

5-29-2013

An exploratory investigation of teacher job satisfaction and involvement in extracurricular programming

Winfield Thompson

Follow this and additional works at: <http://rdw.rowan.edu/etd>



Part of the [Psychiatric and Mental Health Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Thompson, Winfield, "An exploratory investigation of teacher job satisfaction and involvement in extracurricular programming" (2013). *Theses and Dissertations*. 434.
<http://rdw.rowan.edu/etd/434>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Rowan Digital Works. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Rowan Digital Works. For more information, please contact LibraryTheses@rowan.edu.

**AN EXPLORATORY INVESTIGATION OF TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION
AND INVOLVEMENT IN EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAMMING**

by
Winfield Hattie Thompson

A Thesis

Submitted to the
Department of Psychology
College of Science and Mathematics
In partial fulfillment of the requirement
For the degree of
Masters of Arts in School Psychology
at
Rowan University
May 7, 2013

Thesis Chair: Roberta Dihoff, Ph.D.

© 2013 Winfield Hattie Thompson

Abstract

Winfield Hattie Thompson
AN EXPLORATORY INVESTIGATION OF TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION AND
INVOLVEMENT IN EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAMMING

2012/13

Roberta Dihoff, Ph.D.
Master of Arts in School Psychology

The purposes of this exploratory study were to (a) examine secondary teachers' overall job satisfaction and satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement, (b) ascertain whether extracurricular involvement affects overall job satisfaction, and (c) identify the factors that are most influential over teachers' satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement. A review of the existing literature presents factors previously implicated in affecting teacher job satisfaction. Extrapolations are made regarding the presence of these same factors in the extracurricular programming setting. To investigate these extrapolations, data was collected via secondary teachers' completion of the Extracurricular Programming Questionnaire, a survey developed by the principal researcher. Correlational analyses revealed no relationship between extracurricular involvement and ratings of overall job satisfaction. Correlational analyses and one-way analyses of variance revealed that factors related to a teacher's experience of relationships and personal interest/growth opportunities were correlated with levels of satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement. Factors related to witnessing and facilitating student growth were not related to levels of satisfaction. Interpretations of these findings are discussed in light of limitations in the research design. Implications for enhancing and encouraging teacher involvement in extracurricular programming are discussed.

Table of Contents

Abstract	iii
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review	4
2.1 Why is the Job Satisfaction of Teachers Important?	4
2.2 A Review of the Existing Research: Factors in Teachers' Job Satisfaction	6
2.3 Extrapolations: Extracurricular Programming and Factors Related to Satisfaction	13
2.4 Implications	26
Chapter 3: Methodology	27
3.1 Participants	27
3.2 Materials	29
3.3 Design	30
3.4 Procedure	33
Chapter 4: Results	35
4.1 Descriptive Analyses: Sample Population	35
4.2 Analyses Investigating Overall Job Satisfaction	36
4.3 Analyses Investigating Satisfaction in Extracurricular Involvement	38
Chapter 5: Discussion	53
5.1 Conclusions Regarding Sample Population	53
5.2 Factors Relating to Overall Job Satisfaction	53
5.3 Factors Relating to Satisfaction Specific to Extracurricular Involvement	56

Table of Contents (Continued)

5.4 Limitations	66
5.5 Further Directions	69
References	74

List of Figures

Figure	Page
Figure 1 Comparing Strength of Correlations Among Factor Scores and Satisfaction specific to Extracurricular Programming	47
Figure 2 Comparing Strength of Correlations among Individual “Student Growth” Survey Items and Satisfaction Score specific to Extracurricular Programming	50

List of Tables

Table	Page
Table 1 Descriptive Statistics: Sample Population	36
Table 2 Variance of Satisfaction Score specific to Extracurricular Involvement according to Indicated Role	39
Table 2.1 Satisfaction Score Specific to Extracurricular Involvement according to Indicated Role	40
Table 3 Variance of Average Relationship Factor Score according to Indicated Role	41
Table 3.1 Average Relationship Factor Score according to Indicated Role	42
Table 4 Variance of Average Personal Growth/Interest Score according to Indicated Role	43
Table 4.1 Average Personal Growth/Interest Scores according to Indicated Role	44
Table 5 Variance of Average Student Growth Factor Score according to Indicated Role	45
Table 6 Correlations Among Factor Scores and Satisfaction specific to Extracurricular Programming	46
Table 7 Correlations Among Student Growth Factor Score/Individual Item Components and Satisfaction Score specific to Extracurricular Programming	49
Table 8 Variance of Weekly Time Commitment (Hours) according to Indicated Role	51
Table 8.1 Weekly Time Commitment (Hours) according to Indicated Role	51

Chapter 1

Introduction

In the fight to raise up the next generation to be the best it can be, teachers serve in the front lines of the battle. Day in and day out, teachers set the standards and create the conditions necessary for a student's academic attainment and learning experience. The commitment of our teachers is a vital component that influences a child's encounter with learning and the education system. For the sake of those dedicating their lives to the teaching profession, the job satisfaction of this work force is crucial. The composite factors that influence teacher job satisfaction have been extensively studied (Latham, S. 1998; Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Lester, 1987; Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012). A factor that merits more investigation is how a teacher's involvement with students outside the classroom may impact his/her job satisfaction. This relationship is extrapolated from the existing literature that investigates how a sense of community, witnessing student growth and opportunities for personal growth and engagement in activities of personal interest are associated with increased job satisfaction in educators. I propose that a teacher's participation in directing extracurricular activities for students creates opportunities for a greater sense of community and connection with the student body. I propose that a teacher's involvement provides opportunities to witness and encourage growth in students that may differ from achievement in the classroom. Finally I propose that teacher involvement in extracurricular programming allows for personal growth experiences and opportunities to enjoy a personal interest. The findings of this exploratory research may have consequences for the level of attention that is paid to extracurricular activities. This investigation may not only reiterate the benefits of

extracurricular activities for students but may propose benefits that are just as significant for the teaching work force. This study was conducted and conclusions were made in light of the following operational definitions:

Job satisfaction: An affective reaction to an individual's work situation; an overall feeling about one's job or career or in terms of specific facets of the job or career (e.g., compensation, autonomy, coworkers); can be related to specific outcomes, such as productivity (Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991 as cited in Perie & Baker, 1997).

Extracurricular activity/program: not falling within the scope of a regular curriculum; of or relating to officially or semiofficially approved and usually organized student activities (as athletics) connected with school and usually carrying no academic credit (Merriam Webster, 2012).

It is also important to note that this study design operates under certain assumptions. First, it is assumed that the participants who complete this survey answer as honestly and accurately as possible. It is presumed that there is no incentive for answering questions inaccurately. This research operates under the assumption that participants are fairly knowledgeable of the environment in which they work and are able to accurately articulate their personal perceptions of this environment. Outside of these assumptions, there are additional limitations to this research study. Challenges were encountered in the self-selection of participants. Challenges also arise in making distinct conclusions about the complex relationship of teacher job satisfaction and personal perceptions of extracurricular involvement.

In summary, this study will investigate the possible relationship between teachers' overall job satisfaction and their involvement/commitment to extracurricular activities. This study will examine the conjecture that teachers invested and engaged in the growth of students through extracurricular programming experience greater job satisfaction. This study will also explore the factors that may influence satisfaction specific to the extracurricular programming environment. These factors vary from levels of compensation, weekly hours of commitment, to more intangible factors like the presence of positive relationships, opportunities for personal growth and engagement of personal interest, and opportunities to be involved in student growth. First, existing literature will be discussed and extrapolations made supporting the plausible existence of this overarching relationship between extracurricular involvement and overall job satisfaction. Next, the experimental study design will be outlined in detail. Finally, the research findings will be presented and consequent conclusions will follow.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Why is the Job Satisfaction of Teachers Important?

In more recent years, there have been dramatic reforms to the education system that have resulted in increased accountability for student achievement (Newmann, King, Rigdon, 1997; Fuhrman, 2004; Harris & Herrington, 2006). The burden of this accountability has fallen heavily to teachers (Akiba, LeTendre, & Scribner, 2007). Researcher, Cara Moore notes, “What was once a stable and predictable career has become volatile and tentative because of high-stakes measures, changing legislative demands, and increased pressure to improve outcomes” (1, 2012). Teachers endure higher levels of stress due to increased demands and thus, are put at risk for experiencing job dissatisfaction (Moore, 2012).

The job satisfaction of the teaching work force is worth investigation for a variety of reasons. Research has indicated teaching as one of the most stressful jobs in the United States (Dworkin, Haney, Dworkin, & Telschow, 1990; Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald et al, 2005). There is a high rate of turnover in the profession, and new teachers particularly are quitting at startling rates. According to a study conducted by the Alliance for Excellent Education (2008), 12% of all teachers are estimated to leave teaching every year. (It is important to note that teacher retirement only accounts for 25% of these cases.) As one might expect, these rates become steeper in high poverty schools, where as many as 20% of teachers leave every year in order to teach in another school (Ingersoll, 2002). Unfortunately, a percentage of these teachers leave to escape the classroom indefinitely (Ingersoll, 2002). Job dissatisfaction leads to this turnover, which

further leads to financial burdens on schools and their districts (Moore, 2012). In addition to financial concerns, job satisfaction also influences school performance (Ostroff, 1992). According to Ostroff (1992), schools with more satisfied teachers are more effective. Teachers greatly influence the school community, morale among staff and students, and the overall school climate. When teachers negatively influence the morale of their students and fellow staff members, decreased motivation of students and staff may result (Ostroff, 1992). Teachers who experience extended periods of stress in their profession may suffer from the physiological effects of burnout and may also become detached from their responsibilities and roles (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Furthermore, this detachment can lead to lower student achievement (Moore, 2012).

Outside of a teacher's own well-being, the relationship between a teacher's efficacy and student's academic achievement is conceivably the most commanding reason to explore teacher's job satisfaction (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Rice, 2003; Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Akiba, LeTendre, & Scribner, 2007). It perhaps goes without saying that the academic attainments of children have far reaching consequences for the development of the next generation. Research conducted by Aluja and Bllanch (2002), Batin-Pearson and colleagues (2000) and Jimerson and colleagues (2002) has corroborated that academic achievement affects children's scholastic choices, career aspirations, and psychosocial development and adjustment (as cited in Caprara et al., 2006). In sum, the factors critical to the job satisfaction of the teaching work force are worthy of investigation for many reasons. The present research study was conducted in light of these reasons.

A Review of the Existing Research: Factors in Teachers' Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction of educators is not a new realm of study. This topic has been investigated from a variety of angles. Many studies have focused on isolating the most critical factors that predict teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Green-Reese, Johnson & Campbell, 1991; Kreis & Brockopp, 1986; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). A review of validated findings presently follows.

According to a study conducted by Liu and Ramsey (2008), teachers' years of experience are positively correlated with greater satisfaction with the profession. This same study also suggests that female teachers are generally more satisfied with the profession than male teachers (Liu & Ramsey, 2008). As one might logically conclude, job satisfaction is severely affected by job stress (Green-Reese, Johnson & Campbell, 1991). Teachers' perceived autonomy within the classroom is significantly associated with job satisfaction (Kreis & Brockopp, 1986). Pearson and Moomaw (2005) further backed up this finding, demonstrating a negative correlation between curriculum autonomy and job stress.

The research of Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006), conducted in Cyprus, suggests that the primary sources of satisfaction for teachers were working with children, contributing to society, collaborative work with fellow staff members, professional growth, salary, and work schedule. In contrast, primary sources of dissatisfaction were social problems, student failure, lack of discipline, lack of respect and status in community, as well as lack of autonomy. The results of this study, in particular, introduce three composite factors that I anticipate underlie the proposed relationship

between teachers' job satisfaction and their involvement in extracurricular activities with their students. The first factor to be examined is a teacher's experience of community with staff and students. The second factor that will be scrutinized is the impact of student growth and achievement on the satisfaction of an educator. The third factor to be investigated is the opportunity for teachers' personal development and engagement of a personal interest during extracurricular programming involvement.

Sense of community. The school atmosphere is an important factor in teacher satisfaction (Taylor & Tashakkori, 1995). What is it about this atmosphere that augments satisfaction and comfort in the work place? Many would argue that it is the sense of community and common purpose (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991). This theory is put forth often in the research effort to determine the most effective organization of school structure. For example, Lee, Dedrick, and Smith (1991) investigated the influence of a school's organizational structure on teacher self-efficacy and satisfaction. This study suggests that the strongest predictor of teacher efficacy is a sense of community (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991). Schools in which teachers feel more effective are likely to be environments in which human relationships are supportive. Teachers working in this type of environment were apt to use sentiments like these regarding their workplace: "You can count on most staff members to help", "a great deal of cooperative effort", "big family", "where teachers "share beliefs and values about...the central mission of the school", and where they "feel accepted and respected" (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991). Moore's extensive research (2012) indicates that the school environment plays a crucial role in the occurrence of satisfaction among public school teachers. A school environment that fosters communication among staff, cooperation, and a shared sense of

purpose is critical to teacher's perception of a positive school environment and satisfaction with their jobs (Bogler, 2001, as cited in Moore 2012). Lastly, student-teacher ratio is an important component that predicts teacher dissatisfaction (Moore, 2012). It may be reasoned that a larger group of students prevents a teacher from giving a student the ideal individual attention and interaction that leads to this sense of connection and community between student and teacher.

Student growth and achievement. In an effort to highlight teachers' value of daily instruction and interaction with their students, Lortie (1975) states, "Other sources of satisfaction...pale in comparison with teacher's exchanges with students and the feeling that students have learned" (104, as cited in Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991). This statement underlies the strong relationship between student achievement and teachers' subsequent satisfaction and motivation. Numerous bodies of research have investigated this relationship.

First, extensive research indicates that a teacher's perceived self-efficacy can be affected by a student's achievement. A study conducted by Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992) demonstrates that a teacher's perceived self-efficacy is particularly high in schools with high-achieving and well-behaved students. It might follow that repeated experiences of success with students may improve a teacher's experience and be a catapult to a stronger sense of efficacy as an educator (Caprara et al. 2006). A teacher's sense of self-efficacy has been found to predict job satisfaction (Allinder, 1994; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Podell & Soodak, 1993; Tshannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2011).

Investigation into the factors of dissatisfaction also reveals the importance of student growth and achievement. According to Moore (2012), a teacher's perception of

students' problems increases teacher dissatisfaction. As teachers perceive more problems, like student tardiness, class cutting, student dropouts and student apathy, they experience higher degrees of dissatisfaction (Moore, 2012). Teachers' perceptions of community problems also lead to dissatisfaction. When a teacher perceives lower levels of parental involvement, student preparation, and student health as well as higher levels of poverty, they are more likely to be dissatisfied with teaching. Parent involvement has been widely studied as a component important to teachers, students, and schools, especially in terms of student achievement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995; White, 1982). In this way, teachers become more dissatisfied when they witness students having a lack of success outside of the classroom.

Personal Growth and Interest. The job satisfaction of the teaching workforce also depends on the degree to which the profession meets a teacher's personal needs (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1993). Two of these needs are manifested in a teacher's desire for his/her profession to align with personal interests and passions and for the profession to provide opportunities for personal and professional growth and development (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1993). First, job satisfaction in any profession is influenced by an individuals' interest and enjoyment in the work itself (Wernimont, 1966). This finding may be particularly relevant to the satisfaction of the teaching workforce. Sources advise those considering pursuing a career as a teaching professional to put great thought into choosing an appropriate subject area to teach (American Federation of Teachers, 2009). The American Federation of Teachers notes that this choice of subject matter may likely be the most important decision a person can make after the initial decision to enter the field (American Federation of Teachers, 2008).

Future teachers are advised to seriously consider teaching subjects that align with personal interests and passions (American Federation of Teachers, 2008). Robert Fried, author of “The Passionate Teacher: The Practical Guide” emphasizes the importance on this alignment of personal passions and teaching (2001). He boldly states that current issues in education are no match for passionate teachers (Fried, 2001). Fried identifies an important element of this passion as present in those who are “in love with a field of knowledge” (2001). He writes, “The passion that accompanies our attention to subjects, issues, and children is not just something we offer our students. It is also a gift we grant ourselves: a way of honoring our life’s work, our profession” (Fried, 2001). In this way, Fried claims that the alignment of a teacher’s passions with a subject matter is not only of personal benefit, but it contributes to the development of the “passionate teacher”, an individual prepared to face and overcome the obstacles of education today. Fried’s perspective acknowledges the critical nature of a teacher’s love and personal interest in his/her subject matter.

The importance of teachers engaging in subjects and methods of personal interest and preferences can also be viewed through a teacher’s value of autonomy in the classroom. Several studies demonstrate that autonomy and control over the workings of one’s classroom are considered influential predictors in teacher job satisfaction (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Ingersoll, 1997; Charters, 1976; Franklin, 1988). Researchers, Pearson and Moomaw (2005) report that teachers feel strongly that they are competent experts in the teaching process because they have significant expertise in specialized fields. In the same way, teachers feel strongly about having the right to manage the learning process according to their personal choosing (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Teachers feel strongly that the classroom ought to operate under rules and expectations that are personally formulated and align with a teacher's individual goals (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). When teachers are granted control over classroom operations and over curriculum, teachers can choose to engage in subject matter they find personally to be of value. Teachers' great appreciation of autonomy may stem from desires to work in an environment that aligns with personal beliefs and interests.

Teachers also express a great appreciation toward opportunities of professional and personal development. The presence of effective professional development opportunities is noted as a factor in augmenting job satisfaction (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Teachers value professional development as a means to strengthen their practice throughout their career (Mizell, 2010). Professionals often voluntarily seek new learning (Mizell, 2010). It may follow that this desire is particularly relevant to teachers who highly value the learning process. Professional development provides opportunities for teachers to learn and problem solve together in order to facilitate the success of all students (Mizell, 2010). Teachers, both those new to the profession and those with years of experience, consistently encounter challenges and changes in their working environment and in the needs of their students (Mizell, 2010). Teachers view professional development opportunities as a tool to help combat these challenges (Mizell, 2010). While professional development often refers to a formal process such as a conference, seminar or workshop, professional development can also occur in informal settings (Mizell, 2010). These informal settings can include discussions or observations of a colleague, for example (Mizell, 2010). One might further argue that the benefits of professional development can be modeled in a variety of other settings that allow for

training and practice in combating challenges and honing new and different skills.

Teachers report that they are motivated to grow and adapt, in spite of the discomfort that accompanies change, because they feel better about themselves as teacher, and they experience better learning outcomes (Bell, 1993). These growth experiences lead to a sense of empowerment and a sense of ownership towards their own development (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). Teachers value the opportunity to view themselves as learners (Mizell, 2010).

According to the research of Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford (2007), the overarching goal of professional development is to create teachers who are effective and can adapt to the changing demands of the working environment.

Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford (2007) refer to three commonly documented problems that hinder teachers from in their job efficacy. A teacher must first overcome viewing teaching and learning through the lens of their own personal schooling experience (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford, 2007). A teaching must come to see learning and teaching in nontraditional ways. Secondly, teachers must not only master “thinking like a teacher”, but also be able to enact these thoughts (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford, 2007). Thirdly, teachers must learn how to manage and embrace the complexity, spontaneity and unpredictability of the teaching environment (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford, 2007). Teachers must constantly adapt to the needs and responses of students. When teachers are confidently able to take steps to combat these problems, they experience feelings of greater self-efficacy, and therefore increased feelings of satisfaction (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford, 2007). These problems can be addressed not only

through formal professional development, but also through everyday exposure to new experiences in the work place (Ganvach,1998). According to researched conducted by Yoav Ganvach (1998), work challenges let employees utilize their skills, knowledge and intelligence to deal with complexities involved in the job. Just as professional development and work challenges provide opportunities for growth in these three problem areas, I will later present the case that extracurricular programming provides an environment that is also conducive to confronting these issues.

Extrapolations: Extracurricular Programming and Factors related to Satisfaction

Extracurricular programming and community. Given the significance of these three factors in augmenting teacher job satisfaction, I will present the case that teacher involvement in directing extracurricular activities will have these same positive effects. Extracurricular activities provide opportunities for teachers to experience a strong sense of community, student growth, personal growth, and participation in an activity of personal interest. While extracurricular activities refer to any voluntary activity performed by a student that falls outside of the normal curriculum, the review that follows will pull primarily from the extensive body of research conducted on student involvement in sports.

Student participation in sports promotes social ties, which create a sense of community. A hypothesis put forth by Wells and Picou (1980) suggests that sports participation is beneficial to the educational process because it connects student-athletes to peers, and perhaps more relative to the current research project, to adults, specifically parents and teachers. Strong social ties between teachers and students, specifically, can act as a social control mechanism by promoting compliance and trust among group

members (Hirschi, 1969). This social control mechanism encourages students to comply with school norms and expectations and allows students to have greater success in school. Broh (2001) furthered the hypothesis posited by Wells and Picou. His research concluded that students who participate in interscholastic sports have a stronger sense of control over their lives and a value system that is concordant with the American educational system (Broh, 2001). In this way, the social ties created by participation in sports encourages a student's understanding of the social world and what it means to belong to a community. As students embrace this understanding, a stronger sense of community is fashioned for both the students and teachers to experience together.

These social ties also encourage greater communication and the exchange of information between students and adults. Social ties with adults and teachers, specifically, encourage cognitive and social development by "creating channels for disseminating information and resources" (Coleman, 1990 as cited in Broh, 2001). Sports may provide a natural opportunity for the exchange of information regarding standards of behavior, school norms, and educational resources that may not have occurred otherwise. Participation in interscholastic sports was also found to create and intensify student's social ties, which can be beneficial to student's academic pursuits. Interestingly, results indicated that student-athletes are more likely to talk with their teachers outside of class than are non-athletes. As suggested by Broh, the more students talk to their teachers, the more opportunities they have to gain information that could promote positive growth experiences. Broh (2001) hypothesized that the student-teacher interactions created by sports may create social bonds that motivate students to perform better for teachers with whom they have personal relationships. Thus, sports offer the

circumstances necessary to encourage greater communication between students and teachers. This increase in communication suggests the presence of a deeper connection between student and teacher.

The unique characteristics of the extracurricular program also lend to creating an environment that fosters a strong sense of community among program members.

Scholars, McMillan and Chavis George (1986), developed a definition and theory of community that I will relate to the distinctive dynamics of the extracurricular program.

McMillan and Chavis George (1986) proposed four elements necessary for a comprehensive definition of community. These four elements include membership (a feeling of belonging), influence (a sense of mattering and making a difference in the group), reinforcement (defined as the “integration and fulfillment of needs”), and shared emotional connections (the commitment and belief that members have shared and will continue to share a history of common places, time together and experiences). Each of these elements is present in a distinguishing manner in the extracurricular program environment. It logically follows that as extracurricular programs establish a stronger sense of community among members, teachers both witness bonding among students and experience this bonding themselves.

According to McMillan (1976), personal investment is an important contributor to a person’s feeling of group membership. In the case of an extracurricular activity, a student most often voluntarily commits time and energy to participation towards the goals of a program (Holland & Andre, 1987). In this way, it is possible that a student is apt to feel a similar sense of belonging to the teacher who has personally invested to a great extent. In relation to influence, McMillan and Chavis George (1986) refer to the

conclusions made through the work of Dahl (1961), Hunter (1953), and Wandersman (1981), stating that participation in voluntary associations gives way to a sharing of power that leads to a greater sense of ownership of the community by the participants as well as greater satisfaction. Again, extracurricular programs can often be classified as voluntary associations (Holland & Andre, 1987), and so these conclusions regarding influence might also be pervasive.

The third element of reinforcement refers to the motivators of behavior that must be present in a group to maintain a sense of solidarity. Shared values and goals are one of the most salient motivators for the growth of a cohesive community (Doolittle & McDonald, 1978). These goals and values allow groups to prioritize needs. The students and teacher committed to the success of an extracurricular activity may experience this phenomenon of shared values, goals, and needs. Lastly, communities are marked by a shared emotional connection. McMillan and Chavis George make note of several factors that influence this emotional connection. Of particular relevance is the *contact hypothesis* which purports that the more people interact, the more likely they are to become close (Allan and Allan, 1971; Festinger, 1950; Wilson & Miller, 1961). In accordance with this hypothesis, teachers who encounter a student not only in the classroom but also through an extracurricular activity are more likely to develop a closer connection with this student. Another factor that augments a shared emotional connection is the positive quality of an interaction. According to Cook (1970), greater bonds are formed through experiences and relationships characterized as more positive. In a similar vein, the *shared valent event hypothesis* proposes that the more important the shared event is to the members involved, the greater the level of member bonding (Myers, 1962, Wilson &

Miller, 1961). This theory is seen at work through student participation in sports, which brings about bonding that intensifies as a result of sharing in the victories and defeats of a team (Branscombe & Wann, 1991).

In conclusion, various avenues of research on community and extracurricular programs merge to create a strong case for how the environment of extracurricular activities fosters a deep sense of community, connectedness, and social ties. Given the importance of these elements to the satisfaction of a teacher, it can be extrapolated that extracurricular involvement and an experience of these elements might augment overall job satisfaction. In reference to the scope of this particular investigation, I hypothesize the following findings: I propose that teachers involved in extracurricular programming perceive their involvement as an opportunity to (1) engage with students on a deeper level, (2) enjoy a cooperative working environment, (3) to experience respect from students and peers, and (4) share a common investment and interest with a student. I propose that positive endorsements of these beliefs are correlated with higher levels of reported satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement as well as overall feelings of job satisfaction. In accordance with the contact hypothesis, I propose that teacher satisfaction in extracurricular programming and perceived deeper connections to students and involved colleagues are positively correlated to increased average weekly time commitments. I hypothesize that as teachers spend more time with these students outside of the classroom, teachers develop closer ties to these students and experience a deeper sense of community.

Extracurricular programming and student growth. Student participation in extracurricular activities is related to student growth in a variety of ways. First, extracurricular programming is commonly believed to promote higher academic achievement (Fejgin, 1994; Hanson and Kraus, 1998; Marsh, 1992; McNeal, 1995). Extracurricular activities drive development in various domains that complements the skills needed to achieve within the classroom (Coleman, 1961; Miracle & Rees, 1994; Marsh, 1993; Fejgin, 1994; Rehberg, 1969; Broh, 2001). Next, this domain-wide development is significant in it's own way. Extracurricular programming provides opportunities for significant growth that differs from growth witnessed in a classroom. In this way, greater teacher satisfaction may result not only from witnessing the success of their students in the classroom, as facilitated by this extracurricular programming, but also from witnessing certain success that occurs primarily outside of the classroom (Kitching, Morgan, O'Leary, 2009).

As previously mentioned, extracurricular programming, particularly school sports, is commonly believed to promote higher achievement. Longitudinal studies on school sports have suggested that student participation raise's students' grades and test scores (Fejgin, 1994; Hanson and Kraus, 1998). Marsh (1992) and McNeal (1995) used nationally representative, longitudinal data to examine the consequences of participating in various extracurricular activities. Marsh (1992) investigated the influence of total extracurricular activity participation on a variety of academic outcomes. When background variables are controlled, Marsh found that total extracurricular activity participation is associated with improved grade point average, higher educational aspirations, increased college attendance and reduced absenteeism. McNeal (1995)

investigated the effect of different types of participation on the likelihood of dropping out of high school. His research concluded that participation in sports and clubs are significantly related to a reduced risk of dropping out of high school.

It has been suggested that sports participation does not promote academic achievement in an isolated manner, but in fact, participation in sports socializes adolescents in ways that augment academic success. Conventional perceptions purport that participation in sports promotes the development of respected personal traits. Sports teach a strong work ethic, respect for authority, and perseverance. The development of these traits aligns with educational values and thus, may then be considered to be a mediating factor in student academic success (Coleman, 1961; Miracle and Rees, 1994). According to Marsh (1993) and Fejgin (1994), repeated successful experiences in sports, such as learning a new skill or winning a competition, are purported to develop self-confidence and maturity- traits that also are indicative of success in educational pursuits. Rehberg (1969) states, “Playing sports develops ‘character’ in athletes that increase their desire and ability to achieve academically” (Broh, 2001).

Aside from its impact on academic achievement, participation in sports encourages social development that is important in it’s own right. Accumulated research indicates that participation in sports fosters citizenship, social success, positive peer relationships, and leadership skills (Evans & Roberts, 1987; James, 1995; Manjone, 1998, Wright and Cote, 2003). Youth sport has further been positively correlated with adult career achievement (Larson & Verma, 1999). Cote (2002) highlights that sport provides an area for the development of social skills such as cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy and self-control. Larson proposes that “initiative”, is developed through sport as

well (2000). Larson proposed the theory that initiative is made up of three elements: intrinsic motivation, concerted engagement, and temporal effort directed towards a goal. He suggests that structured voluntary activities such as sports, arts, music, and other organizations offer the best opportunities for initiative development because they require voluntary commitment, motivation, attention, and effort over time.

Given the numerous growth opportunities provided by sports and other extracurricular activities, it would follow that a teacher leading these activities gets a front row seat to a process of student achievement and development different from within the academic classroom. As leaders and coaches of extracurricular organizations and sports teams, teachers have the unique opportunity to facilitate growth in areas that differ from academic endeavors but nonetheless, complements academic achievement and leads to the well-rounded development of an adolescent. A study conducted by Kitching, Morgan and O'Leary (2009) accumulated evidence that the motivation and self-esteem of early teachers, in particular, is positively affected by daily experiences of student engagement and student achievement. Because teachers highly value the success of their students, job satisfaction may be augmented when they have a greater impact on a student's overall development through extracurricular programming.

Finally, I propose that the existence of a unique mentoring opportunity makes for opportunities to witness and facilitate student growth and achievement. According to Mertz (2004), a mentor relationship is defined by a level of intent and involvement in facilitating a student's growth. Mertz identifies three types of relationships that emerge when considering varying levels of intent. Two of these relationships are pertinent to the current discussion. The first relationship is the role model, defined as someone to whom

an individual can turn to for social and emotional support as well as affirmation and the learning of “something related to their personness”. Mertz identifies the role model relationship as the most inclusive terms for friends, teachers, coaches, and others inside and outside of the school setting. The second relationship that approached a deeper level of mentorship is the “advisor”. According to Mertz (2004), advisors use their knowledge to help others learn what they need to know, make sound decisions, to better performance, and to grow intellectually and psychosocially. The advisor is “focused on the ‘present’” and is concerned with maximizing success and potential in the moment. In this way, teachers may endorse extracurricular programming as an opportunity to develop a unique mentoring relationship with a student or group of students. This relationship is characterized by not only a commitment to support and affirmation but also a commitment to the student’s success and development, both personal and skill-based. Varying definitions of the mentor relationship are based in a commonality of concern and an active interest in the development and success of a less experienced individual. In this way, I hypothesize that teachers involved in extracurricular activities will endorse statements regarding extracurricular involvement as a site of mentoring relationships. By the presented definition of the mentor relationship, it follows that these teachers experience a deeper sense of student growth and success than their colleagues who, perhaps, interact with their students on a role-model level.

In light of the presented extrapolations, I hypothesize that teachers who experience success in their profession and a high level of satisfaction are those who witness and encourage student growth and success. It follows that teachers who facilitate growth and success in students in not only the classroom but through extracurricular

programming experience enhanced levels of satisfaction. Relative to the scope of this study, I expect to see high levels of satisfaction associated with the endorsement of statements regarding extracurricular programming as providing ample opportunities for unique student growth, opportunities to support learning, and opportunities to engage in a mentoring relationship with students.

Extracurricular programming and personal growth/interest. Just as extracurricular programming is often attended by students on a voluntary commitment basis, a teachers' initial involvement in an extracurricular activity is often considered a volunteered commitment. An initial match between a teacher and an extracurricular position is more likely to be proposed given a teacher's personal interest in the subject of the program. Just as research demonstrates the critical nature of "loving what you do" in the classroom (Wernimont, 1966; American Federation of Teachers, 2008; Fried, 2001; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005), it's logical that a teacher's personal interest and passion in a particular extracurricular program also influences his/her experience of satisfaction. The actions of a teacher who is initially matched with an extracurricular program or continues involvement on a volunteer basis may inherently speak to this teacher's personal interest in the subject matter. Furthermore, this satisfaction may be even more evident when an interest in a particular subject matter is rarely provided an "outlet" within the general confines of the academic classroom. For example, a teacher acting as a club facilitator may be able to engage deeply in a topic of personal and relevant interest during a club meeting, when this topic typically lies outside the scope of this teacher's classroom curriculum. A history teacher, for example, who also serves as a baseball coach, is able

to engage in a sport of personal interest, an activity that rarely finds its way into the daily class agenda.

In a similar vein, the nature of the extracurricular programming environment may be more flexible and responsive to teacher influence. A teacher may experience a degree of autonomy in an extracurricular environment that is unmatched in the academic environment, often shaped by standardized expectations and rules. This flexibility may allow a teacher great control over the workings of a program and provide an opportunity for a teacher to run the program in accordance to their beliefs, opinions, and personal preferences. This difference in autonomy may be most evident in the comparison of teaching and coaching (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996). Chelladurai and Kuga (1996) make a case that coaching permits greater influence of the leader than teaching. Factors that contribute to this difference include a smaller size of the group or team, a high degree of congruity and ability level among members, a higher degree of motivation to participate, congruent goal acceptance by the total group (leader and members), and a prolonged period of contact between the leader and group members (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996). Chelladurai and Kuga (1996) argue that coaches hold greater power and exert more control over operations than teachers in the classroom environment. Research conducted by Fiedler (1973), further supports this claim by stating that the aforementioned leadership attributes enhance a coach's ability to influence athletes.

Teachers may also find the extracurricular environment to be a place to practice skills that differ from those generally used in the classroom. As research shows, professionals often voluntarily seek new learning (Mizell, 2010). In this way, teachers may value the opportunity to hone new skills while fulfilling their extracurricular duties.

The outcomes related to this unique skill development, may parallel the outcomes associated with professional development opportunities. The extracurricular environment can be variably different from the classroom environment, resulting in a unique host of challenges. The challenges may provide opportunities for teachers to grow and adapt, and to therefore feel better about themselves as professionals (Bell, 1993). As Bell reports, these growth experiences foster a sense of empowerment and ownership of a teacher's personal development (1993). This opportunity to master a variety of skills will lead to personal growth that augments satisfaction. The extracurricular environment can also be examined in light of the research of Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Bransford (2007). Again, these researchers cite three primary problems that teachers battle to become better educators. These challenges involve (1) learning to teach in a nontraditional manner, in a way that differs from one's own schooling experience, (2) learning to both think like a teacher and put these thoughts into action, and (3) learning to manage and embrace the complexity, spontaneity and unpredictability of the learning environment (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2007). I propose that the extracurricular environment provides numerous growth opportunities in each of these areas. First, extracurricular programming is often inherently different from the academic classroom routine and requires alternative teaching methods. Numerous research studies, for example, suggest that teaching and coaching are distinctly different professions, requiring different skills and approaches towards engaging students (Chelladurai, Kuga, & O'Bryant, 1999; Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995; Staffo, 1992). Teachers may be challenged to practice approaches that may be considered "nontraditional". Second, as the leader of an extracurricular program, a teacher has

responsibilities to not only think through problem solving strategies and new directions for the program, but to execute these ideas. A teacher may have ample opportunity to practice turning thoughts into actions in the extracurricular setting. Finally, the extracurricular setting may be less structured and regulated than the classroom setting. It would follow that spontaneity and unpredictability are characteristic of this environment. I propose that leaders of extracurricular programs are likely to encounter surprising circumstances that challenge them to adapt. In sum, the extracurricular environment may provide informal opportunities for a teacher's professional development- an element highly valued by the teaching workforce and likely to increase teacher's feelings of efficacy and satisfaction.

I expect results of this study to confirm that teacher satisfaction is affected/augmented by teachers' perceptions of their own personal growth opportunities in extracurricular programming. Those teachers that perceive their involvement as an opportunity to practice new skills, and engage in novel creative processes might be more likely to experience greater occasions for personal development, and therefore be more satisfied with their involvement and their careers, in general. I anticipate that teachers who are given a greater degree of control over the workings of an extracurricular program are more likely to be able to "lead" out of personal preferences for the running of the program. I anticipate that teachers will endorse extracurricular programming as an opportunity to engage with a subject of personal interest and endorse their involvement as an experience that augments satisfaction.

Implications

The implications of these research findings have the capacity to impact schools on a variety of levels. From an administrative standpoint, administrators must recognize not only the benefits of extracurricular involvement for students but also the proposed benefit for teachers. If involvement in extracurricular activities does in fact augment teacher job satisfaction, administrators should be providing incentives for teachers to be involved in extracurricular activities at some level. In the case that this incentive is a financial one, financial resources should be allocated for this reason. The findings of this research would push an administration to value extracurricular activities even amidst financial struggles and tight budgets.

If a particular factor is found to be most indicative of teacher satisfaction in extracurricular involvement, administrators might place a greater emphasis on creating a working climate in which this particular factor is augmented. For example, if personal growth and interest are found to be most correlated with satisfaction, administrators should be attentive and alert to opportunities to give teachers extracurricular positions that align with their personal interests as well as provide opportunities to hone skills, specific to professional and personal development.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were full-time teachers in secondary schools in the southern New Jersey region. The schools represented in this sample were self-selecting as cooperation and participation were voluntary. Samples were taken from these schools because participation in this study was principal/board approved.

Participants considered ineligible for the study included part-time teachers, as well as teachers associated with schools in which access was not granted. Because of the limited scope of this study, school faculty in support staff or administrative positions were not included in this study sample. Because individual participation in the study was voluntary, the resulting sample is self-selecting.

The surveys were distributed via a staff wide email to approximately 150 teachers between two participating schools. Of the surveys distributed, 71 surveys were returned electronically. Seven of these 71 surveys were returned without any responses, and these 7 surveys were omitted from the data analysis. Responses were provided for most portions of the remaining 63 surveys. That being said, it is important to note that the sample size for the various statistical tests conducted vary according to the available response data for the selected survey items in question. This survey prompted responses from teachers with various levels of teaching experience and roles in extracurricular programming. In reference to years of teaching experience, the greatest percentage of teachers (23.7%) indicated that they have been in the teaching profession for 6-10 years. The next highest percentage of teachers (17.5%) indicated they've been in the teaching

profession for more than 26 years. 17.5% indicated that their teaching experience numbered 1-5 years, while 17.5% of the sample population indicated 11-15 years. Finally, 7.9% indicated spending 16-20 years in the profession and 15.9% indicated 21 to 25 years. In reference to the extracurricular roles occupied by the survey participants, 29% indicated that “Athletic Coach” best represents their role. 16.1% identified with the title and role of club facilitator. 6.5% best identified their role as a class advisor, and 19.4% chose “Other” as the most representative survey option. 9.7% of the sample population did not specify a role while 19.3% indicated no involvement. The participants who identified “Other” as the best representation of their extracurricular role were also given the opportunity to provide a short description of this role. These volunteered responses included answers that included homebound instruction, tutoring, school dance chaperone, among others. The roles played by these participants also varied in levels of involvement/compensation. 20.6% of the survey participants indicated that they have no current involvement in extracurricular programming. 34.9% indicated that they are paid for their duties in extracurricular programming. 14.3% indicated that their extracurricular involvement is voluntary while 30.1% indicated that their involvement is best identified as both paid and voluntary. One might presume that this final category may consist of some teachers who are paid for an extracurricular duty but feel that they work above and beyond the required commitment for which they receive financial compensation. Survey participants were also asked to estimate the average number of hours they spend involved in extracurricular programming per week. These estimates ranged from 0 to 40 hours per week. The mean estimate of weekly hour commitment was 10.66 hours (SD = 11.51).

Most often, the role of “Athletic Coach” was paired with the greatest hourly commitments.

Materials

The questionnaire utilized in this study is called the Extracurricular Programming Questionnaire, developed by the principal researcher. This survey first asks participants, through a series of multiple choice and free response questions, to best describe their role in extracurricular programming. The remaining survey items address participant perceptions of overall job satisfaction and involvement in extracurricular programming. These perceptions are investigated through a person’s degree of agreement/disagreement with a variety of statements. In this way, each statement is a Likert item. The typical five-level Likert scale is used consistently throughout the survey. Participants are presented with a scale with the following equally distanced responses, correlating with the following numerical score for data analysis: *Strongly disagree* (1), *Disagree* (2), *Neutral (Neither agree nor disagree)* (3), *Agree* (4), *Strongly agree* (5). For the purpose of this study, a higher numerical score correlates with a higher the degree of agreement with a positive statement regarding participants’ extracurricular involvement. For this reason, a select number of survey items were reverse scored so that consistent averaged scores could be developed. For example, the scores in response to the survey item statement “The people I work with in extracurricular programming are uncooperative” were reversed before analysis so that this data could be averaged with responses to positive statements to create an overall “Average Relationship Factor Score”. These reverse score survey items were introduced into the survey in order to best avoid the effect of demand characteristics and deter participants from simply taking on the “good-participant” role.

Statements expressed both positive and negative perceptions of extracurricular programming involvement so that participants might feel free to respond accurately and honestly.

Electronic copies were used in the distribution process of these questionnaires. The electronic version of the questionnaire was disseminated via an online survey distributor, Survey Monkey.

Design

This study investigated correlational relationships between overall teacher job satisfaction and level of involvement/commitment to extracurricular programming. Satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement was further investigated as it relates to level of involvement and experiences of particular factors predicted to influence satisfaction. Perceptions of extracurricular involvement were investigated in light of how each participant defined his/her role and level of involvement (hours per week).

The first six questions of the survey, of the Likert scale type, were to assess participants' overall job satisfaction. Five of these questions were designed to investigate participant perceptions of factors determined by prior research to influence overall job satisfaction. These five questions involved the following five factors: the presence of positive relationships with colleagues (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991), the presence of positive relationships with students (Moore, 2012), great degree of control over classroom workings (Kreis & Brockopp, 1986), the presence of supportive administration (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006), and a sense of self efficacy and confidence in own abilities (Caprara et al., 2006). The sixth and final question of this section prompted participants to simply assess their overarching feelings of job satisfaction. The Average

Overall Job Satisfaction Score was developed by averaging the scores measuring participants' degree of agreement with these first five survey item statements. These statements included: "My interpersonal relationships with my colleagues are positive and encouraging", "I have a great degree of control over the workings of my classroom", "The administration supports and advocates for me", "My relationships with my students are positive and encouraging", and "I am confident in my efficacy as a teacher". The validity of this average score will be assessed via a correlational analysis with the level of agreement to a single survey item, "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher". In addition, for the purpose of the subsequent statistical processes, overall satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming was measured by participants' degree of agreement with a single survey item statement, "I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming".

The next series of questions were designed to collect individualizing information regarding participants' type and level of involvement. As stated previously, these questions collected information regarding years of teaching experience, type of extracurricular programming role, average weekly time commitment, and the presence of compensation. Participants best identified their extracurricular involvement as paid, voluntary, both paid and voluntary, or no involvement.

The final portion of the survey included thirty-one Likert Scale items. These questions were designed to investigate factors of satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement. The factors in question are similar to those factors that have been deemed consequential to influencing the general job satisfaction of the teaching workforce. In alignment with the hypotheses of this research study, the survey items in this final portion

can be categorized into the following factors: the quality of relationships specific to the extracurricular setting (Average Relationship Factor Score), extracurricular involvement as an opportunity to witness and facilitate student growth (Average Student Growth Factor Score), and involvement as an opportunity for personal development and the engagement of activities of personal interest (Average Personal Growth/Interest Factor Score). The Average Relationship Factor Score was developed by averaging the scores measuring participants' degree of agreement with the following statements: "I get along well with colleagues who share similar duties in extracurricular programming", "I get along well with the students I interact with in extracurricular programming", "Students and colleagues respect me in my extracurricular position", "The role I play in extracurricular programming is minimal and does not allow for deeper connections with students" (reverse scored), and "The people I work with in extracurricular programming are uncooperative" (reverse scored). The Average Student Growth Factor Score was developed by averaging the scores measuring participants' degree of agreement with these three statements: "My involvement in extracurricular activities provides me the opportunity to help students learn", "The growth I see in my students in extracurricular programming is unique to this setting and different from the growth I see in my students in the classroom" and "The mentor relationships I build with students outside of the classroom are no different than what occurs in the academic classroom environment" (reverse scored). The Average Personal Growth/Interest Factor Score was developed by averaging the scores measuring participants' degree of agreement with the following statements: "Extracurricular programming provides an opportunity to use a variety of skills. Often, these skills differ from those that I use in the classroom", "The skills that I

use in the extracurricular programming setting are no different from the set of skills I use in the classroom” (reverse scored), “My involvement in extracurricular programming is of great interest to me,” “I have a great degree of control over the extracurricular programs in which I am involved”, “Extracurricular programming provides me the opportunity to share a common interest with a student”, and “My involvement in extracurricular programming encourages me to be creative”.

The remaining survey items do not fit into these factor categories, but rather investigate additional perceptions and beliefs about extracurricular programming and participant involvement. Two items inquire about level of time commitment relative to colleagues. Three items investigate beliefs linked to financial compensation. Several items measure overall beliefs and perceptions of extracurricular activities and the significance they have in the lives of both the staff and students involved. Because of the limited scope of this study, all of the information gathered specific to these survey items cannot be analyzed. When these survey items are, in fact, utilized in the data analysis, the survey item statement will be clearly denoted. All survey items were randomly ordered.

Procedure

First, a pool of potential participants was created. With the cooperation of school administrative faculty, a list of full-time classroom teachers who match the participant criteria was developed. School faculty in support staff or administrative positions were removed from the potential participant pool.

Second, a method of questionnaire distribution was determined. This procedure was dependent on input from each school principal on the most efficient and effective

way to deliver the questionnaires. While the use of printed copies was initially discussed, email distribution was determined to be the preferred approach by both school principals. Electronic versions of the survey were distributed by both principals to school email addresses. The survey was made available to interested participants via a link prepared by an online survey service, Survey Monkey.

Potential participants were given three weeks to complete the questionnaires and return them to the principal investigator. Upon submission, survey data was stored on Survey Monkey and later transferred to statistical software for further analysis.

The data collected by the Extracurricular Programming Questionnaire, developed by the researcher, was analyzed via a process of scoring and reverse scoring. The use of the Likert scale provides for scoring of an ordinal manner. The response values are assumed to be equidistant from one another and each response is assigned a positive integer value: *Strongly disagree* (1), *Disagree* (2), *Neutral (Neither agree nor disagree)* (3), *Agree* (4), *Strongly agree* (5). Responses to question items were analyzed in light of the particular factor they represented. Analyses of variance and correlational analyses were the most common tests utilized to distill the information gathered. The data collected from each questionnaire was analyzed to investigate whether correlations exist between a teacher's overall job satisfaction and his/her involvement and perceptions of extracurricular programming. Analyses were also conducted to determine the relationship between particular factors and satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement. Finally, interpretations and extrapolations were made from the analyzed data.

Chapter 4

Results

Before the results can be presented, an understanding of the numerical scores used throughout the analysis and data interpretation is crucial. When response scores to Likert items are used in these analyses, the numerical scale corresponds to the responses in the following way: *Strongly disagree* (1), *Disagree* (2), *Neutral (Neither agree nor disagree)* (3), *Agree* (4), and *Strongly agree* (5). In this way, a mean score of 4 or above signifies a participant's agreement with a positive survey item or grouping of items. A mean score of 2 or below signifies a participant's disagreement with a positive survey item or grouping of items. A mean score of 3 indicates a participant's feelings of neutrality towards the positive survey item. All survey items representing negative perceptions and experiences of extracurricular programming have been reverse scored so that every response score not only represents a high degree of agreement, but also represents a positive perception of the extracurricular involvement aspect.

Descriptive Analyses: Sample Population

Descriptive statistic procedures were conducted on the entire body of survey responses. These results are an important indicator of the overall representation of the survey sample. The results in Table 1 are descriptive statistics pertaining to the entire body of survey participants and their corresponding response scores to the most pertinent survey items. To summarize, the mean Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score among the survey sample is 4.52 (SD = .42). The mean degree of agreement with the survey item "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher" is 4.58 (SD = .53). The mean degree of agreement among all participants with the survey item "I am greatly

satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming” is 4.12. (SD = .82) The mean Average Relationship Factor Score is 4.18 (SD = .65). The mean Average Student Growth Factor Score is 3.83 (SD = .57). The mean Average Personal Growth/Interest Score is 3.97 (SD = .54).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics: Sample Population

Survey Item/Measure	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score	63	4.52	.42	3.20	5.00
“I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher.”	62	4.58	.53	3.00	5.00
“I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming.”	50	4.12	.82	2.00	5.00
Average Relationship Factor Score	56	4.18	.65	1.00	5.00
Average Student Growth Score	55	3.83	.57	2.33	4.67
Average Personal Development/Interest Score	58	3.97	.54	2.00	5.00

Note. Scores range from 1.00 to 5.00; higher scores indicate participants’ greater degree of agreement with positive statements regarding extracurricular programming involvement.

Analyses Investigating Overall Job Satisfaction

The following statistical processes were conducted to investigate participant’s overall job satisfaction and how it relates to a variety of factors both within and apart from participants’ extracurricular involvement. The correlation between a participant’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher” is statistically significant, $r(60) = +.657$, $p = .000$, two-tailed. The correlation between a participant’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, “I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular

programming” is not statistically significant, $r(48) = +.166$, $p = .249$, two-tailed. In a similar way, the correlation between a participant’s level of agreement to the individual survey items, “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher” and “I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming” is not statistically significant, $r(48) = +.162$, $p = .261$, two-tailed. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether a teacher’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score varies significantly according to a participant’s indicated level of involvement/compensation type. The findings were not significant, $F(3,59) = .297$, $p = .827$.

The succeeding correlational analyses investigate the existence of statistically significant relationships between participant’s overall job satisfaction and this study’s three extracurricular involvement factor scores. Overall job satisfaction is measured by both the Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the positive endorsement of the survey item “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher”. First, the correlation between a participant’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the Average Relationship Factor Score is not statistically significant, $r(54) = +.085$, $p = .532$, two-tailed. In the same way, the correlation between a participant’s Average Relationship Factor Score and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher” also is not considered statistically significant, $r(53) = +.002$, $p = .991$, two-tailed. Second, the correlation between a participant’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the Average Student Growth Factor Score is not deemed statistically significant, $r(53) = -.097$, $p = .480$, two-tailed. Furthermore, the correlation between a participant’s Average Student Growth Factor Score and the level of

agreement to an individual survey item, “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher” also is not statistically significant, $r(52) = -.035$, $p = .801$, two-tailed. Finally, the correlation between a participant’s Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score and the Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score is not statistically significant, $r(56) = +.154$, $p = .248$, two-tailed. Moreover, the correlation between a participant’s Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, “I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher” is not statistically significant, $r(55) = +.108$, $p = .422$, two-tailed.

Analyses Investigating Satisfaction in Extracurricular Involvement

Statistical analyses were also conducted to investigate the possible relationships among participants’ satisfaction specific to the extracurricular involvement and a variety of differentiating factors. The subsequent three tests examine whether satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming varies according to the level of involvement, weekly time commitment, and type of role. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement varies significantly according to a participant’s indicated level of involvement/compensation. The findings were trending towards significance at the $p < .05$ level, $F(3,46) = 2.001$, $p = .127$. Scores differed according to the levels of involvement/compensation: “No involvement” ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.16$), “Paid” involvement ($M = 4.19$, $SD = .928$), “Paid and Voluntary” involvement ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .671$), and “Voluntary” involvement ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .488$). The correlation between a participant’s reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and indicated weekly hour involvement was determined to trend towards

significance at the $p = .05$ level, $r(41) = +.288$, $p = .061$, two-tailed. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether overall satisfaction specific to extracurricular activities varies significantly according to a participant's indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were significant, $F(5,44) = 3.727$, $p = .007$. Scores differed according to the indicated roles: "Class Advisor" ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .577$), "Athletic Coach" ($M = 4.39$, $SD = .608$), "Club Facilitator" ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .675$), "Other" ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .853$), those participants who did not specify a type of role when completing the survey ($M = 3$, $SD = .816$), and "None" ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.414$). The results specific to this ANOVA are presented in Table 2 and Table 2.1.

Table 2

Variance of Satisfaction Score specific to Extracurricular Involvement according to Indicated Role

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	5	9.902	1.980	3.727	.007**
Within groups	44	23.378	.531		
Total	49	33.280			

Note. **Finding is significant at $p < 0.01$.

Table 2.1

Satisfaction Score Specific to Extracurricular Involvement according to Indicated Role

Indicated Role	n	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
None	2	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.414
Did Not Specify	4	3.00	2.00	4.00	.816
Other	12	4.00	2.00	5.00	.853
Club Facilitator	10	4.30	3.00	5.00	.675
Class Advisor	4	4.50	4.00	5.00	.577
Athletic Coach	18	4.39	3.00	5.00	.608
Total	50	4.12	2.00	5.00	.824

Note. Scores range from 1.00 to 5.00; higher scores indicate participants' greater degree of agreement with positive statements regarding extracurricular programming involvement.

Correlational tests were also conducted to get a clearer picture of whether satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement corresponds to perceptions and beliefs regarding financial compensation. The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and the level of agreement to an individual survey item (when reverse scored), "A financial incentive is the primary reason for my involvement in extracurricular programming" is statistically significant, $r(48) = +.499$, $p = .000$, two-tailed. The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and the level of agreement to an individual survey item (when reverse scored), "If involvement in extracurricular programming became an unpaid/voluntary commitment, I would not continue with my involvement" is statistically significant, $r(47) = +.369$, $p = .009$, two-tailed. Further analyses will reveal the relationships between satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement and the three extracurricular factor scores.

Community/relationships. Several statistical tests were conducted to examine how participants' Average Relationship Factor Score relates to various factors, including satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement. The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and a participant's Average Relationship Factor Score is statistically significant, $r(48) = +.764$, $p = .000$, two-tailed. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether a participant's Average Relationship Factor Score varies significantly according to a participant's indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were significant, $F(5,50) = 3.581$, $p = .008$. Scores differed according to the indicated roles: "Athletic Coach" ($M = 4.456$, $SD = .355$), "Class Advisor" ($M = 4.350$, $SD = .443$), "Club Facilitator" ($M = 4.287$, $SD = .390$), "Other" ($M = 4.200$, $SD = .467$), those participants who did not specify a type of role when completing the survey ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .684$), and "None" ($M = 3.457$, $SD = 1.210$). The results specific to this ANOVA are presented in Table 3 and Table 3.1.

Table 3

Variance of Average Relationship Factor Score according to Indicated Role

	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	5	6.141	1.228	3.581	.008**
Within groups	50	17.149	.343		
Total	55	23.289			

Note. **Finding is significant at $p < 0.01$.

Table 3.1

Average Relationship Factor Score according to Indicated Role

Indicated Role	n	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
None	7	3.4571	1.00	4.60	1.210
Did Not Specify	5	3.7600	3.00	4.80	.684
Other	12	4.2000	3.40	5.00	.467
Club Facilitator	10	4.2870	3.67	5.00	.389
Class Advisor	4	4.3500	4.00	5.00	.443
Athletic Coach	18	4.4556	3.80	5.00	.355
Total	56	4.1763	1.00	5.00	.651

Note. Scores range from 1.00 to 5.00; higher scores indicate participants' greater degree of agreement with positive statements regarding extracurricular programming involvement and the experience of relationships.

Lastly, a correlation between a participant's reported weekly hour commitment and a participant's Average Relationship Factor Score is statistically significant, $r(46) = +.399$, $p = .005$, two-tailed.

Personal growth/interest. The survey responses concerning participants' personal development and personal interests were analyzed similarly to the preceding two extracurricular factor scores. The Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score was first analyzed in relation to participants' satisfaction in extracurricular programming. The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and a participant's Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score is statistically significant, $r(48) = +.638$, $p = .000$, two-tailed. The next two statistical procedures determine whether the Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score varies according to either type of extracurricular role or levels of weekly hour involvement. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

calculated to assess whether a participant’s Average Personal Development/Interest Factor Score varies significantly according to a participant’s indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were significant at the .05 level, $F(5,52) = 2.951$, $p = .020$. Scores differed according to the indicated roles: “Athletic Coach” ($M = 4.244$, $SD = .379$), “Class Advisor” ($M = 4.250$, $SD = .342$), “Club Facilitator” ($M = 3.960$, $SD = .595$), “Other” ($M = 3.923$, $SD = .341$), those participants who did not specify a type of role when completing the survey ($M = 3.617$, $SD = .240$), and “None” ($M = 3.575$, $SD = .884$). The results specific to this ANOVA are presented in Table 4 and Table 4.1.

Table 4

Variance of Average Personal Growth/Interest Score according to Indicated Role

	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	5	3.694	.739	2.951	.020*
Within groups	52	13.019	.250		
Total	57	16.713			

Note. *Finding is significant at $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.1

Average Personal Growth/Interest Scores according to Indicated Role

Indicated Role	n	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
None	8	3.575	2.00	5.00	1.414
Did Not Specify	6	3.617	3.40	4.00	.816
Other	12	3.923	3.40	4.40	.853
Club Facilitator	10	3.960	2.80	4.60	.675
Class Advisor	4	4.250	3.80	4.60	.577
Athletic Coach	18	4.244	3.60	4.80	.608
Total	58	3.972	2.00	5.00	.824

Note. Scores range from 1.00 to 5.00; higher scores indicate participants' greater degree of agreement with positive statements regarding extracurricular programming involvement and the experience of personal growth/interest.

The correlation between a participant's reported weekly hour commitment and a participant's averaged personal development/interest factor score was determined to be statistically significant, $r(48) = +.406$, $p = .003$, two-tailed.

Student growth. In a similar fashion as the Average Relationship Factor Score, the Average Student Growth Factor score was analyzed in relation to a variety of factors and response scores to survey items. First, the correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and a participant's Average Student Growth Factor Score was determined to only trend towards significance at the $p = .05$ level, $r(48) = +.266$, $p = .062$, two-tailed. Second, the Average Growth Factor Score and the responses from a single survey item within this aggregate score were examined for variance according to a participant's type of extracurricular role. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether a teacher's Averaged Student Growth Factor Score varies significantly according to a participant's

indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were not significant, $F(5,49) = .923$, $p = .474$. The results specific to this ANOVA are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Variance of Average Student Growth Factor Score according to Indicated Role

	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	5	1.515	.303	.923	.474
Within groups	49	16.085	.328		
Total	54	17.600			

Note. Finding is not significant at $p < .05$ level.

At this time, for the ease of comparison, Table 6 is presented to demonstrate the correlational relationships previously discussed between satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming and each of the factor scores. While the Average Relationship factor Score and the Average Personal Growth/Interest Score are significantly correlated with reported levels of satisfaction in extracurricular involvement, the Average Student Growth Factor Score does not correlate with reported satisfaction. This difference prompts further investigation of the survey components that make up this factor score.

Table 6

Correlations Among Factor Scores and Satisfaction specific to Extracurricular Programming

	Extracurricular satisfaction
Average Relationship Factor Score	.764***
Average Personal Growth/Interest Score	.638***
Average Student Growth Factor Score	.266

Note. ***Finding is significant at $p < .001$.

Figure 1 further demonstrates the evident differences between the strength of correlational relationships between satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement and the Average Factor Scores investigated in this research study.

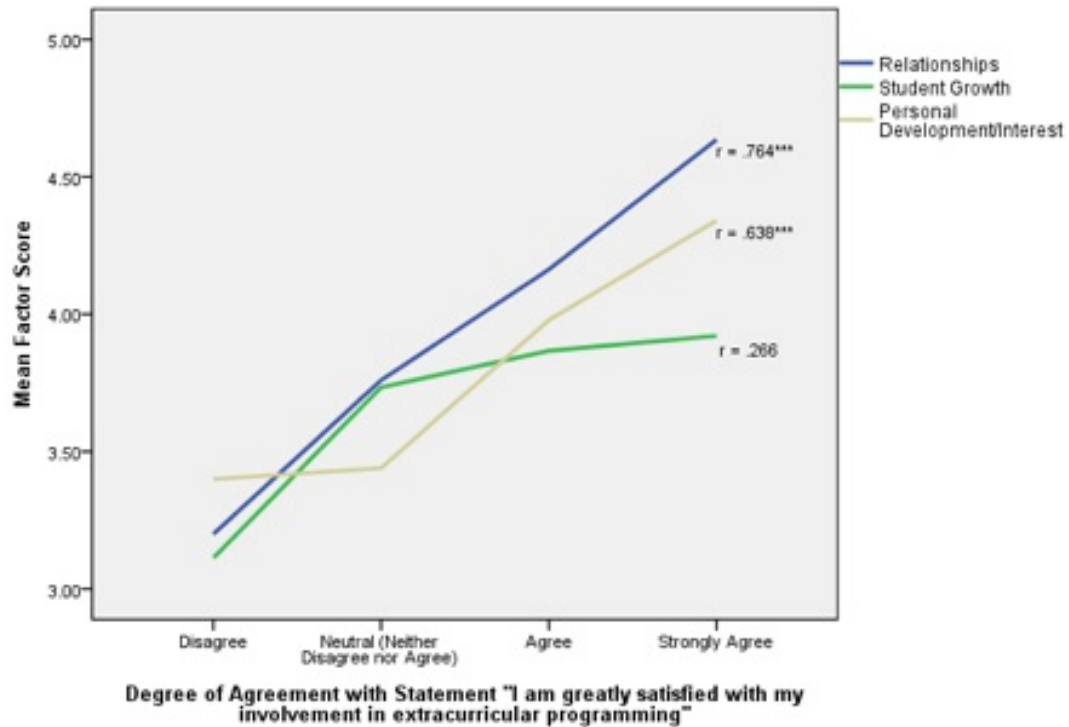


Figure 1. Comparing strength of correlations among factor scores and satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming.

Note. ***Finding is significant at $p < .001$.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether a participant's level of agreement to a specific survey item within the Average Student Growth Factor Score, "The growth I see in my students in extracurricular programming is unique to this setting and different from the growth I see in my students in the classroom", varies significantly according to a participant's indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were also not significant, $F(5,48) = .923$, $p = .475$.

Finally, the correlation between a participant's reported weekly hour commitment and a

participant's averaged student growth factor score is not statistically significant, $r(45) = +.084$, $p = .573$, two-tailed.

For a more nuanced understanding of the trends and relationships within the Average Student Growth Factor Score, all three survey items that are grouped to form this score were analyzed independently. First, the correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, "My involvement in extracurricular activities provides me the opportunity to help students learn" is statistically significant, $r(48) = +.640$, $p = .000$, two-tailed. The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and the level of agreement to an individual survey item (when reverse scored), "The mentor relationships I build outside of the classroom are no different than what occurs in the academic classroom environment" is not statistically significant, $r(48) = -.013$, $p = .927$, two-tailed. Lastly, the correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and the level of agreement to an individual survey item, "The growth I see in my students in extracurricular programming is unique to this setting and different from the growth I see in my students in the classroom" is not statistically significant, $r(48) = +.073$, $p = .614$, two-tailed. These correlational relationships are presented for comparison in Table 7.

Table 7

Correlations Among Student Growth Factor Score/Individual Item Components and Satisfaction Score specific to Extracurricular Programming

Score/Survey Item	Extracurricular satisfaction
Average Student Growth Factor Score	.266
“My involvement in extracurricular activities provides me the opportunity to help students learn”	.640***
“The growth I see in my students in extracurricular programming is unique to this setting and different from the growth I see in my students in the classroom”	.073
“The mentor relationships I build outside of the classroom are no different than what occurs in the academic classroom environment” (reverse scored)	-.013

Note. ***Finding is significant at $p < .001$.

Figure 2 further demonstrates the evident differences between the strength of correlational relationships between satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement and the individual survey components that make up this score.

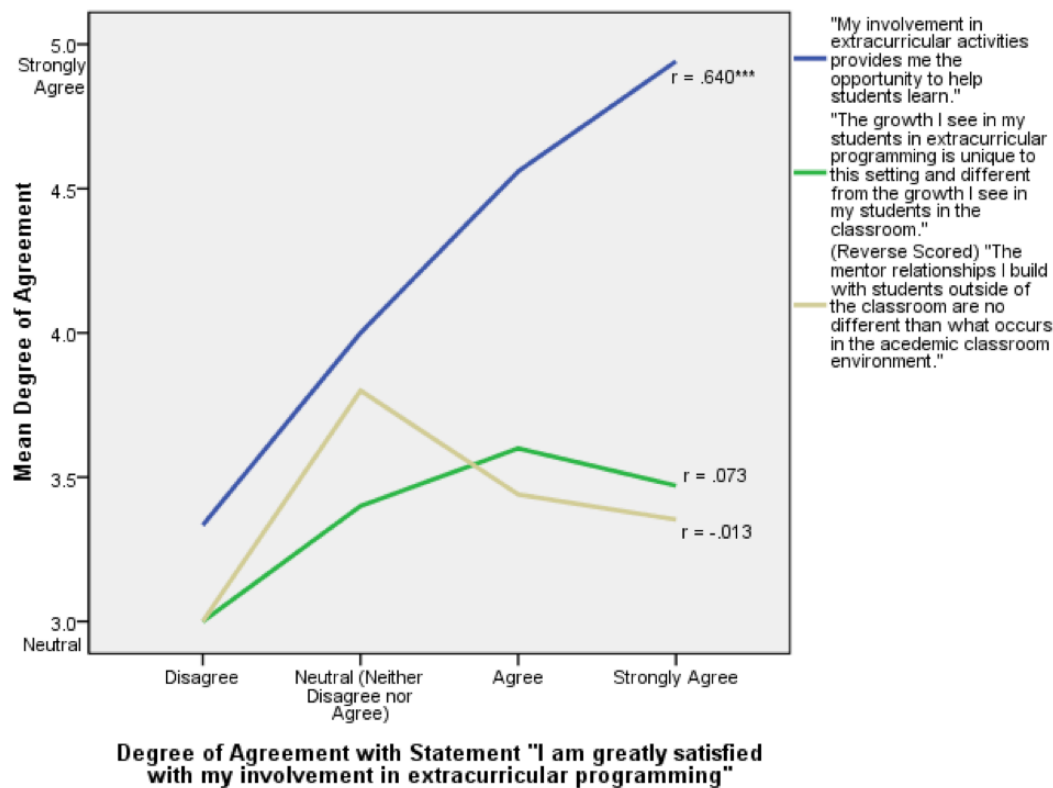


Figure 2. Comparing strength of correlations among individual “student growth” survey items and satisfaction score specific to extracurricular programming.

Note. ***Finding is significant at $p < .001$.

Time commitment. The final set of statistical procedures examined participants’ levels of weekly hour involvement in relation to a range of distinguishing survey items. First, a between one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to assess whether a participant’s indicated weekly hour commitment varies significantly according to a participant’s indicated extracurricular involvement role. The findings were significant, $F(5,48) = 13.825$, $p = .000$. Indicated weekly hour commitments differed according to the indicated roles: “Athletic Coach” ($M = 22.42$, $SD = 8.782$), “Class

Advisor” (M = 10.33, SD = 10.116), “Club Facilitator” (M = 8.40, SD = 11.374), “Other” (M = 6.60, SD = 4.971), those participants who did not specify a type of role when completing the survey (M = .00), and “None” (M = .00, SD = .000). The results specific to this ANOVA are presented in Table 8 and Table 8.1.

Table 8

Variance of Weekly Time Commitment (Hours) according to Indicated Role

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	5	4179.987	835.997	13.825	.000***
Within groups	48	2902.592	60.471		
Total	53	7082.579			

****Finding is significant at $p < 0.001$.*

Table 8.1

Weekly Time Commitment (Hours) according to Indicated Role

Indicated Role	n	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
None	12	.00	0	0	.000
Did Not Specify	1	.00	0	0	.
Other	10	6.60	1	15	4.971
Club Facilitator	10	8.40	2	40	11.374
Class Advisor	3	10.33	4	22	10.116
Athletic Coach	18	22.42	7	40	8.782
Total	54	10.82	0	40	11.560

Three correlational analyses were conducted to provide a better sense of the shifting beliefs and perceptions related to varying levels of weekly hour commitment.

The correlation between a participant’s reported weekly hour commitment and the level

of agreement to an individual survey item (when reverse scored) “A financial incentive is the primary reason for my involvement in extracurricular programming” is statistically significant, $r(45) = +.433$, $p = .002$, two-tailed. The correlation between a participant’s reported weekly hour commitment and the level of agreement to an individual survey item (when reverse scored) “If involvement in extracurricular programming became an unpaid/voluntary commitment, I would not continue with my involvement” is statistically significant at the $p = .05$ level, $r(44) = +.313$, $p = .034$, two-tailed. The correlation between a participant’s reported weekly hour commitment and the level of agreement to an individual survey item “The satisfaction I gain from my role in extracurricular programming significantly outweighs any burden of additional responsibilities” is also statistically significant, $r(44) = +.402$, $p = .006$, two-tailed.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Conclusions Regarding Sample Population

The presented findings reveal significant information about the sample population targeted in the research study. The communities represented by survey participation are not representative of the average school community. In this way, all findings must be viewed in light of the sample's unique characteristics. First, participants expressed a high level of agreement with the statement, "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher" ($M = 4.58$, $SD = .53$). Participants' responses were also combined to create a composite measure, the Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score. Upon examination of the sample responses, these scores reflect the population's high level of agreement with positive statements regarding factors of satisfaction ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .42$). Not a single participant endorsed a degree of agreement below "neutral" for these two measurements. Finally, the sample population, as a whole, endorsed a general level of agreement towards experiencing great satisfaction in extracurricular involvement ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .82$). These high levels of satisfaction characterize the sample population and color all research findings. All findings must, in turn, be interpreted as relevant to a teaching population that reports general satisfaction with the profession.

Factors Relating to Overall Job Satisfaction

The results of a correlational analysis support previous research findings regarding the factors determined to be influential in the job satisfaction of the teaching workforce. The level of agreement with the following statement "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher" correlates strongly ($r(60) = +.657$, $p = .000$) with the

overall job satisfaction score developed by averaging degrees of agreement with the following five factors: relationships with colleagues (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991), relationships with students (Moore, 2012), degree of control over classroom workings (Kreis & Brockopp, 1986), relationship with administration (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006), and feelings of self efficacy in the profession (Caprara et al., 2006). Most relevant to the overarching research question is the results of the correlational analysis regarding overall job satisfaction and satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming. As my hypothesis indicates, I anticipated factors, similar to those previously determined to augment overall job satisfaction, to be present and influential in the extracurricular setting. I anticipated that high levels of satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement would be related to, and even influence overall feelings of job satisfaction in the teaching workforce. The results of two correlational analyses suggest differently: the correlation between participants' average overall satisfaction score and their degree of agreement with the statement "I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming" was determined not to be statistically significant ($r(48) = +.166, p = .249$). Also, the correlation between participants' degrees of agreement on two individual survey items "I am greatly satisfied with my involvement in extracurricular programming", and "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher" was weaker than expected ($r(48) = +.162, p = .261$). In this way, there isn't a correlational relationship between satisfaction specific to the extracurricular environment and overall satisfaction. Without the presence of a strong correlation, it can be presumed that satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement has no predictive power over overall job satisfaction, according to this research data. This conclusion is further

supported by the present finding that the Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score does not vary according to a participant's level of involvement/compensation specific to extracurricular programming. In this way, whether or not a participant identifies as having a role in extracurricular programming or having no involvement, overall job satisfaction does not differ.

It naturally follows that if satisfaction in extracurricular involvement has no bearing or even correspondence with overall satisfaction, then the extracurricular involvement factors would also have little influence over overall satisfaction. This deduction is in fact supported by the research findings. The correlations among each factor score and two different assessments of overall job satisfaction are all statistically insignificant. (An additional single survey item measure was used to account for the unconfirmed validity of the Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score.) In both cases, however, the factored score did not correlate with either the Average Overall Job Satisfaction Score or degree of agreement with the survey item statement, "I am satisfied with my overall experience as a teacher". Thus, the perceptions and experiences of relationships, opportunities for student growth, and opportunities for personal growth and engagement in activities of personal interest, specific to the extracurricular setting, have no relation to ratings of overall job satisfaction.

Interpretations for this weak relationship between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement are extrapolations regarding the particular sample size and teacher perceptions of the relative influence of extracurricular programming involvement on their overall experience as a teacher. The characteristics of the sample population may be important in the influences at work

behind these statistical findings. IF the sample population endorses experiencing high levels of satisfaction in the overall teaching experience, it can be presumed that the experience in the academic classroom contributes greatly to this endorsement. Teachers presently experiencing high levels of satisfaction in the classroom may not estimate extracurricular involvement as a crucial and determining factor in overall satisfaction. Teachers greatly satisfied with the classroom experience may view extracurricular involvement as an ancillary commitment, a commitment with little sway over satisfaction in comparison to the pull of the academic classroom. This finding can also be interpreted in light of teachers' beliefs about the relative importance of extracurricular involvement in comparison to the classroom experience. Effective teachers value and are passionate about the classroom experience- in this way, a secondary commitment may not hold much weight when compared to the primary responsibilities that teachers dedicate themselves to in the classroom.

Factors Relating to Satisfaction Specific to Extracurricular Involvement

Sense of community/relationships. Previous research strongly suggests that a sense of community and social ties are extremely significant contributors to the job satisfaction of the teaching work force. One may presume that the nature of extracurricular programming involvement provides for this same experience of community and relationship building. The present study's data analysis reveals the following findings.

First and foremost, the average relationship factor score correlated highly with a participant's reported satisfaction in extracurricular activities. This strong correlation ($r(48) = +.764, p = .000$) indicates that satisfaction in extracurricular activities is, in some

way, related to a teachers' experience of relationships in the extracurricular setting. This relationship factor score has a stronger correlation with satisfaction in extracurricular activities than the other two factor scores investigated. This finding suggests that the importance of a sense of community and relationship to level of satisfaction extends outside of the classroom into the extracurricular environment. This finding aligns with previous research that emphasizes the influence of a sense of community on the teaching experience (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Bogler, 2001; Moore, 2012).

With the knowledge that relationships have been determined by the research findings to impact satisfaction in extracurricular involvement, it is important to further investigate the workings of this factor within the extracurricular setting. First, extrapolations from previous research can be made that would suggest that the relationships facilitated through sport may differ from the relationships formed in other extracurricular settings. The present study investigated whether teachers' average relationship factor score vary according to their reported roles. The findings suggest that the discovered differences are in fact statistically significant. The degrees of agreement to a grouping of survey items endorsing positive aspects of relationships in extracurricular programming varied from highest to lowest in the following order: "Athletic Coach" (M = 4.456), "Class Advisor" (M = 4.350), "Club Facilitator" (M = 4.287), "Other" (M = 4.200), those participants who did not specify a type of role when completing the survey (M = 3.76), and those who indicated no involvement (M = 3.457). The significance of this variance suggests that the type of role does in fact affect the experience of positive relationships in extracurricular programming. This finding suggests that there may be a qualitative difference among these roles that allows for different experiences of

relationships. One might view the highest endorsement of positive relationship factors from the teachers identifying as athletic coaches as potential evidence that sport allows for the growth of relationships and a community that differs qualitatively from other roles. This speculation would be supported by the theory of Chellandurai and Kuga (1996) which purports qualitative difference in coaching and teaching that allow for a coach to have a greater influence over team members because of the homogeneity of the group, congruent motivations, and a smaller leader/member ratio. These factors may contribute to a teacher/student relationship, unique to the athletic coach role that differs not only from the classroom, but also from other extracurricular roles like a club facilitator or a teacher involved in homebound instruction. The scope of this study only allows for a conjecture regarding this finding, and further research could be conducted to explore the differences more deeply.

An alternative explanation may accredit a more “quantitative” difference rather than a qualitative difference as the reason for the variance among extracurricular roles. A plausible factor that may affect the experience of relationships in extracurricular programming is plainly, the amount of time a teacher spends in relationship with these students and colleagues. The contact hypothesis suggests that the more people interact, the more likely they are to experience deeper relationship (Allan and Allan, 1971; Festinger, 1950; Wilson and Miller, 1961). Interestingly, the research findings suggest that average weekly time commitments vary significantly according to reported role in the same order as the findings relative to the experience of relationships: “Athletic Coach” (M = 22.42), “Class Advisor” (M = 10.33), “Club Facilitator” (M = 8.40), “Other” (M = 6.60), those participants who did not specify a type of role when

completing the survey ($M = .00$), and those who indicated no involvement ($M = .00$). Furthermore, a strong correlational relationship was established between a participant's reported weekly hour commitment and a participant's average relationship factor score ($p = .005$). In this way, as indicated weekly hour commitments increase, a participant's level of endorsement of positive relational experiences increases as well.

A final research finding proves worthy of note in the investigation of this complicated relationship: The correlation between a participant's reported level of satisfaction particular to extracurricular programming involvement and indicated weekly hour involvement trends towards significance at the $p = .05$ level ($r(47) = +.288$, $p = .061$). One might have expected a stronger correlation that reflects the relationship between relational factors and weekly involvement, and the ensuing relationship between satisfaction in extracurricular involvement. This relatively weak correlation may shed light upon a nuance in this relationship and may account for the presence of a weekly time restriction on some extracurricular roles. For example, a club facilitator may be limited to contact with students in the extracurricular environment to two to three hours a week. A teacher may hold these restrictions in mind and still consider their involvement a source of great satisfaction and an opportunity to develop relationships. In general, the current study's findings support the influence of the contact hypothesis as it relates to relationship factors. Weekly time commitment alone does not relate as strongly to reported levels of satisfaction, but an interaction of time commitment and relational factors may be influential.

Personal growth/interests. Opportunities for personal growth and the engagement of topics of personal interest are factors that have been proven to augment satisfactions across vocational fields (Wernimont, 1966; American Federation of Teachers, 2008; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Mizell, 2010). It might be presumed that the presence of these types of opportunities in extracurricular programming leads to greater degrees of satisfaction reported by involved teachers. The current research study presents findings regarding this claim. First, a strong correlation was found between a participant's reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement and a participants' averaged personal development/interest factor score ($r(48) = +.638, p = .000$). This finding supports my hypothesis regarding the influential nature of opportunities for personal growth and the engagement of personal interests on satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement. A one-way analysis of variance also revealed that this average personal development/interest factor score also varies significantly according to the participant's reported type of extracurricular role. The participants who most closely identified their involvement as an athletic coach or class advisor were more likely to report higher degrees of agreement with positive statements regarding the extracurricular environment as an opportunity to develop new skills, practice autonomy, and engage in a subject of personal interest. Those who identified themselves as club facilitators and as playing "other" roles reported slightly lower degrees of agreement while those participants who did not specify a type of involvement and those who reported no involvement reported even lower levels of agreement, trending towards neutral feelings. Finally, the average personal development/interest

score correlates strongly with reported weekly hour commitments ($r(48) = +.406$, $p = .003$).

Interpretations can be made specifically regarding athletic coaches and class advisors as the roles most associated with endorsements of statements regarding personal growth/interest. Perhaps, these two extracurricular settings give way to more frequent encounters with challenges that encourage growing and adapting. Further investigation of the challenges encountered in each setting is warranted for this reason. This research finding may ring true in relation to the theory of Chellandurai and Kuga (1996). In accordance with this theory, coaching provides frequent opportunities for teachers to exercise autonomy and shape the workings of a program in accordance to personal beliefs, preferences, and interests. Perhaps the role of the class advisor is characterized by a flexible working environment in which personal interests can also direct operations. Again, this significant variance merits further exploration- one might consider whether certain characteristics of these particular roles/settings provide a variably different extracurricular experience for teachers that allows for more opportunities for personal growth and the engagement of activities of personal interest.

These findings finally suggest that a relationship exists between personal growth/interest scores and reported weekly hour commitments. Unfortunately, the nature of the correlational analysis limits conclusions to proving/disproving the presence of a relationship, without providing insight into causation. IN this way, only conjectures can be made regarding this finding. Perhaps teachers who view involvement as an opportunity to grow as a professional or as an opportunity to engage with an activity they

personally enjoy, are more likely to see the merit in increased hours of commitment to a program.

Student growth. Of particular interest are the findings regarding participants' perceptions and experiences of student growth and achievement within the extracurricular setting. My hypotheses, based both in extrapolations from research and a strong personal inclination, suggested a plausible relationship between teachers' satisfaction and their opportunity to witness and facilitate unique student growth and achievement. The research findings, however, suggest otherwise. First, a statistical analysis revealed that the correlation between the participants' average student growth factor score and their reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming ($r = +.266$) only trended toward significance at the $p = .05$ level. This finding is to be compared to the strong correlations, significant at the $p = .000$ level, between reported satisfaction and the average relationship factor score ($r = +.764$) and the average personal growth/interests factor score ($r = +.638$). While I anticipated the student growth factor score to exhibit the same strong correlation to involvement satisfaction, the discovered correlation was much weaker. The data analysis also revealed that the average student growth factor score did not vary according to a participant's reported role in programming. This finding strikes down the hypothesis that different roles in programming allow teachers to witness and facilitate different degrees of unique growth in students. In this way, the study results suggest that a teacher is no more likely to endorse sentiments regarding unique student growth and learning opportunities in a coaching role than they are as a club facilitator or in a role like tutoring (classified under "other" in this study).

In order to better identify the reasons for the findings of these two analyses, similar analyses were conducted on each of the individual survey items that were previously grouped to form this Average Student Growth Factor Score. The findings from all three of these analyses are particularly relevant. First, a test revealed a very strong correlation between overall satisfaction in extracurricular programming involvement and level of agreement with the survey item statement “My involvement in extracurricular activities provides me the opportunity to help students learn” ($r(48) = +.640, p = .000$). The strong correlation of this single survey item to satisfaction is interesting to examine alongside of the relatively weak correlation reported between the student growth factor score and this same satisfaction item. This difference suggests that this single item regarding opportunities to aid student learning is more relevant to teacher satisfaction than the other two survey items that help to make up this average score. Correlational analyses were conducted on the remaining two survey items to pursue a clearer picture of this relationship. A participant’s reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming is not positively correlated with endorsement of the statement regarding the presence of unique mentoring relationships that differ from those relationships in the academic classroom ($r(48) = -.013, p = .927$). Similarly, a teacher’s reported level of satisfaction specific to extracurricular involvement is not positively correlated with the endorsement of the extracurricular setting as an environment to witness unique growth that varies from the academic classroom ($r(48) = +.073, p = .614$).

A possible interpretation of this collection of results stems from a teachers’ understanding and experience of unique student growth and mentoring opportunities. It is possible that encouraging student growth and engaging in mentor relationships that are

built on this growth are in fact, incredibly important components to a teachers' satisfaction both inside and outside of the classroom in an extracurricular environment. This possibility would be supported by the research stating that student achievement and mentor opportunities impact the teaching experience (Kitching, Morgan, & O'Leary, 2009; Mertz, 2004). It is possible that the importance of this factor is not upheld in the results of this study because student growth and mentor relationships must be considered unique by the teacher in order for a positive endorsement of the survey item statements. It follows that the student growth deemed important by teachers is not considered unique to the extracurricular setting but is evident in the classroom as well. While particular skills may be developed by students only in the extracurricular setting, the development of these task-specific skills may be less important to teachers than the development of skills that extend across learning environments. This nuance in perception may be best explained through the following hypothetical examples of extracurricular experiences. A basketball coach may witness and facilitate both the development of skills that are both specific and non specific to the activity of basketball. A basketball coach helps develop a student's technical skills needed for a better jump shot, while growing the same student's confidence. A class advisor may teach a student the practical skills needed to run a student government meeting, while facilitating the growth of leadership skills. Confidence and leadership skills may be aspects of growth that teachers witness and facilitate in the classroom as well. In this way, perhaps the growth of skills that transcends the extracurricular setting are more salient and influential to a teachers' satisfaction with their involvement than the development of skills limited to the extracurricular setting. This interpretation aligns with research that emphasizes students'

extracurricular growth as complimentary to the classroom, not necessary unique (Coleman, 1961; Miracle & Rees, 1994; Broh, 2001). Marsh (1993) and Fejgin (1994) emphasize a teacher's value of the development of traits like self-confidence, maturity, and work ethic, traits that are also visible within the academic environment. In light of this interpretation, the findings can be accounted for in the following way. Teachers' satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement is clearly related to teachers' perceptions of their involvement as opportunities to help students learn and develop. Student growth is an important aspect to a teacher's experience but it is not the development of skills unique to the extracurricular setting that proves to be the most rewarding element of a teacher's involvement. In the same way, mentor relationships may be developed but these relationships are considered extensions of the relationship that is built in the classroom- teachers do not perceive these mentor relationships as being built on a type of growth that is variably different from the classroom.

Satisfaction in extracurricular involvement and identified role. Reported teacher satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement differs according to the participants' indicated roles in programming. Those participants who most closely identified with the role of class advisor (M= 4.50) and athletic coach (M = 4.39) reported the highest levels of agreement with a statement avowing great satisfaction in their involvement. Those participants who identified with the role of club facilitator (M = 4.30) and those who designated their role as "other" (M = 4) were also likely to agree with this statement. Those participants who did not specify a particular role (M = 3.00) or indicated "no involvement" (M = 3.00) with extracurricular programming, were more likely to report neutral feelings towards this statement of great satisfaction. These

differences first reflect an overall inclination towards agreement with this particular survey item. This tendency points towards an overall assertion that can be made about the sample population investigated by this survey. An explanation of this variance may be found in previously presented results that recognize the experience of relationships and weekly time commitment as important to satisfaction in extracurricular involvement. Those who are most likely to endorse experiencing a great satisfaction in extracurricular programming (class advisors and athletic coaches) are also those who are most likely to endorse positive relationship features and a higher level of weekly hour commitment.

Limitations

The nature of an exploratory study lends itself to a number of limitations. The general uniformity of responses as well as the skewed distribution of response scores towards high degrees of agreement may be explained by a number of factors including biases, demand characteristics, and the nature of the sample population. First, participation in this survey was voluntary. It is likely that teachers invested in extracurricular programming were more likely to share their beliefs and perceptions about their involvement. It is likely that those who feel strongly about their involvement in extracurricular programming would be more likely to take the time to make these opinions known. Those who are not involved in extracurricular programming or those who have indifference towards extracurricular programming may be less likely to participate and share their perceptions. In the same way, the overall positive trend of responses may be representative of the small sample size and the particular demographics of the participating high schools. The participating high schools generally represent communities of higher socioeconomic status and a highly involved parent/student

community. From anecdotal evidence, these communities share a high value for involvement, and these school districts are known for their strong reputations in extracurricular athletics and arts programs. As determined by the survey items investigating overall satisfaction, the sample population was characterized as highly satisfied with their overall experience as teachers and highly satisfied with many of the factors that influence satisfaction. This population's high level of overall satisfaction may color their extracurricular involvement experience. In this way, the results of this study may not be generalized to a teacher population that is characterized by dissatisfaction with teaching experience. Furthermore, these results cannot be generalized to represent the beliefs and perceptions of teachers working in communities in which extracurricular programming is not considered a priority or deserving of appropriate resources. The results must be considered representative of a specific population.

The influences of biases and demand characteristics must be considered, especially because the survey's validity and reliability has not been critically investigated. This study could be limited by an experimenter's bias, a subjective bias towards a result expected by the primary researcher. This bias may be manifested throughout the survey through the pervasive presentation of positive statements regarding extracurricular programming. This bias is manifested most significantly in the structure of the survey items regarding student growth. As the principal researcher, I expected that the opportunity to witness and facilitate unique growth in students would be strongly supported by survey participants. Consequently, the student growth factor score was designed in a way that did not allow space for participants to sufficiently acknowledge

student growth apart from the presumption that this growth would be “unique” or “variably different” from the classroom. Therefore, only one survey item could be used to represent the student growth most often witnessed by the survey participants. Future efforts should be focused on developing additional survey items that aim to piece apart the types of growth most valued by those involved in extracurricular programming. This study may also be subject to further effects of demand characteristics. First, survey participants’ responses may have been influenced by the good-experimenter role, in which participants attempt to discern the investigator’s hypotheses and confirm them with their behavior. Given the presence of the experimenter’s bias in which personal hypotheses are evident through the survey presentation, the demand characteristic of the good-experimenter role may become more of a threat to the experiment’s reliability. In a similar manner, the Hawthorne effect may be at play in which subjects improve or modify an aspect of their behavior being experimentally measured simply in response to the fact that they know they are being studied. Survey participants may be more likely to endorse positive perceptions of extracurricular programming because these endorsements are more socially acceptable in both the school community and beyond.

A persistent limitation is the lack of a more nuanced scoring method. This limitation manifested itself in the uniformity of the Likert scale responses as well as the items seeking individualizing information regarding extracurricular involvement. The formatting of several survey items limited participant’s ability to respond freely and accurately. The formatting of the question investigating weekly hours of involvement did not allow for participants to specify how levels of involvement differ by season. For example, an athletic coach may be involved 30 hours a week for a 3 month athletic

season while a club facilitator may be involved 4 hours a week for a year long period. The format of the survey did not allow for this distinction to be accounted for. The analysis also could not account for the variety of responses provided by those participants who expanded on the description of their extracurricular role as “other”. These descriptions varied from homebound instruction teacher to school dance chaperone. The characteristics inherent to these two roles are drastically different- while the former participant may experience an extracurricular role similar to the classroom experience; the latter participant experiences an extracurricular role that differs greatly from the classroom. In this way, it is difficult to draw conclusions based on the experiences of participants characterized in this survey as playing an “other” role.

Lastly, a relatively small sample size limits the validity of the study’s conclusions. This small overall sample size may have led to instances in which a subgroup was not adequately represented. For instance, only four participants identified themselves as having 6-10 years of teaching experience. The perceptions of these four individuals cannot be assumed to be representative of this population as a whole.

Further Directions

The limited scope of this exploratory study gives way to numerous further directions. The limitations previously discussed are a starting point for improvements in the present research design. First, the current survey should be altered to allow participants to precisely record their level and role in extracurricular programming. A more precise understanding of the variety of roles may bring to light valuable differences in satisfaction and experience according to roles and level of involvement. A more nuanced investigation of time commitment and levels of compensation may also provide

clarity into the importance of these factors. The survey must include a method for accurately comparing weekly time commitments, while accounting for commitments that vary by season. A more precise assessment of time commitment might provide insight into whether significant differences exist between those teachers who commit to extracurricular involvement for an intensive three month period, and those teachers who are committed to a less time intensive commitment over a year period. On one hand, the former teacher who spends significantly more time with students during their season of involvement may experience deeper student relationships and greater satisfaction, in line with the contact hypothesis (Allan and Allan, 1971; Festinger, 1950; Wilson & Miller, 1961). The latter teacher, while not in intensive contact with students over the course of the year, may experience augmented satisfaction from witnessing and facilitating student growth over an entire year period, rather than over a three-month stint. If these differences could be identified, it may provide further understanding into the complicated nature of teacher satisfaction specific to extracurricular programming involvement. It would be interesting to investigate the importance of these factors and determine whether specific elements can truly be isolated as the main influences of teacher satisfaction in extracurricular programming.

A revised study should be conducted with a larger sample size for various reasons. First, the study should be repeated with a larger sample size to determine whether the present conclusions can be replicated. Second, a larger sample size will ensure that a variety of experiences are represented. For example, a larger sample size may reveal significant findings about a sizable constituent of teachers involved in homebound instruction or tutoring, while in the present study, this handful of unique

experiences is lumped into the category of “other” roles and dismissed. Finally, the study should be duplicated with a larger sample size that represents a normally distributed population. As I mentioned previously, the responses collected are representative of a certain demographic and unique school community. In a school district in which a higher socioeconomic status allows for increased resources and opportunities for financial compensation, teachers may find more reason to participate and find satisfaction in extracurricular programming. In this way, a larger sample size from varying school communities will help to identify the crucial factors in job satisfaction and satisfaction in extracurricular involvement that are steady across school environments.

Perhaps the most interesting and relevant direction of future study would be an investigation that compare the results of the present study to a replicated study conducted in communities marked by limited resources, limited community/family involvement in school activities, and limited incentives for teachers to participate in extracurricular programming. It would be interesting to investigate teacher satisfaction in extracurricular programming in a school environment in which students are perceivably less motivated to grow academically. One might anticipate that the student growth specific to voluntary involvement in extracurricular activities might be more apparent to teachers than the growth of their students in the mandatory activities of the classroom. Furthermore, it would be interesting to investigate the segment of the teaching population who are generally not satisfied with their experience in the classroom, and whether extracurricular involvement has greater influence in their overall experience than for those teachers who consistently experience success and satisfaction in the classroom. This investigation is crucial for a number of reasons. First, this dissatisfaction leads to burnout, documented

in numerous studies of American teachers, especially those serving in urban schools (Cunningham, 1983). This dissatisfaction has been linked to external causes like unreasonable time demands (Lortie, 1975), large class sizes (Coates and Thoresen, 1976), and the lack of resources (Brissie et al., 1988). A 1997 study of teachers in urban secondary schools marked students' lack of discipline and motivation as the primary source of teacher stress and the most influential predictor of burnout (Gonzalez, 1997). These factors may be particularly relevant to the extracurricular programming experience. Dissatisfied teachers may view extracurricular involvement as an unreasonable demand on their time. In these environments, teachers' experience of extracurricular involvement might be negatively impacted by a lack of resources. Finally, students' lack of motivation and discipline, may have implications not only on a teacher's experience in the classroom but also in the extracurricular setting. It would seem that circumstances might predict whether extracurricular involvement is perceived as a positive or negative influence on a teacher's overall feelings of satisfaction. It would be beneficial to be able to identify if a constellation of factors related to extracurricular involvement can allow involvement to be a positive influence in an environment, otherwise characterized by negative working conditions. If components of the extracurricular experience do in fact augment satisfaction in this precarious and overwhelming working environment, then administrators should find ways to support and provide incentives for involvement. If these hypotheses are proven true, extracurricular programming should become a priority in these schools, even when resources are limited.

The following questions might be examined if the study were replicated in communities of lower socioeconomic status: Are teachers more likely to have weaker

beliefs about their own self-efficacy? Do these teachers endorse having the same opportunities to encourage student growth in a variety of settings as those teachers in the present study? Do these beliefs color their extracurricular experience or determine their level of involvement? What environmental factors may prevent these growth opportunities? How do a teacher's years of teaching experience affect his/her beliefs and perceptions of extracurricular involvement? Are these teachers being compensated adequately for extracurricular commitments? Finally, the answers to these questions give way to questions that must be addressed by school administrations: How does an administration use this information to encourage staff involvement and better staff experiences in extracurricular programming? Can an administration play a role in changing the beliefs of its staff?

Teachers' experience of extracurricular programming is a topic worthy of further research and discussion. The purpose of the present study was to determine factors relevant to job satisfaction in the teaching work force. This research design can be replicated with different teaching populations to determine under which circumstances, if any, involvement in extracurricular programming with students affects overall satisfaction with the teaching experience. These professionals play a critical role in our society and future investigations that clarify elements influencing their satisfaction and efficacy could not be of greater importance.

References

- Allan, T. H., & Allan, K. H., (1971). Sensitivity for community leaders. *Proceedings of the 79th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*, 6, 577-578.
- Alliance for Excellent Education. (2008). What keeps good teachers in the classroom? Understanding and reducing teacher turnover. Retrieved from www.all4ed.org.
- Allinder, R. M. (1994). The relationship between efficacy and the instructional practices of special education teachers and consultants. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 17, 86-95.
- Akiba, M., LeTendre, G. K., & Scribner, J. P. (2007). Teacher quality, opportunity gap, and national achievement in 46 countries. *Educational Researcher*, 36(7), 369-387.
- Aluja, A., & Blanch, A. (2002). The children depression inventory as predictor of social and scholastic competence. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 18, 259-274.
- American Federation of Teachers (2008). *Becoming a teacher*. [Pamphlet] Washington, DC: Author.
- Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Batin-Pearson, S., Newcomb, M. D., Abbott, R. D., Hill, K. G. Catalano, R. F., & Hawkins, J. D. (2000). Predictors of early high school dropout: A test of five theories. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92, 568-582.
- Bell, B. (1993). *I Know About LISP But How Do I Put It Into Practice?: Final Report of the Learning in Science Project (Teacher Development)*. Centre for Science and Mathematics Education Research, University of Waikato.
- Bell, B., & Gilbert, J. (1994). Teacher development as professional, personal, and social development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(5), 483-497.
- Bogler, R. (2001). The influence of leadership style on teacher satisfaction. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 37, 662-683.
- Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1991). The positive social and self concept consequences of sports team identification. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 15, 115-127.

- Brissie, J. S., Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., & Bassler, O. C. (1988). Individual, situational contributors to teacher burnout. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 82, 106-112.
- Broh, B.A. (2002). Linking extracurricular programming to academic achievement: Who benefits and why? *Sociology of Education*, 75(1), 69-95.
- Buckley, J., Schneider, M., & Yi, S. (2004). The Effects of School Facility Quality on Teacher Retention in Urban Settings. National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities. Retrieved at <http://www.edfacilities.org>.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P., & Malone, P. S. (2006). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44, 473-490.
- Charters, W. W. (1976). *Sense of teacher work autonomy: Measurement & finding*. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management.
- Chelladurai, P., Kuga, D. J. & O'Bryant, C. P. (1999). Individual differences, perceived task characteristics, and preferences for teaching and coaching. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 70(2), 179-189.
- Coates, T. J., & Thoresen, C. E. (1976). Teacher anxiety: A review with recommendations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46(2): 159-184.
- Coleman, J. S. (1961). *The adolescent society*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Coleman, J. S. (1990). *Foundations of social theory*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Collie, R. J., Shapka, J. D., & Perry, N. E. (2012). School climate and social-emotional learning: Predicting teacher stress, job satisfaction, and teacher efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 104(4), 1189-1204.
- Cook, S. W. (1970). Motives in conceptual analysis of attitude related behavior. In W. J. Arnold & D. Levine (Eds.), *Proceedings from the Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Cote, J. (2002). Coach and peer influence on children's development through sport, in: J. M Silva & D. E. Stevens (Eds.), *Psychological foundations of sport* (520-540). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Cote, J., Salmela, J., Trudel, P., Baria, A., & Russell, S. (1995). The coaching model: A grounded assessment of expert gymnastic coaches' knowledge. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 17, 1-17.

- Cunningham, W. G. (1983). Teacher burnout: A review of the literature. *The Urban Review, 15*, 37- 51.
- Dahl, R. A. (1961). *Who governs?* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Youngs, P. (2002). Defining “highly qualified teachers”: What does “scientifically-based research” actually tell us? *Educational Researcher, 31*(9), 13-25.
- Doolittle, R. J. & McDonald, D. (1978). Communication and a sense of community in a metropolitan neighborhood: A factor analytic examination. *Communication Quarterly, 26*, 2-7.
- Dworkin, A. G., Haney, C. A., Dworkin, R. J., & Telschow, R. L. (1990). Stress and illness behavior among urban public school teachers. *Education Administration Quarterly, 26*, 60-72.
- Evans, J., & Roberts, G. C. (1987). Physical competence and the development of children’s peer relations. *Quest, 39*, 25-35.
- Extracurricular. 2012. In *Merriam-Webster.com*. Retrieved December, 2012, from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/extracurricular>
- Fejgin, N. (1994). Participation in high school competitive sports: A subversion of school mission or contribution to academic goals? *Sociology of Sport Journal, 11*, 211-230.
- Festinger, L. (1950). Laboratory experiments: The role of group belongingness. In J. G. Miller (Ed.), *Experiments in social process*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Franklin, H. L. (1988). *Principle consideration and its relationship to teacher sense of autonomy*. Retrieved from ResearchGate. (oclc/19566637).
- Fried, R. L. (2001). *The passionate teacher: A practical guide*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Fuhrman, S., & Elmore, R. F. (2004). *Redesigning accountability systems for education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Ganzach, Y. (1998). Intelligence and job satisfaction. *The Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 526-539.
- Gonzalez, M. A. (1997). *Study of the relationship of stress, burnout, hardiness, and social support in urban, secondary school teachers* (Doctoral dissertation, ProQuest Information & Learning).

- Green-Reese, S., Johnson, D. J., & Campbell, W. A. Jr. (1991). Teacher job satisfaction and teacher job stress: School size, age and teaching experience. *Education, 112*, 247-252.
- Haberman, M. (2005). Teacher burnout in black and white. *The New Educator, 1*(3), 153-175.
- Hammerness, K., Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J., (2007). How teachers learn and develop. In L. Darling Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (358-389). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hanson, S. L., & Kraus, R. S. (1998). Women, sports, and science: Do female athletes have an advantage? *Sociology of Education, 71*, 93-110.
- Harris, D. N., & Herrington, C. D. (2006). Accountability, standards, and the growing achievement gap: Lessons from the past half-century. *American Journal of Education, 112*(2), 209-238.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. Somerset, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1987). Participation in extracurricular activities in secondary school: What is known, what needs to be known? *Review of Educational Research, 57*(4), 437-466.
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., & Sandler, H. M. (1995). Parental involvement in children's education: Why does it make a difference? *Teachers College Record, 97*, 311-331.
- Hunter, F. (1953). *Community power structure: A study of decision makers*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Ingersoll, R. M., Peggy, R. M. I. N. A., Bobbitt, Q. S., Alsalam, N., Quinn, P., & Bobbitt, S. (1997). *Teacher professionalization and teacher commitment: A multilevel analysis*. Washington, DC: DIANE Publishing.
- Ingersoll, R. M., & Merrill, E. (2011). The status of teaching as a profession. In J. Ballantine and J. Spade (Eds.), *Schools and Society: A Sociological Approach to Education* (185-189). CA: Pine Forge Press/Sage Publications.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2002). The teacher shortage: A case of wrong diagnosis and wrong prescription. *NASSP Bulletin, 88*, 16-31.

- James, C. (1995). Negotiating school through sports: African Canadian youth strive for academic success. *Avante*, 1, 20-36.
- Jimerson, S. R., Ferguson, P., Whipple, A. D., Anderson, G. E., & Dalton, M. J. (2002). Exploring the association between grade retention and dropout: A longitudinal study examining socio-emotional, behavioral, and achievement characteristics of retained students. *California School Psychologist*, 7, 51-62.
- Kitching, K., Morgan, M., O'Leary, M. (2009). It's the little things: Exploring the importance of commonplace events for early-career teachers' motivation. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 15(1), 43-58.
- Kreis, K., & Brockopp, D. Y. (1986). Autonomy: A component of teacher job satisfaction. *Education*, 107, 110-115.
- Larson, R. W. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist*, 55, 170-183.
- Larson, R. W., & Verma, S. (1999). How children and adolescents spend time across the world: Work, play and developmental opportunities. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 701-736.
- Latham, S. (1998). Teacher Satisfaction. *Educational Leadership*, 55(5), 82-83.
- Lee, V. E., Dedrick, R. F., & Smith, J. B. (1991). The effect of the social organization of schools on teachers' efficacy and satisfaction. *Sociology of Education*, 64(3), 190-208.
- Lester, P. E. (1987). Development and Factor Analysis of the Teacher Job satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. 47,(1), 223-233.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Liu, X. S., & Ramsey, J. (2008). Teachers' job satisfaction: Analyses of the teacher follow-up survey in the United States for 2000-2001. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 1173-1184.
- Manjone, J. (1998). International youth tour benefits. *The Sport Journal*, 1(1). Retrieved from www.thesportjournal.org/vol1no1/travel.htm.
- Marsh, H. W. (1992). Extracurricular activities: Beneficial extension of the traditional curriculum or subversion of academic goals? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 553-62.

- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 397-422.
- McMillan, D. (1976). *Sense of community: An attempt at definition*. (Unpublished manuscript). George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, TN.
- McMillan D., & Chavis George, D. M. (1986). Sense of community: A definition and theory. *Journal of Community Psychology, 14*, 6-23.
- McNeal, R. B. Jr. (1995). Extracurricular activities and high school dropouts. *Sociology of Education, 68*, 62-81.
- Miracle, A. W. Jr., & Rees, C. R. (1994). *Lessons of the locker room*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books.
- Mizell, H. (2010). *Why professional development matters*. [Pamphlet]. Oxford, OH: Learning Forward.
- Moore, C. M. (2012). The role of school environment in teacher dissatisfaction among U.S. public school teachers. *SAGE Open, 2*(1), 1-16.
- Myers, A. (1962). Team competition, success, and the adjustment of group members. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 65*, 325-332.
- Newmann, F. M., King, M. B., Rigdon, M. (1997). Accountability and school performance: Implications from restructuring schools. *Harvard Educational Review, 67*(1), 41-74.
- Pearson, L. C., & Moomaw, W. The relationship between teacher autonomy and stress, work satisfaction, empowerment, and professionalism. *Education Research Quarterly, 29*(1), 37-53.
- Perie, M., & Baker, D. P. (1997). *Job satisfaction among America's teachers: Effects of workplace conditions, background characteristics, and teacher compensation. Statistical analysis report*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Podell, D., & Soodak, L. (1993). Teacher efficacy and bias in special education referrals. *Journal of Educational Research, 86*, 247-253.
- Ostroff, C. (1992). The relationship between satisfaction, attitudes, and performance: An organizational level analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 6*, 963-974.

- Raudenbush, S., Rowan, B., & Cheong, Y. (1992). Contextual effects on the self-perceived efficacy of high school teachers. *Sociology of Education*, 65, 150-167.
- Rehberg, R. A. (1969). Behavioral and attitudinal consequences of high school interscholastic sport: A speculative consideration. *Adolescence*, 4, 69-88.
- Rice, R. W., Gentile, D. A., & McFarlin, D. B. (1991). Facet importance and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76: 31-39.
- Slaffo, D. F. (1992). Clarifying physical education teacher-coach responsibilities: A self-analysis guide for those in dual roles. *Physical Educator*, 49(4), 52-56.
- Taylor, D. L. & Tashakorri, A. (1995). Decision participation and school climate as predictors of job satisfaction and teachers' sense of efficacy. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 63(3), 217-231.
- Tshannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Wandersman, A. (1981). A framework of participation in community organizations. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 17, 27-58.
- Wayne, A. J. & Youngs, P. (2003). Teacher characteristics and student achievement gains: A review. *Review of Educational Research*, 73(1), 89-122.
- Wells, R. H. & Picou, J. S. (1980). Interscholastic athletes and socialization for educational achievement. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 3, 119-128.
- Wernimont, P. F. (1966). Intrinsic and extrinsic factors in job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 30(1), 41-50.
- White, K. R. (1982). The relation between socioeconomic status and academic achievement. *Psychological Bulletin*, 9, 461-481.
- Wilson, W., & Miller, N. (1961). Shifts in evaluations of participants following intergroup competition. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 63, 428-431.
- Wright, A. D., & Cote, J. (2003). A retrospective analysis of leadership development through sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, 17, 268-291.
- Zembylas, M., & Papanastasiou, E. (2006). Sources of teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Cyprus. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative Education*, 36, 229-247.

