

A MIXED METHODS STUDY OF WHY BLACK EDUCATORS STAY
IN K-12 PUBLICLY FUNDED SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the
Division of Education and Human Services
of Neumann University

In Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

By

Jamar L. Alston

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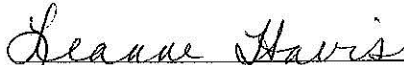
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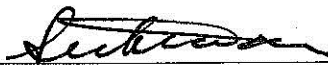
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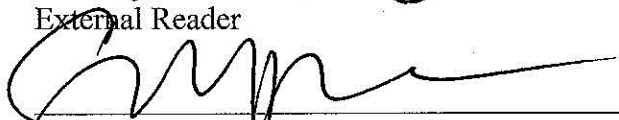
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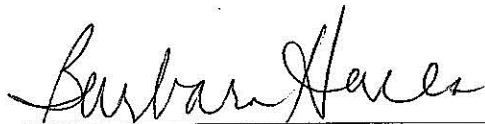
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ABSTRACT

A MIXED METHODS STUDY OF WHY BLACK EDUCATORS STAY IN K-12 PUBLICLY FUNDED SCHOOLS

Jamar L. Alston

Leanne R. Havis, Ph.D., Dissertation Chair

This mixed methods study examined why Black teachers and principals stayed in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching or supervising schools. The participants for this study were 37 Black teachers and 16 Black principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The quantitative data came from survey data that were slightly modified for the teacher and principal participants. The qualitative data came from semi-structured interviews. The theory informing this study was Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation with insights from critical race theory (CRT).

This study had several findings for both the teacher and principal participants. The study found that Black teachers and principals stayed in the profession because of their students, being involved in their communities, and needing and receiving support. The participants stayed in the profession when they perceived they had made a difference in their students' lives and became their role models. They also were involved in their communities by serving as teachers, principals, or in upper administration. The participants expressed the importance of being actively involved and establishing positive relationships with their students' parents. The teacher and principal participants discussed receiving and giving support through mentoring, recruiting and increasing the number of Blacks in the profession, being resilient against discrimination, and receiving an adequate

salary. The principals discussed their legacies that included stepping aside to make room for other educators when they retired while the teachers expressed sharing their family values to their students. Teachers reported heavy workload or uneven work distribution from their principals, as reasons for them and others leaving the profession. Principals perceived that some educators left the profession for child rearing purposes.

Keywords: Retention, Recruiting, Black teachers, Black principals, and Publicly Funded K-12 Schools

DEDICATION

Writing this body of work was personal for me. Being a Black student and now an educator, I grew up wondering why there were very few Black teachers and principals in my elementary, middle, and high schools. Because of my own experience, I conducted this study with the intent of increasing the number of Black teachers and principals in publicly funded K-12 schools. I hoped this work would inspire potential Black educators to seek schools that need their assistance, support, and service. Finally, I hoped that it influenced policy makers and school districts to recruit and create programs that attract potential Black teacher and principal candidates.

With that being said, this work could not be done without family, friends, my colleagues, and the participants. I want to dedicate this paper to my grandparents, Brenda Coles and Sarah Alston, who I miss and love dearly. I wanted to also dedicate this study to my grandfather, Willie Alston, who advised me after receiving my first master's degree that I should go back to school and earn a doctorate. Next, I would like to dedicate this work to Farah (wife), Jayden (son), Amaya (daughter), and Chase (son). I would also like to thank Bonnie (mother), David (father); Jalyynn (sister), Jaquella (sister); and Jarron (brother). I appreciate all the sacrifices they made, which allowed me to research and write this dissertation. They kept me focused when I needed direction, pushed me when I needed stamina, and brought me to life when I was down. I just wanted to say, I love you!

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Chapter I — Introduction

Introduction

This study investigated the factors that influenced Black teachers and principals (educators) to stay in publicly funded schools (traditional and charter schools) after five or more years of being in the field of education and administration. Black teachers and principals represented a small percentage of teachers and principals among publicly funded K-12 schools (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2012b; United States Department of Education, 2016). Although Black children represented 16% (27.6% charter school and 15.1% traditional population) of the publicly funded school population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a, 2014b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016), Black teachers represented 7% of the national teaching force and 6.9% of educators were in traditional public schools and 12.3% were in charter schools (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2010, 2012b; United States Department of Education, 2016). Of that number, Black male teachers were less than 1% of teachers nationally (Feistritzer, 2011). Nationally, Black principals represented 9.7% of principals in traditional public schools and 18.3% of teachers in charter schools (Bitterman, Goldring, & Gray, 2013; United States Department of Education, 2016).

At the state level, Pennsylvania also had a significant difference in the representation among Black teachers and principals compared to students. Boser (2014) reported that Black teachers represented 2% of the teacher population while the National Center for Statistics (2012b) recorded that Black students represented 16% of Pennsylvania's student population. The National Center for Statistics (2012a) reported

that Black principals represented 6.6% of Pennsylvania's principals. Based on these statistics, there were significant differences in the numbers of Black teachers and principals compared to the number of Black students (both charter and traditional schools) in publicly funded K-12 schools.

Chapter I of this study presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, advancing scientific knowledge, significance of the study, and nature of research design for the study. The chapter also includes the rationale for methodology, definition of terms, limitations, delimitations, and organization of the study.

Background of the Study

There was a gap in the representation of Black teachers and principals compared to the number of Black children in publicly funded schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a, 2014b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). According to the National Education Statistics (2014b), "From fall 2004 to fall 2014, the number of Black students decreased from 8.4 million to 7.8 million, and the percentage of students who were Black decreased from 17 to 16 percent" (p. 1). Meanwhile, as previously noted, in publicly funded schools, Black teachers represented 7% of the publicly funded teaching force and Black principals represented 10.1% nationally (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2012a; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). This significant underrepresentation of Black educators in education had captured national attention (Duncan, 2011). Former United States Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (2011) stated that, "Less than 15 percent of our teachers are Black or Latino. It is especially troubling that less than two percent of our nation's teachers are African

American males, less than one in 50! It's unacceptable.” Duncan argued that the nation had very few teachers of color when being compared to the percentage of Black students.

In investigating the reasons behind this phenomenon, Green (2004), Milner and Howard (2004), and Randolph (2004) suggested that Black educators were an integral part of the Black community prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Until that time, the majority of Black students received their education from Black educators (Hudson & Holmes, 1994; Tillman, 2004). However, when *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) forced Black schools to integrate with predominantly White schools, the ruling helped influence a significant reduction in the number of teaching and principal job opportunities for Black educators (Green, 2004; Milner & Howard, 2004; Randolph, 2004).

To address the shortage of Black educators, many universities and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) had created programs such as Mentors Instructing Students Toward Effective Role Models (Call Me Mister) and Troops-to-Teacher (Cerra, 2017; Department of Defense, n.d.; Kansas State University, 2018; Lewis, 2013; Owings, Kaplan, Khrabrova, & Chappell, 2014). These programs were designed to improve the efforts of finding and retaining qualified Black professionals in publicly funded K-12 schools (Cerra, 2017; Department of Defense, n.d.; Kansas State University, 2018; Lewis, 2013; Owings et al., 2014), yet the disproportionate underrepresentation of Black educators compared to Black students persisted and created a phenomenon.

Statement of the Problem

A major issue affecting publicly funded K-12 schools was the disproportionate underrepresentation of Black educators (Duncan, 2011), particularly since *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). The ruling was one of the reasons for the decline of Black educators' in education (Green, 2004; Randolph, 2004). Conversely, the decline in the number of Black educators meant that they had less of a significant role in educating Black children (Green, 2004; Randolph, 2004). This study, using quantitative teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews grounded in phenomenology, investigated the factors that influenced Black teachers' and principals' retention in the profession. The focus of the dissertation was on publicly funded schools, both charter and traditional public schools. Charter schools had a greater representation of Black educators (teachers and principals), but less overall in the number of Black educators (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a, 2014b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). An analysis of charter and traditional public schools provided data to answer the research questions in a comprehensive manner (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a, 2014b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The research from this study was designed to identify the trends and common characteristics related to the factors that influenced Black educators to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and analyze the factors that influenced Black teachers and principals to stay in publicly funded schools. There was a significant difference in the number of Black educators compared to Black students attending

publicly funded K-12 schools nationwide (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2012b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016) and in Pennsylvania (National Center for Statistics, 2012a; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Black educators were more than teachers to Black students (Green, 2004; Howard; 2004; Randolph, 2004). They were supporters of Black students' success by being role models and disciplinarians for Black children (Griffin & Tackie, 2016; Milner & Howard, 2004). Given their influence on the development of Black students, Black educators were the reason for this study.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were created based on a recommendation for future research from Wood's (2001) study. Wood recommended that studying Black educators who have been in the profession for many years could find solutions for addressing the shortage of Black representation in education. This study expanded the recommendation to explore the factors underlying the retention of Black educators in public education.

The following research questions guided this study:

1. Which factors influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching?
2. Which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses for this study were:

1. There were significant factors that influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching.
2. There were significant factors that influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education.

Advancing Scientific Knowledge

This study sought to identify the factors that influenced Black teacher and principal retention and add to professional literature on Black educators. This study filled gaps in the literature regarding the retention of Black teachers and principals. First, this study was mixed methods and was able to capture trends and thematic data regarding the retention of Black teachers and principals. Next, this study filled a gap in the literature on Black educators because it focused on the factors that influenced the retention of both Black teachers and principals. Typically, most studies focus on Black teacher retention and very few examined Black principal retention or both groups. Finally, the study added to the literature regarding the usage of Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation with insights from critical race theory (CRT) in the education field and filled a gap in the literature by presenting findings for both Black teachers and principals.

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation was the framework used in this study. Maslow wrote about peoples' needs and desires (Maslow, 1954). In analyzing peoples' needs, Maslow categorized and placed them into a pyramid, in which the most basic and important needs were at the bottom and the higher needs or self-fulfilling needs were at the top (Maslow, 1954). Maslow's theory was based on five needs, which were physiological, safety, belonging and love, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow's theory pointed out that the most basic needs had to be met in order for an individual to

want higher needs. For example, some of the physiological needs included sex, breathing, water, and shelter (Maslow, 1954). After physiological needs were met, an individual would want safety needs and then the need of belonging and love (Maslow, 1954). Subsequent to these needs, the last two needs included esteem needs and the need for self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). The esteem needs entailed positive image, recognition, and job titles, whereas self-actualization was based on autonomy, subject matter expertise, and when a person reaches their full potential.

The study also had insights from CRT. Bell (1995) wrote that the work that CRT scholars did was disruptive, but was committed to anti-racism that went beyond civil rights, integration, and affirmative action (Bell, 1995). Trevino, Harris, and Wallace (2008) stated that at its core, CRT was committed to advocating and seeking justice for minority people. CRT as a theory used the law to analyze the negative influence of racism and provide justice to the poor and Black people (Bell, 1995).

CRT is based on five tenets, which are counter storytelling, permanence of racism, Whiteness as property, interest convergence, and critique of liberalism. Of the five tenets, the study used counter storytelling to discover their experiences that were unique to them being Black. The purpose of counter storytelling was to provide stories about racial injustices (Lynn, 2006). Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) stated that critical race theorist use counter stories to illustrate the false necessity and irony of much of the civil rights doctrine. Trevino et al. (2008) explained that counter storytelling was used to counter the metanarratives-images, preconceptions, and myths that had been propagated by the status quo.

Significance of the Study

This study of Black educators is significant because it extends the professional knowledge on Black educators and their tenure in publicly funded schools. While research on Black teachers and principals did exist, this study focuses on Black teachers and principals within Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. This study adds to the discussion on why Black educators are an important demographic in publicly funded K-12 schools. The findings of this study may be disseminated to school districts, their community and stakeholders, and researchers who are interested in recruiting and keeping Black teachers and principals in the profession.

Rationale for Methodology

The methodology for this study was mixed methods. Mixed method studies combine quantitative and qualitative research elements. Clark, Creswell, Green, and Shope (2008) added that, “mixed methods research has three key features” (p. 364). First, the researcher merged both quantitative and qualitative data (Clark et al., 2008). Additionally, the researcher analyzed the two data sets in which quantitative focused on trends, whereas qualitative centered on themes (Clark et al., 2008). Lastly, the researchers merged the data from quantitative and qualitative and developed an overall interpretation (Clark et al., 2008).

There were many advantages to using the mixed methods design. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003) stated that a mixed methods approach had the ability to neutralize and minimize certain limitations associated with various forms of study. Morse (2003) pointed out that mixed methods enabled readers to collect a complete

picture of human behavior and experience. Morse also stated that mixed methods studies allowed the research to develop comprehensively. Clark et al. (2008) explained that the mixed method analysis enabled the researcher to look at a phenomenon from several perspectives that used different, but complementary views that provided a more complete understanding of the research problem (Clark et al., 2008). Other advantages to using a mixed method approach were potentially building a stronger conclusion than a single method approach would allow for, which was to build on a theory without having to change the overall design, increasing the methodological rigor of the study by using multiple forms of validity, and adding value to the study with its overall persuasiveness and emphasis on practical application (Clark et al., 2008). This study used the mixed methods approach because of these numerous aforementioned advantages it brought to the study.

Nature of the Research Design for the Study

According to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007), “Quantitative researchers tend to make ‘statistical’ generalizations, which involve generalizing findings and inferences from a representative statistical sample to the population from which the sample was drawn” (p. 283). The quantitative section of this study used descriptive statistics. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments used in the study had four sections which included factors that influenced the participants to stay in the profession, factors that influenced them to leave, factors that influenced other Black educators to leave the profession, and other Blacks’ leaving education for other jobs. The analysis of the quantitative data computed the mean, standard deviation, one-sample t-

test, and at significance level, $\alpha = .05$ for items on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments to find the factors that were significant.

The qualitative section was grounded in phenomenology. Lunenburg and Irby (2008) defined phenomenological research design as a, "...type of research that involves the description of phenomena in our world" (p. 89). Creswell (2013) described phenomenological research design as a research design that provided common meaning for the participants' lived experiences and what they experience as phenomena. The lived experiences that Lunenburg and Irby and Creswell referred to, were human experiences that all of the participants had in common. Rather than build exclusively on empirical research, phenomenology focused on philosophy without presumptions (Creswell, 2013). Groenewald (2004), added, "The aim of the researcher was to describe as accurately as possible the phenomenon, refraining from any pre-given framework, but remaining true to the facts" (p. 5). The phenomenological research design allowed the researcher to capture the essence of the participants' story in the study by asking qualitative questions. The quantitative and qualitative data were combined to answer the research questions.

The populations for this study were teachers and principals from Pennsylvania counties of Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The sample of the participants included 37 Black teachers and 16 Black principals. The quantitative data came from six Black teachers and five Black principals. Snowball Sampling was the mechanism for collecting the data for the study. Black teachers and principals represented a small segment of the education profession. Because Black teachers and principals represented a small segment of

publicly funded K-12 schools, using Black educators to recruit Black teachers and principals enabled the researcher to find participants throughout Pennsylvania counties of Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The study analyzed and combined the findings from quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions.

Definition of Terms

African American/Black — This interchangeable term (Black or African American) related to individuals of an ethnic group of Americans with total or partial ancestry with any Black racial group(s) from the continent of Africa who had dark pigmentation of the skin. Participants in this study self identified themselves on the survey instruments as being a part of this group.

Charter School — This term meant an independent public school established to operate under a charter from the local board of school directors and in which students were enrolled or attended. A charter school must be organized as a public, nonprofit corporation (Public School Code of 1949, 2016). Charters may not be granted to any for-profit entity (Public School Code of 1949, 2016).

Community — The community consisting of the school districts and its stakeholders.

Critical Race Theory — A theoretical framework in the social sciences that examined society and culture as it related to race, law, and power.

Cultural Competency — The impact of language and history on the perception of ethnic groups within a school or school district.

Educator — This term related to an individual who worked as a teacher, guidance counselor, assistant principal, or principal (Wimbush, 2012).

Maslow's (1954) Theory of Motivation — Also known as “Maslow’s hierarchy of needs” described stages in human growth based on needs. As human needs were met, they moved to the next stage, which were higher needs. According to Maslow (1954), the theory had five needs, which included: physiological needs, safety needs, belonging and love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization.

Mentoring — To advise or train a colleague and support students.

Minority Teachers — Teachers who were classified as Black (African American), Latino (Hispanic American), Pacific Islander (Asian American), American Indian/Alaska Native, and Multiple Races.

Principals — Principals who were retired and active, assistant, vice, and school principals.

Publicly Funded Schools — Any school that received it’s funding from the public and was controlled by local government including traditional and charter schools.

Resilience — According to American Psychological Association (2018), “The process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress — such as family and relationship problems, serious health problems or workplace and financial stressors” (p. 1).

Role Models — Defined as a person whose behavior in a particular role was imitated by others.

Servant Leader — A leader who is a servant first.

Teachers — Teachers included classroom teachers and counselors who were active and retired.

White/ European American/Caucasian — An interchangeable term (White/European American/Caucasian) used to refer to and describe a member of a group or race characterized by light pigmentation of the skin from European descent.

White Flight — Boustan (2010) defined white flight as, “a process in which White households left central cities to avoid living in racially diverse neighborhoods or jurisdictions” (p. 419).

Assumptions

There were several assumptions associated with this study:

- The first assumption was that all of the participants responded truthfully to all the survey instruments and semi-structured interview questions.
- Another assumption of the study was that the educators’ race had a significant role in the study.
- All of the participants in the study identified themselves as Black/African American.

Limitations

This study had the following limitations:

- The two survey instruments relied on self-reported data.
- The sample and population in the study were limited to only Black teachers and principals within the Pennsylvania counties of Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware.

Delimitations

This study had the following delimitations:

- This study was restricted to urban and suburban schools from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware.
- The study only focused on teachers and principals with five or more years of experience.
- The study only focused on Black educators, which was not a complete representation of all teachers and principals represented in the publicly funded K-12 school population.

Summary and Organization of the Study

There are five major chapters for this study. Chapter I is the introduction to this study. Chapter II offers a review of the literature on Black educators and provides published research on the topic. Chapter III describes the research methodology and design. Chapter IV provides the results of the study. Finally, Chapter V furnishes further discussion regarding the study.

Chapter II — Literature Review

Introduction

This literature review provided the foundation for this study regarding the factors that influenced Black educators to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of service. The literature review described the research studies about Black educators and their retention in the field of education. Furthermore, the literature review focused on the theoretical foundations and conceptual framework which was Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation with insights from critical race theory (CRT) and proceeded with the following themes: before the *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and its ruling, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), white flight, the impact *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had on Black educators, the need for more Black educators, affirmative action, recruiting and the retention of teachers and principals.

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation and CRT were used to formulate the literature review of this study. With the use of Maslow's theory and CRT, the researcher examined the outcomes of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), white flight, and affirmative action and their influence on Black teachers, principals, and the community. The literature for these sections explains how *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) was designed to improve the lives of Black students, but had adverse affects for Black teachers, principals, and the community. Justice Earl Warren ruled against the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas based on the psychological harm it caused the Black students. As a result of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), Black educators lost their influence on policy-making and the reduction of many of them in the profession. The

findings revealed that Whites began to leave cities, which helped influence a reduction of property values, which negatively impacted Blacks. Executive orders, laws, programs, and rulings were made as a result. Nevertheless, these efforts either improved or stymied Black progression. The next sections discuss the need for Black educators, the barriers and strategies to recruit Black educators, and the factors involved to retain teachers and principals.

Theoretical Foundation and Conceptual Framework

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation. Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation was based on constructing a positive theory based on human needs. Prior to categorizing human needs, Maslow provided sixteen propositions that must be incorporated into any motivation theory. Maslow's sixteen propositions included:

- The individual as an integrated whole,
- Hunger as a paradigm,
- Means and end,
- Desire and culture,
- Multiple motivations,
- Motivating states,
- Relationships of motivations,
- Lists of drives,
- Classification of motivational life,
- Motivation and animal data,
- Environment,
- Integration,

- Non-motivated behavior,
- Possibility of attainment,
- Influence of reality, and
- Knowledge of healthy motivation.

These propositions, according to Maslow, must be addressed before one can construct a theory of motivation. For example, the individual viewed as an integrated whole proposition illustrated that any motivation theory must examine the whole individual and not just part of him (Maslow, 1954). Maslow stated, “In good theory, there is no such entity as a need of the stomach or mouth, or genital need...there [sic] is only a need for the individual” (p. 19). Maslow provided the 16 propositions as a preface before his theory on motivation.

Maslow’s (1954) theory of motivation was based on six needs that motivate people (Maslow, 1954). Maslow’s theory commenced with basic needs, which he labeled as physiological needs. The physiological needs Maslow argued were the most important needs. Those needs included, but not limited to sexual desire, sleepiness, sheer activity, exercise, and hunger for food (Maslow, 1954). The next need was safety (Maslow, 1954). Safety needs included: security, stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear, from anxiety and chaos, and need for structure to name a few (Maslow, 1954). After physiological and safety needs were acquired, people were motivated by sense of belonging and needing love (Maslow, 1954). Belonging and love needs included but were not limited to needing friends, family, love, and affection (Maslow, 1954). The next section were esteem needs (Maslow, 1954). In this section, esteem needs were desire for strength, achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and

competence, reputation, prestige, fame, and recognition (Maslow, 1954). Once the four needs were met, a person attained the need for self-actualization (Maslow, 1954).

According to Maslow, “Even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often (if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what *he*, is individually, is fitted for” (p. 46). This level could be summarized as people finding self-fulfillment and completing tasks that they were destined to complete (Maslow, 1954).

Critical race theory. The study included insights from critical race theory (CRT). CRT is a theoretical framework created by legal scholars who were committed against racism (Bell, 1995). Lynn (2006) added that CRT scholars were concerned with racism that operated in schools and society. Lynn pointed out that CRT scholars also addressed racism while attempting to bring about positive change. CRT has five tenets, which are counter storytelling, permanence of racism, Whiteness as property, interest convergence, and critique of liberalism. This dissertation utilized counter storytelling as part of its theoretical framework.

One of the goals of CRT was to bring a full understanding of racism (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Ladson-Billings (1998) explained that supporters of CRT argued that racism was normal in the United States and was still prevalent in society. Although laws and rulings were conducted to improve the rights of minorities, improvement regarding racial reform had a slow pace in the United States (Ladson-Billings, 1998). According to Lynn (2008), supporters of CRT argued that racism was a natural and necessary part of society based on White supremacy. Lynn and Parker (2006), further added, “racism is normal and aberrant, in American society” (p. 259). Although violent racist behavior had

dropped, subliminal racism had increased (Lynn & Parker, 2006). The majority of this behavior was associated with unconscious, but nonetheless negative, racial intent (Lynn & Parker, 2006). Bell referenced the adverse unintended effects of laws that were designed to improve the lives of Blacks. For example, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), a ruling that was designed to improve the lives of Blacks, had a negative impact on them (Bell, 1980).

The purpose of counter storytelling was to provide stories about racial injustices (Lynn, 2006). Trevino, Harris, and Wallace (2008) wrote that CRT scholars had used counter storytelling by, “countering the metanarratives-images, preconceptions, and myths—that have been propagated by the dominant culture of hegemonic Whiteness as a way of maintaining racial inequality” (p. 8). The counter stories that were told were used to capture some of the participants' experiences as an educator. It was because of these experiences that the researcher was able to explain in some cases how the participants' perceived themselves, their role in the profession, and the obstacles they experienced as Black educators. The next section of the study provided a brief explanation of Black leadership and schools prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954).

Before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954)

Black leadership in education had a significant role in the Black community, which had dated back to the 1860s (Tillman, 2006). Black educators built, operated, and secured resources and funding for the Black communities and their schools after the Civil War (Tillman, 2006). Tillman (2004) explained that Black principals represented the ethos of the Black communities, and they were responsible for nurturing Black students in segregated schools. Tillman (2004) also stated that Black during era before *Brown v.*

Board of Education (1954) were models of servant leadership. Tillman (2006) pointed out that the efforts of Black principals after the Civil War paved the way for the new Black educational leaders and schools of thought that dominated the discussion on Black educational leadership.

From the 1860s to 1935, there were two types of schools that were established by former slaves (Tillman, 2004). Tillman (2004) wrote the two types of schools were Sabbath and common schools. Tillman described Sabbath schools as schools sponsored by church organizations, which were opened in the evenings and on weekends to provide literacy instruction to former slaves. DuBois and Dill (1911) pointed out that common schools were founded by the Freedman Bureau to educate children. Common schools were used to educate Black children during later part of the 19th century and early 20th century (DuBois, 1909; DuBois & Dill, 1911; Washington, 1902).

Some of the earliest scholarship on Black education dated back to the 1890s and was centered on two schools of thought, vocational and classical education (Tillman, 2006). Vocational education prepared students for manual labor jobs, such as cooking, sewing, and farming (Tillman, 2004). Booker T. Washington was the leader of the vocational school movement and argued that Blacks should accept non-professional jobs (Tillman, 2004). Washington (1902) said, “Cast it down in agriculture, mechanics, in commerce, in domestic services, and in the professions” (p. 112). Washington encouraged Blacks to learn applicable skills rather than learn different languages or classical education (Washington, 1902). Classical education focused on art, literature, and medicine (Tillman, 2006). William Edward Burghardt (W.E.B.) DuBois led the discussion for classical education arguing that the Black community needed more

teachers, ministers, doctors, and politicians (DuBois, 1909). One of DuBois's (1909) arguments for classical education was based on the establishment of schools. DuBois argued that industrial or common schools did not exist without well-equipped colleges to train the best Negro youth as teachers, professional men, and leaders. DuBois asserted that Blacks needed colleges and leaders to advance the Black community.

Coincidentally, the vocational and classical schools of thought undergirded the development and subsequent influence of Black educators until *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) (Tillman, 2006). The next section explained the background to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and the outcome of the ruling.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954)

In Topeka, Kansas, Linda Brown's family complained to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) that their daughter had to walk over a mile to a school that had predominantly Black students, while a school that had predominantly White students was located only four blocks away from her home (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954). The Brown family attempted to enroll their daughter in the predominantly White school, as did many other families, but was denied permission (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954). Milner and Howard (2004) stated that this refusal of access provided the family with grounds for their suit, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). In addition to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), Green stated (2004) that the U.S. Supreme Court heard four other cases on the practice of legal segregation in the public schools of South Carolina (*Briggs v. Elliot*, 1952), Virginia (*Davis v. County School Board*, 1952), Delaware (*Gebhardt v. Belton*, 1952), and Washington, DC (*Bolling v. Sharp*, 1954).

Brown v. Board of Education (1954) was a landmark case insofar as it overturned *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) and held that the doctrine of “separate but equal” was unconstitutional. Prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) had established a precedent of separate schools and public facilities for Blacks and Whites. Warren (1953) posited in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) that the U.S. Supreme Court was willing to entertain the notion that schools for Blacks and for Whites were equal in quality, but the U. S. Supreme Court determined that the actual process of segregation caused psychological harm to students. Specifically, the U.S. Supreme Court added in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) that segregation had influenced Blacks students to feel inferior to White students and consequently, ruled that “separate but equal” violated the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment (U. S. Const. amend. XIV), which guaranteed equal protection for all Americans (Warren, 1953). Warren wrote in his opinion about the effect of segregation on public education that “...it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education” (p. 493). Warren also added, “to separate them (Black students) [sic] from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely never to be undone” (p. 494). Warren’s argument shed light on the rationale for desegregation and the negative ramifications it had on Black students. The next section explains *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955). It also presents the court cases that followed *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), resistance to the ruling, and the impact it had on Black students and community.

Brown v. Board of Education (1955)

After *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), another ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1955 was *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) and it directed the integration of public schools, colleges, and universities needed to proceed with all deliberate speed. According to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), the U. S. Supreme Court ruled on May 31, 1955 that several states should make a prompt and reasonable start to act on the instruction of deliberate speed as stated in the decision of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955). This ruling established a precedent that public schools must make a “prompt and good faith effort” at desegregation and integration (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1955). Though the courts made their ruling to speed up the process, desegregation slowed after the ruling (Bond, 2015). According to Bond (2015), “The first ten years after 1954, the emphasis was more deliberate than on speed.” Bond also added that the focus was not on tearing apart the dual systems in the south, which was a product of *de jure* segregation. However, Bond also added that “all deliberate speed” meant a conceivable delay. Furthermore, by the end of 1964, more than 97% of all children still attended segregated schools (Bond, 2015).

Warren (1955) did not provide guidance on how *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) would be implemented; however, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) furnished federal courts with the authority to eliminate the dual school system. Warren wrote that defendants (local school districts and states) were given reasonable time to integrate schools. According to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), Warren delegated the burden of a time frame to the states and school districts. He suggested in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) that there were issues with administration, physical conditions of the

schools, transportation system, revision of the school district, personal concerns, and issues with attendance that would establish satisfactory admission to the schools. The U.S. Supreme Court's rationale of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) paved the way for some states to slow the progress that was ruled under *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), which was supposed to desegregate all schools across the United States.

After *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), White politicians throughout the south created a "massive resistance movement" (Hunter, 2004). These movements were designed to oppose *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). For example, Hunter (2004) pointed out that Prince Edward County in Virginia closed its public schools in September of 1959. Rather than desegregate, Virginia gave White parents' tuition grants to attend private schools (Hunter, 2004). White parents were also given real estate and property tax credits to help with private school tuition (Hunter, 2004). Unfortunately, as Hunter stated, Black families were not offered any help to attend private schools, and many of their children did not attend school for five years.

Another state to resist *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) was Arkansas (Kozer, 1963). According to Kozer, Arkansas amended their state constitution to command the General Assembly to reject *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955). During the beginning of the 1957-1958 school year, a small group of Black children attempted to enroll in Central High School of Little Rock (Kozer, 1963). Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus blocked the Black students from entering the predominantly White high school (Kozer, 1963). To achieve his goal, Faubus sent in the National Guard to block the Black students from entering the school (Kozer, 1963). Kozer pointed out that three weeks later, President Dwight Eisenhower stepped in and

forced the school to open its doors to the Black students who were denied entrance to the school.

The decision in *Green v. County School Board of New Kent County* (1968) was made 14 years after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) regarding segregation in a school district from Virginia. The background regarding *Green v. County School Board of New Kent County* (1968) was based on a small school district in Virginia that had two schools, one that was primarily Black, and the other was predominantly White. The school district planned to address the goals of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955). According to López and Burciaga (2014) the school district embraced a “freedom-of-choice” plan. The plan gave the parents of the children who attended the schools the option of sending their children to either school (López & Burciaga, 2014). The Virginia school district argued that because it gave the parents a choice, it satisfied the requirements of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955); however, the U.S. Supreme Court disagreed. According to *Green v. County School Board of New Kent County* (1968), neutral policies were insufficient and states needed to take affirmative steps that ensured schools eliminated differences in schools’ facilities, faculty, staff, extracurricular activities, and transportation. The U.S. Supreme Court held that the freedom-of-choice plan may work in some situations, but school districts must create plans that dismantle segregation (*Green v. County School Board of New Kent County*, 1968).

Keyes v. School District No. 1 Denver, Colorado (1973) decision was based on whether Denver School Board had kept area schools racial segregated. The premise of the *Keyes v. School District No. 1 Denver, Colorado* (1973) was that Denver School Board kept Black and Latino students from predominantly White schools by school

attendance zones, mobile classrooms, the creation of policies and other district-sanctioned practices. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled in favor of the Denver School Board (*Keyes v. School District No. 1 Denver, Colorado, 1973*). The U.S. Supreme Court found that policies were not responsible for racial imbalances in the city of Denver. Denver did not have a history of segregation and it could not be proven that the actions of the school board were a direct result of the policies (*Keyes v. School District No. 1 Denver, Colorado, 1973*).

Desegregation did provide some positive results for Blacks students in a southern state (Reber 2101). Reber (2010) examined the dramatic changes on educational attainment that desegregation brought to Black students within the Louisiana school districts between 1965 and 1970. Reber scrutinized the variation in the intensity of school desegregation with regard to Black students being exposed to interact with White students and an increase in funding for Black students. According to Reber, exposure to White students had a positive effect on Black students. White students had higher socioeconomic status and better scores on achievement tests, which had a positive influence on Black students because of the funding that predominantly White schools received (Reber, 2010). Reber added that desegregation increased the average spending on schools that Blacks' attended. First, Black students moved into formerly White schools with higher amounts of spending per pupil (Reber, 2010). Secondly, desegregation increased the overall average school spending by leveling up to the levels, which were experienced by only White schools (Reber, 2010). The study found that 11th and 12th grade graduation rates increased for Black students (Reber, 2010). Reber

pointed out that a 42% increase in spending led to a 15% increase in high school graduation rates.

While Reber (2010) studied students, Stroub and Richardson (2013) researched the trends in racial and ethnic segregation of metropolitan public schools from 1993 to 2009. The study used longitudinal data collected from 350 metropolitan areas (Stroub & Richardson, 2013). The annual values for segregation for each metropolitan area were calculated using public school demographic data from the National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe survey. Stroub and Richardson had several findings. First, worsening segregation over the 1990s had given way to a period of modest integration among all racial and ethnic groups (Stroub & Richardson, 2013). Next, decreases in segregation were smaller in formerly *de jure* segregated south and in metropolitan areas with significant increase in racial and ethnic diversity (Stroub & Richardson, 2013). Finally, Stroub and Richardson stated that in 1998, the relative importance of segregation among non-Whites had increased while the proportion of segregation that went across district boundaries had stabilized.

Although some Black students had benefited from desegregation, there were cases in which school districts had yet to desegregate (Houser, 2016). Over 60 years after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), two of Mississippi's schools were ordered by the federal government to desegregate (Hauser, 2016). Hauser (2016) wrote, "A federal court has ordered a town in Mississippi to desegregate its two high schools and two middle schools, ending a five-decade legal battle over integrating Black and White students" (p. 1). The Cleveland School District had to desegregate its historically predominantly White school "Margaret Green Junior

High School” with its predominantly Black school “D.M. Smith Middle School” (Hauser, 2016). Part of the reason for the merger included that 75% to 100% of the students at D.M. Smith Middle School were eligible for free and reduced lunch, and the school offered fewer science, math, preparatory classes, and had higher rates of students being held back in 9th grade, suspended, or expelled (Hauser, 2016). Hauser reported that even in the 21st century, there were schools in America that still needed to desegregate. Although *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) called for the desegregation to act with “deliberate speed,” over 60 years after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) indicated that implementation of the ruling was not done with deliberate speed.

While *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) had significant impacts on the desegregation of schools, white flight had an equal impact on the city structures in which schools’ demographics and funding eroded property values (Haines, 2010). The next section described white flight and its influence on the Black community and its schools.

White Flight

In addition to desegregation, white flight had a significant affect on Blacks before and after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) (Boustan, 2010; Haines, 2010). White flight was based on out-migration of White residents who left the inner city for the suburbs (Haines, 2010). Boustan defined white flight as “a process in which White households left central cities to avoid living in racially diverse neighborhoods or jurisdictions” (p. 419). Also, according to Boustan,

Between 1940 and 1970, four million Blacks left the South, increasing the Black population share in northern and western cities from 4% in 1940 to 16% in 1970.

Over the same period, the median non-southern city lost 10% of its White population. (p. 418)

Based on the definition and statistics provided by Boustan, white flight helped to shift the representation of Blacks and Whites in cities before and after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). As Blacks moved into cities such as Chicago, Whites left the city for the suburbs (Boustan, 2010).

Boustan (2010) stated that White departures from central cities were a response to Black in-migration. Boustan also wrote that there was a correlation between when Blacks arrived in non-southern cities during the 1950s and Whites departure from those cities. In order to explain white flight, Boustan argued that Whites left non-southern cities at a greater rate than Blacks. For example, a median city had 200,000 White residents, and absorbed 19,000 Black residents (Boustan, 2010). Boustan estimated that Blacks influenced 52,000 White residents to depart, which broke down into a 17% net decline in White representation in inner cities. Boustan also added that the desegregation of schools during the 1960s and 1970s provided another reason for Whites to leave the cities.

Haines (2010) added to the literature on white flight by writing about Chicago's unusual pattern of change over the past 30 years. Haines posited that unlike a few metropolitan areas, there was a correlation between white flight and urban decay in Chicago. Urban decay was based on cities experiencing economic decline (Haines, 2010). Rather than focusing on poverty in Chicago, Haines studied whether Chicago's suburbs experienced urban decay. Haines found that suburbs also experienced urban decay. White flight had produced economic decay because of decreasing home values in

Cook County outside of Chicago (Haines, 2010). Haines described that decreasing housing values equated to decreasing funds for the community.

Baum-Snow and Lutz (2011) examined the residential location and school choice responses of Whites and Blacks to desegregation of large urban public school districts. From 1960 to 1990, Baum-Snow and Lutz recorded that large urban districts led to a decline in public enrollment for White students, but increased for Black students. Baum-Snow and Lutz found that White enrollment declined in urban schools, which led to an increase in their population in suburban schools. Outside of southern states, private schools had an increase in White enrollment because of desegregation (Baum-Snow & Lutz, 2011). Black student public enrollment and population did not increase until several years after desegregation (Baum-Snow & Lutz, 2011). Other than southern states, Baum-Snow and Lutz wrote that Black student public enrollment increased because of residential relocation into central districts.

Brunner, Imakezi, and Ross (2010) utilized data on vote outcomes from a universal initiative to determine whether White households with children in public schools used vouchers to leave predominately non-White schools. This issue at hand according to Brunner et al. was whether White students' leaving predominantly non-White schools created racially and ethnically segregated schools. The participants in Brunner, Imakezi, and Ross study were 6,022 residents from the state of California. The findings from Brunner et al. indicated that the White households were more likely to support the vouchers when their students attended schools with large concentration of non-White school children. Brunner et al. also pointed out that the results might have been less driven by race or ethnicity, but rather caused by student performance.

Nonetheless, regardless of the motivating factors, school vouchers contributed to the cause of segregation in predominantly non-White schools (Brunner et al., 2010).

As the population increased in the inner cities, the White population decreased (Boustan, 2010). As a result of this vast movement of people, white flight was established (Boustan, 2010). White flight had caused considerable damage to the Black community (Boustan, 2010; Haines, 2010). According to the literature, white flight had caused urban decay (Haines, 2010). Urban decay along with a reduction in property values equated to limited funding for predominately Black communities (Haines, 2010). The next section described the impact *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had on Black teachers, principals, and the community.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954), and the impact on Black Educators

Prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), Black educators were considered the leaders of the Black community (Tillman, 2006). According to Lewis (2013), many Blacks during the 1950s and 1960s attended Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) in order to become teachers. Lewis also stated that in most cases, many of them went back to their towns or communities to serve as educators in the Black community after receiving their training. The percentage of Black educators in the Black community reduced after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) because of desegregation (Milner & Howard, 2004). Reduction of some Black teaching positions occurred because Black students left predominantly Black schools to attend predominantly White schools (Tillman, 2006). Hudson and Holmes (1994) stated that approximately 82,000 Black teachers were responsible for educating 2 million Black students prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). According to Fultz (2004), in Oklahoma alone approximately 144

Black teachers and 21 Black principals lost their positions because of desegregation. Burgman (2011) and McCray, Wright, and Beachum (2006) posited that from 1967-1970, the number of Black principals in Alabama dropped from 250 to 40. Similarly, from 1966 to 1971, the number of Black principals in Louisiana declined from 512 to 363 (Burgman, 2011; McCray et al., 2006) and in Florida, the number of Black principals was reduced from 103 to 13 from 1965-1971 (Burgman, 2011).

Prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) many schools in the south were separated based on race (Tillman, 2006). After *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), the majority of the predominantly White schools in the south slowly desegregated their schools (Burgman, 2011). Because of desegregation, however, in the states of Oklahoma, Missouri, Kentucky, West Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware, 50% of the Black principals were dismissed from 1954 to 1965 (Tillman, 2006). Walker and Byas (2003) added that “in North Carolina, for example, between 1963 and 1970, the number of Black principals in secondary schools plunged from 160 to 10” (p. 56).

Milner and Howard (2004) examined the impact *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had on Black teachers, students, and the community. They interviewed expert researchers in the field of education who followed *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) over their respective careers (Milner & Howard, 2004). Following the trend from three experts who were professors and researchers, Milner and Howard found that Black teachers were demoted and rendered essentially voiceless as a result of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Many Black teachers lost their jobs because of desegregation and this ultimately served to decrease some of the influence in policy-making Black teachers had for their students and the Black community (Milner & Howard, 2004).

Milner and Howard (2004) also described the effects Black teachers had on student achievement before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Black teachers improved student achievement by acting *in loco parentis*, namely as the Black students' surrogate parents, by fulfilling the roles of disciplinarians, counselors, role models, and overall supporters of the Black students' success (Milner & Howard, 2004). Milner and Howard argued that Black people may not have supported *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had they anticipated or known about the effects the decision had on Black teachers specifically the Black community in general. After *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), Milner and Howard wrote that, "Black teachers endured emotional strain and hardship through experiences that were degrading and demoralizing" (p. 289). Milner and Howard also pointed out that Black teachers were selected to teach in predominantly White schools based on their skin complexion (light skinned individuals were chosen over dark skinned counterparts), and lost their voice and influence in policy-making over Black students, and were subjected to an abject lack of respect from White students and parents who treated them with apathy.

Walker (2013) analyzed Black educators in the decades before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). The study focused on the ways in which Blacks were involved in Black schools. Based on a historical ethnography, Walker studied the records of Georgia Teachers and Education Association and the NAACP. From the data collected from interview and archival sources, Walker found three periods of advocacy in the years before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). In each of the periods (1917-1921; 1922-1932; 1933-1954), Walker stated that Black educators were vocal and visible through organizing and advocating for education.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954) also had a significant impact on the recruiting of Black teachers. Tillman (2004) wrote that when Black principals were displaced, its consequence adversely affected the pool of Black teachers. Black principals served as mentors and recruiters of Black teachers, and helped to promote many of them to leadership positions (Tillman, 2004). When Black principals lost their influence, they subsequently lost the ability to increase the number of Black teachers by bringing them up through the ranks (Tillman, 2004). Black principals hired Black teachers and the decline in the number of Black principals helped influence decline in the number of Black teachers getting into the profession (Tillman, 2004).

Brown v. Board of Education (1954) had a significant effect on the Black community. Specifically, Green (2004) argued that the courts considered Black communities damaged by *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). As a result of the case, the implementation of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) influenced many Black educators to lose their jobs and their influence on the school's curriculum, culture, and community (Green, 2004). Randolph (2004) argued that Black educators were leaders in the community, attended community churches, visited their students' homes, and shared the same educational vision of the parents. Milner and Howard (2004) added that Black teachers before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) lived in their schools' communities and developed meaningful relationships with their students. Subsequently, this freedom allowed teachers to become more involved in the community, which helped build the Black principals' and teachers' relationships with fellow community members (Milner & Howard, 2004). Green pointed out that the influence of Black educators changed because of the decline in the number of them after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954).

There was a significant drop in employment of Black educators from 1954 to 1965 because of closures of Black schools and the use of teacher licensure exams as a requirement for new employment (Green, 2004). Green noted that national teacher examinations cut-off scores increased as a requirement for teaching (Green, 2004). Many Black teachers failed to make the cut-off score to earn certification, be hired, or rehired, which meant not that many of them were replaced at desegregated schools (Green, 2004). These two factors influenced Black educators who had previously enjoyed autonomy and control over their schools' curriculum, culture, and community to lose independence and influence because of their drop in numbers nationally (Green, 2004).

James (1970) argued that Black principals had a direct and positive impact on the lives of the students they served. Black principals were role models and inspired Black children (James, 1970). After *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), Tillman (2004) argued, "Black principals had no control over the education of their students and no longer served as the liaison between the Black community and White power structure" (p. 113). Tillman also wrote, "Post-*Brown* African American principals helped to implement desegregation and educate African American children in the face of resistance" (p. 101). Tillman concluded:

It is ironic that the *Brown* decision resulted in the firing and demotion of thousands of Black principals, mostly in southern and Border States. As a result, Black principals were often denied the opportunity and authority to act on behalf of children in the implementation of desegregation. (p. 103)

As the literature suggested, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) was one of the factors that influenced a reduction in the number of Black principals and their influence on the

Black community (Tillman, 2004).

Before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), Black principals had limited resources to operate and maintain schools for Black children (Tillman, 2004). According to Savage (2001), Black principals secured resources, provided extraordinary services such as the introduction of new curricula and activities, and instilled in Black children resiliency, self-reliance, self-respect, and pride for their race. Savage also pointed out that Black principals made the schools the center of the community and transformed them into a cultural symbol. However, Tillman (2004) explained how society post *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) justified terminating and replacing Black principals. After the ruling, Tillman stated, “Whites believed that Black principals had been ineffective in educating Black children” (p. 111). Tillman also wrote, “Expert witnesses who testified during a series of post desegregation legal proceedings called for the dismantling of all Black schools and replacing Black principals with Whites” (p. 111).

This section highlighted the tremendous impact that *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had on the Black teachers, Black principals, Black children, and the Black community. While *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) desegregated schools, it subsequently reduced the number of Black educators that taught Black students. Black educators were known for being the community leaders, mentors, and role models for Black children. The next section pointed out why there was a need for more Black educators.

The Need for More Black Educators

Since *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), the percentage of Black educators nationwide had been relatively low compared to other minority groups in the field

(including various genders and racial and ethnic groups) (Feistritzer, 2011; United States Department of Education, 2016). Feistritzer (2011) and the United States Department of Education (2016) pointed out that in 2011, Black teachers made up 7% of the teaching force nationally. Black principals represented 10% in publicly funded schools (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2012a; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). When that demographic was analyzed even more microscopically to examine the representation of Black male educators nationwide, Feistritzer added that this demographic only represented 10% of the Black teaching force. Duncan (2011), on the other hand, stated that Black males represented one out of 50 teachers nationally. The number of Black teachers only increased by 1% from 2005 to a total of 7% in 2011 (Feistritzer, 2011). Although Feistritzer pointed out that Black educators did increase in number, the fastest growing group of non-White educators by far was Hispanics, which grew from 4% in 2005 to 6% in 2011. Consequently, Black educators continued to be significantly underrepresented in the teaching force (Feistritzer, 2011).

According to the research, the majority of the teachers in publicly funded K-12 schools were female instructors (Feistritzer, 2011), with the number of men in education significantly dropping since 1986. In sharp contrast, the percentage of women in the teaching force increased from 69% in 1986 to 85% in 2011 (Feistritzer, 2011). Based on the growing percentages of female educators nationally, the number of male teachers declined significantly (Feistritzer, 2011).

Some scholars wrote about the implications of having an all-White female teaching staff (Talbert-Johnson, 2002). Talbert-Johnson (2002) argued that, “it is alarming to note that special and general education teachers, who often were White and

feel ill-prepared to interact with Black children as they frequently lack appropriate management skills” (p. 292). Talbert-Johnson observed that the lack of Black teacher presence was severely detrimental and constituted a critical problem.

Even more disconcertingly, the National Education Association (2017) reported that the shortage of minority teachers becomes more apparent each year. In spite of school districts attempting to diversify their schools, most teachers were still overwhelmingly White (National Education Association, 2017). This may be attributable at least in part to the fact that minority teachers left the teaching profession at higher rates than White teachers (National Education Association, 2017). The National Education Association suggested that minority teachers tended to leave the profession for several reasons. They left the profession because of the limited teacher pool for minority teachers (demographically limited in numbers), teacher burn out, poor working conditions, school violence, and lack of support from colleagues (National Education Association, 2017). The National Education Association also found that inadequate schools had left some minority teacher candidates ill prepared and some of them could not pass the standardized cut score (National Education Association, 2017). Other factors included: lower salaries compared to other professions (Allegreto & Mishel, 2016), other career opportunities outside of education, and declining education majors at University/Colleges for both Black and Hispanic Americans (National Education Association, 2017).

Regardless of the limited number of Black educators in publicly funded K-12 schools, Black educators were sorely needed in Black communities. Talbert-Johnson (2002) acknowledged that, “African American teachers are catalysts in the academic

process for bridging the gap between home and school and for providing cross-culture exposure to all students” (p. 286). Black educators were needed both for their indirect influence over the community and over Black children (Talbert-Johnson, 2002). Talbert-Johnson highlighted the particular value that Black teachers had as role models; this was especially true in the case of Black male teachers serving as role models for Black male students (Talbert-Johnson, 2002).

Milner (2006) also wrote about the need for more Black teachers. Milner examined Black teachers’ success with Black students. The methodology for the study consisted of qualitative data from interviews (Milner, 2006). The study had six participants (Milner, 2006). The study found that increasing the number of Black teachers could be advantageous to schools (Milner, 2006). Milner stressed that Black teachers were needed to be a positive influence on all students. Milner found that Black teachers were successful with Black students and can use that influence to be successful with all students.

Jones (2002) researched the perception of Black principals from Black and White teachers. The methodology for the study consisted of qualitative data based on teacher interviews (Jones, 2002). The study consisted of 30 teacher interviews in which half were White and half were Black (Jones, 2002). Two of the White participants were males and 13 were White females (Jones, 2002). The study also had two Black males and 13 Black women (Jones, 2002). The study had multiple findings (Jones, 2002). Black teachers perceived Black principals as legitimate leaders, and believed they had a connection with the Black principals because they shared the same experiences (Jones, 2002). White teachers believed that the principal should be principled, engaged, and

outgoing (Jones, 2002). According to Jones, White teachers also believed that the principal should maintain the moral climate of the school. Black teachers developed trust for their Black principals whereas the White teachers were hesitant to trust their Black principals (Jones, 2002). Jones's study indicated the different opinions between the Black and White teachers view of Black principals.

As the research in this section documented, the majority of the teachers were White women (Feistritzer, 2011). Blacks, on the other hand, represented a small percentage of the teaching profession compared to other races (Feistritzer, 2011). Blacks also left the profession for a variety of reasons (National Education Association, 2017). However, the literature pointed out that they were needed in the profession (Milner, 2006; Talbert-Johnson, 2002). Black educators bring a unique experience into education as well as being effective role models and mentors (Milner, 2006; Talbert-Johnson, 2002). The next section explored how affirmative action attempted to abate discrimination in private and public institutions.

Affirmative Action

According to Drake (2003), affirmative action was a policy and practice of government, organizations, and institutions that distribute or redistribute benefits to preferred groups (Drake, 2003). Drake (2003) stated that affirmative action was created in the 1960s to help Blacks move into the American mainstream. Affirmative action started with the creation of the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity and executive orders by Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson (Executive Order No. 10925, 1961; Executive Order No. 11114, 1963). The committee was designed to provide equal opportunity in employment and advancement (Stallion, 2013).

Executive Orders 10925 in 1961 and 11114 in 1963 authorized for the first time that affirmative action be implemented as a remedy for historic employment conditions and discriminations (Executive Order No. 19025, 1961; Executive Order No. 11114, 1963). Furthermore, President Johnson signed Executive Order 11246 (Equal Employment Opportunity) to end discrimination in employment (Executive Order No. 11246, 1965). Executive Order 11246 prohibited federal contractors from discriminating in employment decisions on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, sexual orientation, gender identity, or national origin (Executive Order No. 11246, 1965). Executive Order 11246 also required government contractors to take affirmative action to ensure that equal opportunity was provided in all aspects of their employment (Executive Order No. 11246, 1965).

Farber (1994) traced affirmative action as a political issue from its origins in 1967 with the original establishment of the Philadelphia Plan, a federal program designed to racially integrate the building construction trade unions through mandatory goals for non-White hiring on federal construction contracts. The Philadelphia Plan was created as a direct result of Executive Order 11246, which required non-discriminatory practices in hiring and employment from government contractors (Executive Order N. 11246, 1965). Farber pointed out that the plan was highly controversial and ultimately was declared illegal in 1968. Farber also wrote that a revised version of the Philadelphia Plan was introduced by the Nixon Administration and succeeded in integrating the skilled construction unions in Philadelphia and several other cities, but as construction unions lost control over the hiring process during the 1970s, very little impact was actually made on integrating the skilled workforce at jobsites.

Some researchers argued that the seeds for affirmative action were actually sown several years before the Philadelphia Plan was created, with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that affected both employment and education (Bishop, 1982). According to the Civil Rights Act (1964), the law prohibited discrimination on the basis of race for voting, public accommodations, federally assisted programs, and employment opportunities. The Civil Rights Act also required the U.S. Attorney General to act on written complaints regarding the segregation of public facilities and public schools. The statute required the Attorney General to file a civil action suit (Civil Rights Act, 1964). If the statute was violated, private and public institutions would lose federal funding (Civil Rights Act, 1964).

In addition to the Civil Rights Act (1964), the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) played a major role in dealing with this issue of civil rights (Bishop, 1982). The EEOC was responsible for enforcing federal laws that prohibit discrimination against employment because of race, color, religion, national origin, age (40 or older), disability or genetic information, and sex, which included pregnancy, gender identity, and sexual orientation (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, n.d.). According to the U.S. National Archives (2016), the EEOC, since its inception in 1964, gradually extended powers from Congress to include investigatory authority, creating conciliation programs, filing lawsuits, and conducting voluntary assistance programs. It was worth mentioning that while the Civil Rights Act did not include the words “affirmative action,” it did authorize the agency to make rules to help end discrimination (U. S. National Archives, 2016). In addition to executive orders,

statutes, and a federal agency, court rulings on affirmative action had an impact on Black employment and education.

One of the most significant rulings on affirmative action was *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978). Allen Bakke, a White male, was previously denied entry into several medical schools, but other White candidates were accepted and had better credentials at Davis in California (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978). Davis had a special program designed to accept more Blacks, Chicanos, and other minorities, which reduced the number of Whites admitted to Davis (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978). According to *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978), 16 of the 100 seats were set-aside for Black candidates. Some of these candidates were admitted who had lower scores than Bakke (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978). Bakke filed a suit against the University of California based on the violation of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978; U. S. Const. amend. XIV). The U.S. Supreme Court found that the fixed number of 16 was invalid under the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978; U. S. Const. amend. XIV). Ultimately, the U.S. Supreme Court held that a university's use of racial quotas in its admissions process was unconstitutional, but that a school's use of affirmative action to accept more minority applicants was constitutional under certain circumstances given that race could be considered a factor and that not all the criteria were equally weighted (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978).

Another significant ruling relating to affirmative action was *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education* (1986), which was often regarded as the seminal case for the “strong-basis-in-evidence standard” for affirmative action programs. Schwartz (1987) stated that from 1968 to 1969, Black students were 15.5% of the student population while Black teachers represented 3.9% of the teaching staff in Jackson Public School in Michigan. Because of the gap among Black students and teachers, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) filed a complaint with Michigan Civil Rights Commission (*Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986).

Despite the recruitment efforts, Black teachers were among the first laid off because of seniority (*Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986). According to Schwartz, in 1972, a goal of the Jackson Public School system was to reverse the trend. The collective-bargaining agreement between the Jackson Public School Board of Education and the teachers’ union provided that if it became necessary to lay off teachers, those with the most seniority would be retained, except that “at no time will there be a greater percentage of minority personnel laid off than the current percentage of minority personnel employed at the time of the layoff” (Schwartz, 1987, p. 527). After this layoff provision was upheld in litigation arising from the Board of Education’s noncompliance with the provision, the Board of Education adhered to it (*Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986). The result was that during certain school years, non-minority teachers were laid off, while minority teachers with less seniority were retained (Schwartz, 1987).

In 1974, the Jackson Public School District laid off White teachers who had more seniority, who then sued claiming a denial in equal protection (Schwartz, 1987). The district and court of appeals ruled that Jackson Public School’s plan of terminating

teachers for economic and past racial discrimination was valid (Schwartz, 1987).

However, the U. S. Supreme Court reversed the ruling and argued that deciding whom to lay off based on racial discrimination was unconstitutional (*Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986). Furthermore, the U.S. Supreme Court found that these preferential considerations were considered a legitimate attempt to remedy societal discrimination by providing role models for minority school children (*Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986).

The case, *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1* (2007), involving voluntary integration efforts, was about assigning students to a particular school based on race. According to *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1* (2007) the Seattle School District segregated its schools so that the racial composition of the school district as a whole was racially balanced (*Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007). One of the students attempted to transfer to another school within the district and was denied based on the school district's racial composition plan (*Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007). The student's parents sued the Seattle School District on the grounds that the plan violated the student's 14th Amendment rights (U. S. Const. amend. XIV), which guaranteed equal protection (*Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007). *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1* (2007) went to the U.S. Supreme Court, which ruled that public schools might not constitutionally rely exclusively on a student's race in assigning him or her to a particular school to achieve racial balance. Nonetheless, the U.S. Supreme Court did recognize in this case that seeking diversity and

avoiding racial isolation were compelling interests of the state (*Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007).

Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin (2016) was the second suit against the University of Texas allowing them to use the race of its applicants to diversify their student body. The University of Texas had a unique system, in which the top 10% of students from each of the high schools in Texas were guaranteed admission (Barnes, 2016). Many of Texas' high schools had predominantly Black and Latino populations, which ensured diversity among University of Texas's student body (Barnes, 2016). Abigail Fisher, who was White and not in the top 10% of her class, brought a suit against the University of Texas, and had to compete with the other in-state applicants who were not in the non-top 10% of their respective classes (*Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin*, 2016). According to Barnes (2016), Fisher sued the University of Texas in 2008 because she was denied admission to the University of Texas based on the admission policy, which she argued violated the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment (U. S. Const. amend. XIV) because of discrimination against her race (*Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin*, 2016). The U.S. Supreme Court ruled 4 to 3 in the favor of the University of Texas, and held that the university could use race as a determining factor in diversifying its student body (*Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin*, 2016). Because of the ruling, affirmative action in regard to universities using race as a factor was constitutional (*Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin*, 2016). The court decisions *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978), *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1* (2007), and *Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin* (2016) showed that schools can use race as a factor for diversify their schools.

Affirmative action had a history of abating discrimination in regard to employment in the private and public sectors (e.g.; Civil Rights Act, 1964; Executive Order No. 19025; Executive Order No. 11114, 1963; *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007). The history of affirmative action included executive orders, statutes, an agency to enforce the law, and court rulings. The executive orders signed by Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson were designed to end discrimination in the private and public sectors (Executive Order No. 19025; Executive Order No. 11114, 1963; Executive Order No. 11246, 1965). The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was designed to ensure that the discrimination did not occur (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, n.d.). The rulings related to affirmative action occurred as a result of challenging equity or equality within the public sector (*Bakke*, 1978; *Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin*, 2016; *Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, 2007; *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 1986). The next section in this literature review was based on why Black educators need to be recruited and the steps that were done to recruit them.

Recruiting Black Educators

One method of increasing the number of Black teachers and principals was through the recruiting process. This section provided the barriers school districts experienced in recruiting Black teachers, namely because of teacher certification exams. This section also provided programs that were created by colleges, universities, and school districts to increase the number of Blacks in the profession.

Goldhaber and Hansen (2010) investigated whether Praxis II exams were consistent across various teacher demographic groups. The data used in Goldhaber and

Hansen's study was from the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction administrative records that covered an 11-year period from 1994-1995 through 2004-2005. The sample included 4,051 teachers and 174,828 students (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010). Goldhaber and Hansen found that the Praxis II did not function differently between demographic groups. The study also found that regardless of the teachers' race, the Praxis II exam did not function as a good screen for teaching effectiveness in reading, but worked reasonably well as a screen for effectiveness in math (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010). Moreover, a disproportionate number of Black teacher candidates did not pass the Praxis II exam (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010).

Nettles, Scatton, Steinberg, and Tyler (2011) focused on the under-representation of Blacks in the teaching pool and teacher candidates' performance on Praxis I and II exams. The data was taken from 28 states, where White (84%) and Black (11%) candidates made up the vast majority of the first time test takers. The quantitative data used in Nettles et al. came from Praxis test schools. Nettles et al. found that Whites had scored significantly better on the Praxis I and II exams and the study suggested that use of grade point averages of potential teacher to certify preservice teachers could produce the same results. Nettles et al. argued that grade point averages from potential teachers reflected the same results from students who took the Praxis tests (e.g. if student did well in their studies, they would do well on the test). The qualitative data came from interviews from teacher and faculty candidates at seven campuses in which four were Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) (Nettles et al., 2011). At the time of the interviews, the students preparing to be teachers reported that time limits and test vocabulary were an issue, online essay practice and face-to-face groups were helpful,

older and career changers struggled with U.S. history and culture questions, and more training was needed for testing (Nettles et al., 2011). Education faculty reported that they encouraged their students by “hand holding” and encouragement (Nettles et al., 2011). The faculty also stated that Black candidates needed help with basic mathematics, reading comprehension, application of knowledge, time management, and attention to detail (Nettles et al., 2011). Nettles et al. pointed out several methods to improve minority candidates’ success on Praxis exams. The recommendations included: better alignment of high school curricula with Praxis I, help teacher candidates understand the skills, knowledge and strategies for the Praxis tests, and understand the content on the exam and provide the students information regarding where to look for help (Nettles et al., 2011).

Furthermore, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and an increasing need for credentials had an adverse impact on recruiting Black teachers (Gursky, 2002). Gursky (2002) reported that a significant challenge in recruiting Black teachers was the gap in passing rates on Praxis examinations and mandatory state teacher certification exams. According to Gursky, Blacks tended to score lower than other ethnic groups. The passing rate on the Praxis examination for White candidates passing was 82%, whereas Blacks passed with a 46% rate nationally (Gursky, 2002). Alston (1988) suggested that there were two reasons for the low Black test scores. First, it could be because of poor preparation Black teachers received at the elementary and secondary school levels (Alston, 1988). Secondly, Alston stated that general education and teacher education programs had not prepared the preservice teachers well.

This problem with standardized testing was a phenomenon that goes back several decades. During the 1980s, Black teacher candidates also had issues with passing state teacher licensure exams (Alston, 1988). Alston (1988) recorded that in 1987, in the state of Texas, 51% of Black candidates passed in comparison to Hispanics and Whites who scored 65% and 91% respectively on the same test. In the state of California, Blacks had a 36% pass rate, compared to Hispanic (50%) and White candidates (82%) (Alston, 1988). It was inferred that the disproportionate underrepresentation of Black educators in public schools was, at least to some extent, exacerbated by their lower pass rates on state teacher licensure exams (Alston, 1988). However, Alston contended that teacher programs at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) had increased teacher-passing rates on teacher licensure exams to above 80%.

Bennett, McWhorter, and Kuykendall (2006) examined Latino and Black undergraduates attending a Big Ten university and their perspectives on taking the Praxis I exam. The framework for the study included: ethnic identity development, stereotype threat, cultural continuity/discontinuity, and bias in standardized testing (Bennett et al., 2006). The study employed a mixed methods approach and had 44 participants, seven of which were Black males (Bennett et al., 2006). The study pointed out disparities in the Praxis I exam, and the researchers argued that it was an inequitable Teaching Education Program (TEP) admission tool because it established a single standard to assess the capabilities of talented students, many of whom were afforded unequal access to key knowledge areas needed to pass the exam (Bennett et al., 2006). The study concluded that colleges should offer alternative routes to certify minority certifications (Bennett et al., 2006). Colleges could wave the teacher licensure exams if recruits scored 1,000 or

higher on the SAT test, pretest all potential teachers, and ascertain whether they need additional help in reading, math, and writing (Bennett et al., 2006). Bennett et al. also stated that colleges should provide unlimited time for students whose first language is not English, provisionally accept students who had high grade point averages and if they did not pass the teachers' exam, allow them the opportunity to create portfolios instead. Finally, colleges should reevaluate the cutoff or passing scores on teachers' exams (Bennett et al., 2006).

Gitomer and Qi (2010) examined trends on the Praxis II exams from 1999 to 2006. The data examined included scores from all 50 states, along with demographic factors such as gender, race, and years of experience (Gitomer & Qi, 2010). Gitomer and Qi found that Blacks scored lower than Whites who took the same exams (Gitomer & Qi, 2010). Gitomer and Qi wrote that White candidates who had passed the Praxis II had higher mean scores than Black candidates. Based on the findings presented by Gursky (2002), Alston (1988), Bennett et al. (2006), and Gitomer and Qi, it appeared that Black applicants did not do well on both teacher licensure and Praxis exams.

In addition to teacher licensure exams, there were other factors that influenced Blacks to leave or not seek education as a career. Lewis (2013) investigated why Black males in rural communities did not pursue education as a major or career. Using qualitative methodology with a phenomenological design, Lewis interviewed six Black males and observed the economic, academic, social, and cultural factors that affected them. The study found five barriers that precluded Black males from being teachers, including stereotypes of Black males, motivation to teach, problems in the classroom, working conditions, and trying to encourage other Black males to teach (Lewis, 2013).

Alston (1988) researched actions that school districts, colleges offering teacher education as a major, and teacher certification boards could employ to recruit more Black teachers. Alston stated that Black teachers could be recruited by gathering information from teacher candidates at colleges, creating a task force that focused on recruiting Blacks, and lobbying for fiscal support to improve minority participation in recruitment efforts.

One of the findings for King (1993) was the strategic recruitment effort. The sample population from King's study was 41 Black teachers. King used a mixed methods study that used questionnaires with follow up interviews. One of the participants from King's study suggested that practicing teachers go directly to colleges and encourage minority students to seek teaching careers. Other respondents stated that school systems sponsor neighborhood teacher recruitment and high school educational career programs (King, 1993). Other insights from the study included better working conditions, more teacher participation in school-wide decision making, substantial salary increase, and a multi-step career ladder (King, 1993).

Talbert-Johnson (2002) proposed that schools use both traditional and non-traditional methods to recruit Black teachers. Non-traditional methods included linking para-educators with teachers, developing partnerships with educational programs to recruit Black students early on in their careers, involving parents, using peer contacts, and utilizing mass media (Talbert-Johnson, 2002).

Watkins (2011) studied strategies used by school district officials in the state of Georgia to increase the number of Black teachers. Watkins's sample came from nine public school districts (three rural, three urban, and three suburban school districts),

which had at least 5% growth in Black teacher hiring from 2000-2007. Watkins's methodology was qualitative research study, in which the participants were interviewed by 14 semi-structured core protocol questions. The school districts in the study reported the following strategies used to recruit Black teachers: district partnerships with colleges and universities, recruiting teachers at job fairs, use of Teach Georgia Website, developing grown your own strategies, use of local school district websites, target Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), use of word of mouth recruiting, alternative teacher education programs, recruiting from paraprofessional pool, use teacher pay incentives, federal funds, Title I and academic incentives, and recruiting of military retirees and spouses (Watkins, 2010). Watkins found that the overall challenges the school districts had were based on funding. The school districts did not have the funds to fully implement the strategies listed (Watkins, 2010). Watkins discovered that five major themes emerged, which were tight budgetary conditions, competition from larger and more affluent neighborhoods, lack of financial incentives to compete with other school districts, geographical location of the school districts, and lack of available Black teachers.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) developed programs specifically designed to recruit Black male educators (Henry, 2001). Henry (2001) reported that Mentors Instructing Students Toward Effective Role Models (Call Me Mister), which was founded at Clemson University and spread to 14 campuses across the state of South Carolina, offered participants in the program full college tuition, room and board, and a stipend in exchange for teaching in South Carolina for four years after graduation (Henry, 2001). The program was designed to increase the number of Black

teachers in South Carolina, preferably males (Henry, 2001). As Henry stated, one out of three people in the state were Black, but Black males represented 1% of the states 20,000 elementary school teachers. In another state, according to Kansas State University (2018), approximately 20% of the MISTERS at their campus received “Teacher of the Year” honors and one was honored as “District Teacher of the Year.” Kansas State University reported that program made a concerted effort to insure graduates achieve suitable placements upon completion of the college program. Also, some of the graduates of the program were beginning their 11th year of teaching (Kansas State University, 2018).

Irvine and Fenwick (2011) provided a framework for a discussion regarding the role HBCUs had on teachers and teaching for the new millennium. According to Irvine and Fenwick, HBCUs had the potential to make a significant difference in recruiting, retaining, and developing teachers for high need schools. Irvine and Fenwick noted that HBCUs were uniquely qualified to address the challenge of high need schools. Irvine and Fenwick concluded that policy makers should provide HBCUs with supports such as research based educational programs and funds for new teacher initiatives, invest in teacher recruitment efforts at middle and high schools, assist with recruiting more Black male teachers, provide more federal scholarships and teacher forgiveness loan programs, help with recruiting traditional and non-traditional students for teacher education, develop a statewide strategy for eliminating racial disparities for pass rate on teacher licensure exams, and support teacher education programs built on university-school district collaborations that focused on the induction and retention of novice teachers.

Additionally, the North Carolina Teaching Fellows Program was created in 1986 by business and education leaders and funded by the General Assembly (Fitzsimon, 2015). The purpose of the program was to provide North Carolina's top students with scholarships to become teachers (Fitzsimon, 2015). Fitzsimon (2015) stated that program had over 11,000 students who participated, 8,500 graduated and headed into schools in all 100 counties in North Carolina. Approximately, 80% graduated from the North Carolina Teaching Fellows program and continued teaching once the four-year commitment was over and two-thirds stayed as teachers after six years (Fitzsimon, 2015). Unfortunately, according to Fitzsimon, "when Republicans took control of the General Assembly in 2011, they ended annual appropriation to the Teaching Fellows Program" (p. 1). The republicans ended the program without providing any logical reason for their decision (Fitzsimon, 2015). However, in 2017, the North Carolina Teaching Fellows program was reestablished (North Carolina Teaching Fellows, 2017). According to the North Carolina Teaching Fellows, the goals were to recruit, prepare, and support students residing in North Carolina that attend schools of higher education. Additional goals of the program included providing preparation for STEM or special education teachers (North Carolina Teaching Fellows, 2017). The program provided North Carolina high school seniors' forgivable loans of \$8,250.00 for up to three years (North Carolina Teaching Fellows, 2017).

Troops-to-Teachers was a program established in 1993 that was designed to transition service members and veterans into beginning new careers as teachers in K-12 schools (Department of Defense, n.d.). Blacks made up 25% of the Troops-to-Teachers program (Lewis, 2013). Owings, Kaplan, Khrabrova, and Chappell (2014) examined

whether the participants from the Troops-to-Teachers program were meeting goals such as job placement, teaching critical needs subjects, utilizing researched based instructional and classroom based practices, and the reasons for why they left the profession. The number of participants for Owings et al.'s study was 4,157 teacher participants, in which 780 were Black. The study also had 517 administrators, however, Owings et al. did not indicate race numbers for administrators. The methodology for the study included questionnaires for teachers and principals (Owings et al., 2014). Owings et al. had several findings, which indicated 84% of the participants' first teaching assignments were in urban schools and a large percentage of the participants taught high-needs content areas. Additional findings from Owings et al. included two-thirds of the participants completed 14 out of 17 researched based instructional practices. Furthermore, 40% of the participants stated that they would stay in education over 10 or more years (Owings et al., 2014).

In addition to universities' recruitment programs, alternative methods at the high school level were created to bolster the recruitment of Black males. Hunter-Boykin (1992) analyzed a high school program that recruited Black males in education. The Teach Professions program was designed to recruit Black males in grades 9 to 12 (Hunter-Boykin, 1992). The program reported that the number of Black applicants grew from 27 in the first year to 52 in the second, and 60 in the third year (Hunter-Boykin, 1992). The retention of the students involved moved from 56% in the first year to 53.8% in the second year, and 73.3% in the third year (Hunter-Boykin, 1992). Although the findings in the study did not report whether the students actually became teachers, it

indicated an interest and substantiated the strong possibility of adding more Black males to the education profession (Hunter-Boykin, 1992).

Valenzuela (2017) also analyzed high school programs such as Grow Your Own, which was designed to recruit and retain minority teachers. Cera (2017) stated that Grow Your Own was created out of concern for the supply of teachers and to centralize recruiting. Since 1985-1986 school year, more than 60,000 students participated in the Grow Your Own program (Cera, 2017). Valenzuela stated that students who were a part of Grown Your Own were able to take a dual course taught by a certified teacher who exposed them to the education profession. Students also participated in field experiences, classroom observations, reflections, and self-assessments. Cerra reported that Black teacher cadets represented 26.73% of the teacher cadets.

As the literature showed, recruiting Black educators was a challenge for school districts. One of the main reasons why Black educators were hard to recruit was because of the certification process (Alston, 1988; Bennett et al., 2016; Gitomer & Qi, 2010; Gursky, 2002.) Statistically, Black educators did not pass the teacher licensure exams at the same rate as White and Hispanic teachers (Alston, 1988; Bennett et al., 2016; Gitomer & Qi, 2010; Gursky, 2002; Nettles et al., 2011). To increase the number of Black educators, colleges and school districts created programs to increase the number of Black teachers (Cerra, 2017; Department of Defense, n.d.; Kansas State University, 2018; Lewis, 2013; Martin, 2011; Owings et al., 2014; Talber-Johnson, 2002). The next section focuses on the retention of teachers.

Teacher retention

The retention of Black teachers was important for several reasons. Black teachers have been a historically underrepresented group in public schools (Bitterman, Goldring, & Gray, 2013; Feistritzer, 2011; United States Department of Education, 2016). Black educators were teachers, role models, counselors, disciplinarians, and surrogate parents for Black students (Griffin & Tackie, 2016; Milner & Howard, 2004). Black educators were also the leaders of the Black community (Tillman, 2006). As the research shown, as the representation of Black teachers declined, they had a less significant role in educating Black children (Green, 2004; Randolph, 2004). This section provided data regarding Black teacher attrition, satisfaction, and retention.

The attrition of Black educators was found in the statistics from 2003-2004 and 2011-2012 school years. During these periods, the number of Black teachers dropped nationally (National Center of Educational Statistics, 2004; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2012b). During the 2003-2004 school year, the National Center for Education Statistics (2004) pointed out that the number of White teachers represented 83.1% of the nation's teachers. In the same survey, Black teachers made up 7.9% of the profession nationally. Eight years later the number of White teachers increased and the number of Black teachers dropped slightly (National Center of Educational Statistics, 2012b). Out of the total number of teachers nationally, which stood at 3,385,200 in 2012-2013, the percentage of White teachers was at 81.9% while the number of Black teachers was at 6.8% (National Center of Educational Statistics, 2012b). The numbers shown did not indicate a significant increase, but rather pointed out the large disparity among the representation of White and Black teachers nationally.

When looking at Pennsylvania, similar results were recorded among the percentages of White and Black teachers. During the 2003-2004 school year, Pennsylvania reported the number of White teachers was 91%, whereas the number of Black teachers was at 6% (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2004). However, according to National Center for Educational Statistics (2012b), during the 2011-2012 school year, the number of Pennsylvania teachers stood at 148,800. Of that number, 95.7% of the teachers were White compared to less than 2.9% of the teachers who identified as Black (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2012b). The number showed a drop of over half of the Black teachers in Pennsylvania at that time.

The disproportionate underrepresentation of Black teachers was not a recent trend. A review of the distribution of Black teachers between 1987-88 and 2011-12 provided by the National Center for Educational Statistics (2013b) showed that the number of Black teachers declined during that time period. In 1987-88, Black teachers represented 8.2% of the work force, and that percentage declined from the 1990s to 2012 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013b). The percentage dropped from a high in 1990-91 of 8.3%, and continuously fell from 1993-94 (7.4%), 1999-2000 (7.6%), 2003-2004 (7.9%), 2007-08 (7%), and 2011-12 (6.4%) (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013b). Based on the numbers provided, Black teachers dropped from 8.3% in 1990-91 to 6.8% in 2011-12, which constituted a 1.5% decrease (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013b).

Table 1

Distribution of Black Teachers between 1987-88 and 2011-2012 school years

| School Year | Percent of Black teacher distribution |
|-------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1987-1988 | 8.2 |
| 1990-1991 | 8.3 |
| 1993-1994 | 7.4 |
| 1999-2000 | 7.6 |
| 2003-2004 | 7.6 |
| 2007-2008 | 7.0 |
| 2011-2012 | 7.4 |

Note: The school years and percentage of Black teacher distribution was from National Center for Educational Statistics (2013b). All values represent percentages.

Goldring, Taie, and Riddles (2014) wrote about the attrition of teachers during the 2012-2013 school year. Goldring et al. pointed out that in the 2012-2013 school year, there were 3,777,900 teachers, which were 3,264,900 traditional public and 113,000 charter schools, which 229,400 were Black. During that year, 84.3% stayed in the profession while a total of 213,000 left. Of those that left, 26,900 were Black. The total number of White teachers who moved elsewhere (moved to another school to work) was at 7.5% and the same percentage left the profession altogether. The percentage of Blacks who stayed in the profession was 78.2%, but 10.1% stayed in the profession at the current school at which they were employed. However, 11.7% Black teachers left the profession all together (Goldring et al., 2014). Fifty-one percent of the teachers who left in 2012-13 left because the manageability of the workload was better in their new profession after teaching. Furthermore, during the 2012-2013 school year, teachers who had one to three

years' experience had the lowest numbers of stayers (80.4), the largest numbers of movers (12.5), and the second largest number of leavers with (7.1%) (Goldring et al., 2014). Only the group of teachers who had 20 years of experience or more had larger numbers of teachers leave the profession at 13.1% (Goldring et al., 2014). The data, however, did not indicate whether the 20 years or more group left because of retirement (Goldring et al., 2014). The teachers with four to nine years retained at 81.5% stayers, 11.7% moved on, and 6.8% left the field (Goldring et al., 2014).

Ronfeldt and McQueen (2017) investigated whether different kinds of induction supports predicted teacher turnover among nationally representative samples of first-year teachers. The sample in Ronfeldt and McQueen study were 13,000 full-time and part-time teachers of which 2,340 were in their first years of teaching in 2007-2008. The participants were also surveyed in 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012 school years (Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017). The study had several findings (Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017). One finding was that teachers who received induction supports were not likely to migrate to different schools or leave the profession after five years. Another finding pertained to Black teachers who were significantly more likely than White teachers to receive extensive induction supports based on need (Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017). In reference to support, Ronfeldt and McQueen found that induction supports such as supportive communication from school leadership, mentor programs, beginners' seminars and to a lesser degree collaboration/planning time were effective in reducing teacher attrition.

Ingersoll, May, and Collins (2017) researched the recruitment, employment, and retention of minority school teachers over the past decade. Ingersoll et al. used data from

National Center for Educational Statistics and Teacher Follow-Up Survey (TFS).

According to Ingersoll et al., there was a gap in the percentage of minority teachers and minority students; however, the gap persisted not because of recruiting, but because of turnover rates and attrition. From 1987 to 2012, the number of minority teachers had more than doubled and out paced the growth in nonminority teachers and minority students (Ingersoll et al., 2017). Ingersoll et al. found that minority teachers departed the profession because of organizational and working conditions in the schools. The organizational and working conditions were the level of collective faculty decision-making influence and the degree of individual classroom autonomy held by teachers (Ingersoll et al., 2017). The organization and working conditions were more significant than salary, professional development, and classroom resources (Ingersoll et al., 2017).

Achinstein, Ogawa, and Freitas (2010) examined retention rate and turnover for new teachers of color, which were Black, Hispanic, Asian, multiple races, American Indian or Alaska native, and native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander. Achinstein et al. argued that new teachers left the teaching profession at disproportionately high rates. Scrutinizing 70 studies, Achinstein et al. found that recent national studies pointed out that retention rates for Blacks were higher than those of White teachers. Achinstein et al. also found that policy-amenable school-level conditions related to financial, human, social, and cultural capital could affect retention. Teachers of color were more likely than White teachers to work at “hard-to-staff” urban schools (Achinstein et al., 2010). The urban schools had high proportions of students from low-income, non-dominant racial and cultural communities.

According to Boyd et al. (2011), many policies such as mentoring and retention bonuses were designed to reduce teacher attrition and schools with high turnover. In exploring teacher attrition, Boyd et al. examined school contextual factors and teacher retention decisions in New York City. The contextual factors included teacher influence over school policy, the effectiveness of school administration, staff relations, student behavior, facilities, and safety (Boyd et al., 2011). The participants for the study included 386 former teachers and 1,587 teachers from New York City (Boyd et al., 2011). The findings from Boyd et al. were from the survey instrument's responses from teachers who left the education profession. Boyd et al. found that teachers' perceptions of school administrators had by far the greatest influence on a teacher's decision whether or not to stay in the school or continue working as a teacher.

Renzulli, Parrott, and Beattie (2011) pulled from theories of race and organizations to examine the effects of public schools (traditional public vs. charter schools) and the racial mismatch between teacher satisfaction and teacher turnover. The study further examined the organizational differences between traditional public schools and charter schools that contributed to the systematic differences in satisfaction and teacher turnover (Renzulli et al., 2011). The sample for the study included White, Black, and Hispanic teachers, which included 31,170 traditional public schools and 1,760 charter school teachers. Renzulli et al. using data from 1999-2000 School and Staffing Survey data found that charter-school teachers were more satisfied than public-school teachers because of having greater autonomy. Charter schools allowed teachers to purchase textbooks, and have input regarding homework, evaluation procedures, content, and topics taught (Renzulli et al., 2011). However, the study also found that charter school

teachers were more likely to leave the profession than those in traditional public schools (Renzulli et al., 2011). According to the study, charter schools may suffer from higher turnover rates because of decreased level of unionization and the stability unions bring (Renzulli et al., 2011). Renzulli et al. concluded that teaching in racially mismatched schools also resulted in lower levels of satisfaction for White teachers.

Fairchild et al. (2012) examined the direct effects of relational demography had on job satisfaction. Fairchild et al. wrote, “Relational demography is conceptualized as a set of racial and gender congruency items between teachers and principals, teachers and teachers, and teachers and students” (p. 170). For example, Fairchild et al. explained that relational demography was based on comparing the number of teachers with the number of students using demographic information such as gender and race. The participants for the study included 8,665, which 7,366 were White and 1,299 were Black teachers (Fairchild et al., 2012). The methodology of the study was the SASS Public-School Teacher Questionnaire administered by the National Center for Educational Statistics during the 2003-2004 school year (Fairchild et al., 2012). The survey instrument had 83 questions and 421 items (Fairchild et al., 2012). First, teacher attitudes explained a greater amount of the variance related to job satisfaction than demographics such as age and gender (Fairchild et al., 2012). Fairchild et al. noted that supervisor support, autonomy, and procedural justice were positive associated with job satisfaction, while high job stress, student discipline problems, and lack of student motivation were sources of dissatisfaction for teachers. Fairchild et al. also found that when the racial composition of students was equal to or exceeds 70% of the student population and the

teachers share the same race with the majority of the students were associated with positive job satisfaction.

Evans and Leonard (2013) conducted a counter narrative qualitative study interviewing six Black teachers to determine their experience during teacher preparation and induction programs. The purpose of using counter narratives was to provide narratives from people who were marginalized and countered the dominant narrative (Evans & Leonard, 2013). The marginalized population/sample on whom Evans and Leonard focused were Black teachers who had less than three years teaching experience (Evans & Leonard, 2013). Evans and Leonard argued that although any teacher can be effectively trained to teach Black students, Black teachers could be more adept at motivating and engaging Black students. The participants for the study were five female and one male Black teacher (Evans & Leonard, 2013). The study found that Black teachers believed that their preparation and induction programs were high quality and prepared them well to teach in urban spaces; however, some of the participants had concerns about the quick immersion into the classroom (Evans & Leonard, 2013).

Finally, the study concluded why some novice teachers left the profession (Evans & Leonard, 2013). Some left because they were not able to become the creative teacher they wanted to be and trained to become (Evans & Leonard, 2013). Others left because of lack of support from their school district (Evans & Leonard, 2013). Of the six participants, two of them quit teaching after three years (Evans & Leonard, 2013). The teachers preferred scripted lessons and argued that the stress of the job and excessive testing caused them to leave the profession (Evans & Leonard, 2013). Evans and Leonard concluded that recruiting and retaining Black teachers to work with Black

students should be a national priority given the disproportionately high drop out rates among Black students, and college degree attainment among underrepresented students of color was below the national norm.

Farinde-Wu and Fitchett (2018) researched job satisfaction among Black teachers. The participants for the study included 128,532 Black female teachers (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018). The methodology for the study was a quantitative study using data from the 2007-2008 School and Staffing Survey to examine Black female teachers' job satisfaction (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018). The study found that Black female teachers preferred to work in urban and non-chartered schools (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018). Black female teachers chose urban schools based on characteristics that resembled their childhood communities (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018). Black female teachers did not support charter schools because of the heavier workload than traditional public schools (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018). The study also found that Black female teachers required administrative support, experienced positive behavior support, positive student behavior, and were committed to teaching (Farinde-Wu & Fitchett, 2018).

Madkins (2011) synthesized research on Black teacher retention. Madkins reviewed literature on Black teacher retention that was relevant to the factors influencing the current number of Black teachers in the workforce. Madkins pointed out that the factors that affect teacher retention included: inadequate educational opportunities, career opportunities in other fields, and standardized testing practices. In addition to reviewing the literature, Madkins wrote about alternative certification routes. Madkins argued that nontraditional programs had been successful in recruiting and retaining Black teachers.

Some of the programs included: Grow Your Own Illinois, the Metropolitan Milwaukee Teacher Education Program, and Boston Teacher Residency Program (Madkins, 2011).

Tillman (2005) conducted a case study on a principal's implementation and facilitating mentoring arrangements for a first year Black teacher. The participants in the study included a White principal, a Black female mentor, and a Black female teacher in an urban school (Tillman, 2005). The methodology for the study included journaling and group interviews (Tillman, 2005). The data collected from journaling and groups interviews were based on mentoring in urban schools, leadership practice in urban schools, teacher competence, teacher and principal expectations, and racial, cultural, and class issues in the urban school context (Tillman, 2005). The study found that the principal stressed that the teacher needed to work harder while the teacher believed participation in the study was a survival approach to save her career (Tillman, 2005). The teacher expressed issues with application of instructional techniques, classroom management, student discipline, and student achievement (Tillman, 2005). Tillman also indicated that the principal and teacher never conveyed their feelings about the study to one another. Tillman recommended that principals should make decisions regarding the practices, policies, and procedures that will guide the mentoring experience for a first-year Black teacher. Principals should also consider the backgrounds of preservice Black teachers while providing a mentoring experience. Principals should also reduce the isolation of first-year Black teachers by setting aside block times to interact with them at the beginning and throughout the school year. Finally, principals should be selective about the mentors and reflect on power issues that may be inherent in the mentoring relationships with a first year Black teacher.

Brown and Butty (1999) applied quantitative analysis to study 140 Black male teachers who were teaching in suburban schools outside of Washington, D.C., and Brown and Butty identified several reasons for their persistence. One of the motivating factors was that Black males could impart knowledge to their students (Brown & Butty, 1999). Black males' undergraduate degrees were a significant predictor for career choice based on the responses from 69 participants and whether they would stay in the profession for 10 or more years (Brown & Butty, 1999). Many of these Black teachers said that they chose teaching for a variety of reasons which included the opportunity to increase students' self-esteem, pride in their race, increased professional development training for Black teachers, and dissatisfaction with some White teachers who taught in predominantly Black schools during segregation (Brown & Butty, 1999).

Bristol (2014) examined Black male teachers' experiences that prompted them to consider a career in teaching. Bristol studied the conditions that affected their work place experience, and the factors that influenced them to stay or leave the profession and/or their schools. Using a qualitative analysis, Bristol interviewed 27 Black male teachers across 14 schools within the Boston Public School District. The study found that early experiences from teaching in high school, college, or teaching after graduation influenced them to join the profession. Bristol also unearthed the idea that having Black male faculty members had a positive impact (Bristol, 2014). Bristol also found that participants who were in schools in which, they were the only Black male teacher faced greater challenges. Bristol called those participants "loners" and described their issues with the school's overall conditions as the primary motivation for leaving. The participants who had other Black male faculty member colleagues were called

“groupers.” They faced similar obstacles, but ultimately identified their reason for leaving as administrative leadership and personal growth. The study concluded with 14 out of the 27 participants was looking for new positions the following school year.

Wimbush (2012) analyzed the shortage of Black males in education. Wimbush’s participants included five Black males, the study was qualitative phenomenological approach to understand the lives of the five participants. The study was done in the mid-Atlantic region and was based on addressing which factors attracted Black males to choose, what factors influenced the participants to remain, and what barriers the participants encountered upon entering and remaining in schools (Wimbush, 2012). One of the six findings that Wimbush presented was that Black males were motivated to stay in the profession because of relationships they had with their students, the community, parents, and their colleagues. The participants were motivated to stay in the profession because inspiring their students, the positive impact they had on their community, and being a strong role model for all of their students regardless of color were all important aspects of their careers (Wimbush, 2012).

Griffin and Tackie (2016) wrote about Black teachers’ perceptions of their students and how they influenced Black educators to stay in the profession. Griffin and Tackie’s sample for the study included 150 Black teachers in public schools from seven states. Eighty percent of the participants for the study were women, 20% were men, and one out of three had more than 15 years experience (Griffin & Tackie, 2016). The methodology for the study consisted of focus groups (Griffin & Tackie, 2016). The study had several findings (Griffin & Tackie, 2016). The study unveiled that the participants felt that they received lack of recognition from their colleagues and were not treated as a

valued member of the school or not treated as an equal to their White counter parts. Black teachers felt that they were perceived as subpar educators (Griffin & Tackie, 2016). Griffin and Tackie also pointed out that the participants gave back to the community, and taught Black students beyond the curriculum.

Wood (2001) researched the factors that influenced Black male teachers to choose education as a career choice. Wood's study utilized a mixed method approach using both survey instruments and interviews. The study examined 98 Black teachers from the Greater Philadelphia Area (Wood, 2001). Wood's study centered around four themes, which were exposure to Black teachers, encouragement by family, friends, and colleagues to become teachers and remain in the profession, the need for being a Black male role model, and the need and importance for diversifying the teaching force. Wood found several factors that influenced Black males' decision to pursue teaching. Those factors that emerged from the themes included the need for being role models for Black students and diversifying the teaching force (Wood, 2001). Other results included better recruitment efforts and increased salaries were found to help influence Black males' desire to pursue a teaching career (Wood, 2001). Wood also pointed out that one's undergraduate major had an impact on a participant's decision to pursue education as a career.

To aid in recruitment efforts, Wood (2001) suggested further research needed to be conducted on Black teachers who had persisted in the profession. Wood pointed out the importance of learning from Black males who had taught for more than 20 years, and stated that "finding a population of Black male teachers who had taught for more than twenty years provided further insight into possible reasons for them remaining in the

profession” (p. 161). Wood’s statement shed light on the importance of finding and researching the reasons for why Black teachers and principals stayed in the profession.

Peterson (2017) completed a study on factors that influenced Black teachers who remained in public K-12 schools between three to thirteen years (Peterson, 2017). The methodology for the study was a qualitative study grounded in phenomenology (Peterson, 2017). The participants for the study were six Black teachers, in which three were male and three were female (Peterson, 2017). Peterson had several findings. Peterson found that Black teachers stayed in the profession because of serving their communities and being role models to their students. Another finding was telling the truth about being Black (Peterson, 2017). Telling the truth about being Black referred to Black teachers being able to relate to their students because of having a similar race (Peterson, 2017). The final finding entailed that Black teachers stayed in the profession because of out performing the status quo (Peterson, 2017). Out performing the status quo was based on the rigor and expectations Black teachers had for all their students, especially their Black students because of being able to relate to them (Peterson, 2017). The next section described principal attrition rates and factors that were used retain principals.

Principal retention

This section described the retention of Black principals. Black principal representation, though statistically greater than Black teachers, was still significantly less than the representation of Black students (Feistritzer, 2011; United States Department of Education, 2012b; United States Department of Education, 2016). This section included literature on Black principals as well as literature on principals in general. There was very limited research on the retention of Black principals. The literature in this section

that did not identify the principal(s) as being Black identified them as a principal. This section presented the attrition and retention of principals and Black principals.

The statistical rate of attrition rates of Black principals was found in the literature (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a). Black principals had significant numbers of them leave the education profession (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2013a), there were 89,920 principals in publicly funded K-12 schools during the 2008-2009 school year. Of that number, 68,900 (79.5%) principals stayed in the profession whereas 6,210 (6.9%) moved to other schools, and 10,240 (11.9%) left the profession all together. During the 2012-2013 school year, the number of principals in publicly funded K-12 school dropped to 89,530 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a). The number of principals that stayed in the profession dropped to 69,320 (77.4%) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a). The number of principals who left slightly increased to 6,230 (7.0%) and the number of principals who left all together slightly dropped to 9,320 (11.4%) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a).

The representation of Black principals varied in national and Pennsylvania statistics. The percentage of Black principals nationally, according to National Center for Education Statistics (2008), was 10.6% of the 90,470 principals. The number of principals nationally decreased to 89,810 and the representation of Black principals dropped to 10.1% (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012a). Pennsylvania, during the 2007-2008 school year had a total of 3,190 principals and of that number 7% were Black (National Center for Education Statistics, 2008). The number of principals in

Pennsylvania decreased to 3,160 and of that number, the number of Black principals decreased to 6.6% (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012a).

Unlike the trend of Black teachers from 1987-88 to 2011-2012, Black principals during that same time period had growth (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013b; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016). The National Center for Educational Statistics (2016) reported that in 1987-88, Black principals represented 8.5% of the work force, and that percentage increased from the 1990s to 2012. The percentage increased from 1990-91 (8.6%), 1993-94 (10.1%), 1999-2000 (11.0%), 2003-2004 (10.6%), 2007-08 (10.6%), and 2011-12 (10.1%). See Table 2 for details.

Table 2

Distribution of Black Principals between 1987-88 and 2011-2012 school years

| School Year | Percent of Black principal distribution |
|-------------|---|
| 1987-1988 | 8.5 |
| 1990-1991 | 8.6 |
| 1993-1994 | 10.1 |
| 1999-2000 | 11.0 |
| 2003-2004 | 10.6 |
| 2007-2008 | 10.6 |
| 2011-2012 | 10.1 |

Note: The school years and percentage of Black principal distribution was from National Center for Education Statistics. (2016). All values represent percentages.

School Leadership Network (2014) reported on the high cost of principal turnover. School Leadership Network wrote that principals leave the profession because

of workload and extensive managerial tasks prevent more instructional leadership efforts. Additionally, there were extensive personal costs such as long hours and a significant toll to their physical and psychological well-being and profound isolation on the job. Moreover, local and state policies tied principals' hands in hiring, firing, and funding allocation. To attempt to reverse the trend of leadership leaving the profession, School Leadership Network advised that there be continued investment leadership beyond the principal pipeline, principals should be engaged in authentic peer networks, provided one-on-one coaching support beyond the first two years, and revised the structure and a purpose of district office principal supervisors' roles.

Pounder, Galvin, and Shepherd (2003) pointed out that there were multiple independent and interactive factors that have may contributed to the perceptions or misperceptions regarding the administrative shortages. The factors Pounder et al. recorded were the complexities of supply and demand data, inferential errors and over-generalizations, candidate quantity issues confounded by anecdotal accounts of candidate quality, administrator accounts of limited job desirability, and the invisibility of women as viable candidates. Furthermore, Pounder et al. researched an explanation for perceptions and misperceptions about administrative shortages and concluded that the factors were dominated by politics. Depending on the ideology, educator shortage can be defined as a lack of licensed educators or an inability to supply enough qualified individuals to teach (Pounder et al., 2003).

Papa (2007), using a multivariate analysis of a large panel dataset, examined the determinants of principal retention and attrition. The model used in the study incorporated measures of a principal's traits, the organizational structure, culture, and

situational context within the school (Papa, 2007). The panel discussed salary, school characteristics, principal traits, and policy implications (Papa, 2007). Papa found that schools with a higher proportion of at-risk students and less qualified teachers were disadvantaged in their ability to retain principals. Another finding suggested that higher salaries might compensate for the disparities (Papa, 2007).

Tran (2017) wrote about the impact of pay and principal turnover retention. The participants for Tran's study were 156 principals (107 men and 49 women) from California who completed a pay satisfaction questionnaire. The study found that salaries of comparative peers influenced the high school principals' pay satisfaction (Tran, 2017). Pay satisfaction included: pay level, pay raises, pay benefit, and pay structure (Tran, 2017). Tran also found that there were negative correlations between pay satisfaction and intent to turnover. Essentially, Tran indicated that principals who were unhappy with their salaries were more likely to leave the profession.

Ni, Sun, and Rorrer (2015) compared the principal turnover rates of traditional public schools with charter schools. The methodology for the study used longitudinal data from Utah schools from 2004 to 2011 (Ni et al., 2015). During the study, Ni et al. used the Aalen-Johnson estimator and discrete-time competing risk models to analyze the principal turnover rates and transition patterns in charter schools as they compared with traditional public schools. The study also took into consideration the school contextual and principal background factors, which contributed to principal turnover (Ni et al., 2015). Ni et al. found that charter schools had a higher turnover rate than traditional public schools. When charter school principals left the profession, they tended to move into careers outside of education (Ni et al., 2015). However, public school principals,

when they left, became principals in another schools (Ni et al., 2015). Ni et al. pointed out that principal position in charter schools could be compared to a stopping point whereas traditional public school principal positions were portrayed as a stepping-stone to another administrative positions.

Pijinowski, Hewitt, and Brady (2009) surveyed 197 superintendents concerning their views on principal shortages and factors associated with influencing recruitment and retention of school leaders. The findings from Pijinowski et al.'s study included superintendents often underestimated the principal candidate applicant pool in their own districts. Pijinowski et al. recommended that superintendents should find capable candidates within their own districts. Applicants tend to stop applying for a job after two years of unsuccessful job searching (Pijinowski et al., 2009). The findings also stated that compensation was the primary method of attracting qualified principal applicants (Pijinowski et al., 2009). Rural districts were at a disadvantage compared to urban and suburban schools in the search for new principals.

Taking the literature in a different direction, Vinzant (2009) drew attention to the negative perceptions of Blacks in mainstream society and how this image had affected Black educational leaders. Using critical race theory (CRT), Vinzant posited that race had been used to subordinate Blacks and explained that it was a key factor in decrease opportunities for Blacks. Prior racism and discrimination expressed by the Black community had a negative impact on the Black community's identity, especially in the realm of education. Specifically, Vinzant researched Black principals' perceptions of how their race, cultural, personal, and professional identities affected their leadership.

Using qualitative analysis, Vinzant interviewed 15 Black principals and completed focus groups.

The participants in Vinzant's (2009) study believed that their race affected every aspect of their identity and sense of a connection to the minority community (Vinzant, 2009). The participants of the study believed that they could not separate race from their identities and that they had to constantly prove themselves because of their race (Vinzant, 2009). They felt this way because they believed they could not do the job as good as White principals (Vinzant, 2009). Vinzant added that the literature supported this notion based on the negative historical perceptions of Blacks having less intelligence than Whites (Vinzant, 2009). This feeling influenced one of the participants to believe that being Black could cause one to doubt their abilities (Vinzant, 2009). The participants, on the other hand, felt a strong connection to the community because of living within the Black community, being able to communicate to Blacks because of sharing the same heritage and being able to connect with Black students (Vinzant, 2009).

Vinzant (2009) had another finding, which included promoting diversity and equity in schools. Vinzant pointed out that participants wanted to diversify their faculty and curriculum to promote positive images of Blacks and other minorities. The participants argued that diversifying the faculty and curriculum would break down negative racial stereotypes (Vinzant, 2009). Vinzant also found that the participants had a need for professional networking. One of the findings from the research showed that Black principals needed support, mentoring, role modeling, sharing ideas to help cope with the pressure of being a principal, and to help form leadership identities (Vinzant, 2009).

Cramer (2016) researched Black male principals who remained in their roles as principals for five or more school years. The participants for Cramer's study included 12 Black male principals and 12 central office staff that included Black and White males and females. The methodology for the study was grounded-theory design based on interview data (Cramer, 2016). Cramer found that Black principals stayed in the profession because of being a part of an affluent Black county, recruitment (role model for other Blacks and sense of ownership), retention (relational trust, invested in the district, diversity, and feeling comfortable) receiving supports from central office, community partners and business, peer-to-peer principal support, and well-planned and well-structured meetings. Other findings included relationships established throughout the district, informal and formal mentors, other leadership preparatory experiences, on going professional development opportunities, and their mission or obligation of the principal participants to serve the students and other educators in the field. (Cramer, 2016)

Summary

The review of the literature revealed a dire need for a greater representation of Black educators in the teaching profession. The theoretical framework that guided the foundation of this literature was Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation with insights from critical race theory (CRT). Maslow's theory of motivation was based on the needs that motivate people. As one fulfills basic needs such as hunger, thirst, or sex, they were able to seek higher needs that included belonging and love or self-actualization. The tenet of CRT that was used in this study was counter storytelling. Counter storytelling was based on explaining the participants' experiences that maybe different from the status quo.

Maslow's theory and CRT supported sections *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), white flight, and affirmative action. Those sections were included to explain how Blacks lives changed after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and explained the affect it had on Black teachers, principals, students, and the community. Those sections related to Maslow's theory based on how Black educators physiological and safety needs were affected by the ruling. For example, Black educators' loss of employment affected their ability to take care of their basic needs. In reference to counter storytelling, *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955) were expected to improve the lives of Blacks, but had adverse effects because of employment losses. White flight influenced property values to decrease and affirmative action was designed to increase the number of Blacks in all professions, but significant gaps in representation of Blacks in fields such as education continued to persist. In reference to sections the need for more Black educators, recruiting, and retaining of Black educators explained why Black educators were needed and the challenges of increasing their representation in education. The literature showed how Black educators were needed because of the role of being surrogate parents, role models, mentors, and leaders within the Black community, which supported Maslow's need of belonging and love. This study filled a gap on the research of retention of both Black teachers and principals. Majority of the research on Black educator retention wholly focused on Black teachers and not Black principals. Also, this study combined both Black teachers and principals, which most literature focused on each group separately. The next chapter describes the methodology for this study.

Chapter III — Methodology

Introduction

This study was based on researching the factors that influenced Black teachers and principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools. This study was significant because it added to the research on Black educators. The study also researched Black teachers and principals, which most studies focused solely on the retention of Black teachers.

This chapter outlines the methodology employed in this research dissertation. This chapter is organized into the following parts: statement of the problem, the selection of participants, research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, research design, population and sample selection, instrumentations, validity and credibility, reliability and trustworthiness, data collection procedures and management, and data analysis procedures.

Descriptive statistics from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were collected and analyzed to answer the research questions for this study. According to Loeb, Dynarski, Morris, Reardon, and Reber (2017), “Descriptive analysis can stand on its own as a research product, such as when it identifies phenomena or patterns in data that have not previously been recognized” (p. 1). The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were modified version’s of Aslami’s (2013) survey instrument. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments asked the participants questions regarding their retention and what factors would influence their attrition in the profession. The researcher used SPSS for

Windows to calculate and analyze the mean, standard deviation, one-sample t-test, and at significance level $\alpha = .05$ to find factors to answer the research questions.

The qualitative data came from semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interviews were voluntary and took place on a day and time that were convenient to the participants. The semi-structured interviews were audio-recorded using an electronic recorder and sent to a third party for transcription. After receiving the transcripts from the third party, the transcripts were sent via email to all of the participants and they were asked to indicate to the researcher if they had any corrections or additions to the transcripts. None of the participants responded with any issues. Next, the qualitative data was then coded and labeled to create themes after several cycles of analysis. After the researcher had the results from both the quantitative and qualitative data, the findings were then further analyzed to create concepts that answered the research questions. This section further explained the methodology, the data that was collected, and how it was analyzed.

Statement of the Problem

There was a significant difference among the representation of Black children and Black teachers and principals (Bitterman, Goldring, & Gray, 2013; Feistritzer, 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). Black children represented 16% (15.1% traditional and 27.6% charter school population) of the publicly funded K-12 schools in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a, 2014b; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Black teachers represented 7% of the national teaching force and 6.9% of it was in traditional public schools and 12.3% were in charter schools (Feistritzer, 2011; National Center of Education Statics, 2010; National Center for

Education Statistics 2012b; United States Department of Education, 2016). Of that number, Black male educators were less than 1% of teachers nationally (Feistritzer, 2011). Black principals represented 9.7% nationally in traditionally public schools and 18.3% in charter schools (Bitterman et al., 2013; United States Department of Education, 2016).

Pennsylvania also had a significant difference in the numbers of Black teachers, and principals compared to Black students (Boser, 2014; National Center for Statistics, 2012b; National Center for Statistics, 2008). Boser (2014) also reported the Black teachers represented 2% of Pennsylvania's teaching population, while Black students represented 16% of Pennsylvania's student population. The National Center for Statistics (2012a) listed that Black principals represented 6.6% of Pennsylvania's 3,160 principals. Based on these statistics nationally and in Pennsylvania, there were a significantly low number of Black teachers and principals compared to the number of Black students in publicly funded K-12 schools. Despite these statistics, Black teachers and principals continued to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools. This study sought to find the factors that influenced Black educators to stay in the education profession.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

Research question 1: Which factors influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching?

Research question 2: Which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses for this study were:

1. There were significant factors that influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching.
2. There were significant factors that influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education.

Research Methodology

The methodology for this study was mixed methods. According to Clark, Creswell, Green, and Shope (2008), “mixed methods research has three key features” (p. 364). First, the researcher merged both quantitative and qualitative data (Clark et al., 2008). Next, the researcher analyzed the two data sets in which quantitative focused on correlations, whereas qualitative focused on themes (Clark et al., 2008). Finally, the researcher merged (compare and contrast) the data from quantitative (correlation) and qualitative (theme) and developed an overall interpretation (Clark et al., 2008).

There were several advantages to using the mixed methods design. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003) stated that mixed methods could neutralize and cancel out limitations. Morse (2003) pointed out that mixed methods enabled readers to gather a complete picture of human behavior and experience. Morse also wrote that mixed methods studies allowed the research to develop comprehensively. Clark et al. (2008) added that mixed method analysis enabled the researcher to look at a phenomenon from multiple perspectives that used different, but complementary views that could provide a more complete understanding of the research problem (Clark et al., 2008). Other advantages to using mixed methods approach were potentially building a stronger

conclusion than single methods approach; building on a theory without having to change the overall design, increase the methodological rigor of the study by using multiple forms of validity, and an added value to the study with its overall persuasiveness and emphasis on practical application (Clark et al., 2008). This study used the mixed methods because of the aforementioned advantage points.

Research Design

The researcher gathered data from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. Both the teacher (Appendix A) and the principal (Appendix B) participants answered Likert Scale questions. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments used in this study were derived from Aslami (2013). Aslami's study was mixed method and researched teacher attrition in secondary schools in Afghanistan. This study used Aslami's survey instrument for both the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) surveys. The teacher and principal survey instruments were slightly modified for the study. The study added whether the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) participants worked at charter or traditional public schools. Next, on the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument, *principal* replaced the questions of the survey instrument, which pertained to *teacher*. The changing of the word *teacher* did not influence or change the validity of the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument. Permission to use the survey instrument is listed in Appendix H. The qualitative data came from the teacher (Appendix C) and the principal (Appendix D) participants being interviewed in a semi-structured format. The questions

for the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews are located in the appendix section of the document.

Population and Sample Selection

The selection of participants was limited to sampling of Black teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The participants in this study had five years or more experience in education. In Pennsylvania, teachers who have less than three years teaching attain the status of temporary professional employee (Public School Code of 1949, 1996). When a teacher has satisfactory status at the end of their third year, they are given the status of professional employee (Public School Code of 1949, 1996). The participants sought in this study were professional employees. To be a principal in Pennsylvania, a teacher needs at have a bachelor's degree or higher, complete an approved program that leads to certification, provides a chief school administrator's verification of the completion of three years of relevant professional experiences, render evidence of satisfactory achievement on required exams, and meet all requirements under Pennsylvania law (Pennsylvania Dept. of Education, n.d.)

The participants were selected from Snowball Sampling (Lunenburg & Irby, 2010). The researcher and other Black educators recruited other Black teachers and principals. Once the teacher (Appendix E) and principal (Appendix F) participants agreed to participate, they were asked to sign a teacher (Appendix E) or principal (Appendix F) consent form. The consent forms were given to them in person, via email, fax, or U.S. mail. The researcher received consent forms from a total of 37 Black teachers and 16 Black principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks,

Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. (Appendix E). The participants for the study were people who identified themselves as being Black. The researcher chose to include both teachers and principals to provide experiences from both groups.

The participants worked in schools that were from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and the New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The schools were classified as suburban or urban schools. Some of the schools had a low representation of Black students whereas other schools had a large representation of Black students. The majority of the schools came from school districts that had a student population of over 10,000 students. The school districts' range of spending per pupil varied from \$12,000 to \$23,000 per pupil. Most of the schools used in the study were traditional public schools; however, a few participants came from or had worked in charter schools prior to working for traditional public schools.

Instrumentation

The researcher gathered data from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments that contained Likert Scale questions for quantitative data and conducted semi-structured teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) interviews for qualitative data. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments had 10 questions with four parts. Question one on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were based on the participants' demographics. Questions two to six on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were Likert Scale questions. Questions seven to nine on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were open-

ended response questions. Question 10 on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments provided the participants the option of requesting an interview. The Likert Scales on the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments ranged from one to five, with one being most important and five being least important factor.

Once the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were approved, the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were uploaded to SurveyMonkey. Prior to sending the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments, the teacher and principal participants signed and delivered either a teacher (Appendix E) or principal (Appendix F) informed consent form in person, via email, fax, or U.S. mail to the researcher. Once the informed consent forms were collected, either the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were sent via SurveyMonkey to either the teacher or principal participants. Once the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were completed by either the teacher or principal participants, the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) were returned via SurveyMonkey to the researcher. When the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were received, SPSS for Windows was used to calculate the means, standard deviations, and one-sample t-test. The researcher used data from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instrument responses as well as the professional literature to create teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) interview protocol questions.

Next, the researcher set up teacher and principal semi-structured interviews. The teacher and principal participants requested on question 10 of the teacher (Appendix A)

and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments that they wanted to be interviewed. The teacher and principal participants provided their email for contact to set up dates and times. Of the participants who completed either the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) survey instruments, six teachers and five principals requested to be interviewed. The researcher reached out to the teacher participants who consented to be interviewed (Appendix C). After interviewing the teacher participants, the researcher then interviewed the principal participants who consented to be interviewed (Appendix D).

The 14 protocol teacher questions (Appendix C) and 14 protocol principal questions (Appendix D) were constructed from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instrument responses and professional literature. From the teacher (Appendix A) and the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument responses, the researcher created questions and asked probing questions that pertained to the teacher or principal participants serving their schools and community, barriers that kept other Blacks out of the profession, employment prior to teaching/or administration, their salaries, and family were discussed during the interviews. From the professional literature, the teachers (Appendix A) and principals (Appendix B) were asked questions that related to being role models, mentoring, community involvement, race, factors that influence them or others to leave the profession, and earning tenure were discussed. To avoid bias, the researcher did not ask specific questions and consulted and sent questions to committee members for approval before interviewing the teacher and principal participants. The teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) questions were created based on the participants formulating their own rationale for staying in the profession. The researcher

also bracketed himself by being interviewed by a doctoral candidate prior to interviewing the participants. The researcher answered the same questions as the teacher participants (Appendix C). This was done to help avoid the researcher's bias during the semi-structured interviews. During the semi-structured teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) interviews, the teachers and principals were asked probing questions if a topic was discussed that needed further clarification.

Validity and Credibility

Validity is considered essential for all scientific studies. According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), "Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure" (p. 181). Lunenburg and Irby pointed out that the instrumentation researchers use must either measure content, criterion-related, and construct validity. Of the three, construct validity was the most important (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). Most studies used content or criterion-related validity to determine the instrument used in a study's construct validity (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). For the purpose of this study, the instruments used in this study were derived from Aslami (2013) and slightly modified for both the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) participants.

Similar to validity, scientific studies also needed credibility in order to be a valid and authentic study. Lunenburg and Irby (2008) wrote that, "reliability is the degree to which an instrument consistently measures whatever it is missing" (p. 182). Lunenburg and Irby explained that reliability was based on studies being consistent and accurate. Reliability ensured whether the instrument produced the same or similar results if the study was done more than once (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). Studies that perpetually produced the same results were considered reliable and sound (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008).

Aslami's (2013) survey instrument was a valid instrument that was used to measure teacher attrition and factors for why teachers stayed in the profession. Aslami used two survey instruments (current and former teachers) as well as questions for open-ended responses. Aslami took several steps to validate the survey instruments. First, Aslami discarded 40 survey responses because of the principals' influences and the teacher respondents were not assured about the confidentiality of the survey. Next, at Teacher Training College, Aslami had help from the school's faculty and was able to find a sample of 70 participants. The 70 participants were able to respond without the school's influence and were more representative of the nine ethnic groups in Afghanistan (Aslami, 2013). For this study, teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews questions were used to answer research questions.

Reliability

According to Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003), mixed method study combined both quantitative and qualitative studies that allowed researchers to neutralize the weaknesses of both studies. The use of multiple studies had the ability of strengthening the research study (Creswell et al., 2003). The research methodology for this study was mixed methods. The reason for using mixed methods was based on the research instrumentation and the representation of the participants in Pennsylvania.

The research instrumentation for this study was a Quan-qual. A Quan-qual approach, according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), was a research study based on quantitative preliminary and a qualitative follow up. The research questions followed this format by including Likert Scale teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B)

survey instruments for quantitative and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) qualitative data. The instrumentation used in this study effectively answered the research questions. The questions used in this study were derived from Aslami's (2013) survey instrument, but they were slightly modified for both the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments. To gain reliability and credibility, the study used member checking.

The participants in this study represented a small demographic of the teaching community. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2012b), there were 148,800 teachers in Pennsylvania. Of that number, the National Center for Educational Statistics (2012b) listed Black teacher representation at less than 2.9%. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2012a), Black principals represented 6.6% of Pennsylvania's 3,160 principals. Because of these findings, quantitative study alone would not provide a valid or reliable representation of Blacks in the field. Mixed methods allowed the researcher to gain quantitative and qualitative data, which would be accurate given the number of Blacks compared to other teacher demographics in Pennsylvania.

Data Collection Procedures

Permission to conduct research on human participants was secured from the Neumann University Institutional Review Board (IRB) prior to the commencement of data collection. First, the researcher and other Black educators found Black teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The researcher or other Black participants met with the Black teachers and principals informally and formally

asked for their permission to be a part of the study. The teacher and principal participants received a letter of invitation (Appendix E). After receiving a letter of invitation (Appendix E), the teacher or principal participants were provided the teacher (Appendix F) or principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms for them to complete prior to participation in the study.

The teacher (Appendix F) and principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms were completed and collected via email, fax, or U.S. postal mail. After receiving the teacher (Appendix F) or principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms, the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were sent to the teacher and principal participants using SurveyMonkey. After completing the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) survey instruments on SurveyMonkey, the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were returned to the researcher using SurveyMonkey.

The timetable for collecting teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were from August 2016 until October 2016. At the end of October 2016, eleven participants (six teacher and five principal) were interviewed between the months October 2016 to November 2016. The eleven semi-structured took place at locations that were convenient for the teacher and principal participants. During the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews, the interviews were audio-recorded using an electronic recorder and sent to a third party for transcription. Next, the transcripts were sent via email to the teacher and principal participants and they were asked to indicate to the researcher if they had any corrections or additions to the transcripts. None of the participants responded with any issues.

After receiving the teacher and principal transcripts, the researcher began the data analysis procedure. First, the researcher analyzed the data collected from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instrument responses. After analyzing the quantitative data, the researcher analyzed the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interview data from the transcripts. Once both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed, they were combined to answer the research questions.

The data collected from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) transcripts will be safeguarded by a computer that is password protected. The teacher (Appendix F) and principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms will be locked in a file cabinet. The data collected from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) transcripts, and the teacher (Appendix F) and principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms will be saved for at least five years.

Data Analysis Procedures

The quantitative data analysis was based on collecting 53 survey instruments from Black educators from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. SPSS for Windows calculated and analyze the means, standard deviation, and one-sample t-tests for the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instrument responses. In order to test which factors were important or not important, a one-sample t-test was conducted with three as the mid-value. Next, students also used *d* to evaluate the degree that the mean scores on a test variable differed from the test value in standard deviation units.

The research analyzed the qualitative data after receiving the teachers' and principals' transcripts from a third party, the teachers' and principals' transcripts were analyzed through the coding process (Saldana, 2009). The coding process started with creating codes. According to Saldana (2009), "A code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (p. 3). The qualitative data for this study utilized *a priori* coding manual (Saldana, 2009). Prior to analyzing the transcripts, the literature review was analyzed to create *a priori*/open codes (Appendix I). The open codes (Appendix I) that were identified and were expected to be relevant to the topic and the establishment of themes. When an open code (Appendix I) was determined, the next step of the analysis was reading through the transcripts and highlighting similar codes and/or emergent codes/unfounded data for teachers (Appendix J) and principals (Appendix K) that were relevant to the research questions. Any open codes that were not found in the literature were labeled as teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes. Once the teacher (Appendix J), principal (Appendix K) emergent codes were identified, they were reapplied for second cycle of analysis. After the second cycle of analysis, the open (Appendix I), teacher (Appendix J), and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes were further analyzed to develop teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes. Teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes combined similarities between the open (Appendix I), and teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes. After establishing teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes, they were further analyzed to develop more generalized, comprehensive terms to capture the overall

experience of the teachers and principals. During this process, the experiences were encapsulated into teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) themes. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative findings allowed for additional reduction and established teacher (Appendix N) and principal (Appendix O) concepts, which answered the research questions.

Ethical Considerations

The participants in this study were treated with the utmost respect, and the study had safeguards, and protection of their identity. In this study, the researcher was cordial and respectful of the participants' time. Furthermore, there were no known potential risks or harm for the participants of this research project. The participants' names and schools were not provided in this study to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. The risk-to-benefit ratio was very small. The risks encountered in this research project were not greater than the probability or risks normally expected to be encountered in daily life. Finally, this dissertation followed the Belmont Report's principles of respect of persons, beneficence, and justice (Belmont Report, 1979). According to the Belmont Report (1979), respect for persons required that all participants enter the research voluntarily and protect those who cannot in good judgment be autonomous. Beneficence, on the other hand, referred to securing the participants well being and justice was based on fair and balanced treatment for the participants in the study (Belmont Report, 1979).

The privacy and confidentiality of the study participants was maintained during and after the research project. Personal information was not collected from the study participants. Information shared by the participants completing the survey instruments was voluntary. No photographs or videotapes were used in this research project. The

participants were free to give their consent, decline, or withdraw from the study at any time. Upon completion of the data analysis and summary of the survey instrument responses, the data from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments, teacher and principal transcripts will be saved for five years on a computer that is password protected and the teacher (Appendix F) and principal (Appendix G) informed consent forms will be locked in a file cabinet. Finally, no inducement, medication, treatment, cash, hospital care was needed or provided for this research project.

Assumptions

There were several assumptions that pertained to the study. First, it was assumed that the participants answered all questions truthfully. Next, the participants understood weighted measurement on the Likert Scales (one being least most important and five being least important). Finally, all of the participants were identified as being Black and taught or supervised in publicly funded K-12 schools for five or more years.

Limitations

This study invited and recruited 53 Black educators from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The data collected for this study was a sample of Black educators from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware and may not represent all Black teachers and principals. Next, the study only used Snowball Sampling to find participants for the study. Another limitation in the study was the representation of the number of teacher participants compared to the number of principal participants. The study had 37 teachers

and 16 principal participants. Based on the difference in the representation of teacher and principal participants, the study could not complete an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the quantitative data. Finally, the study did not intend to interview all Black teachers and principals from the aforementioned locations.

Delimitations

In addition to limitations, there were delimitations for this study. One of delimitations of this study was the use of survey instruments and semi-structured interviews. The researcher strongly felt that although there were other forms to gather data; however, enough data emerged from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The data collected from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews provided enough data to answer the research questions. Another delimitation of the study was the location in which the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interview data were collected. The researcher only collected data from participants who were from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. The researcher and the participants who recruited others to participate were from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware only recruited teacher and principals from those locations. Finally, there were delimitations in the analysis of the study when applying critical race theory (CRT). The

only tenet of CRT used in this study was counter storytelling. The other tenets were not related to the participants' experiences and were not applied in this study.

Summary

Chapter III discussed the selection of participants, the instrumentation that will be used, and the data collection procedures and analysis to answer the research questions. The research methodology section discussed how the data was used to address the purpose of the study. The methodology section also explained how the participants' identity would be protected and how the study provided no harm to the participants. Chapter IV is the results section, which includes the data (quantitative and qualitative) collection, analysis, and the findings of the study.

Chapter IV — Data Analysis

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to find the factors that influenced Black educators to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years. This chapter summarized and explained the factors that influenced the teacher and principal participants who remained in the education profession after five or more years. This study was considered important because it added to the literature on Black educators and their retention in the education field. This chapter presented a summary and analysis of the data in a non-evaluative, unbiased, organized manner that related to the research question(s) and/or hypotheses). Key components of this chapter included: descriptive data of the participants collected from the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) survey instruments and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews, the research questions, the data collected from the survey instruments, tables, data collected from the semi-structured interviews, analysis of the data, and summary.

The study was mixed methods and collected data from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and from teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were modified versions of Aslami's (2013) survey instrument. The survey instruments asked the participants questions regarding their retention and/or possible attrition in the profession. The researcher used SPSS for Windows to calculate and analyze the mean, standard deviation, one-sample t-test, and at significance level $\alpha = .05$ to find factors to answered the research questions. The

qualitative data were teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews that were voluntary and took place at a day and time that were convenient to the participants. The teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews were audio-recorded using an electronic recorder and sent to a third party for transcription. Next, after receiving the transcripts from the third party, the transcripts were sent via email to all of the participants and they were asked to indicate to the researcher if they had any corrections or additions to the transcripts. None of the participants responded with any issues. After receiving the teacher and principal transcripts, the qualitative data was then coded and labeled to create themes after several cycles of analysis. After the researcher had the results from both the quantitative and qualitative data, the findings were then further analyzed to create concepts, which answered the research questions.

Descriptive Data

The participants for the study came from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware.

Table 3

Gender and Cross Tabulation

| Count | Teachers | Principals | Total |
|--------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Women | 29 | 9 | 38 |
| Men | 8 | 7 | 15 |
| Total | 37 | 16 | 53 |

The study included 37 teacher and 16 principal participants. Twenty-nine of the teacher participants were women and eight of the teacher participants were male. Nine of the principal participants were women and seven were men.

Table 4

Community, Teachers, and Principals Cross Tabulation

| Count | Teachers | Principals | Total |
|--------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Urban | 29 | 11 | 40 |
| Suburban | 8 | 5 | 13 |
| Total | 37 | 16 | 53 |

Twenty-nine of the teacher participants came from urban schools and eight came from suburban schools. Eleven of the principal participants worked at urban or city schools, five worked at suburban schools.

Table 5

Type of School: Teachers and Principals Cross Tabulation

| Count | Teachers | Principals | Total |
|--------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Traditional Public | 30 | 11 | 41 |
| Charter | 7 | 5 | 12 |
| Total | 37 | 16 | 53 |

The participants included teachers and principals who worked in either traditional public or charter schools. Thirty of the teacher participants worked for traditional public schools and seven of the participants worked at charter schools. During data collection,

11 of the 16 principal participants worked at traditional public schools, whereas five of them worked at charter schools.

Data Analysis Procedures

The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments responses were analyzed by gathering the mean, standard deviation, and one-sample t-test. The teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments were divided into four parts which included: factors for why teachers or principals stay, factors for why teachers or principals' leave the profession, did they witness other teachers or principals leave the profession, and jobs other teachers and principals had after leaving the teaching profession. Three questions had a Likert Scale ranging from one to five, with one being most important and five being least important factor. A one-sample t-test was conducted at a significance level of $\alpha = .05$ was used to determine the level of significance. After the items were found to be significant, the midlevel (three) was applied to the items from the teacher (Appendix A) or principal (Appendix B) survey instruments to determine whether they were factors that applied to the study. Any items that had mean values of less than three were factors that answered the research questions.

For factors that were significant, the effect size, d was calculated using the

formula $d = \frac{\text{MeanDifference}}{SD}$. d evaluated the degree that the mean scores on a test variable differed from the test value in standard deviation units. If d equaled 0, the mean of the scores was equal to the test value. As d deviated from 0, the effect size became larger. Potentially, d could range in values from negative infinity to positive infinity. What was small versus a large d was dependent on the area of investigation. However, d

values of .2, .5, and .8, regardless of sign, were by convention interpreted as small, medium, and large effect sizes (Cohen, 1988).

The second part of the data analysis was qualitative data based on teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The teacher and principal participants voluntarily chose to be interviewed in a semi-structured format, in which the teachers answered 14 protocol questions (Appendix C) and the principals answered 14 protocol questions (Appendix D) along with probing questions for both groups. The teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews were audio-recorded using an electronic recorder and then sent to a third party for transcription.

The *a priori* coding manual was used for analyzing the teacher (Appendix C) and principal transcripts (Appendix D) (Saldana, 2009). The coding process started with creating codes. Prior to analyzing the teacher and principal transcripts, the literature review was analyzed to create *a priori*/open codes (Appendix I). These codes (Appendix I) were expected to be relevant to the topic and the establishment of themes. When an open code (Appendix I) was determined, the next step of the analysis was reading through the transcripts highlighting similar codes and/or emergent codes/unfunded data for teachers (Appendix J) and principals (Appendix K) that were relevant to the research questions. Any codes that were not found in the literature were labeled teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes. Once the teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes were identified, they were reapplied for second cycle of analysis. After the second cycle of analysis, the open (Appendix I) and teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes were further analyzed

to develop teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes. Teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes were based combining similarities between the open (Appendix I) and teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes. After establishing teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes, they were further analyzed to develop more generalized, comprehensive terms to capture the overall experience of the teachers and principals. During this process, the experiences were encapsulated into teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) themes. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative findings allowed for additional reduction and established teacher (Appendix N) and principal (Appendix O) concepts, which answered the research questions.

Teacher Participants

Quantitative results. Thirty-seven teachers participated in an online teacher (Appendix A) survey instruments administered by SurveyMonkey. The teacher participants were given the opportunity to answer or skip any question and/or to exit the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument at anytime without giving any reason. The teacher participants were asked to respond to nine questions: one was based on demographic information, four Likert Scale questions relating to factors, and four open-ended responses (Appendix A).

Research Question 1: Which factors influence Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching?

Selecting only teachers from the data set, one-sample t-tests were conducted to evaluate the items on the teacher (Appendix A) survey. The next part of the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument asked the participants whether they wanted to continue

in the teaching profession. After the participants answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each item from one being the most important to five being the least important. The items included: adequate salary, my significant other and I work together, I like teaching than other professions, I want to serve people through teaching, proximity of school to my home location, my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession, I can take care of my family with the teaching profession, I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically. The factors identified were: adequate salary, my significant other and I work together, I like teaching than other professions, and I want to serve people through teaching.

The sample mean of 2.50 ($SD = 1.05$) for adequate salary was significantly different from 3, $t(31) = -2.70, p = .01$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -.88 to -.12. The effect size d of .48 indicated a medium effect. Therefore, adequate salary was identified as a factor for why the participants stayed in the profession.

The sample mean of 4.50 ($SD = 1.34$) for my significant other and I work together was significantly different from 3, $t(31) = 6.313, p < .001$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from 1.02 to .98. The effect size d of 1.11 indicated a large effect. Based on the results, my significant other and I work together was identified as not being a factor for why the participants stayed in the profession.

The sample mean of 2.03 ($SD = 1.20$) for I like teaching than other professions was significantly different from 3, $t(31) = -4.55, p < .001$. A mean score of three or

higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.40 to -.53. The effect size d of .81 indicated a large effect. Based on the results, I like teaching than other professions was identified as a factor for why the participants stayed in the profession.

The sample mean of 1.94 ($SD = 1.37$) for I want to serve people through teaching was significantly different from 3, $t(31) = -4.40, p < .001$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.56 to -.57. The effect size d of .77 indicated a large effect. Based on the results, I want to serve people through teaching was identified as a factor for why the participants stayed in the profession.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviation, and Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Teacher participants' factors that would influence them to want to stay in Education

| Survey Question | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|--|----------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Adequate Salary | 32 | 2.50 | 1.047 | .185 |
| Proximity of school to my home location | 32 | 2.66 | 1.428 | .252 |
| My significant other and I work together | 32 | 4.50 | 1.344 | .238 |
| I like teaching than other professions | 32 | 2.03 | 1.204 | .213 |
| My family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession | 32 | 3.47 | 1.634 | .298 |
| I want to serve people through teaching | 30 | 1.94 | 1.366 | .298 |
| I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | 32 | 2.69 | 1.148 | .203 |
| I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | 32 | 3.25 | 1.518 | .268 |

Table 7

Teacher participants: One-Sample Tests for wanting to stay

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|--|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|------|
| Adequate Salary | -2.701 | 31 | .011 | -.500 | -.88 | -.12 |
| Proximity of school to my home location | -1.362 | 31 | .183 | -.344 | -.86 | .17 |
| My significant other and I work together | 6.313 | 31 | .000 | 1.500 | 1.02 | 1.98 |
| I like teaching than other professions | -4.550 | 31 | .000 | -.969 | -1.40 | -.53 |
| My family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession | 1.564 | 29 | .129 | .467 | -.14 | 1.08 |
| I want to serve people through teaching | -4.339 | 31 | .000 | -1.062 | -1.56 | -.57 |
| I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | -1.539 | 31 | .134 | -.312 | -.73 | .10 |
| I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | .815 | 31 | .421 | .219 | -.33 | .77 |

Question number three on the Likert Scale pointed out which factors influenced the teacher participants to want to leave the teaching profession. After the participants

answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each factor from one being the most important to five being the least important. The factors associated with questions three included: teacher salary was very low and long distance of school from home location. The other items from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument that were not identified as factors were my family lives in another city, state, or country, professional needs-lack of professional development opportunities for teachers, unequal work distribution or dual behavior from my supervisor or school principal, heavy workload of teaching, late payment of salary, disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their families, and family problems including childrearing.

The sample mean of 2.50 ($SD = 1.342$) for teacher salary was very low was significantly different from 3, $t(35) = -2.24, p = .032$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -.95 to -.05. The effect size d of .37 indicated a small effect. Based on the results, teachers salary was low was identified as a factor for why the participants would leave the profession.

The sample mean of 3.42 ($SD = 1.131$) for long distance of school from home location was significantly different from 3, $t(35) = 2.211, p = .034$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from .30 to .80. The effect size d of .37 indicated a small effect. Based on the results, a longer distance of the school from home location was not a factor for why the participants would leave the profession. See Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviation, Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Teacher participants' factors that would influence them to want to leave Education

| Survey Questions | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|---|----------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Teacher salary was very low | 36 | 2.50 | 1.342 | .224 |
| Long distance of school from my home location | 36 | 3.42 | 1.131 | .188 |
| My family lives in another city, state, or country | 36 | 3.22 | 1.692 | .282 |
| Professional needs-lack of professional development opportunities for teachers | 36 | 2.97 | 1.108 | .185 |
| Unequal work distribution or dual behavior from my supervisor or school principal | 36 | 2.56 | 1.403 | .234 |
| Heavy workload of teaching | 36 | 2.60 | 1.333 | .225 |
| Late payment of salary | 35 | 2.74 | 1.597 | .266 |
| Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their families | 36 | 3.00 | 1.394 | .232 |
| Family problems including child rearing | 36 | 3.17 | 1.363 | .227 |

Table 9

Teacher participants: One-Sample Tests for wanting to leave

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|--|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|------|
| Teacher salary was very low | -2.236 | 35 | .032 | -.500 | -.95 | -.05 |
| Long distance of school from my home location | 2.211 | 35 | .034 | .417 | -.03 | .80 |
| My family lives in another city, state, or country or deployment to other locations | .788 | 35 | .436 | .222 | -.35 | .79 |
| Professional needs: lack of professional development opportunities for teachers | -.150 | 35 | .881 | -.028 | -.40 | .35 |
| Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal | -1.901 | 35 | .066 | -.444 | -.92 | .03 |
| Heavy workload of teaching | -1.775 | 34 | .085 | -.400 | -.86 | .06 |
| Late payment of salary | -1.539 | 35 | .304 | -.278 | -.82 | .26 |
| Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their parents | .815 | 35 | 1.000 | .000 | -.47 | .47 |
| Family problems (including child rearing) | .815 | 35 | .468 | .167 | -.29 | .63 |

Question four asked teachers if they had witnessed teachers leaving the profession. After the participants answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each factor from one being the most important to five being the least important. Question four had the following factors: teacher low salary, deployment of teachers to remote schools in other city, states, or country, unequal distribution or dual behavior from their supervisor and/or school principal, and heavy workload of teaching. The other items from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument that were not identified as factors were problems in teaching because of lack of professional development, late reimbursement of their salaries, long distances of school from their home locations, family problems including childrearing, and long distances of school from teacher home location within the city, state, or country and lack of transportation.

The sample mean of 2.38 ($SD = 1.42$) for teacher low salary was significantly different from 3, $t(33) = -2.55, p = .02$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.11 to -.12. The effect size d of .44 indicated a small effect. Based on the results, teacher salary was very low was a factor for why other teachers would leave the profession.

The sample mean of 3.71 ($SD = 1.45$) for deployment of teachers to remote schools in other cities, states, or countries was significantly different from 3, $t(33) = 2.845, p = .01$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from .20 to 1.21. The effect size d of .49 indicated a medium effect. Based on the results, deployment of teachers to

remote schools in other city, states, or country was not a factor for why other teachers would leave the profession.

The sample mean of 2.06 ($SD = 1.35$) for unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal was significantly different from 3, $t(32) = -4.013, p < .01$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.42 to -.43. The effect size d of .70 indicated a medium effect. Based on the results, unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal was a factor for why other teachers would leave the profession.

The sample mean of 2.06 ($SD = 1.46$) for heavy workload of teaching was significantly different from 3, $t(33) = -3.771, p = .001$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.45 to -.43. The effect size d of .65 indicated a medium effect. Based on the results, heavy workload of teaching was a factor for why other teachers would leave the profession. See Tables 10 and 11.

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviation, Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Teacher participants' factors that would influence others leaving Education

| Survey Questions | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|---|----|----------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Teacher low salary | 34 | 2.38 | 1.415 | .243 |
| Problems in teaching due to lack of professional development | 34 | 2.79 | 1.298 | .223 |
| Unequal work distribution or dual behavior from my supervisor or school principal | 33 | 2.06 | 1.345 | .234 |
| Heavy workload of teaching | 34 | 2.06 | 1.455 | .250 |
| Late reimbursement of their salaries | 34 | 3.56 | 1.655 | .284 |
| Long distances of school from their home locations | 34 | 3.03 | 1.359 | .233 |
| Family problems including child rearing | 34 | 3.09 | 1.443 | .248 |
| Deployment of teachers to remote schools in other cities, state, or country | 34 | 3.71 | 1.447 | .248 |
| Long distance of school from teacher home location within the city, state, or country, and lack of transportation | 34 | 3.29 | 1.447 | .227 |

Table 11

Teacher participants: One-Sample Tests for others wanting to leave

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|--|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|------|
| Teacher low salary | -2.546 | 33 | .016 | -.618 | -1.11 | -.12 |
| Problems in teaching due to lack of professional development opportunities for teachers | -.925 | 33 | .362 | .206 | -.66 | .25 |
| Unequal distribution or dual behavior from their supervisor and/or school principal | -4.013 | 32 | .000 | -.939 | -1.42 | -.46 |
| Heavy workload of teaching | -3.771 | 33 | .001 | -.941 | -1.45 | -.43 |
| Late reimbursement of their salaries | 1.969 | 33 | .057 | .559 | -.02 | 1.14 |
| Long distance of school from their home locations | .126 | 33 | .900 | .029 | -.44 | .50 |
| Family problems including child rearing | .356 | 33 | .724 | .088 | -.42 | .59 |
| Deployment of teachers to remote schools in other cities, state, and country | 2.845 | 33 | .008 | .706 | -.47 | 1.21 |
| Long distances of school from teacher home location within the city, state, or country, and lack of transportation | 1.816 | 33 | .244 | .294 | -.21 | .80 |

The final section of the closed ended question section of the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument pertained to alternative jobs other than education for Black teachers who witnessed other leave the profession. The participants ranked each factor from the mostly (1), to sometime (2), to rarely (3), and to never (4). The jobs were non governmental organizations (NGOs), private sector (business or private companies), pursue higher education, private schools, and staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers). Based on the p value, none of the items listed in Tables 12 and 13 were factors.

Table 12

Factors, Standard Deviation, and Standard Deviation Error Mean for Alternative Jobs other than Education for Black Teacher participants who witnessed others leaving the profession

| Survey Questions | N | Mean | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation Error |
|---|----------|-------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Non governmental jobs | 37 | 2.11 | .774 | .127 |
| Private sector (business or private companies) | 37 | 2.00 | .782 | .129 |
| Pursue higher education | 37 | 1.81 | .908 | .149 |
| Private schools | 37 | 2.19 | 1.023 | .168 |
| Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers) | 37 | 2.24 | 1.038 | .171 |

Table 13

Alternative Jobs for Teacher participants: One Sample Test

| Survey Questions | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Diff. | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference between low and high | |
|--|-------|----|------------------|---------------|---|------|
| Non governmental jobs | 8.50 | 36 | .401 | .108 | -.15 | .37 |
| Private sector (business or private companies) | .000 | 36 | .000 | -.26 | -.26 | .26 |
| Pursue higher education | -1.27 | 36 | -.19 | -.49 | -.49 | .11 |
| Private schools | 1.13 | 36 | .189 | -.15 | -.15 | .53 |
| Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers) | 1.43 | 36 | .163 | -.243 | -.10 | -.59 |

Qualitative results. Brink (1993) wrote that researchers can reduce bias by triangulating their sources, repeating measurements multiple times over, using expert consensual validation from others (peer review), performing member checks, searching for disconfirming evidence, and checking for representativeness and thick description. Triangulation of the data for this study was achieved using three sources: member checks, survey instruments, and face-to-face semi-structured interviews.

After an iterative analysis of the data, nine themes (Appendix L) were developed. As part of the analysis, an *a priori* (open) coding manual was applied to examine the transcripts. During this coding process, any open codes (Appendix I) that were not found in the literature were labeled teacher (Appendix J) emergent codes. Once the teacher

(Appendix J) emergent codes were identified and reapplied to the transcripts for second cycle analysis. Once the second cycle analysis was completed, emergent codes (Appendix J) were established as the researcher applied a reductive process to the coded data. Next, once emergent codes (Appendix J) were established, the researcher further analyzed the categorized data to develop more generalized, comprehensive terms to capture the overall essence of the experiences of the teacher participants. These experiences were encapsulated into nine themes (Appendix L): making a difference, role models, community, serving, mentoring, recruiting, resilience, family, and teacher salary.

To maintain anonymity, each teacher participant was given a pseudonym. The teachers were assigned a name such as Teacher I (see Table 14). Table 14 provided demographic information: number of years of service as a traditional public-school teacher, charter-school teacher, and the teacher years as a principal and/or assistant principal. In addition to the data listed in Table 14, Teachers I, II, IV, and VI had other professional jobs prior to education. Teachers I, II, IV were in finance and Teacher VI was an educational consultant. Teacher III taught in parochial schools. Finally, Teacher I was a male teacher while Teachers II, III, IV, V, and VI were female teachers. See Table 14 for details.

Table 14

Demographics of Teacher participants

| Teacher names | Present position | Years of experience in traditional Assistant Public Schools Principal | Years in Charter Schools | Years as Principal/ |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Teacher I | 2 nd grade Teacher | 14 | 7 | 3 |
| Teacher II | 6 th Grade ELA Teacher | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Teacher III | Per diem Substitute Teacher | 13 | 0 | 0 |
| Teacher IV | High School ELA Teacher | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Teacher V Lead | High School Teacher | 43 | 0 | 0 |
| Teacher VI | High School ELA Teacher | 5 | 6 | 0 |

Themes. This section provided an analysis of the *a priori* (open) codes (Appendix I) and emergent codes (Appendix J), and axial codes (Appendix L) to form themes (Appendix L). Definitions for the codes and themes are located in Appendix I (*a priori*/open codes), Appendix J (emergent codes), Appendix L (axial codes), and themes (Appendix N).

Making a difference. Teacher participants stated that they were making a positive contribution in the lives of their students and their school community. The teacher participants conveyed that they were making a difference by improving their student lives and the community, and loving of their job as a teacher.

The teacher participants believed that they were making a difference in the lives of children through positive interactions and making positive improvements in their students' lives.

Teacher I remarked, "Well, I just love kids.... I love the interaction; I love the energy; I love the love they give me."

"I've always wanted to work with children in some capacity to make a difference, especially inner city children," expressed Teacher III. She wanted to give back to students, especially the inner city students who did not have family support. She argued that many of those children "get lost in in the dust."

Communicated differently, Teacher IV asserted, "I do it because I feel like I am serving a purpose. I'm there for the kids. It's something that I really care about, that I enjoy."

Teacher VI conveyed it this way "in the classroom, I become a part of their lives; they become a part of my life's thing. I think it's actually more powerful than anything I am teaching them."

Another aspect of making a difference according to the teacher participants was their role in improving their community.

Teacher II recounted, "Whether it's teaching language arts or coaching cheerleading, I feel like that's my part in making a difference in the community. I

realized that there's a sense of school pride and community that I evoked... I didn't realize the power of my presence.”

Teacher VI pointed out, “There was a 45-year-old Black man who could recognize the letters of the alphabet, but couldn't read. I felt terrible sitting there. So that's when I chose to become a reading specialist, so that nobody else would have to go through that.”

Teacher V reflected on her calling to be a teacher and wanting to help people. She had an experience at an early age, which led her to the profession. “My sisters and I would go out and play with him [a child with Down Syndrome], and I decided I wanted to work with kids like him.”

Finally, the teachers were making a difference through their love of the job.

Teacher I summarized his feelings about the job this way: “I really don't see myself doing anything other than working with students in this capacity, as an educator, at some level in some way.”

Teacher V had been in education for over 40 years. Her tenure reflected her commitment to the teaching craft. “If you're not going to invest, if you're not willing to do that, then we don't want you, because you're affecting kids' lives.” She fervently believed that being a teacher was a commitment to the lives of her students and asserted that education was an investment that needed serious attention.

The researcher inferred from the data that teacher participants made a difference because of the positive influences they had on children, their school community, and the teaching profession. Whether providing a safe haven for the students, serving a higher purpose, or simply becoming a part of their students' lives, these were all examples of

how the teacher participants were making a difference in the lives of their students. Regarding the community, the teacher participants were making a difference in the community through their presence, being involved, and helping members of the community by showing empathy and compassion. Their commitment to showing compassion was identified by the teacher participants helping people who were in need. Furthermore, the teacher participants demonstrated their love of the job from their commitment to their students and offering the attention students needed. An interesting finding was that the teacher participants personalized their commitment to the profession and demanded that all teachers make the same commitment to the teaching craft. One of the teacher participants stressed that making a difference in students' lives was an investment, and said, "If you're not going to invest, if you're not willing to do that, then we don't want you, because you're affecting kids' lives."

Role models. In addition to making a difference, the teacher participants' perception of being role models to their students was another theme that emerged from the semi-structured interviews that influenced the teacher participants to stay in the profession. The codes role models and *in loco parentis* supported the theme role model.

As role models, the teacher participants developed relationships with their students that went beyond a single school year.

Teacher I was a positive role model for his students and he was able to maintain long lasting relationships. He added the following about interacting with a former student at a gas station. Teacher I said, "He got a four-year old kid he's like you're one of my favorite teachers."

Teacher II established positive interactions with her students. She posited, “Remember why you [Black teachers] went into education in the first place, it definitely wasn't for those adults that you're probably battling and dealing with, it's for the communities, for the kids that are sitting in front of you.”

The teacher participants also wanted to change the perception of Blacks by being role models.

Teacher III stated, “If you have more teachers that look like them, and they can see these teachers as role models, and look up in the classroom and say, hey, this person looks like me.” She recalled a moment in which she was a substitute teacher at a school. She stated the following about that event, “As a woman of color, I've taught in schools that were predominantly Caucasian and I'll walk into the main office and I'll be asked questions, Whose PCA are you today? Whose mom are you today?”

The teacher participants stressed that their colleagues and students needed to see more Blacks in the profession because having more of them in the profession would help change the perception of Blacks.

Teacher VI added the following about the importance of seeing a Black female teacher:

So my students see a Black woman who is educated, who is a teacher? I think that Black children need to see positive Black role models. I also think that White students and other students need to see the same positive Black role models to kind of dispel myths and stereotypes.

Teacher II stressed, “I felt like, not just the Black kids, but every kid needed to see a Black teacher in front of the classroom helping them to become whatever they are destined to become.”

Teacher V said, “It's important for me, for the students, especially the Black students, to see me in the building as someone other than a teacher assistant.”

One teacher participant talked about the importance of being needed and the lack of being needed would influence her to leave the profession.

Teacher VI pointed out that, “I did a long-term substitute in a school district that is predominantly White and the reason I left wasn't that I wasn't comfortable there, it was because I didn't feel like I was needed.”

The teacher participants supported the code *in loco parentis* by being surrogate parents to their students.

Teacher I explained the significance of being a male elementary teacher and a fatherly figure to his students. He posited:

I think that we (Blacks) need, our (Blacks) children need,
to see Black teachers... and it's [not] only because I'm a teacher, but
I'm an uncle, I'm papa, I'm dad. I call some of them son. I call them my nephew.

Teacher VI described her role in being a mother to her own children and wanted to provide her students with the same experience. She shared, “Maybe I feel, as a Black woman or mother, I feel it is my responsibility to rid them of their pain.” She further explained, “I think that I can connect with all students, but I think I have a stronger connection with my Black students.”

Teacher III noted, “They’ll [students] have questions for you about many other things relating to life or they just want to talk to you. So you become a little bit more than a teacher.”

One could infer from the teacher participants’ responses that they believed that they were role models to their students. The perception of being a role model to their students allowed them to establish positive relationships with their students. The positive relationships provided the teacher participants the ability to create a positive perception of Blacks. They argued that Black students along with other students needed to see Black teachers in the profession. Black representation in education helped foster a positive image of Black educators and could help inspire students into being educators or changing a stereotype that Blacks were not professionals as well. The teacher participants identified that Black teachers fulfilled the role of surrogate parents towards their students. The role of surrogate parents permitted the teacher participants to establish positive relationships that went beyond learning content and skills. Those fatherly and motherly instincts provided a safe haven for their students and established those relationships to protect their students and related to the students because of similar life experiences. One of the teacher participants acknowledged that she established relationships with all her students, but had a greater bond with her Black students because of similar life experiences.

Community. All of the teacher participants believed that community was a factor that had influenced them to stay in the teaching profession. The teacher participants’ role in the community emerged from the semi-structured interviews. The codes community,

homebound instruction, parent involvement, teacher-to-teacher relationships, and community change supported the theme community.

Community service had different meanings for each of the teacher participants. Although the teacher participants recognized that they worked for the community, they had different ideas in reference to which part of the community they served. For example, some of the teacher participants stressed that they served the students and as a result serve the community. One of the teacher participants discussed serving the community through an out reach program called homebound instruction.

Teacher VI explained:

I'm active in my community in a lot of ways. As a parent, I am active in my children's schools, which is at the district that I am in. I am active in community organization, so I have a stake and I think that the children are the way to support the community.

Teacher IV described using the program, homebound instruction as a means to help the community and her students. She said:

It's [homebound instruction] an outreach to the community, but it's also a labor because you're working to teach that student basics. I feel like that's really kind of benefited me as a teacher, because it's not only I'm working in a classroom, but also in the community.

Conversely, rather than focus on the whole community, two teacher participants emphasized that they indirectly impact the whole community by serving the students. They talked about their service to the community as a by-product of serving the students.

Teacher I argued, “I don't teach with that [the community] in mind, but I think that is a result of teaching, that you serve the community, but that's not why I teach. I teach to serve the students.”

Teacher III stated, “I wouldn't say teaching is a labor to the community, but definitely for the children, being able to help them any way that I can.” According to these participants, the students were the primary focus and the community was impacted indirectly through serving the students.

Another code was parent involvement. Four of the six teacher participants mentioned parent involvement and their ability to connect with their students' parents.

Teacher I said, “I can address and deal with them [Black students] in a way that I feel that is not accessible to non-Black teachers. And I can even deal with the parents I feel in a way that they (non-minority teachers) can't.”

Whereas Teacher II described making a connection as a parent living in the school district, in which her kids' attended. Teacher II said, “I worked for the YMCA...and helped with health and fitness. I was helping build the community...I was connecting parent and home, school and home by being an educator that was also a parent in the community.”

Teacher VI added, “Hope that I inspire other people in my community while working with parents.”

Additionally, the teacher participants discussed teacher-to-teacher relationships. The teacher participants shared personal views about their colleagues' ability to create relationships or pointed out how they hoped to be inspirational to their colleagues.

Teacher II said, “I think sometimes that, it gets very personal for us, working in those communities where some of our colleagues go home, they don't deal with that [community] anymore.”

Teacher III explained, “Not having good relationships with the students’ families and staff’s lack of empathy and support from both groups would influence me to leave the profession.”

Teacher V responded to factors that would influence her to leave the profession, “The fact that there were no Black teachers. I was always the only one in every building.”

Teacher VI’s response was stated in terms of inspiration, “Hope that I inspire other teachers.... the same effect that I have on my students, I hope that I have won the teachers in terms of the whole role model thing.” Teacher VI wanted to be a role model for her colleagues, she felt isolated being one of four Black teachers in her school. She lamented:

I do feel that my co-workers are welcoming and warm. But still have that feeling like there are certain things we can’t talk about. There is a sense of isolation because everybody knows my name because I am one of the few Black teachers.

Teacher V discussed the community as an agent of change. She was in primary schools directly after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and had seen her community change. A significant amount of teachers lost their jobs as a result of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) (Milner & Howard, 2004; Tillman, 2006). The loss of teachers had an impact on the Black community (Milner & Howard, 2004; Tillman, 2006). Teacher V

described what publicly funded K-12 schools were like during the integration period after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). She explained that her school community was predominantly Black (students and teachers) until she reached high school in the late 1960s. During her high school experience, she sat in classrooms with White students for the first time and was taught by White teachers. Later on as a teacher, she witnessed how Black educators became less represented in schools and how her students' parents were less involved in the school community. Teacher V's experiences supported the notion that *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) had an adverse affect on the number of Black teachers after the ruling.

Community was a theme that emerged from the data collected. Community entailed all members of the school system. One teacher identified how being active as a parent and serving the students in her community whereas another teacher served the community through an out reach tutoring program. Additionally, two teacher participants explained that they do not serve the community, and only served their students. While the teacher participants identified serving the community, they argued that they could establish better relationships with their students' Black parents because of having the same race. They asserted similar backgrounds and experiences allowed them to create the positive relationships. One teacher said, "I can address and deal with them [Black students] in a way that I feel that is not accessible to non-Black teachers." Moreover, teacher-to-teacher relationships were an essential aspect of the teacher participants' communities. They expressed the presence of cordial and professional relationships with their colleagues, but noted the lack of established relationships beyond the school day. One teacher participant added that lack of support from their colleagues could be a factor

that would influence her to leave the profession. The teacher participants stressed that both being isolated and that their being none or limited Black educators in their buildings would make her consider leaving the profession. One teacher described not being able to connect with the non-Black colleagues. The teacher stated, “there is a sense of isolation” being isolated and being one of a few Black teachers had an impact on her being able to fully integrate within the school community. Despite lack of support or isolation, one of the participants described her ability of wanting to be a role model and providing inspiration to her staff members. Finally, one teacher described how the Black community changed overtime. Reflecting from her childhood experiences and teaching experiences, she indicated that Black teachers were less represented in schools from the 1960s.

Serving. The teacher participants pointed out from the semi-structured interview that serving was a theme that influenced them to stay in the profession. The section serving referred to their role in the community and whether they chose to serve as teachers or move into administration. The codes that supported the teacher participants’ ability to serve were teachers, principals, and the different opportunities charter schools provided.

Five out of the six teacher participants felt that they could better serve all stakeholders as teachers than principals.

Teacher II stressed, “I like being able to close my door and actually talk and interact personally with the kids.” Teacher II also stated that being in administration had the propensity to disconnect educators from students. She admitted that teachers and administrators had encouraged her to take on leadership roles, but she honestly felt that

her purpose would be better served as a teacher.

Teacher III did not elaborate, but said that she had no desire to be a principal.

Teacher IV replied:

I've been a manager, I've managed a store, I've managed banks, and I never wanted to be a manager again, and you're only as good as your people and you have to depend on a lot of people to do a lot of things. I respect what they [principals] do, but it's not something that I wanted to do, I wanted to just stay in my classroom and have control over what I do.

Teacher V did not rule out being a principal, but felt that being a teacher provided her with a greater impact on her students than being a principal because of the relationships she established.

Teacher VI said, "But in the classroom, the real life stuff that happen, discussions that happen with my students and I think...this is where it is at for me."

As shown, the majority of the teacher participants enjoyed being teachers rather than being in administration. Teacher II and Teacher V had some management responsibility within their school community, but they preferred to stay teachers. Teachers II, IV, and VI were second career teachers. Teachers II and IV were formerly in banking and had management training. Part of the reason the two teacher participants left those professions was to get away from management and focus on kids. Teacher VI worked as a consultant prior to becoming a teacher. Of the five teachers who argued for serving as teachers, Teacher II worked in a parochial school whereas Teacher VI worked in two charter schools. Teacher II and VI did not elaborate how those experiences had any impact on their desire to serve.

One of the teacher participants wanted change altogether and wanted to serve as a principal. Teacher I taught second graders and indicated that he wanted change. His rationale for wanting to serve as a principal came from his experience working in charter schools. He argued that charter schools had provided more leadership opportunities and he served as an assistant principal for three years in a charter school. He stated, “I still see principals doing great things in the midst of those kinds of situations. I would love to be in upper administration because obviously you have the widest impact on them [students].”

The teacher participants pointed out that serving was a factor that influenced them to stay in the profession. The majority of the teacher participants wanted to remain as teachers rather than move into administration. The teacher participants who stressed remaining a teacher were women and argued that being a teacher gave them a direct impact on the lives of their students. They argued that being an administrator would pull them away from the classroom. Next, one of the teacher participants, a male who previously worked in two charter schools as a teacher and an assistant principal stated that he wanted to move back into administration. He explained that charter schools provided him with the leadership opportunities and believed he could better serve students as a principal or in upper administration, in which he would have the widest impact.

Mentoring. Mentoring emerged as a theme from the semi-structured interviews. All of the teacher participants argued for teacher mentors. The teacher participants explained that mentoring was needed to provide support for new and veteran teachers. According to the teacher participants, new teachers needed mentors to help with

transitioning into schools whereas veteran teachers may find purpose and helping teachers who need assistance. Mentoring was supported by codes mentoring and teacher induction.

The teacher participants described mentoring as an important virtue to the teaching profession.

Teacher VI replied, “I think as a minority educator in the school, where I am a large minority, having a mentor for me would have been great to make the transition smoother.”

Teacher III said, “I think mentoring is very good.”

Teacher II also described that mentoring was not limited to teachers, but principals needed mentoring as well.

Teacher V described that she had experiences with mentoring, which helped shaped her 43 years in the profession.

While the teacher participants advocated the strengths of mentoring, they also talked about the limitations and vices associated with poor mentors and/or limited mentoring being done.

Teacher V lamented about ineffective mentors who did not provide support and used mentoring to receive a paycheck. She said, “If it's done correctly, it serves a purpose. I don't think it's done correctly where I work.” She went on to say that mentoring in her school was not based on investing time to develop and shape novice teachers. Also, mentors were not always in the same school, which affected the time, the mentors and mentees could meet.

Teacher II added:

See, I don't know if it's mentorship, but I definitely saw last school year where there was a very uncomfortable feeling among new teachers. There was a disconnect. They (teachers) didn't feel warm. They (teachers) didn't feel welcomed. And mostly it was by administration and almost trickled down to the staff.

Teacher II associated the tension of her building with the lack of effective mentoring.

While other teachers described the issues with not having effective mentors, one of the teacher participants never had a building mentor.

Teacher I was asked about mentoring and he said, "I have [been mentored] outside of my teaching experience for my masters; however, I have not been mentored by another teacher." Teacher I stressed that he had a group of mentors instead of one.

Teacher induction was identified as an effective mentoring program. One of the teacher participants mentioned teacher induction while others talked about mentoring new teachers.

Teacher I identified the effective use of the cohort model. The cohort model was based on a small group of teachers going through the induction program together. Teacher I stated that he never had an individual mentor, but he said in his particular charter school that he was mentored by teacher induction, in which he had several mentors.

Teacher I also added that veteran teachers should be paired with new teachers. New teachers would receive support from veteran teachers while veteran teachers could learn new techniques from the new teachers.

Teacher III said:

Mentoring is an effective factor especially for the younger teachers who are coming in and might be a little scared or a little fearful of working in certain types of schools. They do not have that experience, they have the educational experience, but not the wisdom to work with a certain student population.

Teacher II stated, “We focus a lot on mentoring kids, but educators need to be mentored too, even those that have been there a long time.”

Based on these responses, the teacher participants indicated that mentoring was an essential aspect in education. If done well, mentoring can provide support and training for new and veteran teachers. One of the teachers stated, mentoring could benefit novice Black teachers by helping them integrate into a school culture and providing support. Mentoring could also provide a supportive role for veteran teachers. The supportive role may provide the veteran teachers with a purpose and could help them learn new techniques from the novice teachers.

While mentoring can yield positive results, it can also have adverse effects if not done properly. According to one teacher participant, poor mentoring cause an adverse school climate. The teacher participants pointed out that the school leaders were influential in setting the tone of their schools and mentoring was a part of that process. Another factor that could affect mentoring was the proximity of the mentor and mentee. Mentors and mentees working in different buildings took away from mentoring time. Furthermore, one teacher participant said that he never had a personal mentor until he received his master’s degree.

Finally, the teacher participants spoke about the benefits induction and mentoring could have on novice and veteran teachers. Induction and mentoring could help adjust

new teachers to the profession, as well as provide veteran teachers with new skills. New teachers could receive extra support to ease the tension of starting a new profession, whereas veterans may need the support as well. The teacher participants acknowledged that all teachers might need mentoring. Finally, one of the teacher participants discussed the cohort model, which novice teachers were given support by more than one teacher.

Recruiting. Rather than wait for Black teachers to apply for teaching positions, the teacher participants advised that school districts should actively recruit to increase the number of Black teacher representation in schools. Recruiting, Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and teacher licensure exams supported the theme recruiting. The teacher participants said that school districts needed to recruit at places where Black teachers attend. Teacher participants also identified the need for teacher licensure exams, but also stressed that the exams were barriers against certifying Black teachers.

Teacher I described recruiting from his experience at a charter school. He said, “The leadership was predominantly Black. And half of the board was Black. So in that sense I think recruitment was a non-issue.” However, at the time of the interview, he worked at a traditional public school. He added, “I don't know but they're definitely not doing enough (recruiting).” Based on the number of Black educators in his district, he felt like the school district was not doing enough to recruit them (Black teachers).

The other teacher participants described their school districts' lack of effort to recruit Black educators based on their experiences.

Teacher II stated, “Recruit Black educators? I don't think so, no.”

Teacher III pointed out, “I honestly can't say that they earnestly work (recruiting).

I haven't seen a specific effort for that (recruiting) taking place. I'll have to say no, that's been my experience.”

Teacher IV replied, “Earnestly, I'm not sure that they focus in so much on Black educators.”

Teacher VI argued, “I'm in a school that has about 270 teachers, and there are four Black teachers. And since I have been here for four years, and I haven't seen any new Black teachers come in.”

Four of the teacher participants advised school districts to visit HBCUs or attend minority fairs if they wanted to increase the number of Black teachers in their school districts.

Teacher II said, “Aside from going to maybe Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) speaking to those educators because there are two in our area and several more that are within a reasonable distance from our communities.”

Teacher V recommended, “I think they need to look at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), go to the teaching programs just like I was recruited to work.”

Teacher VI stated, “One thing, going to HBCUs, of course, to recruit.”

Teacher IV advised, “I would tell them to go to minority fairs, which are out there.”

The teacher participants agreed that teacher licensure exams were essential for maintaining a standard, but indicated that Black candidates had a hard time passing the exams.

Teacher I stated, “There was this whole period where a lot of Blacks had

problems passing the Praxis. But I don't feel that was a barrier in the sense that I don't perceive that as a barrier, I perceive that as a requirement.”

Teacher III replied, “Blacks seem to have problems with the standardized testing required to become a certified teacher. They have the degrees, they have the experience, but it's something with the testing.

Teacher IV posited, “The tests are pretty basic, they are. The reading test is super easy. The math is extremely basic. We just need to apply ourselves. We need to be prepared. We need to be determined to do that.”

Teacher V said, “Some people aren't test takers. I'm one of them.” She also discussed holding Black educators to the same standards as other races. She stated, “I don't think it should be watered it down for us... then you're talking affirmative action. No, I don't agree with that. I think we should be held to the same standard as they [other teachers] are.”

Based on the teacher participants' experiences, they stressed that their school districts were not doing enough to recruit Black teachers. In order to retain Black teachers, school districts needed to hire more of them. Furthermore, only Teacher I worked at a charter school and stated that his school had Black educator representation based on his school leadership. He described that his leadership team actively recruited Black teachers, and the school had a diverse faculty. Furthermore, his perception as well as the other teacher participants felt that public schools were not doing enough to recruit Black educators. The teacher participants based this assertion on the limited Black representation of Blacks at their schools. To address the shortage of Black teachers, the teacher participants advised visiting and recruiting Black teachers from HBCUs and

teacher fairs. The teacher participants believed that if school districts wanted to increase the number of Black educators, they needed to recruit at schools that had potential Black teacher candidates. While the teacher participants argued for a standard and equal treatment with other teachers, they were against affirmative action in regards to certifying Black teachers. They argued that the teacher licensure exams were needed to maintain a standard for teachers. However, they agreed that teacher licensure exams were hard for Black teacher candidates to pass. While the teacher participants agreed that the exams were needed and Black teacher participants had a hard time passing them, they did not provide any solutions or recommend any alternative methods to certify Black teachers.

Resilience. Resilience was identified as a theme that influenced two of the teacher participants to remain in education. All of the participants experienced some turbulence and rough patches during their teaching careers; however, Teachers V and VI identified resilience as a theme from the semi-structured interviews. The codes discrimination and racism supported the theme resilience.

One of the codes that supported resilience was discrimination. Two teacher participants stated that they were treated differently because of their race.

Teacher V explained her ability to handle discrimination and persevering through it was because of her parents. She said:

But honestly, I would always talk things over with my mom and she [mother] said, 'You never quit. When you're ready to leave, you leave with your head held high and you resign, but you don't quit. You never quit a job because then they win.

Teacher V described one of her experiences in which she felt discriminated when she was a new teacher working in a predominantly White school. She lamented:

I go into the room and I sat in the back of the room just so I could observe, and this male teacher said to the kids, the Black thing in the back of the classroom is Miss So and So.

Because of the values that her family had instilled in her, Teacher V did not encourage administration to fire the teacher. She said to the school's administration, "I don't want you to have him fired...I want him to have to deal with me. I'm not going away."

Another act of discrimination pointed out by Teacher V was her issue with a parent. She described a discussion with a parent in which her race was mentioned by the parent. The parents said, "Well, such and such never said you [Teacher V] were Black." She responded to the parent, "Because they [students] don't see me as Black. They see me as their teacher." Finally, Teacher V stated that one of her former students called her the "N-word."

Teacher VI also experienced racism. She stressed that her students were held to the same standards as her colleagues' students, but felt an informal tax relating to her race as five parents who went to administration regarding her practice. She issued detentions and some of her students had failed tests, which occurred in other teachers' classrooms. Teacher VI said, "Those parents were uncomfortable with their child having me as their teacher and their children not being successful with me." Despite being treated differently, Teacher VI continued to stay in the profession because of the impact she had on her students. She stated, "I've had that reaction from the kids which said to me they want to see more Black teachers... where have you been all our lives." Because of the

perceived affect Teacher VI had on her students, she was able to persevere through acts of discrimination.

Resilience emerged from the semi-structured interviews from the events that were acts of discrimination and racism. As stated, two of the teacher participants reflected on past experiences, in which they felt discriminated or experienced racism. Whether it was altercations with colleagues (teachers), students or their parents, they identified experiences in which they felt they were discriminated based on their race. Despite the acts of discrimination, the two teacher participants stayed in the profession. The teachers believed they stayed in the profession because of encouraging words from their families and students. The teacher participants became resilient by overcoming perceived acts of discrimination and using those experiences to motivate them to stay in the profession.

Family. Family was identified as a theme from the semi-structured teacher interviews. The teacher participants described family as a motivating factor for why they entered the teaching profession. They also argued that the lack of support from their students' families could motivate them to leave the profession. The codes that supported the theme family were family values and support system.

The teacher participants described how their family values motivated them to go into education. Teacher IV said,

From the time I was five years of age, my mother told me I was going to college. When I got to be 18, and I was ready to start to look for colleges, it wasn't if, are you going to college? It's, Where are you going, so I can tell your grandmother where you're going. So, it was a seed that was planted very early on.

Teacher V stated, “My parents were very active in our academic for both me and my sister.” She also described:

My dad had a business so he couldn't come to the meetings, but if there was a play or whatever, he was there. My mom participated in the PTA, she was a homeroom mom, and she went on the school trips. My dad did stay up and do the homework with us.

Teacher II pointed out, “Even me with a parent that was sick and having to be raised by my aunts who were 10 years older than me.” She also said, “I think I've always innately been an educator, no matter what I've done from being the oldest sibling, oldest cousin, babysitting...”

Teacher III asserted, “As I got older, I saw the weaknesses and the strengths that I had in comparison to others that I went to school with and to me it all went back to that support, that bond that they have with their family.”

The teacher participants asserted that students that had a family support system were easier to manage and motivate.

Teacher I explained, “As long as there's an engaged family member that child had, they tend to be easier to manage, they're easier to teach and they tend to be easier to motivate.” He also said, “They (parents) are the ones who have the opportunity to expose the children to different experiences that extend what I do in the classroom.”

Teacher III lamented, “I see a lot of children who don't have that, they are very, very smart, very intelligent but they just don't have the support.”

Teacher VI described, “Those who are the most successful are the ones who have that home support.”

Teacher II remarked, "I've seen fathers kiss their daughters on the forehead in a parent conference because of how proud they are."

The teacher participants also addressed issues when they do not have family support from their students' parents.

Teacher II described how their students' parents could create problems for teachers. She said:

The parents tell their kids to go ahead and text them during class if they feel like a teacher's wronging them... Black people sometimes have stigmas against the educational system and they (parents) bring that in and they're... Kids feel everything. Kids vibe off of everything.

Teacher II explained how parental influence could be positive and negative factors based on the parent's cooperation.

Family values and support systems were important virtues regarding families' roles in education. The teacher participants pointed out that their families motivated them and instilled in them that education was important at an early age. They described how their parents or other family members were influential in their decision-making to become teachers and make a difference in other students' lives. The same values that were instilled in the teacher participants from their families, they wanted to provide that same support and values in their students. Some of the teacher participants' students did not have family support and they felt that it was their duty to provide support to them.

The teacher participants addressed family values they observed from their students' parents. The teacher participants argued that student' parents who were actively a part of their students' lives tends to do better academically and behaviorally.

The teacher participants explained that those families provided their students with the same experiences that were learned in the classroom, which made them easier to manage. On the other hand, one teacher participant stated the adverse effect of lack of parental support. When parents do not trust the school or the teachers, they instill mistrust and provide ways in which the student could undermine the teachers' authority. An example used was a student contacting his or her parent via text message about the teachers' conduct or situations in the classroom. This behavior bypassed the teacher and created negative tension before the teacher could address the issue. Ultimately, family inspired the teacher participants to enter and stay in the profession. Teacher participants also acknowledged family values as a virtue they wanted to share with their students.

Teacher salary. Teacher salary was identified as a theme that would influence the teacher participants to leave the profession. Four of the teacher participants pointed out that their salaries were inadequate. However, despite their low salaries, they stressed their salary would not push them out of the profession. They also acknowledged that potential Black teacher candidates might not be attracted to the profession because of potential or perceived low salaries.

The teacher participants perceived their salaries to be low.

Teacher I said, "I mean, I'm underpaid. I think a lot of teachers feel that."

Teacher I, however, asserted that his salary would not push him out of education.

Teacher II explained that her salary did not reflect the value of her work, but she stressed that finding another job was hard given her years of service to her school district. She lamented, "If my circumstances change, and there's another community that I might serve a better purpose? If I go there, I'll take a chance of having a pay cut." Teacher II

was a single parent that had issues with her salary. She felt “trapped” in the profession because of her salary. Her issue with salary was identified as a factor that would influence her to leave the profession.

Teacher V said the following regarding money as being a factor that would influence her to leave, “Money, 'cause the money was never great.”

One teacher participant described that Black candidates may not be attracted to the teaching profession because of teacher salaries.

Teacher VI posited, “Because so many in the Black communities come from poverty, when you make it, you got to be making some money. The money that teachers make doesn't fit in to that category of you made it (high economic status) money.

Four of the teacher participants identified teacher salary as a theme. Rather than motivate them to stay in the profession it could do the opposite. They also believed that teacher salary was a barrier for other Black professionals from becoming teacher candidates. The teacher participants stressed that they had no desire to actually leave the profession, but having an inadequate salary would motivate them to leave. One of the teacher participants discussed a problem with her salary. She pointed out that her salary was trapping her in the profession rather than motivating her to stay. Because of her salary, if a better opportunity came up, she would consider leaving education. Teacher V reflected that over her 40-year tenure in education that her perceived inadequate salary almost influenced her to leave the profession. Teacher VI described how teacher salaries were not glamorous and unattractive to those who come from poverty. Despite the perceived low salaries, the teacher participants wanted to stay in the profession.

Concepts. Research question one of this study pertained to the factors that influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years. This section was designed to answer research question one. A concept was a major a theme that was supported by quantitative and qualitative data. To generate a concept, the qualitative findings led to several themes such as: making a difference, role models, community, serving, resilience, mentoring, recruiting, family, and teacher salary. The qualitative findings were supported by the factors found from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument findings. The nine themes along with the factors from the teacher (Appendix A) survey data were analyzed to create the three concepts. The three concepts were students, community involvement, and support. The three concepts answered the research question of why the teacher participants stayed in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years?

Students. The concept, students, emerged from the themes making a difference and role models. The teacher participants stressed that one of the main reasons why they stayed in the profession was because of their students. Griffin and Tackie (2016) wrote that Black teachers remain in the profession because they love their students, and they wanted to be able to fully contribute to their educational success. The teacher participants demonstrated the love had for their students by making a difference in the lives of their students. Whether they were establishing positive relationships with the students, their parents, or the school community, they felt that their efforts ultimately had a positive influence on their students regardless of their skin color. The teacher participants also felt that being a role model was a significant factor that had a positive influence on their students. Wood (2001) wrote that Black male teachers were driven by

the need of having more Black role models. The teacher participants perceived themselves as role models for their students and wanted to create a positive perception of Black professionals. They also demonstrated that they were role models by providing fatherly or motherly (surrogate parent) support to their students. The role of surrogate parents permitted the teacher participants to establish positive relationships that went beyond learning content and skills. Milner and Howard (2004) pointed out that Black teachers served as surrogate parents by being role models, disciplinarians, and counselors. In closing, the teacher participants felt that it was their job to support and nurture their students.

Community involvement. While teacher participants pointed out the need for creating positive relationships and supporting their students, they also addressed the need for community involvement. The themes of community, serving (also identified as a factor from the teacher survey instrument), and family supported community involvement. The teacher participants identified that their work had a positive influence on the community. Whether it was establishing a positive influence with homebound instruction, establishing positive relationships with their students' parents, or the need to inspire their staff members, the teacher participants identified the importance of actively being involved in the community. The teacher participants argued that they could serve the community as teachers or principals to make a difference in the community. Finally, the teacher participants were inspired by family members, which were a part of the community that motivated them to enter into the teaching profession.

Support. The teacher participants identified support as a factor that would influence them to stay in the profession. From the teacher (Appendix A) survey

instrument findings, the teacher participants witnessed others that left the profession because of unequal distribution of work from supervisor and/or school principal and heavy workload of teaching. If administration provided extra support and help with workload, this could potentially reduce teacher attrition. Support could be received from themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews. The themes that emerged were mentoring, recruiting, resilient, and teacher salary (salary was identified as factor that influence teachers to stay and leave profession from teacher survey instrument) were identified as needed or giving support. The teacher participants stressed that mentoring was needed to support veteran and new teachers. Induction was identified as a mentoring program that could provide support to new teachers. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) found that teacher induction provided new teachers with support and strategies. In order to retain Black teachers, the teaching profession needed more Black teachers in education. The teacher participants supported efforts to increase the number of Blacks in the profession. They argued that Black teachers could be recruited through from Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and stressed that teacher licensure exams were barriers that kept Blacks out of the profession. Irvine and Fenwick (2011) argued that HBCUs could increase the number of Blacks in education. Furthermore, teacher participants were motivated to stay in the profession by being resilient. Despite discrimination and informal taxes, the teachers received support from their families, students, and school community, which influenced them to stay in the profession.

Finally, teacher participants stayed in education despite issues with their salaries. One teacher participant argued that teacher salary was not attractive for potential Black teacher candidates. Unlike mentoring and recruiting, teacher salary was identified as a

theme that influenced the teacher participants to leave the profession. Teacher salary was in need of attention according to the teacher participants. Adequate salary, according to the teacher survey, was identified as a factor that influenced the Black teachers to stay in the profession. Low teacher salary was also identified from the teacher survey as a factor in which the teacher participants witnessed other teachers leave the profession. School districts could support teachers with providing an adequate salary. Ingersoll (2012) found that inadequate salaries could influence teachers to leave the profession.

Additional finding. One finding, from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument, was that some of the teacher participants chose education over other professions. Four of the six teacher participants were second career teachers. This finding reflects that the teacher participants chose to stay in the teaching profession because of their students, community involvement, and support.

Summary. There were several findings for the teacher quantitative section. The quantitative section was divided into four parts, which included the factors that influenced the participants to stay, the factors that influenced them to leave, factors that influenced others whom they witnessed leave the profession, and other job opportunities other than education.

There were four findings from the question that asked the teacher participants what factors would influence them to stay in the profession. Three of the items were identified as factors, which included: adequate salary, I like teaching than other professions, and I want to serve people through teaching. One of the items, my significant other and I work together, was found significant, but not a factor that would influence the teacher participants to stay based on having a mean score greater than three.

There were two items from the questions that asked the teacher participants what factors would influence them to leave the profession. One of the items was that a teacher salary was very low was found as a factor based on the mean score being less than three. Another item was long distance of school from home location was identified as being significant, but not as a factor that influenced the teacher participants to leave the profession based on the mean score being greater than three.

The teacher participants revealed four factors from the questions that asked them if they witnessed factors that influenced other Black teachers to leave the profession. The three items which included: teacher low salary, unequal distribution of work or dual behavior of their supervisor and/or school principal, and heavy workload of teaching were identified as factors that influenced other teachers they witnessed leave the profession. The item deployment of teachers to remote schools in other city, states, or country was identified as significant, but not as a factor because of the mean score being greater than three.

In reference to others leaving education for other jobs, the teacher participants did not find the items presented as factors that answered research question one.

The qualitative portion of the study had several results. The nine themes (Appendix L) emerged, which were: making a difference, role models, community, serving, resilience, mentoring, recruiting, family, and teacher salary. The nine themes and the reported findings from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument formed three concepts: students, community involvement, and support that answered the research question regarding teacher retention.

Principal Participants

Quantitative results. Sixteen principals participated in an online principal (Appendix B) survey instrument administered by SurveyMonkey. The principal participants were given the opportunity to answer or skip any question and/or to exit the survey instrument at anytime without giving a reason. The principal participants were asked to respond to nine questions, in which one was based on demographic info, four questions were Likert Scale questions relating to factors, and four questions were open-ended responses that made recommendations to school leaders and members of the school community (see Appendix B).

Research Question 2: Which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education?

Selecting only principals from the data set, one-sample t-tests were conducted to evaluate the factors that influenced Black principals to stay in K-12 publicly funded schools. The next part of the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument asked the principal participants whether they wanted to continue in the teaching profession. After the principal participants answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each factor from one being the most important to five being the least important. The items included: adequate salary, proximity of school to my home location, my significant other and I work together, I like teaching than other professions, my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession, I want to serve people through teaching and administrative work, I can take of my family with the teaching profession, and I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning centers, etc., and further help my

family economically. The factors were my significant other and I work together and my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession.

The sample mean of 4.33 ($SD = 1.557$) for my significant other and I work together was significantly different from 3, $t(12) = -1.620, p = .09$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from .34 to 2.32. The effect size d of .86 indicated a large effect. Therefore, my significant other and I work together was not identified as a factor that influenced the principal participants to stay in the profession.

The sample mean of 4.08 ($SD = .900$) for my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession was significantly different from 3, $t(11) = 4.168, p = .002$. A mean score of three or higher was perceived as not being factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from .51 to 1.66. The effect size d of 1.2 indicated a large effect. Therefore, my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession was not identified as a factor that influenced the principal participants to stay in the profession. See Tables 15 and 16.

Table 15

Means, Standard Deviation, and Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Principal participants' factors that would influence them to want to stay in Education

| Survey Question | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|--|----------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Adequate Salary | 13 | 2.46 | 1.198 | .332 |
| Proximity of school to my home location | 12 | 2.33 | 1.231 | .355 |
| My significant other and I work together | 12 | 4.33 | 1.557 | .449 |
| I like teaching than other professions | 13 | 2.38 | 1.446 | .401 |
| My family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession | 12 | 4.08 | .900 | .260 |
| I want to serve people through teaching and administrative work | 13 | 2.15 | 1.725 | .478 |
| I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | 13 | 2.77 | 1.363 | .378 |
| I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | 12 | 3.50 | 1.446 | .417 |

Table 16

Principal participants: One-Sample Tests for wanting to stay

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|--|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|------|
| Adequate Salary | -1.620 | 12 | .131 | -.538 | -1.26 | .19 |
| Proximity of school to my home location | -1.876 | 11 | .187 | -.344 | -1.45 | .12 |
| My significant other and I work together | 2.966 | 11 | .013 | 1.500 | .34 | 2.32 |
| I like teaching than other professions | -1.535 | 12 | .151 | -1.40 | -1.49 | .26 |
| My family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession | 4.168 | 11 | .002 | .467 | .51 | 1.66 |
| I want to serve people through teaching and administrative work | -1.769 | 12 | .102 | -1.062 | -1.89 | .20 |
| I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | -.610 | 12 | .553 | -.312 | -1.05 | .59 |
| I can have a second job with the teaching profession (working other schools, learning, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | 1.198 | 11 | .256 | .500 | -.42 | 1.42 |

Question number three pointed out which factors influenced the principal participants to want to leave the teaching profession. After the principal participants

answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each factor from one being the most important to five being the least important. The items were: principal salary was very low, long distance of school from my home locations, my family lives in another city, state, or country, professional needs-lack of professional development opportunities for principals, unequal work distribution or dual behavior my supervisor or superintendent, heavy workload of administrative work, late payment of salary, disrespect behavior of some students and/or their families, and family problems including child rearing. Based on the results, question three had no factor listed from Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17

Means, Standard Deviation, Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Principal participants' factors that would influence them to want to leave Education

| Survey Questions | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|--|----------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Principal salary was very low | 15 | 2.73 | 1.342 | .345 |
| Long distance of school from my home location | 16 | 3.25 | 1.335 | .382 |
| My family lives in another city, state, or country | 16 | 2.94 | 1.528 | .442 |
| Professional needs-lack of professional development opportunities for principals | 16 | 3.50 | 1.769 | .303 |
| Unequal work distribution or dual behavior from my supervisor or superintendent | 16 | 2.88 | 1.211 | .301 |
| Heavy workload of administrative work | 15 | 2.67 | 1.204 | .361 |
| Late payment of salary | 14 | 2.86 | 1.397 | .490 |
| Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their families | 15 | 3.47 | 1.407 | .363 |
| Family problems including child rearing | 16 | 2.56 | 1.365 | .341 |

Table 18

Principal participants: One-Sample Tests for wanting to leave

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|---|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|------|
| Principal salary was very low | -.774 | 14 | .452 | -.267 | -1.0 | .47 |
| Long distance of school from my home location | .655 | 15 | .523 | .256 | -.56 | 1.06 |
| My family lives in another city, state, or country or deployment to other locations | 1.141 | 15 | .889 | -.062 | -1.01 | .88 |
| Professional needs: lack of professional development opportunities for principals | 1.651 | 15 | .119 | -.500 | -.15 | 1.15 |
| Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or superintendent | -.415 | 15 | .684 | -.125 | -.77 | .52 |
| Heavy workload of administrative work | -.924 | 14 | .371 | -.333 | -1.11 | .44 |
| Late payment of salary | -.291 | 13 | .775 | -.143 | -1.20 | .92 |
| Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their parents | 1.284 | 14 | .220 | .467 | -.31 | 1.25 |
| Family problems (including child rearing) | -1.282 | 15 | .219 | .167 | -1.16 | .29 |

Question four asked principals if they had witnessed principals leaving the profession. After the principal participants answered yes/no, they were asked to rank each factor from one being the most important to five being the least important. The items from the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument were: principal low salary, problems in teaching because of lack of professional development, unequal work distribution from or dual behavior from my supervisor or superintendent; heavy workload of administrative work; late reimbursement of their salary, long distances of school from their home locations; family problems including child rearing, deployment of principals to remote schools in other cities, state, or country, long distances of school from principal home location within the city, state, or country, and lack of transportation. Question four had one factor, which was family problems including child rearing.

The sample mean of 2.23 ($SD = 1.235$) for family problems including child rearing was significantly different from 3, $t(13) = -2.245, p = .04$. A factor that had a mean score of less than 3 was determined as a factor. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.52 to -.02. The effect size d of .62 indicated a medium effect. Therefore, family problems (child rearing, and/or family restrictions especially for female principals) was identified as a factor, which the principal participants witnessed other Black principals leave the profession. See Tables 19 and 20.

Table 19

Means, Standard Deviation, Standard Deviation Error Mean of Black Principal participants' factors that would influence others leaving Education

| Survey Questions | N | Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation (SD) Error Mean |
|---|----------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Principal low salary | 13 | 3.31 | 1.494 | .414 |
| Problems in teaching due to lack of professional development | 13 | 3.08 | 1.320 | .366 |
| Unequal work distribution or dual behavior from my supervisor or superintendent | 13 | 2.92 | 1.441 | .400 |
| Heavy workload of administrative work | 13 | 2.54 | 1.330 | .369 |
| Late reimbursement of their salaries | 13 | 3.38 | 1.446 | .401 |
| Long distances of school from their home locations | 13 | 2.92 | 1.382 | .383 |
| Family problems including child rearing | 13 | 2.23 | 1.235 | .343 |
| Deployment of principal to remote schools in other cities, state, or country | 13 | 3.15 | 1.463 | .406 |
| Long distance of school from principal home location within the city, state, or country, and lack of transportation | 13 | 3.23 | 1.589 | .441 |

Table 20

Principal participants: One-Sample Tests for others wanting to leave

| Survey Question | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Difference | 95% Conf. Interval of the Dif. Lower and Higher | |
|--|----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|-------|
| Principal low salary | .743 | 12 | .472 | .308 | -.59 | -1.21 |
| Problems in teaching due to lack of professional development opportunities for principals | .210 | 12 | .837 | .077 | -.72 | .87 |
| Unequal distribution or Dual behavior from their supervisor and/or school superintendent | -.192 | 12 | .851 | -.077 | -.95 | .79 |
| Heavy workload of administrative work | -1.251 | 12 | .235 | -.462 | -1.27 | .34 |
| Late reimbursement of their salaries | .959 | 12 | .356 | .385 | -.49 | 1.26 |
| Long distance of school from their home locations | -.201 | 12 | .844 | -.077 | -.91 | .76 |
| Family problems Including child rearing | -2.245 | 12 | .044 | -.769 | -1.52 | .02 |
| Deployment of principals to remote schools in other cities, state, and country | .379 | 12 | .771 | .154 | -.47 | 1.21 |
| Long distances of school from principal home location within the city, state, or country, and lack of transportation | .524 | 12 | .610 | .294 | -.73 | 1.19 |

The final section of the close-ended question section of the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument pertained to alternative jobs other than education for Black participants who witnessed others leaving the profession. The principal participants rated each item from the mostly (1) to sometime (2), to rarely (3), and to never (4). The factors were non-governmental organizations (NGOs), private sector (business or private companies), pursue higher education, private schools, and staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female principals). None of the items were identified as factors. See Tables 21 and 22.

Table 21

Factors, Standard Deviation, and Standard Deviation Error Mean for Alternative Jobs other than Education for Black Principal participants who witnessed others leaving the profession

| Survey Questions | N | Mean | Standard Deviation (SD) | Standard Deviation Error (SD) Error |
|---|----------|-------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Non governmental jobs | 15 | 2.07 | .458 | .118 |
| Private sector (business or private companies) | 16 | 1.69 | .602 | .151 |
| Pursue higher education | 15 | 1.67 | .724 | .187 |
| Private schools | 15 | 2.07 | .704 | .182 |
| Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female principals) | 16 | 2.19 | .544 | .136 |

Table 22

Alternate Jobs for Principal participants: One-Sample Test

| Survey Questions | T | DF | Sig. 2-Tailed | Mean Diff. | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference between low and high | |
|--|-------|----|------------------|---------------|---|-----|
| Non governmental jobs | .564 | 14 | .582 | -.312 | -.19 | .32 |
| Private sector (business or private companies) | -2.08 | 15 | .055 | -.312 | -.63 | .01 |
| Pursue higher education | -1.78 | 14 | .096 | -.333 | -.73 | .07 |
| Private schools | .367 | 14 | .719 | .067 | -.32 | .46 |
| Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers) | 1.379 | 15 | .188 | .188 | -.10 | .48 |

Qualitative results. After an iterative analysis of the data, eight themes were developed from the qualitative data. As part of the analysis, an *a priori* coding manual was applied to examine the principal transcripts. The coding process started with creating codes. According to Saldana (2009), “A code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (p. 3). Prior to analyzing the principal transcripts, the literature review was analyzed to create *a priori* (open) codes (Appendix I). The open codes (Appendix I) that were not found in the literature were labeled principal (Appendix K) emergent codes. Once the principal (Appendix K) emergent codes were identified, they were reapplied to the principal

transcripts for second cycle analysis. Once the second cycle analysis was completed, several categories were established as the researcher applied a reductive process to the coded data. Finally, once categories were established, the researcher further analyzed the categorized data to develop more generalized, comprehensive terms to capture the overall essence of the experiences of the principal participants. The themes were: making a difference, role models, serving, mentoring, recruiting, resilience, principal salary, and legacy. Definitions for all *a priori* (Appendix I), emergent (Appendix K), and axial (Appendix N) codes are located in the aforementioned appendices.

To maintain anonymity, each principal participant was given a pseudonym. The principal participants were assigned a name such as Principal I (see Table 23). Table 23 provided demographic information: present position, years of experience as a principal/assistant principal, years worked in charter school as a principal/assistant principal, and years as a teacher both traditional public and charter schools. In addition to the data listed in Table 23, Principals II and III had other professional jobs prior to working in education. Principal II was a behavioral specialist. Principal III worked in the criminal justice field. Finally, Principal II, III, and V were males while Principals II and IV were female principals. See Table 23 for details.

Table 23

Demographics of Principal participants

| Principal names | Present position | Years of experience as a principal in Public Schools | Years in Charter Schools as a principal | Years as a teacher (indicates charter) |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|---|
| Principal I | Elementary Principal | 11 | 2 | 12 (5) |
| Principal II | High School Principal | 15 | 2 | 0 (3) |
| Principal III | Elementary School Principal | 17 | 0 | 7 |
| Principal IV | Central Administration | 5 | 0 | 5 (5) |
| Principal V | Retired Middle/High School Principal | 10 | 0 | 26 |

Themes. This section provided an analysis of the *a priori* (open) codes (Appendix I) and emergent codes (Appendix K), and axial codes (Appendix M) to create themes. Definitions for the codes and themes are located in Appendix I (*a priori*/open codes), Appendix K (emergent codes), and Appendix M (axial codes).

Making a difference. Making a difference was a factor that emerged from the principal semi-structured interviews. From the data analysis, making a difference was based on the codes, improving student lives and improving the community.

Similar to the teacher participants, the principal participants wanted to make positive contributions to the lives of their students.

Principal I said, “It’s in my DNA. I am an educator and I love being in the presence of children and teaching them.”

Principal II stated:

And then I became a staff member at _____, I just saw our young Black youth, and our minority youth, and how they were just lacking in education, and how their life would not be fulfilling if they didn't get their education, and that's what really pushed me into becoming an educator and helping them.

He also replied, “I enjoy working with the youth, I enjoy making a difference in students' lives.” He added, “Every time I make a decision, I look at how's it is going to help students or is it going to benefit students. Everything else after that is just secondary.”

Principal III said, “I love to see kids, when you kind of see that light bulb come on, I love to see kids when you see them trying to understand a particular concept and I love when they got it, when they understand...”

Principal IV asserted, “In every decision you make, the question should be, what is best for students?”

Principal V pointed out, “Education is a choice. It was just something that I wanted to do. It was like I was born to help people.”

One principal pointed out examples of how teachers were not making a connection with their students.

Principal I stated, “Even if that person is not their race, that impacts a child and I will tell you in a high school setting especially.” Principal I further described student perception of their teachers who do not make a connection with them.

She lamented:

That teacher can't relate to me. Or, that teacher doesn't care about me. Or, that teacher only cares about their paycheck. He doesn't even do lesson plans, see they're easy. They can pick up on stuff that to them, equal up to care. I ask a question and he never answers it. They never acknowledge me when I have my hand up. This teacher never gives me eye contact. This teacher's never touched my skin. I've heard children say stuff like that.

While Principal I described the need for teachers making a connection or how teachers were not making a connection with their students, other principal participants described helping their teachers make connections with students.

Principal III stated, "I love it when I'm working with teachers and you can see it come on with teachers."

Principal V said, "Because education allows you to make an impact on many lives, not just students, but young teachers coming into the field."

The principal participants described that it was their role to help their teachers make connections with students. They stressed that building relationships with their teachers was essential in helping them make a difference in the lives of students. They believed that part of their role was to help or remove teachers from the profession if they (teachers) were not good, did not educate, or did not make connections with their students.

Principal III stressed:

I would tell anyone coming into this profession, if you don't love kids, get out do something different. This is not for you, you never going to be rich in this. You'll get a lot of personal satisfaction if you really care about kids.

Another code supported by making a difference was improving the community.

The principal participants identified several experiences that supported making a difference in the school community.

Principal I reflected:

At the end of the day, the data will say you're horrible and then you're expected to come back in and do it all over again. And then you balance it by saying, but the families I've impacted. I'll never forget the children that come back to say thank you. It's an amazing feeling.

Principal III believed that making a difference was when he could see his work being spread over a large area. He enjoyed seeing how the decisions he made had a positive impact on the teachers and students of his school community.

Principal IV said, "For me, I think upper administration is where I can at the moment better serve families." She also noted, "I had the opportunity to build relationships with students who typically were seen as challenges and establishing trust and relationships with them and with the families as well.

Principal V asserted, "It [job] gave me the day-to-day personal challenges that would help me to help teachers as people, and teachers have an impact on the communities that I served."

From the data collected, it can be inferred that the principal participants wanted to make a difference in the lives of their students. The principal participants expressed a desire to make an impact on student lives from the decisions they made and making a connection with their students. While describing how they could help their students, they also pointed out how teachers and their connections with students were essential to make a difference in students' lives. They identified that it was their position to remove teachers who were not making positive difference in the lives of students. They also explained how it was the role of the principal to help teachers make positive connections with their students. Additionally, the principal participants described their role in the community. They identified that their success with students, teachers, and the community was a better barometer of their success than test scores. The principal participants viewed their work as having a significant impact on the schools and the community that they served.

Role models. Another factor that emerged from the principals' semi-structured interviews was being role models. The codes that supported the theme role models were relationships with students and role models.

The principal participants talked about the positive relationships they established with their former students.

Principal I explained in great detail the relationship she had with a former student. Principal I had the pleasure of watching one of her high school students graduate from high school and attend college. She said, "She's doing her master's right now. I was at her high school graduation, college graduation, at her wedding, her bridal showers."

Principal III talked about teaching kids how to tie-a-tie. He explained that after teaching students how to tie-a-tie, the students had to teach someone else the skill. One student, according to Principal III, went to the mall with his father to purchase a tie after learning the skill. Principal III said the following about the student and the student's conversation with his father, "My dad [student] told me, sure. I'll take you [student] to the mall to buy a tie, but you got to understand, son, I don't know how to tie-a-tie." After purchasing the tie, the student taught his father the skill. Principal III stated that teaching simple skills was a way he established positive relationships and was a role model for students.

Principal IV stated that the following about professional relationships she established, she said, "I was thinking about the impact I have on young people, the relationships I've built with families, students, and colleagues." She reflected about her experiences as an administrator and how she able to connect with families and the school community.

Principal II advised teachers about relationships they need to establish with their students. He said:

Get to know your [teacher] students personally. When you get to know someone on a personal level, it helps you as far as educating that student. If a student feels that you really care about them, and you know your stuff, I think you'll be a lot more successful.

The principal participants argued that being a role model was a significant factor in establishing positive relationships and motivating them to join the profession.

Principal I described a relationship she established with her elementary school principal. She explained that her elementary principal was caring. She also said that he (the principal) put systems in place that made a person feel like he thought about them in the morning. Her former principal went out of his way to say hello to everybody. One of the fulfilling memories Principal I described was singing in the yard. She stated, "We sang songs. We sang Wake Me Up." Although this was not a personal experience as a teacher or principal, it was certainly an experience that shaped Principal I's philosophy regarding role models. She believed she became a role model and created caring classrooms and schools modeled after her former elementary principal.

Principal V said, "I remember I really hated public speaking, and I refused to do it, and I remember my English teacher coming to me and saying, look, you're a bright guy, you can get over the nerves." He pointed out that the teacher's advice worked. The principal participant felt that the high school teacher cared about his well being. Principal V also stated that the teacher helped him through high school, college, and motivated him to become a principal.

The experiences, beliefs, and behaviors from the principal participants showed that they wanted to be role models. Whether it was being a part of the students' lives outside of school, teaching a student a skill, creating relationships among the students and the school community, or advising teachers on the importance of relationships, the principal participants reflected how they created positive relationships with students. In addition to establishing positive relationships, they discussed their own role models. Whether it was their former principal or teacher, the principal participants followed their advice and modeled strategies after their role models.

Serving. Serving was another theme that emerged from the principals' semi-structured interviews. Being an administrator gave all of the principal participants the opportunity to serve the community and students in a greater capacity. The codes that supported service were teacher growth and servant leadership, quasi-administrator, and strategic planning.

The principal participants demonstrated teacher growth by taking on leadership roles while being teachers and servant leaders. The principal participants in this study moved into leadership positions because of wanting to have a greater impact on the schools and students.

Principal II worked for a charter school before becoming a public school principal. He described teaching in a charter school as rewarding, but wanted to do more. He said, "Inside the classroom, you can only do so much. You can control what goes on in your classroom, but you can't really affect what goes on in the school." Because of influencing more students, Principal II decided to become an assistant principal. He also stated, "I think being a part of administration or upper administration, you can affect more students, because you can dictate policies and procedures on a building and school district level more than in the classroom." He also provided the following example to make his point, "If you're a teacher, you can dictate what chapter they might read, but if you're an administrator, you can dictate what book they're going to read."

Principal IV described the following leadership opportunities and her ability to serve:

I believe that in every stage of my career whether as a teacher or as a principal, the opportunities to have impacts on children and families as huge. Different in

each of the capacities because as a teacher you have that direct impact on the information that the students were learning. As an assistant principal you have an impact on the culture and climate of the building and as an administrator, you deal with discipline. But I had the opportunity to build relationships with students who typically were seen as challenges and establishing trust and relationship with them and with the families as well.

Principal IV articulated her desire to serve in her community regardless of her professional role.

Principal V stated, "I enjoyed teaching, and I taught social studies, psychology, and economics." He also said the following about moving into administration, "Because of my stature and other experiences, people always put me in a leadership role, which encouraged me to get an administrative certificate."

Principal III taught six different courses as a teacher before moving into administration. In addition to wanting to make a greater impact on his school and student, he argued that there were some philosophical differences that he had with a former principal. Principal III stated, "The principal that I had, quite honestly there were some things that I saw him doing that philosophically I didn't agree with, but he was also being highly recognized for being a great educational leader." Principal III felt he could do more in the profession than what he was doing at that time. After some reflection, he became an administrator and had served as an assistant principal, principal, director of secondary education, assistant superintendent, and superintendent.

In addition to teacher growth, the term quasi-administrator also supported the theme service. Two of the principal participants stressed that charter schools enabled them to be quasi-administrators, in which they were teachers and servant leaders.

While a teacher at a charter school, Principal I handled all of the students discipline. She pointed out that the charter school had the “house model,” in which teachers became quasi-administrators. The house model enabled teachers to take on both teaching and administrative roles at the same time. In addition to teaching, she was responsible for student discipline, parental engagement, meetings, and concerns, and the quality of the educational program. Principal I also monitored lesson planning, and created student support and IEP teams.

The opportunity to become a quasi-administrator provided Principal I with the experience, ability, and the desire to want to become a principal. She stated, “So that [house model] gave me the bug. I was like, I can do this, and I loved doing it.” Eventually, she became a principal and loved every aspect of the job. Principal I said, “I want to do nothing but be a principal. I've done teaching and I enjoyed it, but the principalship is for me.”

Similar to Principal I, Principal IV's first opportunity for leadership was through being part of the multi-disciplinary team at a charter school. The multi-disciplinary team was a group of representatives from each subject, support staff, and administration being designed to improve the school climate. Her role on the multi-disciplinary team was to interview parents as their children were being tested (child study team). Principal IV also recalled that it was her introduction to child study teams, which helped her with the process of being a school counselor. The child study team was a team of teachers and

support personal aimed to study and find supports for students. While being a counselor, she described her role as a quasi-administrator because of the administrative experience she received from serving as a counselor. As a counselor, she established relationships among students, parent/guardians, teachers, and administration. From serving as a counselor, Teacher IV felt that she could serve and make a greater impact on the profession by moving into administration, which was evidence of being a servant leader.

Teacher growth, servant leadership, and quasi-administrator supported the theme serving. The principal participants moved into administrative roles because it gave them a greater purpose and provided opportunities for them to serve their schools and communities in a greater capacity. They pointed out that being a teacher could only control what goes on in the classroom. Serving as an administrator, however, provided them with more opportunities and responsibilities that influenced their schools' climate and culture. While serving their schools, the principal participants provided examples of servant leadership. They were servant leaders by showing empathy, awareness, community building, foresight, and conceptualizing their vision and goals for their communities. Additionally, the principal participants provided evidence of leadership opportunities charter schools gave them as teachers. Two of the principal participants, as well as one of the teacher participants stated that charter schools provided them with the ability to take on teaching and administrative responsibilities at the same time. The principal participants served as disciplinarians, coordinated curriculum and IEP meetings, parent meetings, and serving as a counselor for child study teams. Taking on a role such as being a counselor allowed one of the principal participants to establish positive relationships with families, teachers, and administration. As shown from the data, charter

schools had provided leadership opportunities for some of the principal participants when they were teachers and allowed them to serve in a greater capacity. The study did not find any data regarding traditional public schools offering leadership to teachers serving as teachers and principals at the same time.

Mentoring. Mentoring emerged from the principal semi-structured interviews as a theme. The principal participants described that they mentored students, teachers, and principals. They also acknowledged that mentoring was essential for teacher and principal retention. The codes that supported mentoring were: mentoring and support systems for students and teachers.

Principal I stated:

I have several mentors and I have mentors for different reasons, like different personalities, different perspectives. And when I need to access them, it's interesting how the advice that they provide, a cross section of advice that helps me to see clearly how I feel about it (issue).

She also said, "They help you, kinda like therapists. They help you to arrive at your own conclusions and they may give you some advice based upon their personal experience."

Principal II added:

If you have a good mentor that can help you relieve stress, can help you work through your caseload, can help you do the things that you need to do to be successful in the field, teach you how to plan, how to organize, how to prepare, and also how to teach.

Principal IV explained:

It's helped at all points of my career whether it's making a decision to go to this program or that program or take this job or apply for this job. I think it's always beneficial to have someone to bounce ideas off of to check yourself to give you something different to think about, to encourage you, to motivate you and as it's been done for me.

Principal V spoke about the benefits of mentoring. He said, "I think you need to be guided and/or have some assistance in navigating the political climate of the school environment... So mentorship helps provide a new teacher a little stability and security."

Mentoring, if used effectively, can provide the skills and support that all teachers need. In order for mentoring to be effective, it should not be rushed.

Principal I said:

They don't learn a transferable skill and then they're given too much too fast. So then okay, you know somebody. They put you in a principalship. Next thing you know, you're running one of the elementary schools. What do you know? How do you handle these things? How do you build relationships, build collaboration, build a team and still be true to who you are, and be strong as a leader?

Principal III added, "When I was working with them (teacher), we created a development plan and put the plan in motion to get things done; however, you got to be patient. You can't rush."

Mentoring if done effectively can provide support for students as well.

Principal II posited, "If there's someone at school that they feel cares about them (students) or that they can come to, I think it plays a big role as far as exciting them and making them feel that they can do it and that they're worthy of, and being successful.

Principal III argued, “If you're an educator you are a mentor. Whether you realize it or not, you have an impact on kids.”

In addition to helping students, mentoring can empower and support teachers.

Principal III stressed that mentoring and helping educators is a moral imperative and a duty. He said, “We have an obligation to help those who want to be successful.”

Principal III also provided the following example, “I got three people in my building right now who want to be a principal and so for at different times, I have let all three of them on the interviewing panel so they could get some of that experience.”

Principal IV provided the following description of a mentoring group that empowered educators. She said:

There's a group of women that touch base with each other outside of our jobs, but we all have similar jobs just to provide that. That's more of a peer relationship, peer support versus mentorship but it turns into mentorship because you have people there from all levels.

Principal V stated, “Absolutely. Principals are mentors. They're educational leaders. They should try to maintain an environment in which all teachers feel supported.”

Mentoring provided support and helped the principal participants throughout their careers. According to the principal participants, mentoring provided them with strategies to cope with stress, rough patches in their careers, and help with career choices. The principal participants believed that mentors were therapists who helped them with developing and reviewing ideas. The principal participants also revealed that educators could have more than one mentor. They also stated that all principals were mentors

because of their position as being educational leaders. Additionally, for mentoring to be successful, the principal participants argued that it should not be rushed. Finally, mentoring can be effective for both the students and teachers. Students can receive support from adults. The principal participants argued that mentors could also empower teachers indirectly to help create healthy relationships with their students and foster support and growth for teachers.

Recruiting. Recruiting was a theme that emerged from the principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. Strategic planning, teacher licensure exams, and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) were identified codes that supported the theme recruiting.

The principal participants acknowledged that the number of potential Black educators were low. While the number potential Black educators were low, the principal participants argued that if school districts wanted a diverse faculty, they had to actively recruit and make it part of their strategic planning.

Principal III added that he screened applicants for teacher and principal positions and stated that the number of applicants for both positions were low.

Principal I argued that although there were claims that Black educators were hard to recruit, that [Black educators] were available and needed in schools. She said that if they [schools and school districts] wanted Black educators, then it had to be a part of their strategic planning. Principal I stated:

Where a lot of districts fail, a lot of organizations fail because everyone says they want diversity and then the typical response as to why there is no diversity is, because, well, people don't apply. Well, where's your action planning? Because

students fail. There are students who can't read. There are students who struggle with math concepts. We don't say, well, it's because kids just don't learn.

Principal IV explained that her suburban school district goal was to have a teaching staff reflective of the student population. She admitted that Black educators were hard to recruit. However, when they [Black teachers] applied for teaching positions, the potential Black candidates were not being interviewed, which she felt was a break down in the process. She followed, “there isn't back tracking to find out exactly what's happening.”

Principal II also questioned the strategic planning of his district. He explained that his district had a plan to recruit more minorities and his school district had a low ratio of Black teachers. He said, “In my building alone, we have over 90 teachers and only one teacher of color.” He also added, “I'd like to see them (school district) put their money where their mouth is.” His quote was reference to his perceived lack of effort from his school district to recruit Black educators.

While the principal participants stressed that recruiting Black educators had to be a part of strategic planning, one principal participant talked about the process to certify teachers and teacher licensure exams as a reason for why there was a low number of Black educators.

Principal V described how hard it was to recruit Blacks during the 1980s. He described that the hiring climate had changed because of the political nuances that were put in place to hire Blacks. Principal V defined the political nuances as the affirmative action policies that were designed to increase Black educator representation in schools. He stated, “In some instances I've seen districts do enough just to keep the EEOE off of

them.” Principal V also stressed that states should research why Blacks were not passing the teaching licensure exams. Gursky (2002) found that Black teacher candidates passed the Praxis at a rate of 46% nationally. Principal V also stated the exams should not be easier, but more attention is needed understand whether or not Black teacher candidates were prepared to take the exams.

The principal participants argued that school districts should visit HBCUs, which was similar to the response from the teacher participants.

Principal II argued that school districts should visit HBCUs. He said, “You have to go where the minority students are and recruit.”

Principal III pointed out that attending a HBCU gave him a solid foundation. He described that the relationships he established with his professors and office staff helped motivate him to being a principal.

Strategic planning, teacher licensure exams, and HBCUs supported the theme recruiting. The principal participants argued that if school districts wanted to increase Black representation, then they needed to actively have recruiting as part of their strategic planning. School districts should target and strategically reach out to hire Black teachers. In addition to school districts' planning, one principal participant stressed that school districts should interview Black educators when they apply. While according to historic trends and the existing literature supported the notion that Black teachers were not passing teacher licensure exams, one principal participant stated that universities should create programs to support Black teacher candidates to help them pass the teacher licensure exam. Although colleges and universities should provide assistance to help potential Black teachers pass the exams, Blacks should be held to the same standard and

pass the exams according to one principal participant.

Resilience. The principal participants revealed that resilience was another theme that emerged from their semi-structured interviews. The principal participants provided evidence of resilience by going through negative experiences and pushing through to become principals. The principal participants acknowledged that in some cases there was an informal tax, which they had to prove themselves and to some degree they felt they were treated differently from their peers or other administrators. The codes that supported resilience were discrimination and micro aggressions. The principal participants perceived being discriminated against with the following examples.

When Principal I was a teacher, she felt mistreated by the parent of a child who was struggling academically in her class. Principal I recalled, "The parent looked at me and said, well, what do you know? Why would we think you know anything?" She explained to the parent that she was a professional and had the qualifications to be his child's teacher. Principal I lamented, "And he said, what would a Black teacher know about academics and whether or not our child knows how to behave?" She was very upset about the comment, but remained calm and the parent was asked to leave by another professional. Principal I also added, "It's that indefinable feeling where you know that you're being judged based upon what you look like or what people think you are, who they think you are." She felt that as a Black administrator you experience an informal tax in which, "You have to prove yourself." She also said, "I have to double, triple the years of experience and that tells me that whatever systems that are in place to ensure that people like myself don't feel comfortable coming in, they remain."

Principal II recalled an encounter he had with parents who were difficult and he

felt that their comments were discriminatory. He stated, "We had a student who used a racial slur and was suspended for 10 days, and the parents, in a roundabout way, said that the suspension was harsh because I was Black."

Principal II understood that being resilient was a necessary trait, one that was built into the job description. Advising Black educators, he said, "I would just say the age old saying that sometimes you have to be twice as good is still true." He also suggested that, "Unfortunately, in our society, in our world, White people sometimes still think that they're smarter than you, they still think they're better than you, they still think that they know more than you."

Principal III believed he was discriminated against before he entered the field of education. He said, "I told my employer that I was going to college, and that summer they had offered me a fulltime job and I told him, no, I was going to school." After declining the employer's offer, the supervisor inquired about the principal participant's major. When he said education or physical therapy, the employer replied, "You can't do that. You can't do that." He thought about his former supervisor's words and felt the supervisor doubted his abilities. After the encounter, he said, "I wasn't sure which one I wanted, education or therapy, and that motivated me." Principal III majored and worked in both education and physical therapy.

Similar to the other principal participants, Principal III felt discriminated against as an educator. He recalled being a principal when a parent came in and wanted to talk to the principal, who was Principal III. When he came out of his office, the parent looked at Principal III and said, "I don't want to talk to you I want to talk to the principal." He asserted, "And I looked at my secretary and said, let me know when he's ready."

Principal III walked back into the office and the secretary informed the parent that the principal participant was the principal.

Principal III also talked about a decision he made that gave notoriety to a former district, but influenced members of that community to question his judgment. He said:

I remember some direct comments made to me were like, who talked you into taking this job? What made you think you could do this? You must be crazy.

You notice it never works. So those are the comments that some parents, some community members made directly to me and we were very successful at that school.

Additionally, he talked about issues he believed were discriminatory feelings from a student and actions from parents. A father came to him and told the principal participant, “My son, he just don’t like you and I don’t know why.” He believed it could have been because of his race. Another incident was based on the parents starting a petition that tried to get him fired. He stated that the petition started created because of how he disciplined child who for his behavior. Principal III continued to work at the school and stayed in the profession.

Principal V said, “A principal, early on it's... You feel like you're being watched.” He described how his faculty questioned his decision-making. He said, “I directly relate that sometimes to racism, but then once you've proven yourself it kind of goes away.” Despite the discriminatory treatment, Principal V didn’t allow it to stop him from establishing relationships or staying in public schools.

In addition to discrimination, the principal participants pointed out that some of the discrimination was not open, but acts of micro aggressions.

Principal V felt that discrimination was at times hidden and invisible. He described that some people did not want to work with him or take his lead. However, rather than protest and argue with them, he worked through the issues to maintain and establish positive work relations. He admitted that, “Once they got to know me, things improved.”

Principal II also talked about his experiences as an administrator with the micro aggressions in which he felt were discriminatory. Principal II said,

I think that I've had a subtle racism as me being a supervisor, and people who are White didn't necessarily want to take criticism, or constructive criticism, or have someone who's a person of color being their supervisor, but nothing ever blatantly or outright in my face.

As an educator, Principal IV stressed that she felt didn't experience racism, but had moments that were micro aggressions. Principal IV said the following about an experience, in which a teacher assumed she knew all of the Black students because she was Black. The Principal IV remembered:

When I first began in the district as a teacher. I may have been in the position two months. I was brand new to the building. A teacher said a student had moved in from a neighboring city and was placed in her level one, the highest English class. I don't know the student from anything and the teacher who was White came over with a written piece marked up in red, put it down in front of me and was like, see, why is she here. I don't understand why she's in my class. She doesn't belong here.

The principal participants pointed out experiences they felt were acts of

discrimination and micro aggressions based on an informal tax of being Black. Some of the experiences came from parents, students, colleagues, and community members who they believed doubted their abilities. Despite their perception of being treated differently, the principal participants used those experiences as a motivating factor and stayed in the profession. One notable difference from the teacher participants was the issue of earning respect from their colleagues. The principal participants argued and believed that being a Black principal required them to work harder than other races to keep their jobs and maintain respect. Additionally, the principal participants experienced issues with micro aggressions. As principal, the principal participants believed that some people refused to respect their authority and questioned their decision-making. However, one principal participant argued that once he established that he could do the work, the micro aggressions went away. Another principal described a subtle act of discrimination from a teacher. The teacher felt that because Principal IV was Black and the student was Black, they had to know each other because of their similar races. Despite these acts, the principal participants used them as motivating factors to stay in the profession.

Principal salary. Another theme that emerged from the semi-structured interviews was principal salary. Principal salary motivated the principal participants to stay, or could influence them to leave the profession.

Principal I described the principal salary as appealing to principal candidates.

Principal II said that money as one of the motivating factors that kept him in the profession. He explained that being a principal provided more money than being a teacher.

Principal V stated that salary was a motivating issue for principal candidates.

One of principal participants identified that principals' salary was also a location issue.

Principal V explained that in suburban areas a principal could make more money, but out in the rural areas the salaries were lower. He did not comment about urban salaries.

A principal participant explained how principal salary created issues with retention. Principal V stated that assistant principals would eventually want a promotion or a higher position in the school organization. Because of the promotion, they would have an increase in their salaries.

The principal participants stressed that salaries in the educational profession could influence potential Black educators from not entering the profession.

Principal III discussed that money could be a motivator, but also cautioned that teachers and principals could live a comfortable, but not an elaborate lifestyle. He felt that possible perceptions about the low salary compared to the salaries of other professions was one of the reasons why Blacks were not applying for teaching jobs.

Principal IV described money as an issue that may influence educators to leave the profession. She argued that educators go into science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields or other areas that might earn a higher salary than educators.

From the principals' semi-structured interviews, principal salary was identified as a theme and a need. One of the reasons for why the principal participants became principals or assistant principals was that they wanted to earn a larger salary than teachers. Additionally, salary was identified as being dependent on one's location. According to the principal participants, Black principals tend to move to populated areas

with greater salaries. In addition to keeping the principal participants in the profession, educator salary was identified as a motivating factor that could keep potential Black candidates from entering the field. The principal participants argued that Blacks were not entering education because the salaries were lower compared to careers in the STEM fields.

Legacy. While reflecting about the end of their careers, the principal participants identified the theme legacy. Legacy was defined by deep reflections about the careers of the principal participants and their personal impact on the profession before and when they retire from the profession.

One principal participant discussed how her actions could potentially impact others Blacks' chances of being hired. Principal I said the following about an informal tax about being a Black educator:

For me as a woman, me as a Black, me as a young principal when I first started out, those three things. I carried that weight with me every day to ensure that I did no harm, because it would ruin the opportunities for people who may want to do this after me. That's a burden that we have that our counterparts don't have, that's a burden, we have to do that for each other.

Other principals reflected about needing to step away so that others could have an opportunity to serve.

Principal V also described the end of his career and stated that for most of his career he served as a principal. He believed that at the end of his career, working in upper administration was the best place for him to serve. After 36 years, Principal V revealed, "I need to make way and let somebody else who's better trained move into

those spots."

Principal III also discussed his legacy and while approaching retirement. He explained that an educator needed to have commitment to be successful as an educator. He argued that teachers and principals should be careful and thoughtful about their commitment to the profession and the impact it could have on their families when deciding to step down.

Legacy focused on the end of the principal participants' careers. All of the principal participants discussed the end of their career if they had more than 25 years in the profession. The principal participants provided advice for new teachers and principals entering the profession. Principal I believed that Black educators had an informal tax in which she believed did not apply to non-minority. Other principal participants discussed stepping aside so that others have a chance to lead or the impact the profession had on the educators' families.

Concepts. Research question two of this study focused on the factors that influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years. Discussing concepts was designed to answer research question two. A concept was a major theme that was supported by quantitative and qualitative data. To generate a concept, the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument findings along with the eight themes were analyzed. The three concepts that answered research question two were students, community involvement, and support.

Students. The concept students emerged from the themes making a difference and role models. The principal participants stressed that the main part of their job was to make a difference in the lives of students. The principal participants identified that they

were able to help students by establishing positive relationships with them or by helping teachers make connections with them. The existing literature supported the notion that Black principals had a desire to have a positive influence on their students. Savage (2001) stated that Black principals secured resources, provided extraordinary services, such as the introduction of new curricula and activities, and instilled in Black children resiliency, self-reliance, self-respect, and pride for their race. Additionally, the principal participants felt that being a role model was a significant factor that influenced them to stay in the profession. The principals described the positive influences they had on their students. The relationships that the principal participants established went beyond a school year. The literature pointed out that Black principals had a positive impact on Black children (Savage, 2001).

Community involvement. While principal participants acknowledged the need for creating positive relationships and supporting their students, they also addressed the need for community involvement. Community involvement in the study was defined as being actively involved in the school community. The themes of serving and legacy supported community involvement. The principal participants believed that they had a wider impact on schools by serving in administration. They also revealed that while they were teachers, they were able to serve as quasi-administrators because of the leadership opportunities charter schools provided. Being able to serve as a teacher and taking on some administrative responsibilities influenced them to move into administration. Wood (2001) pointed out that Black males moved into administration because it provided them the ability to make differences in the school operations. Finally, legacy described the principal participants' impact on the profession at the end of their careers. The principal

participants stated that they wanted to make positive contribution to the profession, which could have a positive impact on others joining the profession. Tillman (2004) wrote the following about Black principals after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), “Whites believed that Black principals had been ineffective in educating Black children” (p. 111). The principal participants wanted to change that narrative and give other Black educators a chance to serve. They also described retiring to give other principals an opportunity to serve and support the community.

Support. The principal participants identified support as a factor that would influence them to stay in the profession. The concept support was defined in this section as providing support for Black principals. Findings from the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument indicated that the principal participants witnessed others leaving because of child rearing. Findings from the themes could be used to provide support for those teachers. The themes from the principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews were mentoring, recruiting, resilience, and principal salary were identified as fostering support for the principal participants. The principal participants stressed that mentoring was essential in providing principals, teachers, and students’ support. Mentors could be formal or informal, one or a group of individuals who act as therapist to support educators and students. In addition to mentoring, the principal participants supported the act of recruiting. They argued that school districts could be supportive of Black teacher candidates by creating strategic plans and visiting Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). The principal participants also identified resilience as a theme. The principal participants pointed out how they experienced discrimination and micro aggressions from colleagues who refused to follow their lead. Jones (2002) wrote that

White teachers were hesitant to trust their Black principal. Jones's findings were similar to the principal participants' experiences in this study. The principal participants felt that they had to prove themselves in order to receive trust from their faculty. Finally, the principal participants described salaries as an issue that motivated them to stay or leave the profession. The principal participants acknowledged that being a principal provided them with a significant increase in compensation. However, they also indicated that the principal salary compared to other profession in the STEM fields were significantly less. Tran (2017) found that principals who were unhappy with their salaries were more likely to leave the profession.

Summary. There were several findings regarding the principal quantitative section. The quantitative section was divided into four parts, which included: the factors that influenced the participants to stay, the factors that influenced them to leave, factors that influenced others whom they witnessed leave the profession, and other job opportunities rather than education.

There were two factors from the question that asked the principal participants what factors would influence them to stay in the profession. The two items that were identified were: my significant other and I work together and my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession. The items my significant other and I work together and my family prefers me continuing in the teaching profession were significant, but not a factor that answered the research question because of the mean score being greater than three.

In reference to influencing the principal participants to leave the profession, no item on the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument emerged as a factor that would

answer research question number two.

There was one factor from the question that asked the principal participants what factors influenced other Black principals to leave the profession. The factor included: family problems (child rearing, and/or family restrictions especially for female principals). The item family problems (child rearing, and/or family restrictions especially for female principals) was found as a factor based on the mean score being less than three.

In reference to witnessing others leave the leave education for other jobs, the principal participants did not find the items present on the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument as a factor that would answer research question two.

The qualitative portion of the study had several results. Five of the 16 principal participants were interviewed using a semi-structured interview protocol and responded to 14 questions and follow up questions. There were eight themes (Appendix M) that emerged from the principal interviews (Appendix D), which were: making a difference, role models, serving, mentoring, recruiting, resilience, principal salary, and legacy. The study combined the data from the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument and eight themes to create concepts (Appendix O), which were students, community involvement, and support.

Summary

Chapter IV presented the results of the study, which answered the research questions. The chapter also included the descriptive data provided from the study participants from teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments, data analysis procedures, quantitative and qualitative data, and the study's findings.

Chapter V includes a summary of the study and its findings, discusses both the theoretical, practical, and future implications of the study, and make recommendations for future research and practice. These findings either support or refute findings from previous conducted research studies from the profession literature.

Chapter V— Discussion

Introduction

This study added to the literature on Black educators serving in publicly funded K-12 schools. The study uncovered the factors that influenced these educators to remain in the profession. This study was significant because it focused on both Black teachers and principals, whereas previous studies investigated only Black teacher retention. This study contributed information that school districts and schools could use to recruit and retain Black educators in public schools. This section includes the summary of the study, the study findings and conclusion, implications, recommendations, and conclusion.

Summary of the Study

This mixed methods study investigated the factors that influenced Black teachers and principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years. The framework for this study was Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation with insights from critical race theory's (CRT) counter storytelling. The participants for this study were identified through a Snowball Sampling process. The researcher and other Black educators recruited and referred other Black educators for the study. Merriam (2009) wrote that Snowball Sampling was, "perhaps the most common form of purposeful sampling" (p. 79). The study participants came from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in the state of Delaware. Once the methodologist and dissertation chair approved the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments, they were sent via email to the participants. Thirty-seven Black teachers and 16 Black principals completed the survey instruments for this study. After the teacher (Appendix A) and principal

(Appendix B) participants responded to the survey instruments, they were collected. Next, the researcher conducted face-to-face interviews in person, in a semi-structured format. The questions for the semi-structured interviews were created based on the literature and the participants' responses to the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments. The semi-structured interviews were conducted using a core protocol of 14 questions for the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) participants, in which probing and follow-up questions were asked for clarification purposes. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with six Black teachers and five Black principal participants.

Once the data were collected, the researcher analyzed the data to find factors from the teacher (Appendix A) and principal (Appendix B) survey instruments and themes from the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data for this study included descriptive statistics. The analyzed data provided the means, standard deviations, standard deviation error means, the effect size of d , and the p value for both the teacher and principal participants. The qualitative data was grounded in phenomenology. Creswell (2013) explained phenomenology as research that was based on searching for the common lived experiences of the study's participants. The qualitative data were analyzed using a coding manual (Saldana, 2009). The coding manual was developed through the creation of *a priori* (open) codes (Appendix I), teacher (Appendix J) and principal (Appendix K) emergent codes, and teacher (Appendix L) and principal axial codes (Appendix M). The teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) axial codes were combined to identify teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix M) themes. The teacher (Appendix L) and principal (Appendix

M) themes were further combined with the quantitative findings to form teacher (Appendix N) and principal (Appendix O) concepts that addressed and answered the research questions. Chapter V presents the summary of the findings and conclusion, the implications, recommendations, and conclusion.

Summary of the Findings and Conclusion

The following research questions guided this study:

1. Which factors influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching?
2. Which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education?

The following hypotheses for this study were:

1. There were significant factors that influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching.
2. There were significant factors that influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education.

The quantitative analysis led to several findings for the teacher participants. The factors that influenced the teacher participants to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools for five or more years were:

- Adequate salary,
- I like teaching than other professions, and
- I want to serve people through teaching.

The quantitative factor that would influence the teacher participants to leave was:

- Teacher salary was very low.

The quantitative factors, which the teacher participants mentioned that influenced other Black educators to leave the profession included:

- Teacher low salary,
- Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal, and
- Heavy workload of teaching.

The qualitative analysis revealed several themes for the teacher participants. The teacher participant themes were:

- Making a difference,
- Role models,
- Community,
- Serving,
- Resilience,
- Mentoring,
- Recruiting,
- Family, and
- Teacher salary.

The quantitative analysis revealed there were no significant factors that influenced the principal participants to stay or leave publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years. There was one factor in which the principal participants witnessed other Black educators leave the profession. That factor involved:

- Family problems (child rearing, and/or family restrictions especially for female principals).

The qualitative analysis of the semi-structured interviews led to the identification of several themes for the principal participants, which included:

- Making a difference,
- Role Models,
- Community,
- Resilience,
- Mentoring,
- Recruiting,
- Principal salary, and
- Legacy.

Research Question 1. Which factors influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching?

Research question one focused on the factors that influenced Black teachers to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of teaching. The teacher participants' responses to the mixed methods data were examined to uncover the factors that influenced them to remain in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of service. From the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument, which was completed by 37 Black teachers, three factors were found that influenced them to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools. The three factors identified were: adequate salary, I like teaching than other professions, and I want to serve people through teaching. The data from the semi-structured interviews provided the themes. The themes were: making a difference, role models, community, service, resilience, mentoring, recruiting, and family. The quantitative findings and the themes (Appendix L) were combined to formulate the

concepts (Appendix N), which were: students, community involvement, and support. To limit redundancy and for further explanation, the factors from teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument and the theme teacher salary were combined to form the subsection, teacher salary. The factor I want to serve people through teaching was combined with the theme of serving to create the subsection serving.

Teacher salary data included information on adequate salary (factors for why they stayed), teacher salary was very low (factors for why they would leave), and teacher low salary (why other Black educators left) from teacher (Appendix A) survey responses, and teacher salary (identified as a theme) from the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews. This subsection provided data that explained how salary was a factor that influenced the teacher participants to stay or leave the profession.

The factor of adequate salary had a mean score of 2.5 and a p value of .01, which determined that it was a factor from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument. One could infer from this data, that Black teacher participants stayed in the profession based on making at least an adequate salary. Allegretto and Mishel (2016) and National Education Association (2016) supported the notion of why teacher participants perceived their salaries were low. Allegretto and Mishel analyzed teacher and private sector pay both nationally and by state. Those researchers found that from 2011 to 2015, nationally, that teachers made 77% of what those in private companies made and in Pennsylvania they earned 87.1% compared to other states' college graduates (Allegretto & Mishel, 2016). In other words, Pennsylvania teachers made more than the national average salary when compared to graduates with other degrees (Allegretto & Mishel, 2016). Additionally, the National Education Association stated that the average national teacher

salary in the 2014-2015 school year was 57,420 while the average Pennsylvania teacher salary was 64,447. Although Pennsylvania reported a higher salary than most states for teachers, several teacher participants in this study stated during the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews that they felt their salaries were low. There were mixed findings on the adequacy of a teacher's salary.

Consequently, according to both survey and interview data, one of the factors that could influence teachers to leave the profession was a low salary. The teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument item, teacher salary was very low had a mean score of 2.5 and a p value of .032. In addition, the item from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument, teacher low salary for other Black educators leaving the profession had a mean score of 2.38 and a p value of .02. From the teacher (Appendix C) survey responses, teacher salary was identified as a theme that could motivate them to leave the profession. To further explain this phenomenon, Teachers I, II, and V perceived that their salaries were low based on their work experience; whereas, Teacher VI explained that Blacks tend not to pursue education primarily based on the perception of not receiving a large salary. She further explained that when Blacks came from poverty they wanted to make more money than what teachers typically made. This finding supported the notion from the previous literature, which concluded that teacher salaries were inadequate. For example, Allegretto and Mishel (2016) analyzed and compared teacher compensation with the private sector from 1979 to 2015. Using national data, Allegretto and Mishel found that teachers were paid -5.5% less than private sector jobs in 1979. The deficit gap between teachers and private sector workers grew to a -17% in 2016 (Allegretto & Mishel, 2016). Ingersoll (2012) reported that 39% of minority teachers left the profession because of

poor salary and benefits. This study's findings supported the notion that Black teachers were not in the profession wholly because of their salary, but data collected from the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews indicated that if salary needs were not adequate, it could be a factor that influenced them to leave the profession.

Serving. The factor I want to serve people through teaching from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument had a mean score of 1.94 and a p value of less than .001. In other words, this calculation revealed that serving people through teaching was a factor that influenced the teacher participants to remain in the profession. Additionally, serving people through teaching was identified as a theme from the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews. This subsection further explained how the teacher participants served their students and communities.

The teacher participants stressed a perceived desire to serve their students. Teachers I and III described primarily serving the students. This finding was supported in the professional literature. For example, Milner (2006) found that Black teachers were successful with Black students and potentially they could be effective with all types of students, meaning that more Black educators were needed, a notion this study supported. Butty and Brown (1999) stated that Black teachers chose teaching because they could increase students' self-esteem and instill pride in the student's race, which were ideas that this study also supported.

Teachers II and VI talked about serving the school community. Morris (1999) found that teachers at a prominently Black school were integral to creating bonds between the school, families, and community. Wimbush (2012) stated that Black males stayed in the profession because of building relationships with their students, the

community, parents, and with their colleagues. Peterson (2017) found that Black teachers were committed to the community and saw it as a service. The findings from this study supported the findings from previous studies of Black teachers staying in the profession because they wanted to serve their communities. Taken together, there was a well-established consensus, supported by a preponderance of evidence that Black teachers perceived themselves as active servants to their communities where they worked at building relationships.

Teacher I, who was a male teacher expressed that he wanted to serve in a leadership position. Griffin and Tackie (2016) mentioned that Black teachers often were seen more as disciplinarians rather than primarily as educators. Consistent with that notion, Wood (2001) explained that Black males sometimes moved into administration because it provided them with the ability to make a difference in the school's operations. Based on the findings from this study and from previous studies found in the professional literature, one could infer that some Black teachers valued and stayed in the profession because of moving into leadership positions. More research should be done on Black teachers being both an educator as well as a disciplinarian and achieving a balance between the two characteristics. Another point to make here was that most female teachers in this study expressed their desire of not wanting to work in administration.

Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal. For the teacher participants, unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of their supervisor or school principal had a mean score of 2.06 and a *p* value of .01 from responses on the teacher (Appendix A) survey instruments. Specifically, this tabulation informed that unequal work directed the principals was a factor that influenced other

teacher participants to leave the profession. This factor was based on the treatment and unequal work distribution provided by principals or school supervisor to the teacher participants. An example of inequitable work distribution was based on teaching assignments (assigning teachers tougher or classes with more students), assigning inequitable duties, and not requiring the same expectation from all teachers. One of the teacher participants stated during the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews that poor relationships with their principals could influence her to leave the profession.

Teacher IV supported this notion of poor relationships with a principal when she stated, “I think if I did not have the support from the administrators...then I would leave.” Teacher V said that bad leadership that she had experienced encouraged her to leave the profession. The two examples provided underscored the significance of how the perceived bad relationship between a principal and teacher could affect teacher retention. The professional literature supported this finding. Ingersoll (2012) stated that 81% of minority teachers left the teaching profession because of dissatisfaction with administration. Based on the data collected from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument, the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews, and Ingersoll’s finding, one could infer that principals should be careful regarding the distribution of work and their leadership practices.

Heavy workload of teaching. The heavy workload of teaching was identified from data obtained from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument and it had a mean score of 2.06 and with a *p* value of .001. Notably, this compilation informed that heavy workload of teaching was a factor that influenced other teacher participants to leave the profession. Heavy workload of teaching in this study could be defined as the jobs and

tasks the teachers were responsible to complete. Furthermore, the teacher participants were responsible for lesson planning, maintaining student records, and fulfilling other duties as a teacher. Because teachers were required to complete many tasks and to complete them proficiently, it was no surprise that some of the teacher participants from the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews expressed that teachers were likely to become burnt out and leave the profession. Ingersoll (2012) wrote that the minority teachers left because of heavy workload for the following reasons: dissatisfied with accountability/testing (65%), poor workplace conditions (56%), dissatisfied with teaching assignment (31%), and class sizes too large (23%). Additionally, the National Education Association (2017) stated that teacher burn out and frustration were caused by on-the job-hazards, poor working conditions, discipline problems, spreading of school violence, and the lack of support from colleagues. These findings were supported by data collected from the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews. Teacher VI added the following about a factor that would influence her to leave the profession. She said, “I think that all teachers get to a point where you ‘re like I’ve had it enough, enough...just feeling overworked, feeling underappreciated.” Teacher III lamented, “A lot of times teachers are expected to play so many different roles and carry so many hats.” Teacher II added, “The reason I would leave? Class sizes, feeling like I have no control over that...” Teacher IV pointed out that she would leave if “the work environment became toxic with my co-workers.” Based on the findings from the professional literature, principals should be mindful about the workload they provide to and expect from their teachers. As noted, overworking teachers may lead to teacher burnout, which could influence and potentially increase teacher attrition.

Making a difference. Making a difference was identified as a theme relating to the teacher participants making positive contribution to the lives of their students. The teacher participants perceived that they accomplished this objective by establishing positive relationships with their students. This subsection explained how making a difference influenced the teacher participants to remain in the profession.

From the teacher (Appendix C) semi-structured interviews, the teacher participants expressed establishing positive relationships with their students. Teacher I replied, “Well, I just love kids. I love kids in different ways. I love the interaction; I love the energy; I love the love they give me.” Teacher II added, “remember why you [Black teachers] went into education in the first place, it definitely wasn't for those adults that you're probably battling and dealing with, it's for the communities, for the kids that are sitting in front of you.” These findings revealed that regardless of their relationship with their professional staff members, the teacher participants expressed that they enjoyed interacting with their students and felt they were a part of the community. The literature affirmed this finding. Griffin and Tackie (2016) stated, “They [Black teachers] remain teachers, they say, because they love their students, their work, and want to be able to fully contribute to the educational success of their students” (p. 2). Milner (2004) added that Black teachers expressed high expectations, were deeply caring, and wanted Black students to succeed. Teacher IV summarized this theme by stating, “If I didn't feel that I could make a difference then I would leave.” One of the ways in which they made a difference was being a role model for their students.

Role models. The teacher participants in this study believed that they were role models for their students. They also argued that all children needed to experience Black

teachers and felt that they were surrogate parents to their students. This subsection explained how the teacher participants expressed being role models for their students.

Seemingly, the teacher participants perceived themselves as being role models for all of their students. Teachers II and VI pointed out the need for students to interact with Black teachers. They wanted to show their students that Blacks could be professionals and be in a position to make positive influences on students' lives. The teacher participants purported that they wanted to abate any negative stereotypes or myths about Blacks not being professionals. Limited exposure to Black professionals helped permeate this myth and the teacher participants felt that it was their duty to change this narrative. In addition to changing the narrative of Black professionals, Principal III stressed the importance of Black teachers being role models because they shared similar life experiences that enabled them to connect with their students. Griffin and Tackie (2016) noted that Black teachers had an easier time connecting with all students, but mainly with Black student population. Milner (2006) found that Black teachers were needed for the benefit of all students especially Black students. Ingersoll and May (2011) posited that minority students benefited from Black teachers because of having "insider knowledge" which suggested that Black teachers had similar life experiences and/or cultural backgrounds. Milner (2004) drew attention to Blacks teachers being able to connect with students because of the hidden curriculum based on similar lived experiences. Because of similar life experiences, Black teachers used those experiences and curriculum to establish relationships that had a positive effect on all students.

Regarding surrogate parents, evidence of this role was found in this study and was supported by preexisting literature. Teacher I said, "I can address and deal with them

[Black students] in a way that I feel that is not accessible to non-Blacks...I can even deal with the parents. I feel in a way that they (non-Black teachers) can't." Teacher I also added that he sometimes took on the role of being a father or uncle towards his students and called some of them his children. Additionally, Teacher VI described being a mother to her students. Peterson (2017) explained that one of the factors for why Black teachers stayed in the education was because of being an extended family member to their students. Taking on the role of a surrogate parents had a positive impact on Black students. The teacher participants felt connected to their students because of the perceived relationships they had with their students' parents. While the presumption was that any teacher could connect with students, the teacher participants felt that the relationships they established were deeper than learning content, and taught them life skills. They argued that their relationships entailed being an extended family member of their students and invested in their success. Being able to connect to their students because of similar life experiences was found in the literature. Milner and Howard (2004) explained that Black teachers improved student achievement by acting *in loco parentis* and by fulfilling the roles of disciplinarians, counselors, role models, and supporters of the Black students' success. Teacher participants from this study supported the existing literature and felt that they had a duty to create a positive image of Blacks working as professionals while being a surrogate parent for their students. Being role models allowed the teacher participants to have a positive influence on the lives of their students.

Community. The teacher participants had different perspectives about their roles in the school community. Based on their responses, the teacher participants felt that they

served the community and its stakeholders. Data taken from the teacher participants also suggested that teacher-to-teacher relationships needed attention. The data from the interviews also supported the literature on the representation of Black educators in public schools changed overtime during the late 1960s. This subsection further explained how the community influenced the teacher participants to stay in the profession.

The teacher participants and the existing literature suggested that teaching was a service to the community and stakeholders. Teachers I and III believed that their purpose was to serve their students. Teacher I explained, “I don't teach with that in mind, but I think that is a result of teaching, that you serve the community, but that's not why I teach. I teach to serves the students.” One could infer from these responses that the teacher indirectly served the community through the students. However, Teachers II and VI articulated that their role was to help create and serve the community. Teacher II replied, “But I felt a sense of purpose to be in a community where I live to affect the community.” Teacher VI stated, “Hope that I inspire other people in my community while working with parents.” These reflections indicated that teacher participants expressed serving the students by becoming involved in the community. The notion of serving students and the community was found in the existing literature. Randolph (2004) argued that Black educators were often regarded as leaders in the community, attended community churches, visited their students' homes, and shared the same educational vision of the parents. Achinstein, Ogawa, Sexten, and Freitas (2010) found that Black teachers had humanistic commitments. The humanistic commitments were based on perceiving the teaching profession as a way of giving back to the communities. Griffin and Tackie (2016) posited that Black teachers acted as parents, counselors, cheerleaders, and went

beyond the responsibility of being a typical teacher. While the teacher participants stated that they attended churches, they also took on the role as surrogate parents, counselors, cheerleaders, and were committed to seeing a productive school community that positively impacts kids.

In addition to serving the community, teacher-to-teacher relationships had implications for Black teachers. Some of the teacher participants felt that other teachers were not committed to the school community. Teacher II said, “I think sometimes that, it gets very personal for us, working in those communities where some of our colleagues go home, they don't deal with that [community] anymore.” Teacher V followed, “If you're not going to invest, if you're not willing to do that, then we don't want you, because you're affecting kids' lives.” Overall, these responses underscored how the teacher participants felt about their community and insinuated that some of their colleagues were not as committed as they were to the community. Additionally, one teacher participant described being isolated in her building. Teacher VI lamented, “I do feel that my co-workers are welcoming and warm. But still have that feeling like there are certain things we can't talk about. There is a sense of isolation because everybody knows my name because I am one of the few Black teachers.” Griffin and Tackie (2016) observed that Black teachers experienced negative treatment and lack of personal recognition from their colleagues, which added to how critical teacher-to-teacher relationships were important for fully integrating Black teachers in predominantly White staffed schools. Tillman (2005) advised principals about the steps they should take to limit Black teachers feeling isolated. While the teacher participant enjoyed support from her principal and

colleagues, the teacher participant felt a sense of skepticism and lack of trust among her colleagues.

Another finding pertained to how the community changed. Teacher V explained that after *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) her community changed. During her grade school years, her teachers were Black. However, as she approached high school, most of her teachers were White. Teacher V's perception of community change was supported in the literature. Milner and Howard (2004) explained that Black teachers before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) lived in the community of their respective schools and developed meaningful relationships with their students. It was observed that when *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) forced Black schools to integrate with predominantly White schools, the ruling influenced a significant reduction in the number of teaching jobs for Black educators (Green, 2004; Milner & Howard, 2004; Randolph, 2004). Because of the *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), one teacher participant witnessed changes within the community first hand. She witnessed how her schools went from predominantly Black to White by the time she attended high school.

Based on the data collected from the teacher participants and the literature, the community certainly had an influence on Blacks staying the profession. The findings suggested that Black teachers valued and believed it was their duty to serve their students, community, and its stakeholders. They also acknowledged the importance of relationships with professional staff members and how those relationships could influence them to leave. Additional findings concluded with the community and how it changed overtime, which directly had an impact on the experiences of one of the teacher participants.

Resilience. While serving the students and the school communities, the teacher participants experienced turbulence in their roles as Black educators and conveyed how they were able to overcome them. Several teachers acknowledged that they felt discriminated and explained that they experienced an informal tax based on being Black educators. Rather than allow the perceived discriminatory acts to deter them, the teacher participants chose to overcome them, which demonstrated resilience. This subsection described how the teacher participants were resilient and stayed in the profession despite their obstacles.

The teachers demonstrated being resilient from perceived discrimination and subsequently overcoming it to remain in the profession. Teacher V echoed these sentiments regarding being resilient, she responded, "You never quit. When you're ready to leave, you leave with your head held high and you resign, but you don't quit. You never quit a job because then they win." Teacher V lamented that some of her students' parents and a teacher discriminated against her because of her race, whereas Teacher IV described being treated differently from parents and administration and believed that it was informal tax based on her being a Black educator. The majority of the experiences were subtle or subliminal acts of discrimination, in which the teacher participants' felt that they were treated differently because of their race. Although more research could be done on this topic, the research did provide findings in reference to Black teachers being resilient against perceived discrimination. Milner and Hoy (2003) revealed that Black teachers experienced social and collegial isolation, the burden of invalidating stereotypes among colleagues and students, the importance of students' and parents' perception of respect, and the role of successful self-reflective experiences, yet she still prevailed.

Polidore, Edmonson, and Slate (2010) wrote about the experiences of three Black female teachers before, during, and after school desegregation period. Using grounded theory, Polidore et al. found that the participants were resilient based on the following themes: being deeply committed, enjoyed change, bias for optimism, flexible locus of control, ability to control events, moral and spiritual support, positive relationships, and education viewed as being important. The teacher participants from this study supported the notion of being resilient and persevering to stay in the profession despite the perceived negative relationships and experiences from their students, students' parents, and colleagues. The teacher participants suggested that the values instilled in them by their parents and the love of their students were factors that helped them work past the professed discriminatory acts to remain in the profession.

Mentoring. The teacher participants identified mentoring as a theme that influenced them to stay in the profession. Mentoring was found as a method of providing support to new and veteran teachers while describing the limitations of mentoring. This subsection discussed how mentoring was a theme that influenced the teacher participants to stay in the profession.

The teacher participants expressed that mentoring, if done right, could be beneficial to teachers. The teacher participants explained that teacher induction could help teachers with transitioning into profession. An example of transitioning into the profession was articulated by one of the teacher participants who stated that having a mentor could have made her transition into teach profession smoother and more effective. Principals or human resource managers could use this information to ensure that teachers are given induction services and mentors that could provide the assistance that new

teachers' need. Ronfeldt and McQueen (2017) found that induction limited attrition rates in the first year of teaching and reported that Black teachers were significantly more likely to receive extensive induction supports. Part of the reason why Black teachers were given extensive supports was that they were the most at risk to leave the profession. Ronfeldt and McQueen found a correlation between the usage of mentoring as an induction program both supported teacher retention and reduced teacher attrition rates.

While mentoring could limit attrition, poor utilization of mentoring could have adverse effects. The teacher participants described the perils of poor implementation of mentoring. Teacher V pointed out she experienced poor mentors who received extra pay, but failed to support the new or veteran staff members. She also explained issues with having common planning periods and mentees and mentors working in different schools. While mentoring could provide support, principals and human resource directors should be aware of how they are applying their support. They should also examine the mentors to ensure that they are committed to helping their mentees. Teacher II lamented about how her building moral was negatively impacted from lack mentoring and poor leadership. Tillman (2005) added to the ineffective implementation by describing how miscommunication between a principal and teacher had negative results for a novice Black teacher. Failure to implement mentoring properly could result in attrition for any teacher, including Black teachers. As the teacher participant pointed out, principals should be aware that mentoring teachers were not isolated events, but could have adverse affects on their schools' moral.

Recruiting. Because of the limited representation of Black teachers compared to other races (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013b), recruiting could be used an

effective method to increase Black representation in education. Based on limited representation in their schools, the teacher participants felt that their schools were not doing enough to hire more Black educators. This section pertained to the teacher participants pointing out that more Blacks were needed in the profession and what should be done to increase their representation in schools.

The teacher participants advised that visiting and recruiting at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and college fairs were effective strategies to increase Black representation in publicly funded K-12 schools. Four of the teacher participants mentioned that Black candidates could be found at HBCUs. The rationale for this approach was based on the perception that those schools had potential Black teachers. Alston (1988) stated that Black teachers could be recruited at colleges. Irvine and Fenwick (2011) found that HBCUs had the potential to make a significant difference in recruiting, retaining, and developing teachers for high need schools. Although the teacher participants and the literature supported recruiting at HBCUs, more research was needed to look at the difference between teacher candidates who come from HBCUs or other colleges and universities. What experiences at HBCUs attract and retain Black teacher candidates? Despite recommending HBCUs, none of the teacher participants who were interviewed attended HBCUs.

In addition to recruiting strategies, teacher participants and the literature suggested that part of the reason why potential Black candidates maybe hard to recruit was because of achieving a passing score on the teacher licensure exams. Four teachers stated that Black candidates had difficulty passing the teacher licensure exams, but could not explain why. Teacher III replied, “Blacks seem to have problems with the

standardized testing required to become a certified teacher.” This notion was further supported Gursky (2002), Alston (1988), Bennett, McWhorter, and Kuykendall (2006), and Gitomer and Qi (2010) who found that Black candidates passed at lower rates than other races. The teacher participants described the need for teacher standards, but concluded that Blacks candidates needed to apply themselves. The teacher participants were very critical of affirmative action and lowering the standards for Black educators. One could infer from this data that schools were not to blame for the lack of preparation for Black teachers. Finally, in reference to recruiting, Ingersoll, May, and Collins (2017) found that recruiting efforts increased the number of Black teachers from 1987 to 2012; however, Blacks left the profession at greater rates than nonminority teachers. Based on these findings and the data collected from the teacher participants, recruiting efforts had the potential to increase the number of Blacks in the profession if Blacks perform better at passing teacher licensure exams and schools retained them.

Family. Family was identified as an essential aspect of the teacher participants’ lives and was consequently a theme for this study. The teacher participants acknowledged that their families motivated them to become teachers and instilled family values in them. This section explained how the teacher participants were influenced to join the profession because of their family influence, while one teacher participant stated that she would leave the profession based on her experiences from her students’ families.

The teacher participants wanted to share their family values with their students. The teacher participants also stressed that students who had family values were easier to manage and educate. Wood’s (2001) study found that families were a significant factor that encouraged Black males to pursue teaching careers. Juxtaposing the data and finding

from Wood's study, one could infer that school leaders could use this finding to improve student behavior. School officials could create outreach programs to families and encourage them to be actively a part of the schools. More research could be done on how to effectively increase positive parent involvement in schools.

While the teacher participants' family motivated them to enter and stay in the profession, one teacher asserted that her students' parents could have motivated her to leave the profession. Teacher II discussed how a student and parent undermined her authority. She said, "The parents tell their kids to go ahead and text them during class if they feel like a teacher's wronging them." Although the intention and implication was to provide security, constant communication, and checks and balances on the teacher interactions with the student, the ramification created uncertainty and lack of trust among the student, teacher, and parent. The teacher felt that the parent did not trust her authority as the teacher. A part of the miscommunication and distrust between the teacher and parent could be associated with the separation between the home and school. Milner and Howard (2004) added that as a result of *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and the reduction of Black teachers, the community's perception changed regarding the stature and prestige of education as a profession. Black students were not entering the field of education because they did not see people who looked like them in education (Milner & Howard, 2004). Although only one teacher participant out of six teachers mentioned the mistrust between them and a parent, this type of situation could be a factor that influenced the growing number of Black teachers to leave the profession and could be further explored.

Concepts

Students. Making a difference and being role models for students supported the concept students, which was a factor that influenced the teacher participants to stay in the profession. As identified by Griffin and Tackie (2016) and supported with the finding in this study, Black teachers loved their students and wanted all of their students to succeed. Black teachers wanted to make a positive difference in the lives of their students by establishing positive relationships with their students, students' parents, and the community. Additionally, the teacher participants perceived themselves as role models for their students. Wood (2001) and Milner and Howard (2004) found that Black teachers wanted to be role models for their students. The teacher participants wanted to create a positive perception of Black professionals. The teacher participants stressed that they wanted their students to know that Blacks could be teachers as well. Finally, the teacher participants pointed out that they were surrogate parents to the students. They believed that it was their role to support and provide motherly and fatherly love to their students. At the forefront and core of this concepts were the students. The teacher participants demonstrated that they were in the profession to make positive contribution to the lives of their students.

Community involvement. Another factor that emerged from the semi-structured interviews was community involvement. The teacher participants stayed in the profession because of the commitment to serve and be involved in their school community. The teacher participants identified several ways in which they were involved in the community. Whether it was providing tutoring services or establishing positive relationships within the school community, these two acts were examples of how

the teacher participants were involved in the community. The teacher participants also addressed the importance of how they served their school communities. The teacher participants identified that they could serve the community as teachers or principals. The concept of community involvement was supported by the involvement of Black educators in the community before *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Randolph (2004) wrote that Black teachers were leaders in the community, attended community churches, visited their students' homes, and shared the same educational vision of the parents. Milner and Howard (2004) stated that Black teachers lived in their schools' communities and developed meaningful relationships with their students.

Support. The final concept that emerged from the teacher data was support. The teacher addressed the importance of being mentoring. The teacher participants stayed in the profession because they supported others by being mentors to their colleagues and received support from mentors as well. They also discussed how new teacher induction could support novice teachers. New teacher induction could provide teachers with much needed skills and attention they need to transition into the field. They also identified that school districts needed to recruit more Black educators. Black teachers were needed to provide support to other Black teachers as noted by one of the teacher participants. Black educators needed support if they feel there is potential discrimination against them. Meanwhile, school districts could provide financial support in the paying of adequate salaries to their teachers. Finally, the teachers were motivated to become teachers by their families and wanted to share those family values with their students. However, one teacher participant noted that the lack of support from their students' families could influence her to leave the profession. Based on the data collected, at their core, Black

teachers stayed in the profession because of their relationships with their students, their active involvement in their communities, and the support they received from their employers and the support they gave to their coworkers.

Research Question 2. Which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education?

Research question two focused on which factors influenced Black principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of being in education. The quantitative data did not reveal factors that would influence the principal participants to stay or leave the profession. The qualitative data produced stories and thematic data from the principal participants that were generated to form concepts that answered research question two.

The principal participants' responses to the mixed methods data were intended to discover the factors for why Black principals stayed in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of service. Sixteen Black principals completed the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument, which one factor was identified. The principal participants found that other principals left the profession because of family problems including child rearing. From the principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews, the themes included: making a difference, role models, serving, resilience, mentoring, recruiting, principal salary, and legacy were found. From the data collected emerged three concepts, which were students, community involvement, and support.

Family problems (child rearing, and/or family restrictions especially for female principals). Family problems for the principal participants had a mean score of 2.23 and a *p* value of .04. Based on the mean score and *p* value, family problems was

identified as a factor. The item family problems was identified as a factor that would influence other Black principals, especially Black females to leave the profession to take care of their children after giving birth. During the semi-structured interviews, none of the principal participants referred to child rearing or leaving the profession because of issues with family or taking care of children. In reference to the literature, there were limited studies pertaining to the topic of Black educators and childrearing. Curenton, Crowley, and Mouzon (2018) researched Black woman and child rearing and found that Black women chose to stay home because of gender roles (women better suited to take care of kids) and hesitation of enrolling their children in formalized day care settings. Curenton et al. also found that women left the profession because of access to Family and Medical Leave Act (U.S. Department of Labor, N.D.) and wanting to move away from stressful and demanding jobs. The factor child rearing was not mentioned during the principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews, but it should be further explored based on the factor being identified in the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument and literature.

Making a difference. Similar to the teacher participants, the principal participants wanted to make a difference in the lives of their students. Principal I explained, “It’s in my DNA. I am an educator, and I love being in the presence of children and teaching them.” Principal I’s summarized the position of all the principal participants had about their students. While Principal I expressed working one-on-one with students, other principal participants described collaborating with teachers to make differences in the lives of students. Principal III expressed, “I love it when I’m working with teachers and you can see it come on with teachers.” The principal participants

valued the influence they had on their faculty and the impact their faculty had on the students and the whole community. One could infer that the principal participants perceived themselves as teachers while being in an administrative position. Existing literature supported Black principals desire to create and sustain meaningful, and positive impacts on the lives of their students and communities. As the literature pointed out, lack of support because of desegregation was one of the factors that influenced a reduction in the number of Black principals (Tillman, 2006). Prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) Black principals had the support of their communities, lived in their communities, attended churches, visited their students' homes, and shared the same educational vision as their students' parents (Randolph, 2004). Vinzant (2009) found that Black principals had a strong connection to their communities and were able to connect with their students because of sharing the same heritage. The principal participants made a difference by connecting with the school community and students, which was supported in the literature.

Role models. The principal participants perceived themselves as positive role models to their students. Being a role model, according to the principal participants, meant for them or other educators to establish positive relationships with students. This subsection described the principals' impact on their students and the relationships they had with their personal role models prior to being an educator.

Three of the five principal participants explained that they were role models to their students. The relationships that the principal participants had with their students extended beyond school years and in some cases had a direct impact on the student relationships with their families. This meant that some principal participants had become

more than an instructor to their students. Establishing a relationship in which the principal participants continued to have contact with their students meant that the principal participants were invested in the students' success beyond academics. James (1970) argued that Black principals had a direct and positive impact on the lives of the students they served. While serving as principals, they were role models and inspired Black children (James, 1970). Randolph (2004) found that Black educators were leaders in the community, attended community churches, visited their students' homes, and shared the same educational vision of the students' parents. These findings supported the data found in this study.

The principal participants also identified educators from their past who had a positive influence on them. Those experiences from former principals helped provide a framework for the principal participants. They used the skills learned from their former principals to help them lead and manage their schools. Based on the literature and data from this study, Black principals created relationships by being leaders, learning skills from their personal role models, and became role models themselves to help their students.

Serving. The principal participants discussed how they served their community and stakeholders, which were their students, students' parents, teachers, and community members that work or live in close proximity to the schools. This subsection further explained how the principal participants served as quasi-administrators while being teachers.

In being quasi-administrators, two of the six principal participants described leadership experiences they had while being a teacher that motivated them to become

principals. While describing how they served, the leadership opportunities that charter schools provided emerged. While the principal participants did not mention whether traditional public schools provided those same opportunities, they stated that charter schools allowed them to take on both administrative and teaching roles at the same time. Charter schools providing leadership opportunities for Black teachers to serve as quasi-administrators was an emergent finding from this study and should further explored. Researchers and principals could explore this finding and determine whether it could be replicated in traditional public schools.

The principal participants believed that they were the liaison between the school and community and wanted to serve in a greater capacity. All of the principal participants discussed having a wider impact on their communities serving as a principal. Principal V stressed that principal participants answered to the home, schools, and the community. Because of the roles the principal participants had, the decisions they made implications that affected their schools and its community outside of their buildings. Savage (2001) wrote that Black principals made the schools the center of the community and transformed them into a cultural symbol. Cramer (2016) wrote that Black principals expressed the desire to give back to their community. The principal participants discussed how their decision-making had a direct impact on the school and community. They felt it was their responsibility to be the fulcrum that bonded all stakeholders together, which was supported by findings in Savage and Cramer.

Mentoring. The principal participants believed that mentoring teachers and principals were important aspects that affect the retention of Black teachers and principals. The principal participants acknowledged the positive influence mentoring had

on educators and discussed how it provided them with strategies to help cope with stress of the job. This subsection explains how mentoring empowered the principal participants.

The principal participants stressed the importance of mentoring and its impact on their practice. Principal I stated, “So I've had great mentors along the way and we still keep in touch, and without them, I don't think I would be who I am today.” Principal III explained, “Without a good mentor, you're pretty much left up to your own devices. Principal IV said, “I think it's always beneficial to have someone to bounce ideas off of to check yourself to give you something different to think about, to encourage you, to motivate you and as it's been done for me.” Some of the principal participants expressed that they had more than one mentor who served in a group setting or helped out as therapists. Cramer (2016) found that Black principals stayed in the profession because they received support through formal and informal mentoring opportunities. In essence, mentors do not necessarily need to be one person, but anyone who can offer guidance and support to help educators with ideas through the rough times in their careers. These findings determined that mentoring could provide support and help to retain principals.

Recruiting. Similar to Black teachers, Black principal representation was significantly low compared to other races (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013a). Based on the responses of the principal participants, recruiting could be the solution to increase their representation in the education field. This subsection discussed the need for more Blacks in the profession, the role of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), and strategic planning.

The principal participants discussed the role they had in the recruitment process. Principal I described the following example, “I hired a 5th grade teacher and they (children) were like, ‘Wow, this is the first Black teacher.’” The implication from this quote suggested that Blacks were needed because of the positive impact they had on children. Similar to the teacher participants, the principal participants recommended that school districts and schools could recruit Black educators through job fairs and HBCUs. They argued that if school districts wanted to increase the number of Blacks, then school districts and their school needed to recruit at schools where Black educators attend. Three of the five Black principals attended HBCUs and one principal pointed out that his experience at an HBCU had a positive impact on his professional career. The principal participants also discussed the need for strategic planning. They argued that schools might lack plans or strategic actions regarding the recruitment of Black educators. Despite their plans, the principal participants believed that school districts failed to execute on those plans. One principal participant suggested there was a break down in the process, in which Blacks would apply, but would not receive an interview for a position. Cramer (2016) found that a school district could effectively recruit Black teachers and principals with strategic planning. Cramer wrote that a school district increased the number of Black teachers by recruiting from HBCUs and majority white campuses that had large amounts of Black prospective teachers. The principal participants from this study supported the findings from the literature, but they added that planning and attending HBCUs were not enough. School districts needed to follow up on their strategic plans and interview prospective Black applicants when they apply.

Resilience. Principal participants were resilient by going through negative or discouraging experiences and overcoming them to become and remain principals. Whether it was being treated differently or having to prove themselves, the principal participants were resilient and worked through their obstacles. The principal participants discussed experiences that were professed as being an informal tax, discriminatory, and micro aggressions. This subsection explained how the principal participants had to prove themselves to gain respect.

Principal V stated, “There's questions about your decision-making and I directly relate that sometimes to racism, but then once you've proven yourself it kind of goes away.” Principal V’s statement summarized several of the principal participants’ feelings about their professional staff members’ perception of their leadership. The principal participants felt and believed they experienced an informal tax because they had to work twice as hard as principals from other races to earn the respect of their respective staff members. As Principal V pointed out, once they [principal participants] had proven that they could handle or excel at the work given to them, and then they earned the respect of the staff members. The literature supported the finding of Black principals perceiving that they were treated differently. Vinzant (2009) found that Black principals could not separate race from their identities and that they had to constantly prove themselves because of their race. According to Vinzant, Black principals felt this way because people in their schools did not believe they could do the job as well as White principals. Jones (2002) found that White teachers believed that Black principals had to maintain the moral climate of their buildings, and believed that Black principals had to earn their trust. However, it should be noted that any new principal must gain the respect of their faculty

in order to earn their respect. None of the principal participants from this study, however, were new principals. The findings from the principal participants and literature suggested that whether their race was actually a factor that provided an informal tax for Black principals, they perceived race was an additional factor that they had to overcome to gain their professional staff members' respect.

Principal salary. Similar to the teacher participants, salary was an issue that motivated the principal participants to stay in the education field. One of the interesting findings from this study pertained to principal attrition. Principal V suggested that an assistant principal, after a few years may want to lead their own building. Upward movement into administration may add to principal attrition according to that principal. School Leadership Network (2014) wrote that 50% of new principals were not retained after the third year. This subsection reported about principal salary from the principal participants and the existing literature.

Principal II said, "Lastly, look at compensation. No one in education has ever gotten rich, but as far as compensation is concerned, being in administration, you are afforded a few more pennies than as a teacher." Principal V stated, "I think the people that move in education and stay truly want be there, but unfortunately many good teachers leave the field because of the motivation of money." These comments suggested that income was a motivating factor that either influenced teachers and principals to either stay or leave the profession. These points were supported in the professional literature. Pijinowski, Hewitt, and Brady (2009) found that compensation was the primary method of attracting qualified principal applicants. Tran (2017) pointed out that principals who were unhappy with their salaries were more likely to leave the profession.

As shown from the responses from the principal participants and literature, salary was found to be a factor that influenced the principal participants to either stay or leave the profession.

Legacy. Legacy described the impact the principal participants wanted to make at the end of their careers. The principal participants discussed the impact they had on the profession and the importance of paving the way for others to have the opportunity to serve. They also discussed the importance of stepping away from the profession when they reached retirement age so as that other teacher and principal candidates have the opportunity to serve. Principal I summarized this point of paving the way for others when she stated, “I carried that weight with me every day to ensure that I did no harm, because it would ruin the opportunities for people who may want to do this after me.” Principal I along with the other principal participants had served for decades and thought of it as their duty to help other Black professionals be educators. They knew that their actions would be scrutinized and they made it a point to serve with honor and integrity so that other potential Black educators chances would not be harmed by bad decisions.

Concepts

Students. The principal participants identified students as one of the main factors that influenced them to stay in the profession. Identical to the teacher participants, the principal participants discussed making a difference in the lives of their students. The principal participants accomplished this task by creating positive relationships with their students and helping their teachers make positive connections with their students. In reference to role models, the principal participants identified two findings. First, they described how they made connections with their students that went beyond the school

year. Next, the principal participants described how their grade school teachers and principals had a positive impact on them. Based on the data provided, relationships and wanting their students to succeed was at the forefront of them staying in the profession.

Community involvement. The principal participants valued and described that being in the community was essential to them staying in the profession. Both the teacher and principal participants pointed out the need to serve the school community. While some of the teachers wanted to serve the students first, the principal participants preferred serving the students, students' parents, teachers, and the stakeholders in the community at the same time. Some of the principal participants also described how charter schools promoted them to be quasi-administrators while being teachers. Their involvement in the community outside of the classroom motivated them to become principals.

Support. The final concept supported by principal participants was the idea of support. Similar to the teacher participants, the principal participants acknowledged the need for support from relevant stakeholders. The principal participants identified that they were mentors to their professional staff members and students. They also advised that they were mentored as well to get over the rough patches in their careers. The principal participants described how they were resilient against various forms of discrimination and the need to constantly prove themselves. The principal participants explained that HBCUs had a role in recruiting Black educators and argued that school districts needed to follow through with strategic planning if they wanted more Blacks in the profession. Finally, the principal participants argued that Black teacher candidates would feel supported and become educators if schools provided higher salaries and moved into administration because of receiving a larger salary.

Implications

Statistically, historically, and currently, Black teachers and principals were needed in publicly funded K-12 schools. The findings of this study underscored this fact and the implications of these findings were outlined in this section. This section provided theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical implications. This study answered the research questions regarding the retention of Black teachers and principals in publicly funded K-12 schools. The literature and focus of the study was based on the theoretical frameworks of the study. Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation was the framework used in this study with insights from critical race theory (CRT).

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation related to both the quantitative and qualitative data from this study. Maslow's theory articulated the five levels of needs that motivate people. In this study, four levels were applicable to findings of the data. At the physiological level, an adequate salary was found as a factor from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument and teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The teacher participants discussed that they were not in the profession solely for their salaries, but needed an adequate salary to stay in the profession, which would provide for their physiological needs. In reference to safety, the teacher participants expressed issues with heavy workload and safety issues could influence them and others to leave. Based on the responses, the teacher participants were not experiencing these issues and did not personally discuss leaving the profession. Next, the teacher and principal participants expressed that they stayed in the profession because of a commitment to their students, involvement in their community, and the need and

giving support, which were the basis for belonging and love. Self-actualization, a higher need, was supported from the data collected in this study based on the teacher and principal participants' utilization of their talents to best serve their students and their communities. The principal participants provided additional evidence of self-actualization by discussing their legacy. The principal participants explained how they fulfilled their career aspirations by potentially stepping aside for other educators to have opportunities.

The study supported the literature of CRT's counter storytelling. The themes such as role models, recruiting, resilience, and legacy provided data that implied that the participants had experiences that were unique to Black educators. For instance, the teacher participants revealed that Black educators were needed to dispel any negative stereotypes or myths that Blacks were not or could not be professionals. The teacher participants also pointed out that they could relate to their Black students' parents because of similar life experiences. Regarding the number of Blacks in the profession, both the teacher and principal participants felt that school districts were not doing enough to recruit Black educators. One principal participant lamented about how her actions could limit or harm the chances of other Blacks joining the profession. Both teacher and principal participants believed that they experienced discrimination from students, students' parents, and colleagues. While both groups implied that they were resilient to perceived discrimination and informal taxes, several principal participants discussed that they needed to prove themselves in order to gain acceptance from their professional staff members. Vinzant's (2009) study had similar findings in regards to the principal

participants expressing the need to prove themselves in order to gain acceptance from their non-minority professional staff members.

Practical implications. This study provided practical implications for the retention of Black teachers and principals. The literature review reflected the notion that Black educators had similar lived experiences as Black students (Milner & Howard, 2004; Randolph, 2004; Vinzant, 2009). The disproportionate number of Black teachers and principals compared to other races made it vital for government officials and school leaders to find ways to influence more Black individuals to enter the profession, serve as teachers and administrators, and remain in the profession. This study provided a perspective of how Blacks view themselves in the profession and identified factors, which influenced them to stay in the profession. However, the study provided limited implications for government officials, but offered insights for practical implications for local school leaders and researchers for publicly funded K-12 schools. Those implications are in reference to school climate and culture.

The study findings revealed similar results in reference to the relationship among Black teachers and their colleagues (Bristol, 2014; Griffin & Tackie, 2016). Black teachers revealed that they had issues with establishing teacher-to-teacher relationships with their colleagues who were not Black. Building principals could use this information to work on improving relationships among their professional staff members to create a positive school climate and culture. One teacher participant revealed that she sometimes felt alone. While she was physically present, she felt emotionally detached from other professional staff members. Superintendents and human resource managers could hire training/consulting companies to conduct professional development sessions to address

establishing a school community that welcomes and appreciates diversity. The professional development sessions could be centered on cultural competency. These sessions could inform staff members about all of the school cultures within the organization and develop common solutions to fix issues such as teacher isolation.

Black principals perceived that they had to work twice as hard as other races, were afraid to make mistakes that would impact other Black educators chances of being hired, and felt they had to prove that they could do their jobs before their professional staff members trusted them. These findings had implications for both superintendents as well as Black principals. Superintendents could use these findings to find ways in which they can support their Black principals. Providing them with support may reduce insecurities and empower them. Black principals could use these findings for self-reflection. Black principals could examine their professional relationships with their professional staff members and find ways in which they can earn their support. Black principals could potential earn their faculty's support with trainings on cultural competency. Next, Black principals could network with other successful Black principals/leaders to gain insights from them regarding how they were working to improve the climate and culture of their schools. Black principals could meet other Black principals/leaders in graduate programs, workshops, conferences, and seminars.

Recommendations

This study examined the factors that influenced Black teachers and principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools after five or more years of service. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed to answer the research questions of this

study. The recommendations that follow were derived from the data that addressed those questions, focusing on retention of the Black educators.

Recommendations for future research. The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that influenced Black educators to remain in publicly funded K-12 schools. While investigating the factors for both groups, the study found several factors from the teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument and themes from teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews. The recommendations for future research were based on further discussion on the themes found for both teacher and principal participants.

A first recommendation pertained to teacher leadership opportunities. A compelling finding from the study pertained to the leadership opportunities that charter schools provided to both the teacher and principal participants. The teacher and principal participants who worked at charter revealed those leadership opportunities inspired them to either want to be a school principal. A potential question for future research could research whether teacher leadership responsibilities influenced Blacks to remain in the profession beyond five years of service? If so, what factors influenced them to remain in publicly funded K-12 schools for over five years?

A second recommendation for a future study is related to Black teachers and their informal role of being disciplinarians as well as teachers. The participants of this study, particularly those who worked in charter schools, reported that they served as disciplinarians as well as teachers. Griffin and Tackie (2016) stated that Black teachers informal role as disciplinarians overshadowed their roles as teachers. A future study

should examine if indeed Black educators' primary teaching obligations/duties are secondary to being disciplinarians.

One of the themes that emerged from the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews was recruiting. Both the teachers and principals affirmed that more Blacks were needed in the profession and school districts were not doing enough to increase representation. Three of the five principals who were interviewed attended Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). One of the principal participants expressed how his experience at an HBCU had a significant impact on his professional career decisions. A third recommendation for future study could be based on the experiences of teachers and principals who attended HBCUs. Are more Black educators influenced to remain in the profession longer than Black educators who did not attend HBCUs? What are those experiences and/or influences?

In addition to recruiting, another theme that emerged from the teacher (Appendix C) and principal (Appendix D) semi-structured interviews was mentoring. Both the teachers and principals from the semi-structured interviews identified how mentoring could provide support to novice teachers, veteran teachers, and principals. Although the study found the need for mentoring, it did not explore the techniques or strategies that a mentor could provide a mentee. Tillman (2005) conducted a case study and wrote that a teacher mentee expressed issues with the application of instructional techniques, classroom management, student discipline, and student achievement while the principal believed the teacher needed to work harder. A fourth recommendation for future research could define the kinds of support Black novice and veteran teachers need which differ

from all teachers. A principal could use these supports to limit attrition and increase Black teacher retention.

A fifth recommendation for future research was based on further research regarding the findings of the study. A future study could examine groups, teachers and principals, from a demographically different metropolitan area. One of the limitations of the study was the limited finding from the principal survey responses. Replicating the study in a different area within the United States may find additional factors that influenced Black educators to stay in the profession.

A sixth and final recommendation for future study pertained to examining a school that has a pipeline of Black teachers and principals. A researcher could look at a school district and examine the tools they are using to create a culture and climate that recruits and retains Black educators. Examining this pipeline could find additional factors that influence Black educators to stay in the profession. The pipeline could also reveal strategies that superintendents and principals could use to attract Black educators to their school district. The next step in the research of retaining Black educators should relate to establishing a culture that perpetually attracts, hires, and keeps Black educators. Schools need them to be educators and role models to their students, community members, and mentors towards other Black teachers.

Recommendations for practice. This study was significant because it added to the research on Black educators and found the factors that influenced them to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools. Researching Black educators who had five years or more in the profession were used to find solutions to increase the number, limit attrition, and increase retention of Black educators. Teachers with five or more years in Pennsylvania

are eligible to earn principal certification. This study sought to fill a gap in the professional literature because it researched both Black teachers and principals, in which most studies only focused on teachers. There were few studies that researched principals and/or both groups. The findings from this study revealed that the teacher and principal participants remained in the profession because of similar factors. This section recommended for practice how school districts and schools could use the findings of this study to retain their Black educators.

The first recommendation for future practice related to positive influence on students. Black educators from this study wanted to make a difference in the lives of students and be role models for them. This finding was not unique to this study. Griffin and Tackie (2016), James (1970), Milner and Howard (2004), Vinzant (2009), Wimbush (2012), and Wood (2001) expressed that Black educators wanted to establish positive relationships with their students. This study added to the research on Black educators and their desire to make a positive difference in the lives of all children. Principals could use this finding to assign Black educators to mentor to any child. The relationship established between the students and Black teachers had the potential to limit attrition and increase the retention of Black teachers.

The second recommendation for future practice was based on community involvement. The Black teacher and principal participants from this study expressed the desire to serve as either teachers or principals to help their students and communities. One of the findings from the study found that charter schools provided a teacher and two principal participants with leadership opportunities while being teachers. School principals could use this finding and promote Black teachers to leadership roles while

being educators. This course of action may limit attrition and increase the retention of Black teachers and encourage them to move into administrative positions. Tillman (2004) wrote that prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) that Black principals mentored and recruited Black teachers. An increase in the number of Black principals based on these findings had the potential to increase the number of Black teachers because of recruiting.

The third and final recommendation for future practice pertained to Black educators needing and providing support. The participants from the study expressed needing and giving support by recruiting more Black educators and mentoring them. As the teacher and principal participants stated, they felt that not enough effort was being done to increase the number of Black teachers and principals. Superintendents could increase the number of Black educators by recruiting and hiring Black principals. Black principals, according to the literature, actively hired and mentored Black teachers (Tillman, 2004). As more Black teachers are hired, they could be placed in leadership roles that were identified by two of the principal participants. Additionally, the literature showed Black educators were great at being disciplinarians and could use those skills when taking on leadership roles (Griffin & Tackie, 2016). Being a quasi-administrator or teacher leader may influence them to become principals in which they may recruit and mentor other Black teachers. These aforementioned points, if utilized may reduce attrition and increase Black teacher and principal retention in publicly funded K-12 schools.

Conclusion of the Study

This study has filled a gap in the literature on Black teacher and principal retention and publicly funded K-12 schools. The study was also significant because it targeted publicly funded K-12 schools rather than only examining charter or traditional public schools separately. This study supported the hypotheses that there were factors that influenced both Black teachers and principals to stay in publicly funded K-12 schools.

The study had several findings related specifically to the teacher participants. From teacher (Appendix A) survey instrument data, the teacher participants stayed in the profession because of receiving an adequate salary, they enjoyed teaching over other professions, and they wanted to serve the community through teaching. Grounded in phenomenology and the lived experiences from the teacher participants, additional factors included: wanting to nurture and support their students, being actively involved in their communities, providing support through mentoring or being mentored, and wanting school districts to actively recruit more Black educators. The principal participants, on the other hand, did not identify any items from the principal (Appendix B) survey instrument data, which influenced them to stay in the profession. However, also grounded in phenomenology, there were three factors for why principal participants stayed in the profession. The principal participants stayed in the profession because they wanted to make a difference in the lives of students, they were described as being community leaders and the importance of gaining leadership training when they were teachers, and giving and receiving support. The literature and data collected from this study illustrated the necessity to address the disproportionate number of Black educators

in publicly funded K-12 American schools. The diversity of the United States is increasing, and rather than lose diverse teachers and principals, this study can aid in the development of those individuals to retain them in publicly funded K-12 schools, especially Black teachers and principals who have been at the forefront of this discussion.

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Appendix A – Teacher Survey Instrument

Question 1. What is your gender? Do you work in an urban or suburban school? What subject(s) do you teach now? Do you work in a charter or traditional public school? What is your grade level? Is the subject relevant to your subject of study? How many hours per week do you work?

Question 2. Do you want to continue in the teaching profession? Yes [] No [] If yes, please specify all the factors from the following list that influence your stay in the teaching profession. Please rank each factor from 1 to 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important factor).

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| a. Adequate salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Proximity of school to my home location | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. Me and my significant other work together | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. I like teaching than other professions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. My family prefers me continuing my teaching profession | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. I want to serve people through teaching | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. I can have a second job with teaching profession (working other schools, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors not listed above | | | | | |
| i. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 3. What factors would influence you to leave teaching profession? Please rank each factor from 1 to 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important factor).

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---|---|
| a. Teacher salary was very low | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Long distance of school from my home location | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. My family live in another province or deployment to other province(s) [city, state, or country] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. Professional needs – lack of professional development opportunities for teachers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Heavy workload of teaching | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. Late payment of salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their parents | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Family problems (including childrearing) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors that are not listed above | | | | | |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 4. During your tenure as a teacher, have you witnessed your fellow teachers leaving teaching profession? Yes No If yes, what do you think were the driving factors for them to leave teaching profession? Please mark all those factors apply.

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| a. Teacher low salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Problems in teaching due to lack of professional development opportunities for teachers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of their supervisors and/or school principal | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. Heavy workload of teaching and administration work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Late reimbursement of their salaries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Long distance of school from their home locations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| g. Family problems (child rearing and/or family restriction especially for female teachers) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Deployment of teachers to remote schools in other provinces [city, state, or country] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Long distance of school from teacher home location within the province and lack of transportation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors that are not listed above. | | | | | |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 5. In your opinion, what are the alternative jobs to the teaching profession? Please mark () your response in the following listed alternative jobs/work or add other possible careers to the list.

| Factors | Please check for each factor |
|---|--|
| Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| Private Sector (business or private companies) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| Pursue higher education. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| Private schools | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| Please specify any other alternatives that you know of, other careers that are not listed above | |
| f. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| g. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| h. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |

Please provide your specific recommendations to the following entities focusing on teacher retention.

To the Superintendent/ Central Office:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

To School/ Parents/ Students:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

To other organizations and stakeholders:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

Any other comments and/or Suggestions:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

Appendix B — Principal Survey Instrument

What is your gender? Do you work in an urban or suburban school? What subject(s) did you formally teach? Do you work in a charter or traditional public school? What was your grade level? Was the subject relevant to your subject of study? How many hours per week do you work?

Question 2. Do you want to continue in the teaching profession? Yes [] No [] If yes, please specify all the factors from the following list that influence your stay in teaching profession. Please rank each factor from 1 to 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important factor).

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. Adequate salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Proximity of school to my home location | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. Me and my significant other work together | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. I like teaching or being an administrator compared to other professions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. My family prefers me continuing my teaching profession | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. I don't have economic problems and just want to serve my people through teaching | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. I can take care of my family with the teaching profession | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. I can have a second job with teaching profession (working other schools, learning centers, etc.) and further help my family economically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors not listed above | | | | | |
| i. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 3. What factors would influence you to leave teaching profession? Please rank each factor from 1 to 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important factor).

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| a. Principal salary was very low | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Long distance of school from my home location | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. My family live in another province (city, state or country) or deployment to other province(s) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. Professional needs – lack of professional development opportunities for teachers and/or principals | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Unequal work distribution from or dual behavior of my supervisor or school principal | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Heavy workload of administration | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. Late payment of salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Disrespectful behavior of some students and/or their parents | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Family problems (including childrearing) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors that are not listed above | | | | | |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 4. During your tenure as a teacher and principal, have you witnessed your fellow teachers and principals leaving teaching profession? Yes No If yes, what do you think were the driving factors for them to leave teaching profession? Please mark all those factors apply.

| Factors | Please circle your answer for each factor | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| a. Principal low salary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Problems in administration due to lack of professional development opportunities for the teachers and principals | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. Unequal work distribution or dual behavior of their supervisors and/or school superintendent | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. Heavy workload of teaching and administration work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Late reimbursement their of salaries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Long distance of school from their home | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| locations | | | | | |
| g. Family problems (child rearing and/or family restriction especially for female teachers) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Deployment of teachers to remote schools in other provinces | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Long distance of school from teacher home location within the province and lack of transportation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Please specify any other reasons that you deem necessary, factors that are not listed above. | | | | | |
| j. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Question 5. In your opinion, what are the alternative jobs to the teaching profession? Please mark () your response in the following listed alternative jobs/work or add other possible careers to the list.

| Factors | Please check for each factor |
|--|--|
| a. Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| b. Private Sector (business or private companies) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| c. Pursue higher education | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| d. Private schools | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| e. Staying home and taking care of children and/or house work (especially for female teachers) | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| f. Please specify any other alternatives that you know of, other careers that are not listed above | |
| f. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| g. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |
| h. | Mostly () Sometime () Rarely () Never () |

Please provide your specific recommendations to the following entities focusing on teacher and principal retention.

To the Superintendent/ Central Office:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

To the School/ Parents/ Students:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

To other organizations and stakeholders:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

Any other comments and/or Suggestions:

- 1.
- 2
- 3

Appendix C — Teacher Interview Questions

1. Tell me your story. Describe your background, family, and your educational experience.
2. Did any direct experiences motivated you to go into education? If so, what are they? If there are no experiences, then why did you become a teacher?
3. In your experience, does your district earnestly work to recruit Black educators?
4. The presumption is that family plays a role in motivating and creating healthy educational experiences. Does this presumption ring true to your experience? How or how not?
5. What role does mentorship have in education? Have you been mentored or mentored other teachers? Do you believe mentoring is an effective factor in regards to reducing teacher turnover and improving teacher retention rates?
6. Why do (did) you stay in education after five or more years? List and explain the top three factors that keep you into the profession. List and explain the top three factors that would cause you to leave the profession.
7. Does race factor into your educational experience? How or how not? Does the teacher's race have any impact on student learning?
8. Have you experienced racism or discrimination as a teacher? If so, explain it in general terms.
9. One of the factors that stood out from the data (quantitative data) I conducted was that teachers view their profession as a service as well as a labor to the community. What has been your experience? Describe whether you believe your work as a teacher is a labor to the community.
10. Are there barriers that keep Blacks from going into the field of education? If so, what are they? If so, any suggestions to how to eliminate them?
11. Grounded in in your experience, do you believe you could better serve students either as a teacher, principal, or member of upper administration?
12. The NEA reports that Blacks educators exit from the profession because of demographics (limited number of jobs), burn out, poor working conditions, lack of support from colleagues, inadequate schools, low salaries or late payment, and better or more career opportunities. These statistics are in addition to Blacks overall majoring in other subjects. Grounding in your experience, is the NEA analysis accurate? Explain your answer.

13. What advise would you give a teacher of any race upon entering the profession, particularly in regards to earning tenure? Would you offer a person of color different or more nuanced advice?
14. In reference to teacher retention, do you have any more comments regarding this topic?

Appendix D — Principal Interview Questions

1. Tell me your story. Describe your background, family, and your educational experience. How did you get into education and how you became a principal/assistant principal or school leader?
2. Did any direct experiences motivated you to go into education? If so, what are they? If there are no experiences, then why did you become a teacher and then an assistant principal, principal, or school leader?
3. In your experience, does your district earnestly work to recruit Black educators (teachers and principals)?
4. The presumption is that family plays a role in motivating and creating healthy educational experiences. Does this presumption ring true to your experience? How or how not?
5. What role does mentorship have in education? Have you been mentored or mentored other teachers? Have you mentored other assistant principal, principals, or school leaders? Do you believe mentoring is an effective factor in regards to reducing teacher turnover and improving teacher retention rates? Does mentoring improve assistant principals, principals, or school leader turnover rates, explain.
6. Why do (did) you stay in education after five or more years? List and explain the top three factors that keep you into the profession. List and explain the top three factors that would cause you to leave the profession.
7. Does race factor into your educational experience? How or how not? Does the teacher's race have any impact on student learning? Equally, does the principal's race have any impact on the climate of the school?
8. Have you experienced racism or discrimination as a teacher or principal? If so, explain it in general terms.
9. One of the factors that stood out from the data (quantitative data) I collected was that teachers and principals view their profession as a service as well as a labor to the community. What has been your experience? Describe whether you believe your work as an assistant principal, principal, or school leader is a labor to the community.
10. Are there barriers that keep blacks from going into the field of education? If so, what are they? If so, any suggestions to how to eliminate them?
11. Grounded in your experience, do you believe you could better serve students either as a teacher, principal, or member of upper administration?

12. The NEA reports that Blacks educators exit from the profession because of demographics (limited number of jobs), burn out, poor working conditions, lack of support from colleagues, inadequate schools, low salaries or late payment, and better or more career opportunities. These statistics are in addition to Blacks overall majoring in other subjects. Grounding in your experience, is the NEA analysis accurate? Explain your answer.
13. What advise would you give a teacher of any race upon entering the profession, particularly in regards to earning tenure? What advice would you give an assistant principal, principals, or school leader in moving to a leadership position? What advise would you give them in regards to staying in the profession? Would you offer a person of color different or more nuanced advice?
14. In reference to teacher and principal retention, do you have any more comments regarding this topic?

Appendix E — Invitation to Participate in Research Project

Jamar L. Alston
XXX XXXXX
XXX XXXXX

August 2016

Dear participant,

As a participant, you are being contacted to participate in a research project, which is investigating your perspective of why Black educators remain in publicly funded K-12 schools after several years of service. My name is Jamar L. Alston and I am in the process of collecting data for my doctoral dissertation at Neumann University.

The purpose of this study is to determine why Black educators continue to stay in education after many years of service. Black teachers only represent 7% of the teaching for nationally and Black principals represent 10% of administration and many stay despite the low numbers.

The research and data collection for this research project will be conducted among the from the Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and the state of New Castle County in Delaware. Included with invitation letter is a Consent Form for you, which will provide you detailed information about this research project. You will need to sign your signature on the Consent Form after reading it.

To assist in the completion of this research project, you will complete a survey instrument based on your involvement in the program. Kindly sign the attached Consent Form and return in them in the provided self-address, postage-paid envelop. Your timely response is greatly appreciated.

Participation in this research project is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw at anytime. Your response will be strictly confidential and no participant will be name in the reporting of this research finding. Statistical information taken from the interview instrument will be reported as aggregate results only. Upon completion of analysis, the data obtained from the survey instrument and the signed consent forms will be secured for five years.

Sincerely,

Jamar L. Alston, M.A., M.Ed.

Appendix F — Teacher Consent Form

A Mixed Study on Why Black Teachers Stay in Publicly Funded K-12 Schools

Principal Investigator

Jamar L. Alston, M.A., M. Ed.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Subir Dass, Ph.D.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Leanne Owen, Ph.D.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Tonya Thames-Taylor, Ph.D.

Representing Institution

Neumann University
One Neumann Drive
Aston, Pa 19014

*Please read the following information and provide your signature on the last page.
Thank you!*

I understand that I am being invited to participate in a research study based on why Black educators stay in education after many years of service in publicly funded K-12 schools.

Basis of Subject Selection

I understand that the sampled population was determined by Snowball Sampling from contact information provided by teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in Delaware. The principal investigator will send closed ended questions to teachers and principals who participate in this research project. Some of the participants may choose to be interviewed after completing the survey instruments. Criteria for this sample consisted of teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in Delaware.

Purpose

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine why Black educators continue to stay in education after many years of service. A mixed methods research will be employed in the research project. Data collections include closed ended survey instrument and interviews.

Procedure for Subject Participation

I understand that participation involves the completion of a teacher survey instrument pertaining to why Black stay in publicly funded K-12 schools. After completing and signing the Consent Form, I understand that I will be required to place the Consent Form. The survey instrument, on the other hand, will be completed electronically using surveymonkey software.

I understand that there are no expenses required of the participants of this research project. The principal investigator conducting the research project is responsible for all financial costs of this research project.

Potential Risks and Discomfort

I understand that there are no known potential risks or discomfort for the participation in this research project. I understand and am advised that the risks encountered in participating in this research project are not greater than, the risks encountered in daily life.

Can I change my mind about participating?

I understand that participants are free to consent or decline participation in the research project at anytime during the research project. I can withdraw from participation at anytime before, during, or after completing the teacher survey instrument for the research project.

Potential Benefits

I understand that the benefits of this mixed methods research project will help to explain why Black educators stay in the profession. The findings of this mixed method study may have practical significance in that it may provide school districts and schools understand why Blacks stay in the profession despite only representing 7% of the teaching force and 10% of principals nationally.

Inducements

I understand that there are no inducements included or being offered to participants of this research project, such as cash, free hospitalization, medication, treatment or testing. No participants in this research project are being coerced into participating.

Financial Obligations

I understand that there is no expenses required of being offered to the participants of this research project. The principal investigator of this research project is responsible for all costs.

Alternatives

If, for any reasons, an alternative method for completing the survey instrument is requested, the principal investigator will present alternative means to the participants who request it. An email response to the survey instrument questions or a phone conference in which the survey instrument questions are over the phone and the responses are written by the principal investigator may be an alternative approach. Participants may choose to complete or decline participation at anytime.

Confidentiality

I understand that the information shared in the responses of the teacher survey instrument is voluntary on the part of the participant. No photographs, videotapes, or voice recordings will be used in the collecting of information for this research project. I understand that my personal information will not be included in this research project.

I understand that personal health information is not being collected from the participants of this research project. Access to medical records will be required. I that understand that data collected from this research project will be will be secured for five years.

Non-Participation or Withdrawal

I understand that participants in this research project are free to consent or decline at anytime during this research project. Participants can withdraw at anytime before, during, or after completing the teacher survey instruments for this research project.

Complications or Injuries

There are no known risks for complications or injuries for participating in this research project.

Subject Questions and Rights

I understand that participants in this research project may contact Jamar L. Alston, principal investigator, by email or phone, in the event that question about the research project and his or her participation arise.

Contact information is as follows: Phone: (XXX) XXX-XXXX
Email: Jamar.Alston@gmail.com

I understand that participants in this research project are free to contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Neumann University to address concerns or question about this research project. Contact information for Neumann University is as follows: (610) 558-5500

Informed Consent Signature

“I have read a copy of this consent form. I voluntarily consent to participate in the research project described herein. My rights as a participant of this research project have been presented to me by Jamar L. Alston.”

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

_____ Date _____
Jamar L. Alston, Principal Investigator

Appendix G — Principal Consent Form

A Mixed Study on Why Black Principals Stay in Publicly Funded K-12 Schools

Principal Investigator

Jamar L. Alston, M.A., M. Ed.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Subir Dass, Ph.D.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Leanne Owen, Ph.D.

Additional Investigator

Dr. Tonya Thames-Taylor, Ph.D.

Representing Institution

Neumann University
One Neumann Drive
Aston, Pa 19014

*Please read the following information and provide your signature on the last page.
Thank you!*

I understand that I am being invited to participate in a research study based on why Black educators stay in education after many years of service in publicly funded K-12 schools.

Basis of Subject Selection

I understand that the sampled population was determined by Snowball Sampling from contact information provided by teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in Delaware. The principal investigator will send closed ended questions to teachers and principals who participate in this research project. Some of the participants may choose to be interviewed after completing the survey instrument. Criteria for this sample consisted of teachers and principals from Delaware, Chester, Montgomery, Berks, Philadelphia counties in Pennsylvania, and New Castle County in Delaware.

Purpose

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine why Black educators continue to stay in education after many years of service. A mixed methods research will be employed in the research project. Data collections include closed-ended survey instrument and interviews.

Procedure for Subject Participation

I understand that participation involves the completion of a principal survey instrument pertaining to why Black stay in publicly funded K-12 schools.

After completing and signing the Consent Form, I understand that I will be required to place the Consent Form in the provided pre-addressed, postage paid envelope and mail it through the U.S. postal service. The survey instrument, on the other hand, will be completed electronically using surveymonkey software.

I understand that there are no expenses required of the participants of this research project. The principal investigator conducting the research project is responsible for all financial costs of this research project.

Potential Risks and Discomfort

I understand that there are no known potential risks or discomfort for the participation in this research project. I understand and am advised that the risks encountered in participating in this research project are not greater than, the risks encountered in daily life.

Can I change my mind about participating?

I understand that participants are free to consent or decline participation in the research project at anytime during the research project. I can withdraw from participation at anytime before, during, or after completing the teacher survey instrument for the research project.

Potential Benefits

I understand that the benefits of this mixed methods research project will help to explain why Black educators stay in the profession. The findings of this mixed method study may have practical significance in that it may provide school districts and schools understand why Black stay in the profession despite only representing 7% of the teaching force and 10% of principals nationally.

Inducements

I understand that there are no inducements included or being offered to participants of this research project, such as cash, free hospitalization, medication, treatment or testing. No participants in this research project are being coerced into participating.

Financial Obligations

I understand that there is no expenses required of being offered to the participants of this research project. The principal investigator of this research project is responsible for all costs.

Alternatives

If, for any reasons, an alternative method for completing the survey instrument is requested, the principal investigator will present alternative means to the participants who request it. An email response to the survey instrument questions or a phone conference in which the survey instrument questions are over the phone and the responses are written by the principal investigator may be an alternative approach. Participants may choose to complete or decline participation at anytime.

Confidentiality

I understand that the information shared in the responses of the teacher survey instrument is voluntary on the part of the participant. No photographs, videotapes, or voice recordings will be used in the collecting of information for this research project. I understand that my personal information will not be included in this research project.

I understand that personal health information is not being collected from the participants of this research project. Access to medical records will be required. I that understand that data collected from this research project will be secured for five years.

Non-Participation or Withdrawal

I understand that participants in this research project are free to consent or decline at anytime during this research project. Participants can withdraw at anytime before, during, or after completing the teacher survey instrument for this research project.

Complications or Injuries

There are no known risks for complications or injuries for participating in this research project.

Subject Questions and Rights

I understand that participants in this research project may contact Jamar L. Alston, principal investigator, by email or phone, in the event that question about the research project and his or her participation arise.

Contact information is as follows: Phone: (XXX) XXX-XXXX
Email: Jamar.Alston@gmail.com

I understand that participants in this research project are free to contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Neumann University to address concerns or question about this research project. Contact information for Neumann University is as follows: (610) 558-5500

Informed Consent Signature

“I have read a copy of this consent form. I voluntarily consent to participate in the research project described herein. My rights as a participant of this research project have been presented to me by Jamar L. Alston.”

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

Jamar L. Alston, Principal Investigator Date _____

Appendix H — Aslami's Consent Letter

University of Massachusetts
Center for International Education
285 Hills House South
111 Thatcher Way
Amherst, MA 01003

Voice: 413
362 5058

July 26, 2016

To Whom It May Concern:

As the part of IRB requirement, I write this letter to give permission to Mr. Jamar Alston, the Doctoral Candidate, **at xxx faculty, at xxx University** to use my study survey for his doctoral dissertation research. I believe it would be properly cited, and credit will be given to the original author.

I have developed and implemented the survey instrument for my Master's thesis entitled "Teacher Attrition, Why Secondary School Teachers Leave the Profession in Afghanistan" in 2013 at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

Should you have any questions or require any further information, please contact me.

Sincerely,

Hassan Aslami
Doctoral Candidate
Center for International Education
University of Massachusetts Amherst
Email: haslami@educ.umass.edu
Tel: 1 XXX XXX XXXX

And

Senior Manager for Associate Degrees
USAID-funded Afghanistan University Support and Workforce Development Program
(USWDP)
University of Massachusetts Amherst
Email: hauswdp@educ.umass.edu
Tel: XXXX XXX XXX XXX

Appendix I — *A priori* or Open Codes from the Literature

| Open Codes | Definition of Term |
|---|---|
| 1. Improving Students Lives | Making positive influences on the student lives. |
| 2. Improving the Community | Making a positive influences on the lives of people who live in and outside of the school community |
| 3. Role Models | A person whose behavior in a particular role is imitated by others (Merriam-Webster.com, 2017) |
| 4. <i>Loco Parentis</i> | Defined as the Black students' surrogate parents, fulfilling the roles of disciplinarians, counselors, role models, and overall supporters of the Black students' success (Milner & Howard, 2004). |
| 5. Teacher-to-teacher relationships | Relationships established among teacher colleagues within the school community. |
| 6. Parent involvement | Parents being actively involved in the school and school community. |
| 7. Black Community | The Black community consisting of people who attended Black churches, local leaders, and businesses owned by Blacks. |
| 8. <i>De jure</i> Segregation | Segregation intended or mandated by law or otherwise intentionally arising from state action (Merriam-Webster.com, 2018). |
| 9. EEOC | Since its inception in 1964 Congress had gradually extended its powers to include investigatory authority, creating conciliation programs, filing lawsuits, and conducting voluntary assistance programs. |
| 10. Community | The school community that entailed students, teachers, administrators, parents, and all school stakeholders. |
| 11. Black Leadership | Black educators were leaders of the Black community, attending community churches, visiting their students' homes, and sharing the same educational vision of the Black parents. |
| 12. <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> (1954) | Determined that the actual process of segregation caused psychological harm to students. The U.S. Supreme Court added that segregation had influenced Black students to feel inferior to White students |

| | |
|--|---|
| | (Stallion, 2013), and consequently, ruled that “separate but equal” violated the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment (U. S. Const. amend. XIV). |
| 13. <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> (1955) | A U.S. Supreme Court decision that ruled that integration of public schools, colleges, and universities needed to proceed with all deliberate speed. |
| 14. White Flight | White flight was based on out-migration of white residents who left the inner city for the suburbs. |
| 15. Urban Decay | A term based on cities experiencing economic decline. |
| 16. Teaching Assignments | Black teachers taught in predominantly White schools based on skin complexion (light skinned individuals were chosen over dark skinned counterparts) (Milner & Howard, 2004). |
| 18. Discrimination | Being treated different from others based on arbitrary reasons. |
| 19. School Diversity | Diversity entails creating a school environment that includes different ethnicities, cultures, and gender. |
| 20. Vocational Education | An education that prepares people to work in a trade and as a technician. |
| 21. Classical Education | An education based on studying the humanities. |
| 22. Inferior | Of little or less importance, value, or merit (Merriam-Webster, 2018). |
| 23. Massive Resistance Movements | A movement designed to stop the implementation of the <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> (1954) ruling. |
| 24. Affirmative action | According to dictionary.com (2018), “An active effort to improve the employment or educational opportunities of members of minority groups or women.” |
| 25. Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) | Universities and colleges that were originally created student of African American decent. |
| 26. NAACP | According to NAACP.ORG (2018), “Founded February 12, 1909, the NAACP is the nation’s oldest, largest and most widely recognized civil rights organization. Its more than half-million members and |

| | |
|---|--|
| | supporters throughout the United States and the world are the premier advocates for civil rights in their communities, leading grassroots campaigns for equal opportunity and conducting voter mobilization” (p. 1). |
| 27. Teacher licensure exams | A test administered by the states to certify teachers (ex. Praxis I and Praxis II). |
| 28. Teacher Induction | A one-year program based on providing new teachers with support. |
| 29. Recruiting programs | Programs that were designed to recruit Black teachers. Some of the programs included: Call Me Mister, North Carolina Teachers Fellow’s program, Troops-to-Teachers, and Grow your Own. |
| 30. Teacher Attrition | Is defined as teachers leaving the profession all together. |
| 31. Teacher Burnout | Is defined as a condition in which teachers were experience physical and emotional stress. |
| 32. Charter Schools | This term means an independent public school established and operated under a charter from the local board of school directors and in which students was enrolled or attends. A charter school must be organized as a public, nonprofit corporation. Charters may not be granted to any for-profit entity (Pennsylvania General Assembly, N.D.). |
| 33. Teacher and Principal Turnover | The rate in which teachers and principals leave the profession. |
| 34. Retention | The rate in which teachers and principals stay or remain in the profession. |
| 36. Community Servants | An educator who serves the community and its members. |
| 37. Loners | A Black teacher who worked in a school in which he/she was the only Black teacher. |
| 38. Groupers | A Black teacher who worked in schools in which there were other Black teachers. |
| 39. Lack of Support from Administration | An administrator(s) who did not provide their teachers with adequate resources, lack of trust or positive relations with teachers. |
| 40. Lack of Support from Colleagues | Teachers who did not provide help or positive interactions with other teachers. |
| 41. Teacher and Principal Salary | The total compensation (money and |

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| | benefits) a teacher or principal receives in a year. |
| 42. Family | The people whom were identified as members of family, which included but not limited to: mother, father, brother, sister, grandparents, cousins, aunts, and uncles. |
| 43. Mentoring | To advise or train a colleague and support students. |
| 44. Recruiting | To seek to employ prospective teachers and principals. |
| 45. Civil Rights Movement | A movement during the 1960s in which Blacks and other groups were working to receive equal rights. |
| 46. Professional Development | Training designed to practice, knowledge, skills, competence, and effectiveness for teachers, administrators, and others who educate students. |
| 47. Minority Teacher | Teachers who were classified as Black (African American), Latino (Hispanic American), Pacific Islander (Asian American), American Indian/Alaska Native, and Multiple Races. |
| 48. Black Teacher | Teachers who were a part of an ethnic group of Americans with total or partial ancestry with any Black racial group(s) from the continent of Africa who had dark pigmentation of the skin. |
| 49. Black Principal | Principals who were a part of an ethnic group of Americans with total or partial ancestry with any Black racial group(s) from the continent of Africa who had dark pigmentation of the skin. |
| 50. White Teacher | Teachers who were characterized as having light pigmentation of the skin and associated with European American(s). |
| 51. White Principal | Principals characterized as having light pigmentation of the skin and associated with European American(s). |
| 52. Servant Leadership | A leader who is a servant first. |

Appendix J — Emergent Teacher Codes

| Emergent Codes | Definition of Term |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Teacher Preparation | The work and effort that is went into preparing teachers for educating and understanding the teaching craft. |
| 2. Teacher Growth | The ability and process in which teacher can improve and accept greater leadership roles within the school. |
| 3. Better Opportunities | Teachers left school based on providing more opportunities at a new school or organization. |
| 4. Motivation | The factors that influence teachers to stay. |
| 5. Teacher Leaders | The role teachers are given in which enables them to be leaders in school. Some of the roles include helping other teachers and leading on school projects. |
| 6. Teacher Fairs | Teacher recruiting centers that provide teachers and teacher candidates the ability to speak with a school district representative. |
| 7. Bad Leaders | Poor principal leadership that does not support teachers and students. |
| 8. Empathy | Having passion and ability to understand others feelings. |
| 9. Subliminal | Affecting someone without them being aware of it. |
| 10. Love of the Job | Admiration and appreciation for the teaching profession. |
| 11. Isolation | Feeling alone and without support of colleagues. |
| 12. Family Values | Values that were passed down to from the parents to the teacher participants or the students. |
| 13. Racism | Teachers or principals being treaty differently based on the color their skin. |
| 14. Teacher | Planning and wanting to serve as an instructor to students. |
| 15. Principal | Planning and wanting to serve as a building administrator. |
| 16. Serving | Is defined as the role in which the participant had or wanting have in the school district. |
| 17. Support System | Teachers and/or student support. |
| 18. Homebound Instruction | Education provided by the school district |

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| | that takes place in the home and one-on-one with a private teacher or tutor. |
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Appendix K — Axial Codes and Teacher Themes

| Themes | Definition | Axial Codes |
|---------------------|--|---|
| Making a Difference | Defined as the participant making a positive contribution or influence on the lives of their students, their school community. | Open Code 1- Improving the lives of students; Open Code 2 – Improving the community; Emergent Code 10 – Love of the job |
| Role Models | A person whose behavior in a particular role is imitated by others (Merriam-Webster.com, 2017). | Open Code 3 – Role Models; Open Code 4 - <i>Loco Parentis</i> ; Emergent Code 5 – Teacher leaders |
| Community | The Black community consisting of people who attended Black churches, local leaders, and businesses owned by Blacks. | Open Code 10 – Community; Open Code 8 – <i>De jure</i> segregation; Emergent Code 18 – Homebound Instruction; Emergent Code 8 – Empathy; Open Code 6 – Parent involvement |
| Serving | Is defined as the role in which the participant had or wanting have in the school district. | Open Code 16 - Serving; Open Code 11 – Black leadership; Open Code 32 – Charter Schools; Emergent Code 15 – Teacher; Emergent Code 16 – Principal; Emergent Code 3 – Better Opportunities Open Code 53 – Servant Leadership |
| Mentoring | To advise or train a colleague and support students. | Open Code 28 – Teacher Induction; Emergent Code 2 – Teacher growth |
| Recruiting | To seek to employ prospective teachers. | Open Code 25 – Historically Black Colleges and Universities; Open Code 27 – Teacher licensure exams; Open Code 29 – Recruiting programs; Emergent Code 5 – Teacher fairs |
| Resilience | According to American Psychological Association (2018), “The process of adapting well in the face of | Open Code 18 - Discrimination; Emergent Code 13 – Racism; Emergent Code 9 – |

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| | adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress— such as family and relationship problems, serious health problems or workplace and financial stressors. It means "bouncing back" from difficult experiences. | Subliminal |
| Family | The people whom were identified as the students' guardians and relatives. | Open Code 42 – Family; Emergent Code 12 – Family values; Emergent Code 15 – Support system |
| Teacher salary | The total compensation (money and benefits) a teacher receives in a year. | Open Code 10 – Teacher Salary |

Appendix L — Emergent Principal Codes

| Emergent Codes | Definition of Term |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1. Teacher Preparation | The work and effort that is went into preparing teachers for educating and understanding the teaching craft. |
| 2. Teacher Growth | The ability and process in which teacher can improve and accept greater leadership roles within the school. |
| 3. Better Opportunities | Principal left school based on providing more opportunities at a new school or organization. |
| 4. Motivation | The factors that influence principals to stay. |
| 5. Teacher Leaders | The role teachers are given in which enables them to be leaders in school. Some of the roles include helping other teachers and leading on school projects. |
| 6. Teacher Fairs | Teacher recruiting centers that provide teachers and teacher candidates the ability to speak with a school district representative. |
| 7. Bad Leaders | Poor principal leadership that does not support teachers and students. |
| 8. Empathy | Having passion and ability to understand others feelings. |
| 9. Subliminal | Affecting someone without them being aware of it. |
| 10. Love of the Job | Admiration and appreciation for the teaching profession. |
| 11. Isolation | Feeling alone and without support of colleagues. |
| 12. Family Values | Values that were passed down to from the parents to the students. |
| 13. Racism | Teachers or principals being treaty differently based on the color their skin. |
| 14. Teacher | An educator from a charter or traditional public school who teaches students from grade kindergarten to 12 th grades. |
| 15. Principal | A school building administrator. |
| 16. Serving | Is defined as the role in which the participant had or wanting have in the school district. |
| 17. Support System | Teachers and or student support system. |
| 18. School Schedule | Having a flexible schedule in which the |

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| | weekends and summers were off. |
| 19. Quasi Administrator | A teacher being able to take on some administrative roles and authority. |
| 20. Legacy | Deep reflection about career and the impact they (participants) had on the profession when they retire. |
| 21. Strategic Planning | Steps and preparation that school districts map out to recruit potential teachers and principals to serve in their schools. |
| 22. Leadership Opportunities | School districts providing the participants with leadership training and the ability to become a school or school district leader. |
| 21. Community Servant | An educator who serves the community and its members. |
| 22. Relationships | The way in which two or more members of the school community were connected and behaved towards each other. |
| 23. Micro Aggressions | A subtle but offensive comment or action directed at a minority or other nondominant group that is often unintentional or unconsciously reinforces a stereotype (Dictionary.com) |

Appendix M — Axial Codes and Principal Themes

| Themes | Definition | Axial Codes |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Making a Difference | Defined as the participant making a positive contribution or influence on the lives of their students, their school community. | Open Code 1- Improving the lives of students; Open Code 2 – Improving the community |
| Role Models | Defined as a person whose behavior in a particular role is imitated by others. | Emergent Code 22 – Relationships; Open Code 3 – Role models |
| Serving | Defined as the role in which the participant had or wanting have in the school district. | Emergent Code 2 – Teacher growth; Emergent Code 19 – Quasi administrator; Emergent Code 21 – Strategic planning Open Code 53 – Servant Leadership |
| Mentoring | To advise or train a colleague and support students. | Open Code 34 - Retention; Emergent Code 2 – Teacher growth; Emergent Code 17- Support System |
| Recruiting | To seek to employ prospective teachers. | Open Code 25 – Historically Black Colleges and Universities; Open Code 27 – Teacher licensure exams; Emergent Code 21- Strategic planning |
| Legacy | Deep reflection about career and the impact they (participants) had on the profession when they retire. | Emergent Code 20 – Legacy |
| Resilience | According to American Psychological Association (2018), “The process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress— such as family and relationship problems, serious health problems or workplace and financial stressors. It means "bouncing back" from | Open Code 18 - Discrimination; Emergent Code 13 – Racism; Emergent Code 23- Micro Aggressions |

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| | difficult experiences. | |
| Principal salary | The total compensation (money and benefits) a teacher receives in a year. | Open Code 4 – Motivation |

Appendix N — Teacher Themes and Concepts

| Concepts | Definitions | Themes |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Students | Defined as making a positive difference in the lives of students. | Making a difference Role models |
| Community Involvement | Defined as being actively involved in the school community. | Community Serving Family |
| Support | Defined as providing support for other Black teachers or potential Black teachers. | Mentoring Recruiting Resilient Teacher salary |

Appendix O — Principal Themes and Concepts

| Concepts | Definitions | Themes |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Students | Defined as making a positive difference in the lives of students. | Making a difference Role models |
| Community Involvement | Defined as being actively involved in the school community. | Serving Legacy |
| Support | Defined as providing support for other Black teachers or potential Black teachers. | Mentoring Recruiting Resilient Principal salary |