experience at Present School similarly demonstrated that there was a linear relationship with Normative Commitment scores.

In Model 1, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.113, Overall Experience = 2.518, Experience at Present School = 2.363, Gender = 1.010). In Model 2, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.157, Overall Experience = 2.521, Experience at Present School = 2.369, Gender = 1.023, Black or African American = 1.033, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.014, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.024). In Model 3, there was no multicollinearity in the data as the VIF scores were well below 10 (School Type = 1.186, Overall Experience = 2.628, Experience at Present School = 2.371, Gender = 1.026, Black or African American = 1.060, Asian or Pacific Islander = 1.018, Hispanic or Latinx = 1.041, Bachelors = 1.102, Doctorate = 1.117). The values of the residuals were independent as the Durbin-Watson statistic was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.758). The variance of residuals is constant as the values showed no signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the P-P plot demonstrated the dots were close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted Normative Commitment scores. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between school

type, overall years of teaching, years of teaching at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education with the mean score of normative commitment (Table 20).

Table 20

Pearson Correlation of Variables for Normative Commitment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mean Normative Commitment	-											
2. School Type	.045	-										
3. Overall Experience	.095	.291**	-									
4. Experience at Present School	.067	.161*	.757**	-								
5. Gender	.057	-.089	.011	-.003	-							
6. White Non-Hispanic	-.058	-.144	-.014	-.008	.118	-						
7. Black or African American	.081	.145	.039	.048	-.069	-.719**	-					
8. Asian or Pacific Islander	.062	-.066	-.041	-.042	-.076	-.424**	-.042	-				
9. Hispanic or Latinx	-.064	.122	.007	-.017	-.056	-.476**	-.048	-.028	-			
10. Bachelor's Degree	-.046	-.194*	-.264**	-.177*	-.027	.079	-.057	-.033	-.037	-		
11. Master's Degree	.077	-.006	.013	-.012	.031	.076	-.084	.050	-.067	-.665**	-	
12. Doctorate	-.060	.190*	.230**	.183*	-.016	-.175*	.166*	-.036	.124	-.714**		-

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

In Model 1, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded an insignificant regression equation, $F(4, 159) = .510$, $p = .728$, ($R^2 = .013$, $R^2_{Adj} = -.012$). As such, no further analyses were conducted for Model 1. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 1 predicted the equation: Predicted Z $_{Normative\_Commitment\_Model\_1}$ = 2.784 + .048*(Public School) + .009*(Overall Experience) + [-.001*(Experience at Present School)] + [-.190*(Male)].

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted Normative Commitment scores. In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded an insignificant regression equation, $F(7, 156) = .638$, $p = .724$, ($R^2 = .028$, $R^2_{Adj} = -.016$). As such, no further

analyses were conducted for Model 2. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 2 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Normative\_Commitment\_Model\_2}$ = 2.710 + .050*(Public School) + .009*(Overall Experience) + [-.001*(Experience at Present School)] + [-.216*(Male)] + .315*(Black or African American) + .478*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [-.336*(Hispanic or Latinx)].

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables arranged in three distinct models predicted Normative Commitment scores. In Model 2, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded an insignificant regression equation, $F(9, 154) = .645$, $p = .757$, ($R^2 = .036$, $R^2_{Adj} = -.020$). As such, no further analyses were conducted for Model 3. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for Model 3 predicted the equation: Predicted $Z_{Normative\_Commitment\_Model\_3}$ = 2.673 + .067*(Public School) + .011*(Overall Experience) + [-.001*(Experience at Present School)] + [-.217*(Male)] + .371*(Black or African American) + .469*(Asian or Pacific Islander) + [-.271*(Hispanic or Latinx)] + [-.041*(Bachelors)] + [-.448*(Doctorate)]. The null hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 6

The researcher wished to investigate whether the mean scores of job satisfaction and motivational attitudes would significantly predict participants' Overall Commitment score. A multiple linear regression analysis was chosen to predict mean survey scores based on their perceived levels of job satisfaction and motivational attitudes based on a Likert scale from 0 to 5. The rationale for using multiple regression is to predict the value of a variable (DV) based on the value of two or more other predictor (IVs). In the present study, there was only one continuous outcome dependent variable to two continuous

predictor independent variables. The research question for the study was: How do job satisfaction scores and motivational attitude scores predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores?

The hypotheses chosen were:

H_0: There will be a significant relationship between job satisfaction scores and motivational attitude scores to predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores. ($R^2 = 0$)

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between job satisfaction scores and motivational attitude scores to predict special education teachers' overall commitment scores. ($R^2 > 0$)

An alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ was selected to test for significance.

Prior to the analysis, the data were screened. There were no missing or miscoded values noted. When viewing the variables, Job Satisfaction scores, Motivational Attitude scores, and Overall Commitment scores were all quantitative. There were six assumption tests conducted before the statistical analysis was run in SPSS. The *n* quota assumption was satisfied, as there were 164 participants in the study. A scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Job Satisfaction demonstrated there was a linear relationship with Overall Commitment scores. Next, a scatterplot of the continuous predictor variable Motivational Attitudes Score demonstrated there was also a linear relationship with Overall Commitment scores. There was no multicollinearity in the data as the highest correlation was job satisfaction scores ($r = .674$, $p < .001$) followed by motivational attitudes ($r = .558$, $p < .001$).

When viewing the Collinearity statistics in the SPSS output, the VIF scores were well below 10 (job satisfaction = 1.898, motivational attitudes = 1.898), and the tolerance scores were above 0.2 (job satisfaction = .527, motivational attitudes = .527). Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was met. The values of the residuals were independent as were noted by the Durbin-Watson statistics, which was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.86). The variance of the residuals was constant as the values showed no obvious signs of funneling. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. The values of the residuals were normally distributed as the P-P plot demonstrated the dots close to the diagonal line. Finally, there were no influential cases biasing the model demonstrated by the Cook's Distance values being less than 1.

A multiple regression analysis was performed to identify which variables predicted Overall Commitment scores. The multiple regression analysis yielded a significant regression equation, $F(2, 161) = 71.694$, $p < .001$, ($R^2 = .471$, $R^2_{Adj} = .465$) accounting for approximately 46.5% variance in Overall Commitment scores. Both predictive factors of Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .550, p < .001$) and Motivational Attitudes ($\beta = .180, p = .024$) contributed significantly to the model. For each additional point earned on participants' mean job satisfaction score, their mean overall commitment score is predicted to increase by .641 points. For each additional point earned on participants' mean motivational attitudes score, their mean overall commitment score is predicted to increase by .228 points. Job Satisfaction had the strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to Overall Commitment with a unique contribution of $sr^2_{js} = .159$ accounting for approximately 16% of the variance. Motivational Attitudes had the second strongest positive weight and did make a significant contribution to Overall Commitment

with a unique contribution of sr^2_{js} = .017 accounting for 1.7% of the variance. A Pearson Correlation was computed to determine the linear relationship between mean scores of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and overall commitment (Table 21). Results found significant large positive relationships between job satisfaction and overall commitment (r = .674, p < .001), motivational attitudes and overall commitment (r = .558, p < .001), and job satisfaction and motivational attitudes (r = .688, p < .01).

Table 21

Pearson Correlations of Variables for Overall Commitment

Variable	1	2	3
1. Mean Job Satisfaction	-		
2. Mean Motivational Attitudes	.688**	-	
3. Mean Overall Commitment	.674**	.588**	-

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

From this analysis, it was concluded that mean scores of Job Satisfaction and Motivational Attitudes individually and jointly had a significant effect on mean Overall Commitment scores. This indicates that Job Satisfaction and Motivational Attitudes is a significant predictor of Overall Commitment among K-12 special education teacher participants included in this study. As shown in Table 22, the final predictive model was: Predicted $Z_{\text{OVERALL\_COMMITMENT\_SCORES}}$ = .274 + .641(Job Satisfaction) + .228(Motivational Attitudes). The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 22

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Overall Commitment Scores

	Overall Commitment Scores for PreK-12 Special Education Teachers				
Model		*B*	*SE B*	*β*	sr^2
1	Variable				
	Job Satisfaction	.641	.092	.550***	.159
	Motivational Attitudes	.228	.100	.180*	.017

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

Research Question 7 (Descriptive Statistics)

The researcher investigated whether PreK-12 special education teacher participants would pursue a career in teaching if given the option to start over. In the TSMCPE survey, there was one forced-choice question (i.e., question 44) and one open-ended question (i.e., question 45), which were intended to answer research question 7:

1. If you had the opportunity to start over in a new career, would you choose to become a teacher? (1 = Yes, definitely!; 2 = No way!; 3 = I'm not really so sure)
2. Please briefly explain why you answered the previous question as you did. (Extended Response)

For question 44 of the TSMCPE survey, participants indicated their choice of pursuing a teaching career again in hindsight by selecting one-of-three forced-choice items: 1 = *Yes, definitely!*; 2 = *No way!*; and 3 = *I'm really not sure*. Frequency data of responses made to question 44 were analyzed using SPSS (Table 23). As shown in

Figures 5-8, a series of clustered bar charts were created using SPSS to visually illustrate the frequency of responses made by the following four nominal independent variables: (1) school type, (2) gender, (3) race/ethnicity, and (4) level of education.

Table 23

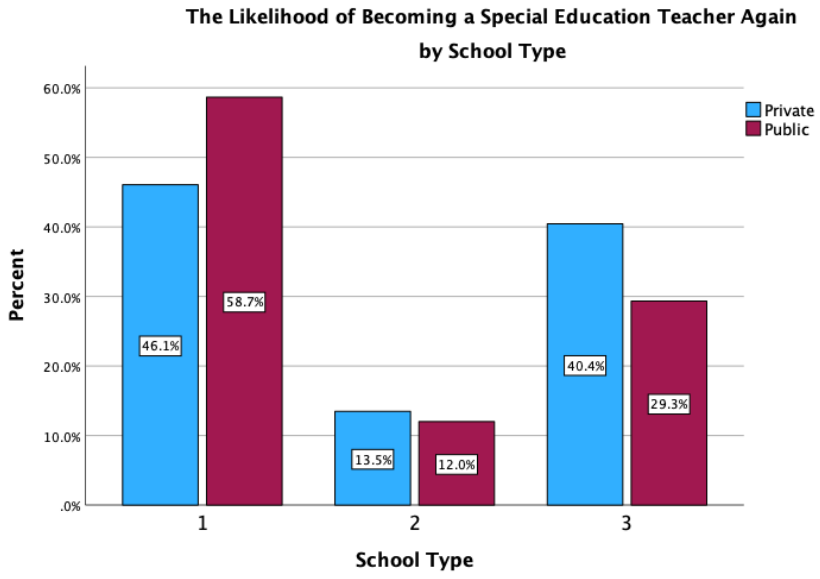
Frequency Data Results for Question 44

	n	%
1	85	51.8
2	21	12.8
3	58	35.4
Total	164	100

Note. 1 = Yes, definitely!, 2 = No way!, 3 = I'm really not sure.

Figure 5

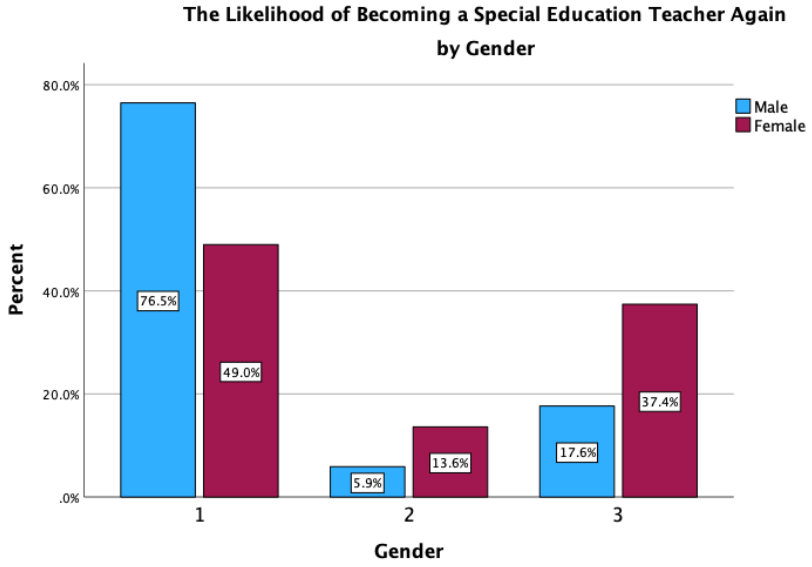
Clustered Bar Graph Results of Question 44 by School Type



Note. 1 = Yes, definitely!, 2 = No way!, 3 = I'm really not sure.

Figure 6

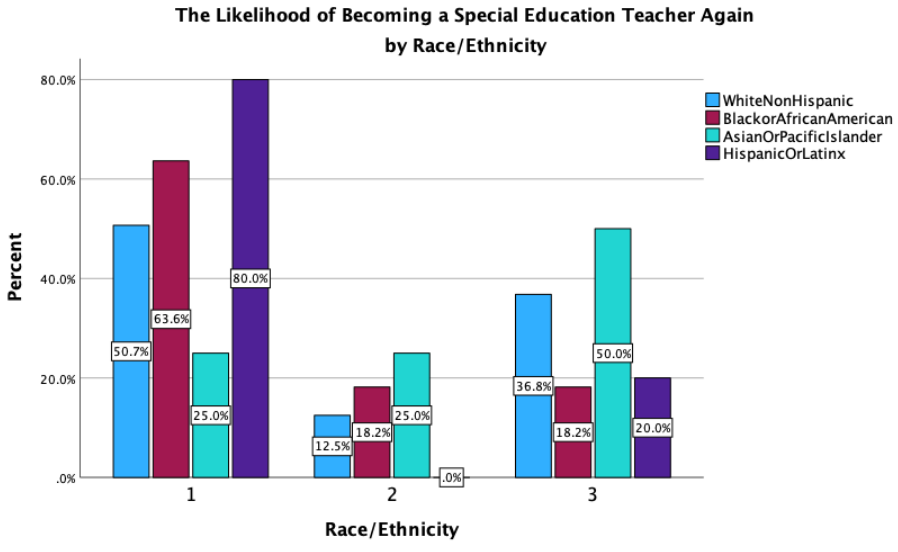
Clustered Bar Graph Results of Question 44 by Gender



Note. 1 = Yes, definitely!, 2 = No way!, 3 = I'm really not sure.

Figure 7

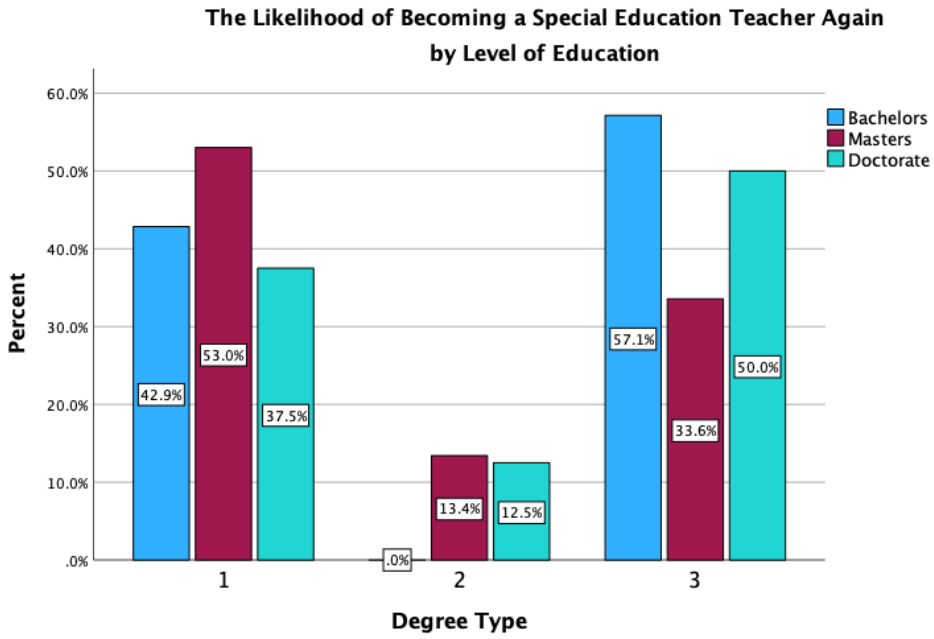
Clustered Bar Graph Results of Question 44 by Race/Ethnicity



Note. 1 = Yes, definitely!, 2 = No way!, 3 = I'm really not sure.

Figure 8

Clustered Bar Graph Results of Question 44 by Level of Education



Note. 1 = Yes, definitely!, 2 = No way!, 3 = I'm really not sure.

For question 45 of the TSMCPE Survey, participants were asked to provide a brief written explanation to justify their forced-choice selection made in question 44. To categorize participants' open-ended responses as either Motivational Factors, Hygiene Factors, or Both Factors Mentioned, the researcher cross-referenced Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factory Theory. As shown in Tables 24 and 25, the researcher utilized Herzberg's (1966) theoretical framework to generate a series of key words per each sub-category of Hygiene Factors and Motivational Factors.

Table 24

Themes and Code Words of Hygiene Factors from Open-Ended Responses Made in Question 45 of TSMCPE Survey

Hygiene Factors	Themes	Code Words
Administrative Policies	Arbitrary Expectations	Arbitrary, Equal, Equitable, Fair, Follow, Policy, Rules, Understood by All
Supervision	Unrealistic Demands	Delegate, Demands Responsibility, Perpetually Nagging or Critical, Willing
Salary	Insufficient Compensation and Benefits	Benefit, Compensation, Incentive, Money, Monetary, Pay, Salary
Interpersonal Relations	Meaningful Relationships	Colleague, Camaraderie, Collegial, Interact, Rapport, Relationship, Socialize
Working Conditions	Emotional and Physical Exhaustion	Clean, Exhausted, Hygienic, Physical, Safe, Stress, Surroundings, Workload

Table 25

Themes and Code Words of Motivation Factors from Open-Ended Responses Made in Question 45 of TSMCPE Survey

Motivation Factors	Themes	Code Words
Work Itself	Passion for Teaching Students	Love, Enjoy, Passion, Rewarding
Achievement	Impacting Student Success	Achieve, Completion, Impact, Results, Solution, Successful
Recognition	Respect and Appreciation Needed	Blame, Criticism, Notice, Praise, Recognition, Recognize
Responsibility	Autonomy to Make an Impact	Autonomy, Decisions, Freedom, Responsibility
Advancement	Limited Career Advancement	Advancement, Status, Promotion, Career Path, Upward Mobility
Possibility of Growth	Desire for Professional Growth	Increased Opportunities, Knowledge, Learn, New Skills, Professional Development

Table 26 displays the frequency of responses made that were classified as Hygiene Factors (Administrative Policies, Supervision, Salary, Interpersonal Relations, Status, Security), Motivational Factors (Work Itself, Achievement, Recognition, Responsibility, Advancement, Possibility of Growth), Both Factors Mentioned, or Not Used.

Table 26

Frequency Data of Manually Categorized Results of Question 45 from TSMCPE Survey

	Frequency	
Category of Response	*n*	%
Motivation Factor	78	47.3
Hygiene Factor	52	31.5
Both Factors Mentioned	21	12.7
Not Used	15	9.7
Total	164	100.0

Finally, codes derived from Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory were used by the researcher to manually categorize participants' responses via In Vivo coding as Motivational Factors or Hygiene Factors. In Vivo sub-categories were labelled verbatim from excerpts of participant responses, whereupon similar testimonials were associated via manual inspection of the researcher. Tables 27 through 29 summarized these findings.

Table 27

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Hygiene Factors for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 45 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Category	Themes	Participant Response Examples
Administrative Policies	Arbitrary Expectations	*...much of your creativity can be stifled by the arbitrary expectations that do not benefit the students.*
		...it is extremely difficult to teach students with autism and significant disabilities now that I am in my 60's. The district I work in has now pigeonholed me and will not let me take a less demanding position as I approach retirement.
Supervision	Unrealistic Demands	*Demands on teachers are unrealistic. Curriculum has become increasingly more difficult and many of our special education students and general education students are struggling to keep up with the rigor of curriculum.*
		The work demands can be overwhelming at times and it feels like there are not enough hours in the day to manage all of my special Ed teaching responsibilities.
Salary	Insufficient Compensation and Benefits	*There is too much unpaid labor in the teaching field and a bit of martyrdom where we feel obligated to work outside of our hours because it's "good for the kids."*
		I do not get NYS teachers pension, union protection or NYS health benefits. I work just as hard if not more.
		Teachers are not paid nearly enough. The salary is not livable in the world we live in. Especially at this [private school] agency.
Interpersonal Relations	Meaningful Relationships	*I enjoy being a teacher and value the relationships I have developed with students, staff and families over the past 18 years. That is one of the highlights of my career.*
		I enjoy teaching, working with the students and developing relationships with peers.
		I enjoy interacting with the children.
Working Conditions	Emotional and Physical Exhaustion	*As I begin to grow a family I am concerned with my wellbeing. I want to be able to go home and enjoy my own kids instead of being emotionally and physically exhausted.*
		...excessive workload that is being put on teachers by administration is overwhelming.
		Too much involved now days. Plus since [C]ovid everythin[g] including students have changed.

Table 28

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Motivation Factors for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 45 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Category	Themes	Participant Response Examples
Work Itself	Passion for Teaching Students	*I have always loved teaching and being the leader of the room. I like things done a certain way and I enjoy helping kids learn, not matter the age. I enjoy making a difference in their lives.* *Teaching is a second career for me, and I am enjoying it and feel that I am touching lives.* *I have always wanted to work with children in some way.*
Achievement	Impacting Student Success	*I enjoy working with kids every day and seeing their growth throughout the school year.* *I love working and connecting with the kids. I enjoy watching them make progress over the course of a year.* *Children will inevitably rise to our expectations when given enough time and consistency with the adults in their lives.*
Recognition	Respect and Appreciation Needed	*Teaching has become a very difficult profession in which blame for various situations is often placed on the teacher vs the students' actions.* *I would select a career in which I am valued, treated with respect, have the opportunity for development, and much higher compensation.* *The parents/community/society all blame teachers for students when they are not successful.*
Responsibility	Autonomy to Make an Impact	*I wish I had more autonomy to do what I think is best for my students. I feel micromanaged in many ways.* *Teaching provides structure to my life in that I know what's asked of me responsibilities wise and what I will be held accountable for.* *We all serve as powerful role-models in the lives of children, and I take that responsibility very seriously.*
Advancement	Limited Career Advancement	*I would choose a career in which my skills would be respected and there would be greater potential for upward mobility.* *I would consider other careers that offer more creativity possibly.* *I enjoy being a teacher but would love to advance and try other options.*
Possibility of Growth	Desire for Professional Growth	*I love teaching and making a difference in the lives of my students. I also love to grow as an educator and receive professional development.* *[Administrators should] give meaningful training to new hires for our school.* *As I have gained more experience, I have been given the opportunity to learn new strategies to help my students.*

Table 29

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Both Factors Mentioned for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 45 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Categories	Theme	Participant Response Examples
Work Itself & Working Conditions	Weighing the Positive and Negative Aspects of Teaching	*It is highly rewarding bu[t] the demands are enormous[.]*
Work Itself, Responsibility, Salary, Working Conditions		*Teachers are expected to work outside of work hours, but the job is rewarding by helping students.*
Responsibility, Salary, Work Itself		*There are moments when the job feels like too much and the responsibilities to compensation ratio do not feel worth it. But then there are moments where I feel like I am exactly where I belong and that this is the right career for me[.]*

Research Question 8 (Descriptive Statistics)

The researcher investigated what PreK-12 special education teacher participants perceive their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school. In the TSMCPE survey, there was one open-ended question (i.e., 46), which was intended to answer research question 8: What do special education teachers perceive their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment to remain at their present school?

To categorize participants' open-ended responses as either affective commitment, continuance commitment, or Normative Commitment, the researcher cross-referenced Allen & Meyer's (1997) Three Component Model of Employee Commitment. The

researcher utilized Allen & Meyer's (1997) theoretical framework to generate a series of key words and themes per each sub-category of AC, CC, and NC (Table 30).

Table 30

Themes and Code Words of TCM from Open-Ended Responses Made in Question 46 of TSMCPE Survey

Commitment Factors	Themes	Code Words
Affective Commitment	Administrators Should Boost Morale Administrators Should Be Supportive Teachers Need More Autonomy Teachers Need their Opinions Heard	Attachment, Autonomy, Consistent, Emotional, Goals, Love, Morale, Values
Continuance Commitment	Limited Career Advancement in Teaching Acknowledge Teachers as Professionals Shared Decision-Making and Collaboration More Classroom Visitations by Administration Transparency of Communication Low Salaries Better Retirement Options Needed More Professional Development Needed	Benefits, Collaborative, Communication, Compensation, Incentives, Opportunities, Professional Development, Respect, Salary, Social, Support
Normative Commitment	Supportive Administrators Influence Loyalty	Guilt, Moral, Obligation, Leaving Loyalty, Loss, Quit, Remain, Responsibility, Stay

Table 31 displays the frequency of responses made that were classified as AC, CC, or NC, Combined Commitments Used, or Not Used.

Table 31

Frequency Data of Manually Categorized Results of Question 46 from TSMCPE Survey

	Frequency	
Category of Response	*n*	%
Affective Commitment	52	31.7
Continuance Commitment	78	47.6
Normative Commitment	5	3.0
Combination	4	2.4
Not Used	25	15.2
Total	164	100.0

Finally, codes derived from Allen & Meyer's (1997) TCM theoretical framework were used by the researcher to manually categorize participants' responses via In Vivo coding as AC, NC, and CC. In Vivo sub-categories were labelled verbatim from excerpts of participant responses, whereupon similar testimonials were associated via manual inspection of the researcher. Tables 32-35 summarized these findings.

Table 32

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Affective Commitment for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 46 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Category	Themes	Participant Response Examples
Affective Commitment	Boost Morale	*Be more supportive and kind. Administration is not the friendliest here and does not lead to positive morale.*
		More positive reinforcement / fun initiatives (i.e., "Gotcha" cards) that I feel like we are doing more and more this year.
		Being empathetic of what teachers go through on a daily basis, as it pertains to student deficits, student behaviors, etc. And also understanding that teachers may be going through difficult things at home.
	Be Supportive	*Support the decisions I make and side with the teacher vs the family and parents*
		Be consistent with consequences and plans and stand up to parents.
	More Teacher Autonomy	*Allow me to create a schedule that works for my scholars and go to workshops that are beneficial to their level of learning, not just their grade level.*
		Reduce micromanaging and allow me the freedom to do my job as I see fit as a teacher.
		They could consider teacher's opinions and value them in more decisions throughout the school.
	Teachers Opinions Heard	*There are not many occasions where teacher input is used to determine how schools should operate.*
		Take faculty opinions more seriously…continue to work on safety for staff and students.
		Check in regularly with staff and check in on students. Trust our professional judgement, expertise, and value our opinions.

Table 33

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Continuance Commitment for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 46 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Category	Themes	Participant Response Examples
Continuance Commitment	Limited Career Advancement	*I do not feel there is anything that they could do to make me feel more committed. My decision to leave this job is if I decide to would be based on my desire to transition into an administrative position.*
		They need to offer opportunities for advancement to everyone not just those within their circle.
	Acknowledge Teachers as Professionals	*I think administrators should be grateful and acknowledge our hard work and dedication to our students and to this profession. It is really a thankless job a lot of the times.*
		Respect the opinion of someone who has the experience I do. Give the students the support they need. Send students out to an appropriate placement such as [more restrictive setting] when needed.
	More Classroom Visitations by Administration	*Be more open to learning about the classrooms, tending to help more instead of being in their offices, providing more support instead of just saying you're supportive, communication with the teachers often.*
		Observe the work we do. It is hard to accept feedback and suggestions from people who truly do no know what the student population in the classroom is like.
	Transparency of Communication	*Including me in important decisions about my students and staff is important to me and I am not always in the loop for these decisions.*
		Improved communication, more of a connection between teachers and administration. Less of a top-down feel.
	Low Salaries	*Pay paraeducators more money so they keep working for us and stop leaving for more money at McDonald's. Lack of staff means I can't do my job which means I am upset.*
		MONEY! Unfortunately, at this [private school] agency they don't have control over that but it isn't enough in the slightest bit for the work that we do.
	Better Retirement Options Needed	*At the school I currently work at I feel that if there was a pension it would change my status on working here.*
		We don't have a NYS retirement so some sort of raise or something every year.
	More Professional Development Needed	*I want to continue to attend professional developments to expand on my teaching expertise. I value my learning and reflection in order to do my best job for my students.*
		The administration could…invest in my growth
		Provide more PD [professional development] that is useful.

Table 34

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Normative Commitment for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 46 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Category	Theme	Participant Response Examples
Normative Commitment (NC)	Supportive Administrators Influence Loyalty	*My administrators are fantastic. I have complete creative freedom to design and implement my own curriculum, classroom management program, and more. My administrators are always waiting in the wings, available to pitch in when I need them.* *My administration is one of my reasons for staying. I have a VERY supportive administration.* *I have an incredible administrator and without her I do not think I would stay here or love my job as much as I do[.]*

Table 35

In Vivo Sub-Categories and Themes of Combined Factors of Commitment Mentioned for Special Education Teacher Responses to Question 46 from TSMCPE Survey

Sub-Categories	Themes	Participant Response Examples
Affective & Continuance Commitment	Shared Values of Communication and Salary	Raise salary, give more money for extra curriculum for students, like a music teacher or a nature teacher[.] *Be more open to learning about the classrooms, tending to help more instead of being in their offices, providing more support instead of just saying you're supportive, communication with the teachers often.* *Communication, recognition, higher salaries, listen to staff and feelings.*

Conclusion

In conclusion, the researcher explored and analyzed all data that were collected from the TSMCPE survey to determine any statistically significant findings in the perceptions of PreK-12 special education teachers. In addition, open-ended questions in the survey explored perceptions of organizational commitment to participants' career and school/district of employment.

Research questions one through five investigated the influence of six demographic factors on the dependent variables of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. First, the data demonstrated there was a significant difference in school type, where participants employed in public schools on average experienced greater motivational attitudes and continuance commitment compared to those employed in private schools. Second, the data demonstrated there was a significant difference in overall experience, where each year of employment as a special education teacher positively influenced participants' job satisfaction and motivational attitudes. Furthermore, an extended analysis of research question two found a significant positive association between hygiene factors and motivation factors that accounted for almost half of the variance. Third, the data demonstrated there was a significant difference in experience at present school, where each year employed in participants' school negatively influenced their job satisfaction and motivational attitudes. Fourth, the data demonstrated there was a significant difference in gender, where males on average experienced greater levels of motivational attitudes than females. Fifth, there were no significant differences found between the independent variable of race/ethnicity compared to the above stated dependent variables

in research questions one through five. Finally, the data demonstrated that there was a significant difference in level of education, where those with a doctorate likely experienced less job satisfaction and affective commitment than participants with a bachelor's or master's degree.

Research question six explored the influence of job satisfaction and motivational attitudes on participants overall commitment. The data demonstrated that both job satisfaction and motivational attitudes significantly influenced participants' overall commitment and accounted for almost half of the variance. Further analysis of Pearson Correlations found significantly large positive relationships between: (a) job satisfaction and motivational attitudes, (b) job satisfaction and overall commitment, and (c) motivational attitudes and overall commitment.

Research question seven explored whether participants would pursue a career in teaching again if given the option to start over, whereupon themes emerged and were categorized in accordance with hygiene factors, motivation factors, or a combination of both. Five themes emerged in relation to hygiene factors: arbitrary expectations, unrealistic demands, insufficient compensation and benefits, meaningful relationships. Six themes emerged in relation to motivation factors: passion for teaching students, impacting student success, respect and appreciation, autonomy to make an impact, limited career advancement, and desire for professional growth.

Research question eight explored the perceptions of what participants felt their administrative supervisors could do to enhance their level of commitment at their present school of employment. Subsequent codes emerged, which were categorized into the following themes: affective commitment (boost morale, be supportive, more teacher

autonomy, and teacher opinions heard), continuance commitment (limited career advancement, acknowledge teachers as professionals, more classroom visitations, transparency of communication, increase salaries, better retirement options, more professional development), normative commitment (supportive administrators influence loyalty). Finally, one theme emerged regarding participant responses that comprised a combination of affective commitment and continuance commitment: shared values of communication and salary.

Chapter 5 will discuss how the results of this study are interpreted in the context of the theoretical and conceptual framework and how they are linked to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The limitations of the results will be discussed, and recommendations for future research will be proposed.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

The results and findings from Chapter 4 provide context for the discussion and conclusion in this last chapter. Connections made to the theoretical framework and the literature review are discussed in Chapter 5. Findings in the current study also support previous research on job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment. Finally, limitations of the research will be discussed, in addition to recommendations for future practice and research.

Implications of Findings

Adopting Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory, this study first sought to determine whether significant findings emerged concerning the impact of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) on PreK-12 special education teachers' level of job satisfaction and motivational attitudes. Surprisingly TSMCPE survey results were analyzed in the current study, and several findings emerged which were in alignment and misalignment with Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory.

Analysis of the TSMCPE survey data completed by PreK-12 special education teachers revealed that extrinsic factors associated with perceived levels of dissatisfaction (i.e., Hygiene Factors) had a significant influence on their intrinsic levels of perceived job satisfaction (i.e., Motivational Factors). As evidenced in the In Vivo analyses, almost 13% of participants referenced intrinsic and extrinsic factors when asked to justify their reasoning as to whether they would pursue a career in teaching again if given the chance to start over (Table 3). As such, the current researcher argues this finding further supports the integrity and validity of the conceptual framework used in the current study. Next,

participants with a doctorate were more likely to experience less job satisfaction compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree. These findings fairly relate to the conceptual framework of Two-Factor Theory, which explains how job satisfaction and dissatisfaction exist on two separate continua with their own set of factors (Nickerson, 2023). These extrinsic and intrinsic factors are interdependent of one another and need to be simultaneously addressed by supervisory personnel to boost their employees' perceived sense of job satisfaction (Nickerson, 2023). Herzberg's asserted that although hygiene factors are not the source of satisfaction, these issues must be dealt with first to create an environment where employee satisfaction and motivation are a possibility (Syptak et al.1999). In turn, employee satisfaction directly relates to their sense of self-growth and self-actualization, thereby maximizing the likelihood they will remain employed within their present organization. Interestingly, almost every open-ended response made to whether participants would pursue a career in teaching again in hindsight comprised of reasons related to motivation factors, hygiene factors, or a combination of both. Thus, administrative supervisors should implement a two-way approach that minimizes employees' extrinsic dissatisfaction while simultaneously maximizing their intrinsic satisfaction to subsequently promote optimal job satisfaction.

The current study further revealed job satisfaction and motivational attitudes significantly accounted for almost half of the variance in predicting overall commitment. In support of the current researcher's significant finding, Meyer & Allen (1991) found that job satisfaction was positively correlated with commitment, while Hashim et al. (2017) found that ethical leaders who sustained trustful relationships among their

employees increased those employees' level of perceived motivation and organizational commitment (as cited in Haque et al., 2020).

Herzberg (1965) argued that employees' level of education showed no meaningful alterations in the findings of determining employee motivation. As previously mentioned, the current research found that participants with a doctorate felt less motivated than their counterparts with a bachelor's or master's degree. The conceptual framework of this study posited a competitive salary with benefits coupled with the possibility of promotion could address the lack of motivation among those participants with a doctorate. This argument can be further supported by the motivational factor of advancement, wherein Herzberg claimed it was important to reward loyalty and performance with upward mobility of promotion (Richard, 2012). Apart from receiving additional titles (e.g., department chairperson, school leadership team member) or salary increase, there is very limited opportunity for upward mobility for teachers who obtain a doctorate at their school of employment.

Moreover, this researcher argues that apart from pursuing an alternative career in educational leadership and/or a teaching role at the post-secondary level (e.g., adjunct professor position at a college or university), teachers at the PreK-12 level with a doctorate encounter a glass ceiling where they remain on the same career-level plateau as their non-doctorate counterparts. In support of the current researcher's assertion, Alshmemri et al. (2017) highlighted a neutral status at work is considered negative advancement. Galanakis & Peramatzis (2022) further added that rewards and promotions following performance appraisals may be used to boost employee's morale and motivation. Thus, a teacher with an Ed.D. or Ph.D. seeking further career advancement

may perceive their present employment status as stagnant. To ease against employees leaving due to perceived limited career advancement, Herzberg urged employers to consider giving their employees a new title that reflects the level of accomplishments and work they have achieved (Richard, 2012). For PreK-12 teachers with a doctorate, the current researcher also contends that a newly acquired job title should also be paired with an additional assortment of responsibilities to enhance their perceived level of autonomy, which, in turn, would arguably heighten their intrinsic motivation.

Within the conceptual framework of the current study, the TCM of Organizational Commitment is considered a psychological state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational commitment plays a considerable role in determining whether employees with remain with their organizational alongside enthusiastically working towards organizational goals. Meyer & Allen (1997) outlined three distinct factors of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, normative) have an impact on teacher continuance outcomes. Similarly, the current study explored whether Meyer & Allen's (1997) Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment significantly related to the six above stated demographic factors, as well as whether investigating whether job satisfaction and motivational attitudes predicted overall commitment. Also, to the current researcher's surprise several findings emerged which were in alignment and misalignment with Meyer & Allen's theoretical framework. Analysis of the TSMCPE survey data in the current study revealed participants with a doctorate significantly had less affective commitment compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree. Though participants' field of

doctoral study were unknown to the current researcher, the conjecture can be made their reason for pursuing their degree had minimal relation toward impacting change at their present school of employment. In essence, recipients of a doctoral degree conduct research to raise questions, uncover trends, and propose solutions to positively impact change on various levels. Paradoxically, however, the current researcher highlights the irony among participants with doctorate being less emotionally committed toward achieving the goals of their current school of employment as compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree who had a greater level of perceived emotional attachment. As such, this finding raises additional questions, as to why these participants wanted to pursue a doctoral degree, and how they felt it would leverage their professional growth.

Next, it was found that participants employed in public schools had a significantly greater perception of continuance commitment than their private school counterparts. Based on this finding, participants in public schools were more likely to feel they could not afford to leave their present school of employment due to fewer perceived alternatives that could offer a better salary, series of benefits, job security measures, collegial relationships, and/or opportunities for professional growth. Finally, the current research discovered none of the demographic factors significantly influenced whether participants felt morally obligated to remain at their present school of employment. Despite this lack of statistical significance, it was alarming to discover participants' average response for TSMCPE items related to normative commitment was "Undecided" ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.00$). In turn, this descriptive finding raises another question as to whether participants' school-level administrators appropriately invested an adequate amount of time interacting and mentoring their teachers. Supported by the theoretical

premise of normative commitment, teachers would arguably be more loyal toward their present school of employment if their administrative supervisors have presumably invested an adequate amount of time cultivating interpersonal relationships with their employees.

In their research, Meyer & Allen (1991, 2002) contended that demographic variables of tenure, work experience, and level of education yielded significant small positive correlations with all three components of commitment. Meyer & Allen (1991) added these demographic factors were neither strong nor consistent. To some extent, the current research supported Meyer & Allen's contention, based upon: (a) the small positive correlation between overall experience, experience at present school, and level of education (i.e., master's degree) with affective commitment; (b) the small positive correlation between overall experience and continuance commitment; and (c) no significant correlations found between any of the six demographic factors with normative commitment. Similarly, the current researcher found: (a) a small negative correlation between participants with a bachelor's degree and their affective commitment; and (b) a medium positive correlation between school type (i.e., public schools) and continuance commitment.

Providing less experienced teachers, especially, with ongoing professional development has been suggested as an effective approach to strengthen their social/emotional wellbeing (e.g., development of coping strategies to handle workplace stress) and likelihood of retention (Schaack et al., 2020). In support of the conceptual framework, the current study asserts that added collegial support from special education teachers with greater work experience and higher levels of education could mentor newly

hired, less experienced, teachers. In turn, this collaboration between special education teachers would establish a peer-based support system that would minimize stress attributed by a lack of experience. The current researcher's argument is supported by Zhang & Sun (2020), who asserted teachers are more committed to their schools when they engage in collective learning through professional learning communities predicated on collaborative inquiry and sharing.

Finally, the conceptual framework asserted that added job security (e.g., tenure, union-based support) coupled with a competitive salary and benefits (e.g., pension) could be a helpful way to increase retention likelihood among special education teachers employed in private schools. In support of the conceptual framework, the current study found that participants employed in public schools were significantly more likely to experience greater levels of continuance commitment than participants in private schools. This positive association between public schools and continuance commitment in the current research is further supported by Schaack et al. (2020), who noted prior studies that have demonstrated strong relationships between low pay, few workplace benefits, and higher rates of teacher turnover. Accordingly, to minimize the retention gap among special education teachers, educational leaders at the private-school level must reassess whether their salaries, benefits, and job security measures are relatively comparable to contending public school districts.

Relationship to Prior Research

Findings of the current research refutes the results made by Scott et al. (2022), who stated no demographic characteristics had a significant impact on special education teachers' decision to persist in their profession. In contrast to their assertion, the current

research found two demographic factors that significantly related to affective commitment and continuance commitment. First, the current research found that special education teachers with a doctorate were less likely to feel as much emotional attachment to remain in their present school as compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree. Second, the current research found that special education teachers employed in public schools felt more compelled to remain in their present school based on the fear of losing more benefits at their present school (e.g., comparable salary, benefits, professional development opportunities, friendships, and/or social bonds with their peers and administrators) than they would gain at another competing school district. The researcher asserts that perhaps the findings of Scott et al. (2022) would have differed had they surveyed more than $n = 5$ participants employed at the private-school level from their total sample of $N = 96$ special education teachers.

The current study extends Mertler's (2016) research to further explore why special education teachers may reconsider their decision to pursue a career in education. While Mertler analyzed the data in percentages from the aggregate sample of PreK-12 teachers, the current researcher additionally disaggregated the data by nominal variables of school type, gender, race/ethnicity, and degree type. Interestingly, more than half of participants in the current study responded, "Yes definitely!" as compared to approximately one-third of participants in Mertler's research. This is especially interesting, since the current research took place during the endemic of Covid-19, which had a profound impact on teachers experiencing job dissatisfaction and resigning from their profession in droves (WSESP, 2023). It was also surprising that out of $N = 164$ open-ended responses made, only one participant in the current study generally expressed

concern of how the pandemic negatively impacted the profession of teaching and students' well-being. Finally, the current study extended Mertler's research, by further investigating whether hygiene factors and motivation factors had a significant relationship to one another. Scott et al. (2022) similarly found that special education teachers' persistence was dependent upon the mutual interaction between environmental (i.e., extrinsic) factors and personal (i.e., intrinsic) factors. Though Mertler's research determined hygiene and motivation factors did not significantly explain the variance in teachers' job satisfaction, the current research did, however, discover that hygiene factors significantly accounted for almost half the variance in predicting motivation factors.

The current study supports the research of Yasmeen et al. (2019), who similarly found that most special education teachers were intrinsically motivated in their career based on sense of joy, honor, and achievement teaching students with disabilities. When participants in the present study were asked whether they would pursue a career in teaching again if given the option to start over, the most prevalent keywords related to intrinsic factors (i.e., teaching, students, love, enjoy). While extrinsic keywords were also prevalent in responses made to question 45 of the TSMCPE (e.g., work, paid, time, benefits), it is especially pleasing to discover that participants were more inclined to express intrinsic reasons for whether they would remain in teaching. Furthermore, in support of Yasmeen's et al. (2019) research, almost half of the open-ended responses for question 45 were exclusively associated with motivational factors.

The current study extended Zamarro's et al. (2022) findings that teachers who were close in age to retirement (i.e., 55 years or older) were more likely to consider leaving the teaching profession during the pandemic as compared to teachers who were

younger. The current study similarly found that for each year participants were employed at their present school they were on average more likely to experience less job satisfaction and motivation as compared to their less experienced counterparts. As such, the current researcher questions whether lower levels of satisfaction and motivation among teachers with greater experience are still undergoing feelings of psychological stress from fear of contracting Covid-19 at their present school of employment. It would have been interesting to gain additional insight through open-ended responses as to why these veteran teachers experienced greater levels of dissatisfaction during and after the pandemic.

The current study refuted Bacher-Hicks et al. (2023) findings that female teachers were slightly more likely to experience turnover than their male counterparts during their second school year (2020-21) of teaching students during the pandemic. In the current research, no significant relationships between gender and organizational commitment were shown. Additionally, the current research found no significant relationships between race/ethnicity and organizational commitment, as compared to White non-Hispanic teachers who were more inclined to experience greater turnover in Bacher-Hicks' et al. (2023) study. Despite these contradictory findings, the current researcher questions whether differences in gender and race/ethnicity would have significantly differed had the sample size been as robust as the one used by Bacher-Hicks et al. (2023).

Limitations of the Study

The researcher of the current study had limitations that must be acknowledged. The first limitation was the threat made to statistical conclusion validity concerning random irrelevancies in the experimental setting. Upon receiving IRB approval on

05/31/23, the researcher was subsequently permitted to recruit and survey participants. The first to participate in the current study was a public school district whose special education teachers completed the TSMCPE survey from to 06/22/23 to 06/26/23, which yielded $n = 23$ completed surveys. Three additional public-school districts were then recruited in September of 2023, whereupon $n = 52$ public-school teachers completed the survey. Participants at the public-school level who completed the TSMCPE, did so either during the end of the 2022-23 school year or beginning of the 2023-24 school year ($n = 75$). Thus, the argument can be made that participants at the public-school level who completed the TSMCPE may have done so while undergoing emotional and physical burnout from working an entire school year.

A second limitation was the internal threat of instrumentation occurred regarding question 46 of the TSMCPE survey (i.e., What do you feel your administrators could do to make you feel more committed to remain at your present school?) used to answer research question 7. Upon analyzing the qualitative results for question 46, only 3% ($n = 5$) of participants provided an open-ended response that aligned with Normative Commitment. Though it was interesting to discover that several participants would remain loyal to their present school based on the positive perception of their administrative supervisors, the argument can be made that the verbiage of question 46 provided minimal consideration for why someone should remain at their present school on account of feeling a sense of guilt or moral obligation.

The third limitation was the threat to external validity concerning the interaction of setting and treatment. Of the $N = 164$ participants who completed the TSMCPE, an overwhelming 87.8% ($n = 144$) were White non-Hispanic, as compared to those who

were Black or African American at 6.7% (n = 11), Hispanic or Latinx at 3.1% (n = 5) Asian or Pacific Islander at 2.4% (n = 4), and American Indian or Alaskan Native at 0%. Thus, a more representative array of racially/ethnically diverse participants could have arguably resulted in significant findings for research questions one through five.

Another threat to external validity was the interaction of selection and treatment. Recruitment in this present study was solely voluntary, which arguably concludes the results may generalize to only volunteer populations among PreK-12 special education teachers employed in suburban public and private schools within the northeastern region of the United States. To safeguard participants' confidentiality, the researcher was unable to collect their email addresses, or any other personal contact information, to incentivize completion of the TSMCPE (e.g., gift card raffle winner drawn via online random name generator). In turn, the researcher posits that participants who completed the TSMCPE were intrinsically motivated to do so based on their strongly perceived convictions of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and/or organizational commitment.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, further research needs to be conducted among PreK-12 special education teachers employed in public and private schools in urban school districts for several reasons. First, in terms of race/ethnicity, the sample of N = 164 participants were predominantly White non-Hispanic which comprised around 88% (n = 144) of those who completed the TSMCPE. To the researcher's surprise, 0% of participants were American Indian or Alaskan Native, 2.4% (n = 4) were Asian or Pacific Islander, and only 3.1% (n = 5) were Hispanic or Latinx. Perhaps if there was a more diverse assortment of participants in the present study, there would have been a stronger

likelihood of race/ethnicity being a significant predictor of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, affective commitment, continuance commitment, or normative commitment. A larger sample size would also increase the probability of a more diverse ethnoracial assortment of participants. According to Schaeffer (2021), race/ethnic diversity among urban schools is substantially more heterogeneous than suburban or rural regions in the U.S. Schaeffer (2021) then highlighted that Hispanic or Latinx (14%), Black or African American (12%), and Asian or Pacific Islander (3%) teachers had the greatest prevalence of diversity in urban schools. According to a NCES 2020 report, among the 3.5 million K-12 teachers in the United States, only 0.5% were Native American or Alaskan Native (as cited in Domzalski, 2021).

Second, apart from race/ethnic diversity likely being more heterogeneous in urban school districts, perhaps special education teachers' perceived levels of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment would significantly differ based on the increased challenges of teaching students in an urban region. In support of this claim, Thought Leadership (2018) noted that urban school districts across the nation faced a continuing shortage of qualified new teachers willing and able to work in America's most challenging classroom environments (i.e., underperforming, poorly funded, understaffed).

Perhaps most surprising to the current researcher was that participants with a doctorate were more likely to have less job satisfaction and affective commitment compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree. To the unsuspecting educational leader, their initial assumption could presumably be that teachers who pursue/obtain a doctorate-level degree do so because of their overwhelming satisfaction for teaching

along with their emotionally vested interest to effect change in their current school of employment. Future research should conduct explanatory case studies among presently employed PreK-12 special education teachers who are simultaneously enrolled in a doctoral program, to qualitatively investigate: (a) their underlying motives for obtaining a doctoral degree (e.g., increased salary potential, added prestige, alternative career pursuit for administration or post-secondary education); (b) whether they feel their doctoral program has an added merit to enhance their level of job satisfaction and/or commitment to their present school of employment; and (c) their willingness, if any, to effect change in their present school of employment. According to Vogt et al. (2012), explanatory research is aimed at further understanding phenomena to interpret the reasons behind the pattern or outcome.

Also, future research should consider disaggregating special education teacher participants by school level (i.e., Early Childhood versus K-12) to determine whether this demographic factor significantly influences their perceived levels of job satisfaction. At present, there appears to be a substantial research gap that explores this demographic factor, which appears to have an influence on the annual income of special education teachers. For instance, nationwide mean annual salary data from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (May 2022), it was found that special education teachers employed in: (a) preschools earned $69,620 per year; (b) kindergarten and elementary schools earned $68,580 per year; and (c) secondary schools earned $71,290 per year. As such, perhaps these gaps in annual compensation by school level may influence special education teachers' hygiene factors (i.e., salary) and perceived economic benefits concerning their continuance commitment. In support of this claim, Caven (2021) noted that early

childhood education centers that paid higher wages to their educators had lower turnover rates than centers that paid lower wages.

Insofar as uncovering trends related to employment retention among special education teachers, future studies should qualitatively interview focus groups comprised of school-level administrators employed in public and private PreK-12 schools. In doing so, future research would be able to qualitatively determine school-level administrator's perceived: (a) awareness/understanding of the challenges faced by their special education teachers; (b) leadership approaches and strategies they deem highly effective to address special education teachers' job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, organizational commitment; and (c) what they feel policymakers (i.e., local, state, federal) could do to minimize the employment gap among special education teachers. For this future study, the researcher additionally recommends holding four distinct focus groups by school type (i.e., public, private), and school level (i.e., prekindergarten, K-12).

In their research, Zamaro et al. (2020) found that Covid-19 health concerns were an important factor associated with an increased probability of teacher turnover. In conjunction to the sudden transition from in-person to hybrid and remote instruction, special education teachers were especially burdened to find, access, and implement digital learning tools and video-based platforms that effectively differentiated instruction for their neurodiverse learners at the mild-to-profound level. Though Covid-19 is no longer considered a public health emergency as per the Center for Disease Control, the recurrence of another pandemic is inevitable as per the ongoing trends of infectious outbreaks dating as far back as the Athenian Plague circa 430 BCE. To mitigate against another ubiquitous occurrence of teacher burnout attributed by a digital literacy gap in

teaching, future studies should conduct cross-national ethnographic research on which countries prioritize the use of cutting-edge EdTech in their classrooms and the measurable impact it has upon special education teachers perceived self-efficacy to provide SWDs with hybrid and remote instruction. For instance, students in Jinhua, China, wear headbands that measure their level of attentiveness using artificially intelligent electroencephalography (EEG) sensors to detect their brain activity (You, 2019). Next, in Montreal, Canada, artificially intelligent social robots like QTrobot help teach social/emotional and academic skills to neurodiverse students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, hearing impairments, Down syndrome, and autism spectrum disorder (Tugend, 2022). Perhaps if educational leaders across the United States provided equitable access and professional development for their special education teachers to effectively utilize these digital learning tools, SWDs neurodiverse academic and social/emotional needs would be more aptly met in a synchronous and asynchronous learning environment.

Albeit findings from the current research contradicted Herzberg's notion that employees' level of education held no meaningful connection to their motivation, the current researcher argues the existing attributes of hygiene and motivational factors ought to remain fundamentally intact. Nonetheless, future research should consider using a grounded theory approach to determine whether Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory should be updated to address the technological demands of the 21st century. Grounded theory can be characterized as a systematic qualitative research approach that inductively collects empirical data to create a newly formed theory in the process (Qualtrics, 2023; Vogt et al., 2012). The current researcher suggests that *digital literacy* should be a sixth

hygiene factor, and *measure of technological resources* should be a newly added characteristic for the hygiene factor of working conditions. In support of the current researcher's suggestion, a UKG (2021) survey report found the challenges of the Covid-19 pandemic have influenced a greater demand among teachers who request access to up-to-date technology in their classrooms (as cited in Stone, 2022). Additionally, Li & Yu (2022) revealed that teachers' digital literacy level, adaptability to undergo new professional responsibilities (e.g., using AI-based learning software), and job satisfaction were significantly correlated.

Recommendations for Future Practice

While more research is necessary to further uncover the influence of demographic factors on special education teachers' retention likelihood at their present school/district, future research should continue to analyze the impact school/district leadership has upon effectively retaining these professionals using strategic leadership approaches.

The researcher recommends that school-level administrators should distribute anonymous school climate surveys to special education teachers employed within their building. Swisher (2022) argued that meaningful school climate survey data could help administrators narrow their focus on which negative climate factors, if any, contribute to attrition patterns among their teaching staff. Apart from highlighting negative school climate factors, Swisher (2022) further mentioned this data should be administered to teachers across multiple timepoints in a given school year to measure/monitor the efficacy of leadership-based intervention strategies aimed at promoting teacher retention.

On a school-district level, the researcher recommends that human resource personnel should conduct confidential exit interviews among special education teachers

who resigned from their teaching position. The Iris Center (2023) suggested that when conducting these confidential exit interviews, it is important for administrators to search for work-related patterns across teachers and leverage that information for strategic planning related to increasing teacher retention. From a theoretical standpoint, ongoing implementation of anonymous school climate surveys and confidential exit interviews directly provides current and former special education teachers with the autonomy (i.e., motivational factor of responsibility) to freely express any additional motivational and/or hygiene factor that justifiably influenced their decision to resign.

Another recommendation for school-level administrators would be to provide special education teachers ongoing instructional leadership opportunities, which, in turn, align to the motivational factor of recognition and hygiene factors of supervision and interpersonal relations. For instance, educational leaders could establish merit-based teacher leadership opportunities coupled with a stipend, such as a family engagement coordinator, action researcher or data analyst, facilitator of professional learning committees, and instructional coach or mentor. School-level administrators who integrate instructional leadership in their school culture create opportunities for their teachers to oversee the coordinating and monitoring curriculum and teaching, thereby promoting teachers' professional learning and enabling a collegial/democratic work environment (Mitchell et al., 2015). According to Lazcano et al. (2022), instructional leadership has positive effects on the reduction of teachers' intent to leave. Angelle (2006) added that entry-level teachers from schools where school-level administrators exercise clear and defined instructional leadership express higher levels of intent to remain at their schools (as cited in Lazcano et al., 2022). One could argue instructional leadership opportunities

could enhance special education teachers perceived affective commitment, provided they would gain autonomy in adapting their curriculum and conducting teacher-led professional development workshops to address their students' neurodiverse learning needs more effectively. In support of the current researcher's claim, Kang & Mavrogordato (2023) similarly noted the importance of finding accessible pathways for teachers to actively engage in their professional development opportunities. Insofar as actively engaging teachers in professional development programs, the current researcher recommends educational leaders: (a) collaborate with their teachers to determine mutually beneficial/relevant topics; (b) integrate teacher-centered learning activities that promote collaborative discussions; and (c) raise thought-provoking questions to generate meaningful discussions relative to the unique challenges their teachers encounter.

Next, the researcher recommends that school district administrators should re-evaluate onboarding programs to ensure new teacher development goes beyond pre-planning and completion of paperwork to include year-long community building, mentorship, and support for individualized areas of needs (Education Elements, 2022). Studies found that teachers who had limited amounts of induction supports were more likely to leave that school district (Iris Center, 2023). Billingsley (2004) added that special education teachers who received greater levels of induction support are better able to manage their overall work demands. Accounting for the hygiene factor of interpersonal relations, the researcher argues the onboarding process can effectively be used as an opportunity for newly hired teachers to establish peer-based affinity groups, as well as build a sense of rapport/trust with their administrative supervisors. One could argue these increasingly solidified relationships among peers and administrators could have a positive

influence on teachers' perceived continuance commitment. As such, this emergence of collegial interactions and affinity groups could make newly hired teachers less likely to resign from their school/district out of fear of losing those highly valued social bonds/interactions.

As a final recommendation to policymakers at the congressional and local level, a supplemental income model funded through federal grants could establish a fair and equitable salary scale among special education teachers employed in public and private schools in the United States. A similar proposal would be The American Teacher Act, which was introduced by Representative Federica Wilson, which sought to increase the minimum K-12 public school teacher salary to $60,000 and provide annual adjustments for inflation over the course of four years (Stanford, 2022). Though its success remains a longshot in an ongoingly divided legislature, the proposal gained momentum in February 2023 when Senator Bernie Sanders of Vermont announced he would be introducing complementary legislation known as the Pay Teachers Act (Sullivan, 2023). Although progressive in its intention to raise the minimum salary level for public school K-12 teachers, those employed at the private school level who predominantly serve students with moderate-to-profound disabilities deserve the same, if not greater, degree of consideration.

Baroudi & Hojeij (2022) similarly advised that policymakers initiate partnership programs with private schools to improve school building conditions and the use of resources necessary to support teachers and promote a productive learning environment. Thus, the researcher urges congressional and local representatives to visit PreK-12 private schools within their district to gain a clearer understanding of the challenges faced

by these special education teachers to appropriately provide them with the attention, support, and resources they deserve.

Conclusion

This non-experimental correlational study aimed to determine the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall commitment, experience at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, level of education) on mean perception scores of job satisfaction, motivational attitudes, and organizational commitment among PreK-12 special education teachers employed in suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States.

Research questions one through four revealed statistically significant results in at least one of the models in the hierarchical multiple regression analyses. Extended analysis of the second research question underwent a multiple linear regression, which revealed a significant relationship between mean hygiene scores and mean motivational scores to further confirm the application of Herzberg's theoretical framework in the context of PreK-12 education. Research question five did not show significance in any of the models within the hierarchical multiple regression to predict mean normative commitment scores. However, analysis of Pearson Correlation results for question five between demographic factors and mean normative commitment scores found sixteen significant relationships that were either positive or negative ranging from small to large. The sixth research question underwent a multiple linear regression to significantly conclude the relationship between mean job satisfaction and motivational attitudes scores to predict participants' mean overall commitment scores. In the first part of research question seven, descriptive analysis indicated that than half of participants responded "Yes, definitely!" (followed by 35.4% who responded, "I'm not sure," and 12.8% who

answered, “No, way!”) when asked whether they would still be a teacher if given a choice to start over in their career. This descriptive data was then disaggregated to compare results by school type, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education. In the latter part of research question seven participants were then required to provide an open-ended response to explain whether they would remain in teaching if given a choice to start over again. In Vivo coding analyzed participants responses, which uncovered five themes relative to hygiene factors, eight themes relative to motivation factors, and one overall theme relative to participants’ responses entailed both hygiene and motivational factors. Finally, In Vivo coding analyzed participants’ open-ended response on how they felt their administrative supervisors could enhance their level of organizational commitment to remain at their present school. Results found four themes related to affective commitment, seven themes related to continuance commitment, one theme related to normative commitment, and one theme related to participants’ responses that included two-or-more combinations of the above-stated commitment factors.

Ultimately, this study serves as a resource to assist the K-12 leadership community with a conceptual framework on how to identify and remedy contributing factors associated with employment retention among special education teachers. Policymakers at the federal level should also take these findings into consideration when proposing legislation that delivers an equal platform of equitable salary scales and benefit packages for special education teachers in both public and private schools. Thereby fulfilling special education teachers’ intrinsic and extrinsic needs, this will result in a surmounting wave of commitment which instills a deeper emotional link to their

school/district of employment, as well as having a positive outcome on the achievement of their students (Altun, 2017).

Epilogue

In searching for a topic of study, while serving as an administrator of a K-7 private school exclusively designed for neurodiverse students, I experienced great difficulty finding qualified special education teacher applicants due to the unusually high number of unanticipated resignations in my school building, likely attributed to the Covid-19 pandemic.

Upon researching how Covid-19 profoundly influenced the extensive rate of turnover among special education teachers across the nation, I was surprised to discover that the mainstream media, academic researchers, and government research agencies scarcely investigated this phenomenon at the private-school level. Though I was unable to gain access to proprietary information concerning resignation and retirement data among special education teachers employed in public and private schools, I considered that the next best option was to explore their perceptions of job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment. I believed my subsequent research would shed crucial light on whether those perceptions were similarly shared, or presumably far worse, among special education teachers employed in private schools.

My research revealed that teachers employed in public schools had significantly greater motivation and felt more of a need to remain employed in their current positions compared to those who taught in private schools. Next, participants' overall experience positively influenced their feelings of job satisfaction and motivation, while each year of experience at their present school had an inverse effect on those same dependent factors.

Perhaps most surprising in this study were those who earned doctoral degrees had less job satisfaction and emotional attachment to their schools compared to those with a bachelor's or master's degree. In support of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, the current study found that positively addressing extrinsic factors to assuage feelings of unpleasantness at the workplace had a direct influence on special education teachers' capacity for job satisfaction and motivation. In support of the conceptual framework, the current study found that Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory had a direct influence on Meyer & Allen's (1997) TCM of Organizational Commitment. Finally, In Vivo analyses found that special education teachers would be more committed to remain at their present schools if they received: (a) optimal planning time to adapt/differentiate curriculum and complete IEP-related paperwork to ensure a healthy work-life balance; (b) the autonomy to openly express their ideas and opinions to administrators who were willingly receptive in return; (c) a competitive salary with benefits to equitably provide a reasonable standard of living; (d) stellar educational leaders who frequently visited classrooms, provided merit-based teacher leadership opportunities, and utilized meaningful PD and resources to cultivate teachers' professional growth.

This information now allows me to work with school leadership on developing effective strategies that optimize employment retention likelihood among special education teachers as well as educators and clinicians in other PreK-12 certification domains. Coming to terms with the unfortunate reality that another pandemic is inevitable, these findings have inspired me to look more deeply into whether special education teachers are provided adequate digital literacy training and resources to address the needs of their neurodiverse students in a synchronous, hybrid, and remote learning

environment. While this study revealed significant findings that predicted special education teachers' job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment, academic researchers and policymakers must continue examining these nationwide turnover rates on a longitudinal scale among special education teachers in both public and private schools. In doing so, further research will aid in identifying meaningful practices and policies to ensure that all students with disabilities in the United States receive equitable access to highly qualified and dedicated special education teachers. Although my research contained an abundance of current peer-review research, much of this literature was conducted due to the aftereffects of Covid-19. Thus, to mitigate against history repeating itself, I conclude that further research on how to maximize special education teacher retention, based on my results and recommendations, ought to be proactive as opposed to reactive.

APPENDIX A IRB APPROVAL MEMO

Date: 5-31-2023

IRB #: IRB-FY2023-338
Title: The Impact of Perceived Job Satisfaction, Motivational Attitudes, and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Analysis Between Special Education Teachers Employed in Public Versus Private Schools
Creation Date: 5-2-2023
End Date:
Status: Approved
Principal Investigator: David Haimovich
Review Board: St John's University Institutional Review Board
Sponsor:

Study History

Submission Type Initial	Review Type Exempt	Decision Exempt

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APPENDIX B ONLINE SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR DISSERTATION – TEACHER SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION, & COMMITMENT OF PRESENT EMPLOYMENT (TSMCPE) SURVEY

Overview: The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to express how you feel concerning your overall job satisfaction, motivation, and perceived commitment at your present school of employment. Based on special education teachers' responses, the researcher hopes to gain a better understanding of the factors participants like and dislike about their jobs.

SECTION 1 – Demographic Factors
Directions: Please answer each question to the best of your ability.

1) What type of school are you presently employed?
- Public School
- Private School

2) Including the current school year, how many years of teaching experience do you have?

3) Including the current school year, how many years have you been teaching at your present school of employment?

4) What is your gender?
- Male
- Female
- Other

5) What is your race/ethnicity?
- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian or Pacific Islander
- Black or African American
- Hispanic or Latinx
- White (non-Hispanic)

6) What is your present level of education?
- Bachelor's Degree (B.A. or B.S.)
- Master's Degree (M.A. or M.S.)
- Doctoral Degree (Ed.D. or Ph.D.)

SECTION 2 – Job Satisfaction

Directions: Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking any one of the five responses, ranging from (1) "Very Dissatisfied" to (5) "Very Satisfied" as each represents a degree on the continuum. Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your current feelings, teaching assignment, and job satisfaction of each of the following items in your present position.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

7) The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

8) The way company policies are put into practice.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

9) My pay and the amount of work I do.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

10) The chances for advancement on this job.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

11) The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

12) The way my coworkers get along with each other.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

13) The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

14) The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

15) The freedom to use my own judgement.
- 1 – Very Dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very Satisfied

SECTION 3 – Motivational Attitudes

Directions: On the following 5-point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the following aspects of your job serve as a MOTIVATING factor or an UNMOTIVATING factor for you as a teacher in your school.

1	2	3	4	5
Highly Unmotivating	Somewhat Unmotivating	Neutral	Somewhat Motivating	Highly Motivating

16) Interpersonal relationships with colleagues (e.g., interaction with other teachers)
- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

17) Interpersonal relationships with administrators (e.g., school building leaders, school district leaders)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

18) Interpersonal relationships with students (e.g., interactions with students)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

19) Responsibility (e.g., autonomy, authority, and responsibility for your own work)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

20) Salary (e.g., financial compensation)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

21) Job security (e.g., completing your probationary term or receiving tenure)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

22) Teacher evaluation (e.g., appraisal of classroom instruction by evaluator)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

23) Sense of accountability (e.g., being held directly responsible for student learning and academic performance)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

24) Recognition (e.g., receiving praise from administrators, parents, students, or others)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

25) Potential for professional growth (e.g., possibility of improving one's own professional skills)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

26) Potential for advancement (e.g., possibility of assuming higher level positions in the profession)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

27) Status (e.g., the professional status of being a teacher at your school)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

28) A one-time monetary award (supplemental to a pay-step increase)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

29) Being given the opportunity to participate in teacher projects (e.g., curriculum development)

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

30) Being awarded a plaque by students

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

31) An instructional professional development workshop offered and paid for by your district

- 1 – Highly Unmotivating
- 2 – Somewhat Unmotivating
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Somewhat Motivating
- 5 – Highly Motivating

SECTION 4.1 – Teacher Commitment

Directions: Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings of commitment that individuals might have about the company or organization or school for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about your present organization or school for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5 using the scale below.

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

32) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this school.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

33) I do feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my school.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

34) I do feel "emotionally attached" to my school.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

35) I do feel like "part of a family" at my school.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

36) This school has a great deal of personal meaning to me.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

37) Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my school now.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

38) I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this school.
- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

39) One of the few negative consequences of leaving this school would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

40) Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my school now.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

41) I would feel guilty if I left my school now.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

42) This school deserves my loyalty.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

43) I would not leave my school right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

SECTION 4.2 – Open-Ended Questions

Directions: Please include as many relevant details as possible, while formulating written responses for questions 45 - 46.

44) If you had the opportunity to start over in a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?

- 1 – Yes, definitely!
- 2 – No way!
- 3 – I'm not really so sure …

45) Please briefly explain why you answered the previous question as you did.

46) What do you feel your administrators could do to make you feel more committed to remain at your present school?

APPENDIX C PUBLISHED ONLINE CONSENT BY AUTHORS OF THE MSQ INSTRUMENT FOR ACADEMIC USE IN RESEARCH STUDY

Menu ☰

Home › node › (MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

(MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

VPR no longer sells the MSQ questionnaires. All forms are available under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License. This license allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent, provided that you acknowledge Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, as the source of the material in your reproduced materials (printed or electronic). This license does not allow commercial use or reproduction for sale. The MSQ may be used without cost, however, for employee surveys provided that the survey is implemented within an organization and that no charges are made for its use.

VPR and the University of Minnesota do not offer scoring for the MSQ and cannot answer questions about its administration or scoring. Directions for scoring the MSQ are in its manual.

APPENDIX D WRITTEN LETTER OF CONSENT TO USE TMJSR SURVEY INSTRUMENT IN RESEARCH STUDY

From: Dr. Craig Mertler <[redacted]>
Sent: Tuesday, November 8, 2022 11:45:18 AM
To: David Haimovich <[redacted]>
Subject: Re: Request to use Teacher Motivation/Satisfaction Survey for Dissertation

* External Email *

Hello David,

Yes, you have permission to use or adapt the survey for your dissertation research. I have attached the complete survey to this email...please excuse the formatting, as I distributed the survey using Qualtrics and it doesn't lend itself to good translation into a PDF format.

This is a more recent version of the instrument, as I conducted an additional study in 2016, and added questions related to perceptions of retention in the profession.

Best of luck with your research!

Craig A. Mertler, PhD
Associate Professor | Action Research & Quantitative Methods
School of Education, Leadership, & Human Development
Barry University | Miami, FL
www.craigmertler.com

APPENDIX E PUBLISHED ONLINE CONSENT BY AUTHORS OF TCM SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR ACADEMIC USE IN RESEARCH STUDY

The license for the Academic Package is limited to the use of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey in a single research project. Subsequent uses of the Survey require a renewal licence. The license agreement for the Academic Package stipulates that the scales will be used for academic purposes only, and that the user will not charge clients for administering/interpreting the scales or use the scales as part of a proprietary organizational survey.

Academic Licenses

Academic Researcher (single research project)	Free
Student (single research project)	Free

Download academic license

APPENDIX F LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Dear Superintendent:

My name is David Haimovich, an Assistant Principal from a K-7 elementary school in Brooklyn, NY. I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administration and Supervision at St. John's University, and am conducting a study for my dissertation titled, *The Impact of Perceived Job Satisfaction, Motivational Attitudes, and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Analysis between Special Education Teachers Employed in Public Versus Private Schools*.

My mentor is Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University, and she recommended that I write to you.
The purpose of this non-experiment correlational study will determine the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) as they relate to job satisfaction, motivation, perception of organizational commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Apart from the financial strain of districts providing professional development training to newly hired staff, students with disabilities are arguably the most vulnerable since their progress is contingent upon a committed teaching staff steadfast in accommodating them with consistent academic support and interactions across a given school year.

I am searching for suburban public and private school districts within the northeastern region of the United States that allow me to:

- Send PreK-12 Special Education Teachers an online survey, which would be entirely voluntary and projected to take approximately 7 minutes to complete.
    - All participating schools and staff will remain entirely confidential, as their email addresses and names will not be collected by the survey company.

Contact Information - If you have questions about the purpose of this investigation, you may contact the Principal Investigator, David Haimovich at [redacted]. If you have questions concerning your rights as a human participant, you may contact the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University, specifically Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, [redacted], or [redacted]. If you feel you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact the dissertation chair and Co-Investigator, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, at [redacted] or [redacted].

I would be pleased to meet with you to further explain my doctoral study and what is required for my research. I am available at any time of day or evening. Please respond either to this email or by calling me at [redacted] to let me know your interest in supporting this study.

If you're also interested in viewing the results of the study, I would be more than happy to provide with that data upon request. You may find these results to be enlightening in finding helpful ways to retain your staff more effectively.

Thank you in advance for your consideration, and I look forward to hearing from you soon!

Sincerely,

David Haimovich
Doctoral Candidate,
Administration and Supervision
St. John's University
Queens, NY 11439

Signatures

I have read the above description of the proposed study by David Haimovich and understand the conditions of the teachers' participation. I understand the data will be coded and will not be used in any way to identify the school district, the principal, the school, or the teachers. Your signature indicates that you agree to allow the elementary and middle level teachers to participate in this study.

Superintendent

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Superintendent: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's Name: David Haimovich

APPENDIX G LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Dear Executive Director:

My name is David Haimovich, an Assistant Principal from a K-7 elementary school in Brooklyn, NY. I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administration and Supervision at St. John's University, and am conducting a study for my dissertation titled, *The Impact of Perceived Job Satisfaction, Motivational Attitudes, and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Analysis between Special Education Teachers Employed in Public Versus Private Schools*.

My mentor is Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University, and she recommended that I write to you.
The purpose of this non-experiment correlational study will determine the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) as they relate to job satisfaction, motivation, perception of organizational commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Apart from the financial strain of districts providing professional development training to newly hired staff, students with disabilities are arguably the most vulnerable since their progress is contingent upon a committed teaching staff steadfast in accommodating them with consistent academic support and interactions across a given school year.

I am searching for suburban public and private school districts within the northeastern region of the United States that allow me to:

- Send PreK-12 Special Education Teachers an online survey, which would be entirely voluntary and projected to take approximately 7 minutes to complete.
    - All participating schools and staff will remain entirely confidential, as their email addresses and names will not be collected by the survey company.

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I would be pleased to meet with you to further explain my doctoral study and what is required for my research. I am available at any time of day or evening. Please respond either to this email or by calling me at [redacted] to let me know your interest in supporting this study.

If you're also interested in viewing the results of the study, I would be more than happy to provide with that data upon request. You may find these results to be enlightening in finding helpful ways to retain your staff more effectively.

Thank you in advance for your consideration, and I look forward to hearing from you soon!

Sincerely,

David Haimovich
Doctoral Candidate,
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St. John's University
Queens, NY 11439

Signatures

I have read the above description of the proposed study by David Haimovich and understand the conditions of the teachers' participation. I understand the data will be coded and will not be used in any way to identify the school district, the principal, the school, or the teachers. Your signature indicates that you agree to allow the elementary and middle level teachers to participate in this study.

Executive Director

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Executive Director's Name: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's Name: David Haimovich

APPENDIX H LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR PRINCIPAL OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Dear Principal:

My name is David Haimovich, and I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administration and Supervision at St. John's University. I am conducting a study for my dissertation titled: *The Impact of Perceived Job Satisfaction, Motivational Attitudes, and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Analysis between Special Education Teachers Employed in Public Versus Private Schools*. The details of the study are provided below.

Purpose - The elementary, middle, and high school level teachers in your school district are invited to participate in a research study being conducted for a dissertation for St. John's University. I have met with the superintendent/assistant superintendent and received their permission to conduct my study in the school district. The purpose of this non-experiment correlational study will determine the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) as they relate to job satisfaction, motivation, perception of organizational commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Apart from the financial strain of districts providing professional development training to newly hired staff, students with disabilities are arguably the most vulnerable since their progress is contingent upon a committed teaching staff steadfast in accommodating them with consistent academic support and interactions across a given school year.

Participation Requirements - The special education teachers in your school will be asked to complete a 45-question online survey via the Survey Monkey website. The survey is voluntary and will take less than 7 minutes to complete. It is comprised of demographic data, a series of questions about teachers' perceived levels of job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment.

Potential Risk - There are no known risks in this study. Participation is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time and may choose not to respond to any of the questions on the survey. All survey data will be kept confidential. At no time will a name or identifying school information be included in the study.

Potential Benefit - There are no direct benefits to your school for participating in this research project. No incentives will be offered. However, the results may have informational benefits for educators and policy makers regarding possible ways to improve the effectiveness of retaining special education teachers based upon: (a) uncovering statistical trends, if any, as to whether six demographic factors significantly

impact participants' level of perceived job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment scores; (b) whether participants' level of perceived job satisfaction and motivation scores predict their organizational commitment scores; and (c) uncover insightful suggestions as to what their administration could do to make them feel more committed to remain at their present school of employment.

Anonymity / Confidentiality - The data collected in this study will be kept confidential. All data are coded such that your school and teachers will be anonymous. In addition, the coded data will only be available to the researcher associated with this project. No identifying information will be collected.

Right to Withdraw - Your teachers have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Participants will be unable to omit any questions on the survey they do not wish to answer.

Contact Information - If you have questions about the purpose of this investigation, you may contact the Principal Investigator, David Haimovich at [redacted]. If you have questions concerning your rights as a human participant, you may contact the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University, specifically Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, [redacted], or [redacted]. If you feel you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact the dissertation chair and Co-Investigator, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, at [redacted] or [redacted].

I would be pleased to meet with you to further explain my doctoral study and what is required for my research. I am available at any time of day or evening. Please respond either to this email or by calling me at [redacted] to let me know your interest in supporting this study.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

David Haimovich
Doctoral Candidate,
Administration and Supervision
St. John's University
Queens, NY 11439

Signatures

I have read the above description of the proposed study by David Haimovich and understand the conditions of the teachers' participation. I understand the data will be coded and will not be used in any way to identify the school district, the principal, the

school, or the teachers. Your signature indicates that you agree to allow the teachers assigned to your elementary, middle and/or high school to participate in this study.

Principal's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Principal's Name: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's Name: David Haimovich

APPENDIX I LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR SCHOOL-LEVEL DIRECTORS OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Dear School-Level Director:

My name is David Haimovich, and I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administration and Supervision at St. John's University. I am conducting a study for my dissertation titled: *The Impact of Perceived Job Satisfaction, Motivational Attitudes, and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Analysis between Special Education Teachers Employed in Public Versus Private Schools*. The details of the study are provided below.

Purpose - The elementary, middle, and high school level teachers in your school district are invited to participate in a research study being conducted for a dissertation for St. John's University. I have met with the superintendent/assistant superintendent and received their permission to conduct my study in the school district. The purpose of this non-experiment correlational study will determine the influence of six demographic factors (i.e., school type, overall experience, years at present school, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of education) as they relate to job satisfaction, motivation, perception of organizational commitment among special education teachers from PreK-12 suburban schools in the northeastern region of the United States. Apart from the financial strain of districts providing professional development training to newly hired staff, students with disabilities are arguably the most vulnerable since their progress is contingent upon a committed teaching staff steadfast in accommodating them with consistent academic support and interactions across a given school year.

Participation Requirements - The special education teachers in your school will be asked to complete a 45-question online survey via the Survey Monkey website. The survey is voluntary and will take less than 7 minutes to complete. It is comprised of demographic data, a series of questions about teachers' perceived levels of job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment.

Potential Risk - There are no known risks in this study. Participation is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time and may choose not to respond to any of the questions on the survey. All survey data will be kept confidential. At no time will a name or identifying school information be included in the study.

Potential Benefit - There are no direct benefits to your school for participating in this research project. No incentives will be offered. However, the results may have informational benefits for educators and policy makers regarding possible ways to improve the effectiveness of retaining special education teachers based upon: (a) uncovering statistical trends, if any, as to whether six demographic factors significantly

impact participants' level of perceived job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment scores; (b) whether participants' level of perceived job satisfaction and motivation scores predict their organizational commitment scores; and (c) uncover insightful suggestions as to what their administration could do to make them feel more committed to remain at their present school of employment.

Anonymity / Confidentiality - The data collected in this study will be kept confidential. All data are coded such that your school and teachers will be anonymous. In addition, the coded data will only be available to the researcher associated with this project. No identifying information will be collected.

Right to Withdraw - Your teachers have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Participants will be unable to omit any questions on the survey they do not wish to answer.

Contact Information - If you have questions about the purpose of this investigation, you may contact the Principal Investigator, David Haimovich at [redacted]. If you have questions concerning your rights as a human participant, you may contact the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University, specifically Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, [redacted], or [redacted]. If you feel you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact the dissertation chair and Co-Investigator, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, at [redacted] or [redacted].

I would be pleased to meet with you to further explain my doctoral study and what is required for my research. I am available at any time of day or evening. Please respond either to this email or by calling me at [redacted] to let me know your interest in supporting this study.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

David Haimovich
Doctoral Candidate,
Administration and Supervision
St. John's University
Queens, NY 11439

Signatures

I have read the above description of the proposed study by David Haimovich and understand the conditions of the teachers' participation. I understand the data will be coded and will not be used in any way to identify the school district, the principal, the

school, or the teachers. Your signature indicates that you agree to allow the teachers assigned to your elementary, middle and/or high school to participate in this study.

School Director's Signature: _____ Date: _____

School-Level Director's Name: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's Name: David Haimovich

APPENDIX J MESSAGE TO SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS BY RESEARCHER TO COMPLETE TSMCPE SURVEY

Dear Special Education Teacher,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you an opportunity to express your current feelings of job satisfaction, motivation, and perceived commitment at your present school of employment. Based on your responses made, the researcher will hope to gain a better understanding of the factors special education teachers like and dislike about their jobs.

If you **DO WANT** to complete the questionnaire, please click here.
If you **DO NOT WANT** to complete the questionnaire, please click here.

Thank you in advance for your consideration to complete this questionnaire!

Educationally Yours,

The Researcher

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