

Moonlighting and Morale: The Impact on Educators Who Moonlight and How Classroom Teaching Suffers

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This paper explores the impact of moonlighting between teachers who moonlight and those who do not. Data from the voluntary, online survey of teachers indicated that instruction was impacted when moonlighting occurred. Teachers, who are members of Texas Classroom Teachers Association, provided data about their salary and the (possible) impact moonlighting had on their teaching. Would teachers stay in the classroom and quit moonlighting for bigger salaries? Was instruction impacted by moonlighting? What types of jobs are available for those who moonlight? Data showed that if teachers received higher salaries, they would stop moonlighting. Teachers felt their instruction was directly affected by moonlighting at various jobs, both in-district and out-of-district.

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“We never forget our best teachers—those who imbued us with a deeper understanding or an enduring passion, the ones we come back to visit years after graduating, the educators who . . . altered the course of our lives” (Wallis, Healy, Hylton, & Klarreigh, 2008, p. 28). Teachers are one of the greatest influences in America today. Yet, teachers all across the nation are experiencing financial difficulty because of their chosen profession (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). Teachers have been forced to seek employment outside their school district positions in order to provide for their families (Yavuz, 2009). Financial strain, as well as physical and emotional exhaustion, impacted teacher performance when considering class size, teacher expectations, job seniority, and type of school in which one works (Yavuz, 2009). Santavirta (2007) found that teachers believed their jobs were quite stressful, and this stress was directly related to the exhaustion that many of them suffer.

According to Henderson (2006), the average Texas teacher worked 12.4 hours a week above and beyond regular working hours. Henderson (2006) reported that 33% of Texas teachers moonlight, and 46% were seriously considering leaving the educational field. Sixty-three percent of Texas teachers wanted to quit moonlighting but could not survive monetarily (Johnson, Rice, Sullivan, Maninger, & Beard, 2010). Just over five years ago, “67% of the

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teachers believed that moonlighting was “detrimental and wanted to quit” (Henderson, 2006, p. 4). Hanushek and Rivkin (2007) showed that not all teachers want to quit teaching because of salary concerns. Their research indicated that many teachers chose to move to a district that had “higher-achieving, nonminority, non-low-income students” in order to continue in their chosen profession (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007, p. 76).

Biennial surveys of Texas teachers are presently conducted through the Texas State Teachers Association (TSTA) (Johnson et al., 2010). But the purpose of this study was to gather current, comparative data about Texas teachers who are members of the Texas Classroom Teacher’s Association (TCTA). Data was studied to determine the current Texas profile of the teacher organization. This study was worth conducting because it will help predict future teacher demand and the impact that being a teacher and having to moonlight have on teacher performance. Data was used to develop a teacher profile in order to predict future needs of public education and to determine the impact of moonlighting on teaching. Data was studied to determine (possible) future shortage of teachers as well as the necessity of recruiting teachers in the field of education. Data will be compared with TSTA data in the future to determine if there is a correlation between the two Texas associations.

Literature Review

History of Teacher Pay

In order to understand the financial dilemma facing teachers, a careful look at the history of teacher pay is critical. In 1921, the single salary schedule for teachers was initially introduced in Denver, Colorado, and Des Moines, Iowa (Koppich, 2010). Inequities between districts and grade levels caused serious issues. High school teachers earned more than elementary teachers. White teachers earned more than black teachers. Nepotism set the standard for determining who actually was paid what (Koppich, 2010). After World War II ended, the standard pay scale was adopted because teachers were in such short supply (Koppich, 2010). The Great Depression created a job market for educators. Teachers were grateful “to have a steady job . . . even though the pay was low” (Herbert, 2000, p. 1). During the Vietnam War, large numbers of men entered the educational field in order to avoid being drafted (Herbert, 2000). Less than 40 years later, the United States found itself in the midst of a severe teacher shortage (Herbert, 2000). In order to equalize the profession, the single-salary schedule was adopted by 97% of all school districts in the U.S., so teachers would have a consistent pay scale (Koppich, 2010). By 2015, research showed that new hires of teachers could possibly increase from the current 30% to nearly 70% (Wallis et al., 2008).

Teacher Incentive Pay

Current research supported merit pay to reward teachers who were considered productive (Wallis et al., 2008, Lundström, 2012, Leigh, 2012). Slotnik (2010) reported that performance-based compensation, compensating teachers based on student achievement, has repeatedly failed (Lundström, 2012). According to Keller (2007), the National Education Agency needed to raise teacher pay overall across the board, not simply create incentive plans. Pink (2009) showed that employees should be paid enough “to take the issue of money off the table” (p. 33). While workers needed to earn a sufficient living, a lack of “baseline awards” caused employee dissatisfaction (Pink, 2009, p. 33).

Professional Compensation, or Pro Comp, was created in Denver, Colorado (Wallis et al., 2008). Its success was based upon the cooperation between teachers' unions, school districts, and county officials. ProComp developed a nine-step system for teachers who opted to participate in the plan (Wallis et al., 2008). More than half of all teachers in the state partnered with the incentive plan (Wallis et al., 2008). The ultimate purpose was to "enhance teachers' motivation by rewarding good performance" (Lundström, 2012, p. 384). Teachers could earn additional pay based on high-needs schools, state testing performance, professional development, and principal evaluation (Wallis et al., 2008). ProComp's success was attributed to teacher involvement in the decision-making process (Wallis et al., 2008). Pink (2009) showed that merit pay did not work when teachers were held accountable for student performance; teachers were not motivated to work harder. In fact, in Nashville, Tennessee, math teachers were offered \$15,000 in extrinsic incentives, but there was absolutely zero impact on test scores (Pink, 2009). Administrators learned "that pay-for-performance is not 'the magic bullet that so often the policy world is looking for'" (Pink, 2009, p. 191).

Teacher Motivation

Whether teaching in Missouri, and earning the lowest salary of \$45,317, or teaching in New York and earning \$71,633, money alone was not the major factor that motivated teachers (Wallis et al., 2008, NEA, 2010). While a lack of extrinsic rewards created job dissatisfaction for employees, the presence of "extrinsic rewards such as pay, working conditions, and job security" did not guarantee job gratification (Pink, 2009, p. 18). Pink (2009) discovered that "enjoyment of the work itself, genuine achievement, and personal growth" (p. 18) were important employee motivators as well. Intrinsic motivation caused performance and creativity to decline if one determined that certain tasks had become work instead of play (Pink, 2009). Instead of extrinsic rewards motivating workers, they had just the opposite effect (Pink, 2009). Teachers' backgrounds and attitudes also needed to be considered (Hyun-Jun, Ssang-cheol, & Sung-soo, 2012). Lynch (2012) found that teachers wanted "increased salaries, greater rewards, and improved working conditions" (p. 122). Teachers experienced more job satisfaction and considered negative experiences as inevitable when "the absence of positive experiences undermines commitment" (Morgan, Ludlow, Kitching, O'Leary, & Clarke, 2010, p. 191).

Teachers wanted to experience positive events in order to be motivated to continue in education (Morgan et al., 2010). Archer (2011) quoted one teacher as saying that he loved teaching but was not sure how long he could keep his dream job because working two jobs was taking a toll on his family. Slotnik (2010) emphasized that district-wide changes needed to be made in the educational system in order to retain effective teachers. Most importantly, he believed "revitalizing instruction," "rethinking assessment practices" and "providing professional development influenced teachers to work harder" (Slotnik, 2010, p. 45). Like Slotnik, Lynch's research (2012) found money was not a priority. Teachers who felt a great deal of personal pride and self worth demonstrated a passionate attitude toward teaching (Hyun-Jun et al., 2012). Educational theorists recognized that emotional awards and personal growth supported a teacher's desire to "remain teaching for the rest of one's career" (Brown & Roloff, 2011, p. 450). Additional duties and responsibilities expected of teachers, which led to teacher burnout and reduced commitment to education, is called extra-role time (ERT) (Brown & Roloff, 2011). Teachers often did not mind ERT when a combination of both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards motivated them to remain in education (Lynch, 2012).

Teacher Retention

Lynch's research (2012) showed that the higher the salary, the less likely the teacher was to leave the field. Guarino, Santibanez, and Daley (2006) found that higher salaries supported a stronger commitment to remain in the teaching field. Keller's research (2007) pointed out that Minneapolis teachers' evaluations and professional development influenced teacher pay. Wisconsin also "determined that higher teacher retention is directly related to higher salaries" (Lynch, 2012, p. 125). California teachers used the Teacher Advancement Program (TAP) to reward higher salaries (based on performance) because it focused on teacher improvement through professional growth and opportunities (Keller, 2007). Research by Wallis et al., (2008) showed that 14 states now use the TAP; it was a combination of teacher performance, four to six structured observations each year, and student test results. According to Keller (2007) teachers should be paid for "taking on leadership roles . . . and raising student achievement over time" (p. 2). Keller's research found that coursework and professional development should both be compensated for by school districts who wished to retain dedicated teachers. Duffrin's (2011) research revealed that Houston Independent School District saw a marked increase in its retention rate of teachers. Teachers were awarded up to \$10,300 based on a value-added score, teacher collaboration, and school-wide performance (Duffrin, 2011). A value-added score was a cumulative score based on teacher collaboration for campus goals, student performance on school-wide standardized testing, student growth on test scores, and teacher involvement in professional development (Duffrin, 2011). The "retention rate for awarded teachers rose from 84 percent to 92 percent" (Duffrin, 2011, p. 52). In New York City, teachers were rewarded for teaching in high-demand subject areas or "the most distressed schools" (Wallis et al., 2008, p. 2). Rewards included signing bonuses as well as housing allowances of more than \$1000 per month (Wallis et al., 2008). Research by Pink (2009) stated that the teacher pay should be increased enough so that teachers could survive financially. Entering the teaching profession should not have to be financial suicide; teachers could engage in their chosen profession and do a better job because they could afford to do the job they felt called to do (Pink, 2009). A definite connection could be drawn between higher salaries and retention of valuable teachers in the classroom when extrinsic and intrinsic factors were also considered (Pink, 2009).

Teacher Attrition

Currently, 3.2 million teachers work for United States public schools (Wallis et al., 2008; NEA 2010; Feistritzer, 2011). But almost half a million teachers leave the profession every year (Lynch, 2012), but only 146,500 teachers are newly hired (Feistritzer, 2011). Interestingly enough, only 16% leave because of retirement (Lynch, 2012).

Teachers often left the field because of a lack of time for duties (Brown & Roloff, 2011; Lambert & McCarthy, 2006). Educators felt cheated because they did not have enough "time for adequate sleep, free time, and time with loved ones" (Brown, 2011, p. 451). Sleep was often lost because of numerous teacher responsibilities. Research showed that while adults needed eight hours of sleep a night, those who only had six hours of rest a night for two weeks were minimally drunk and went to school in this drunk-like state (Reid, 2011). Between "a quarter and a third of new teachers quit within their first three years on the job" (Wallis et al., 2008, p. 4). Duffrin's research (2011) showed that many teachers leave the profession within the first five years. Research by Wallis et al., (2008) indicated that it "takes at least two years to master the basics of classroom management and six to seven years to become a fully proficient teacher" (p. 4). Based on research, large numbers of new teachers never made it to the proficient stage.

Duffrin (2011) proposed that the bottom six to ten percent of bad teachers needed to be replaced by average teachers. She showed this one move “would be enough to make U.S. students the leader in math and science” (Duffrin, 2011, p. 50). Her research also indicated that “bottom teachers” in Houston, Texas, who received no award “shrank from 13 percent to 2 percent” (Duffrin, 2011, p. 52). While Wallis et al., (2008) agreed with this, she indicated that many teachers left the field because they were teaching a subject in which they did not major or of which they lacked a deep knowledge.

Lynch’s research (2012) showed both beginning teachers and those nearing retirement experienced commonalities. Both experienced high “turnover rates and drop-out rates” (Lynch, 2012, p. 122). New teachers were often excluded from additional performance pay (Lynch, 2012). The teachers with the most experience had ‘topped out’ and were often locked into their pay (Lynch, 2012). Either way, low pay was a factor in attrition (Morgan et al., 2010; Guarino et al., 2006). In Florida, in order to protect both new teachers and those with the most experience, “performance-pay increments should be open to all teachers” (Keller, 2007, p. 2). Thus, teachers began collaborating together for the common good of their profession (Lumsden, 1998).

Wallis et al., (2008) indicated that high staff turnover occurred because American politicians held schools and faculties accountable for student learning based on standardized testing. Approximately 52% of U.S. teachers were “strongly opposed to using academic progress of students as measured by standardized test scores” (Feistritzer, 2011, p. 40). Other pitfalls causing attrition included “how teachers of subjects not tested by the state would be assessed” (Wallis et al., 2008, p. 5). Research indicated that teachers were often pitted against each other to earn bonuses or districts simply ran short of the bonus pay (Wallis et al., 2008). Policy makers believed that extrinsic rewards for teachers improved classroom results (Hyun-Jun et al., 2012). United States teachers were considered among the most productive in developed countries (Brown & Roloff, 2011). More than 800 additional teacher hours were worked outside the classroom, above and beyond the average 38-hour work week (Brown & Roloff, 2011). Additional teaching responsibilities included “mentoring students, leading student organizations, and coaching teams” (Brown & Roloff, 2011, p. 453). This extra roll time increased a teacher’s workload and limited the educator’s ability to “replenish lost resources” (Brown & Roloff, 2011, p. 453). Additional time required outside the classroom by teachers has caused many educators to consider exiting the field. Only two-thirds of current public school educators intend to remain in the profession for five more years, while 13% will retire and five percent will leave education for good (Feistritzer, 2011). Perhaps the number of teachers leaving the profession could be lowered if teachers were more involved in the decision-making process (Pink, 2009). According to Pink (2009), goals workers set themselves are usually healthier and more likely to be met than goals created by others, which often had negative consequences.

Financial Limitations

Regardless of when or if there might be merit pay or performance-based pay or an increase in teacher pay, many teachers currently in the education field are forced to find additional work in order to survive financially (Hastings, 2008). Texas teacher pay ranked 34th in the nation (Archer, 2011). Research was presented that showed having an extra job harmed teacher performance (Parham and Gordon, 2011). Research suggested that teachers who moonlighted were emotionally exhausted and no longer had the energy required to accomplish educational goals; thus, they accomplished less (Brown & Roloff, 2011). The teacher’s high expectations may have been reduced simply to survive (Brown & Roloff, 2011). Teachers who

were strongly supported by their districts and taxpayers provided better-quality teaching (Wallis et al., 2008). Relational support from administrators and the community reduced burnout (Lumsden, 1998), and both the teachers and school benefitted “by creating a workplace where supportive organizational messages are at the forefront of minimizing burnout potential” (Brown & Roloff, 2011, p. 471).

Moonlighting

The teaching profession ranked number one among the top four professions whose employees held moonlighting positions (Betts, 2004). After inflation was taken into consideration (over the last 20 years), teacher salaries only increased by \$1,334 (NEA, 2010). “The resulting picture for most states is of a salary gain over the past decade far below what the public may intend or know of” (NEA, 2010).

Teachers engaged in moonlighting created extra stress for themselves because of the additional responsibility of having two jobs (Parham & Gordon, 2011). The educator was fatigued and less able to tolerate frustrations (Lambert & McCarthy, 2006). Teachers who had too many responsibilities for an extended period of time experienced teacher stress or burnout (Lumsden, 1998; Lambert & McCarthy, 2006; Parham & Gordon, 2011). In spite of the negative consequences experienced by teachers, most could not quit second jobs because of financial needs (Bell, 1990; Parham & Gordon, 2011). The majority of teachers moonlighted for major expenditures: student loans, home ownership, or the birth of a child (Parham & Gordon, 2011). While the main reason teachers moonlighted was to meet financial obligations, some educators moonlighted as a way to explore possible new careers (Parham & Gordon, 2011) or receive specialized training or earn additional benefits (Betts, 2004). Teachers’ daily work schedules and summer vacation schedules provided the opportunity to hold multiple jobs at once (Betts, 2004). Many teachers gained confidence from their moonlighting jobs because they were given more respect at the moonlighting position, which increased their self-esteem (Parham & Gordon, 2011). Parham & Gordon (2011) indicated that for all teachers, a “combination of teaching and moonlighting resulted in a lack of time for their personal lives” (p. 50). Moonlighting brought additional stressors to a teacher’s classroom environment which often caused teachers to feel negatively toward their teaching job (Lumsden, 1998; Parham & Gordon, 2011). Their employers were likewise concerned because of performance quality or habitual absenteeism (Betts, 2004). Moonlighting teachers often replaced their self-satisfaction associated with teaching “with stress, fatigue, lack of respect, and worries about money” (Parham & Gordon, 2011, p. 51). The percentage of moonlighting teachers rose from nearly 20% in 1990 (Bell, 1990) to 33% in 2006 (Henderson & Henderson, 2006). Overall, research indicated that teachers who moonlighted experienced more frustration and stress which impacted their teaching performance.

Method

Participants

The subjects in this study constituted a random sampling of preK-12 Texas public school teachers. The survey was released to Texas Classroom Teacher Association teachers who are currently active in the classroom. Participants were asked to complete an online survey based on their own situation in the classroom. Subjects were given the option to participate in the survey

and agreed that they complied with the letter of participation (see Appendix A) by answering the survey.

This survey was conducted after receiving Institutional Review Board permission to begin the research. Next, permission was received from Texas Classroom Teachers Association to conduct research by utilizing its website, a link was posted for a two-week period. The survey was conducted through the TCTA link, and 185 teachers responded to the online survey. The teachers who participated in the online survey were all active members of TCTA who had one-time access to this link any time of day during the two-week time frame. The survey was created through a Google form and all responses were automatically recorded into a Google spreadsheet. The survey allowed for both qualitative and quantitative data to be entered by participants.

Instrument

The survey used was the same version used by Texas State Teacher Association in order to get comparative results utilized by Maninger, Edgington, Johnson, Sullivan, & Rice (2011) and Henderson & Henderson (2006). The survey asks a combination of 22-29 items: single choice, multiple choice and short answer types of questions concerning a teacher's current profile. There were 22 questions and teachers holding moonlighting jobs had seven additional questions in order to complete survey.

Variables. Relevant variables recognized include time constraints of teachers and internet availability in order to complete the survey within established time limits. This research was considered to be a convenient sampling of data since Texas Classroom Teachers Association only allowed the link to be visible for a two-week period, and teachers had limited access due to time constraints and other demands during this time frame.

Procedure. Texas teachers who are current members of Texas Classroom Teachers Association were invited to click on a website link. They voluntarily participated in an on-line survey during a two-week window. The link was posted on the web and made available in the regular monthly, digital newsletter. Completed survey results were downloaded into Microsoft Excel, and columns were repeatedly sorted (depending on data being reviewed) to organize data into workable information.

Results

A comparison of TCTA data (regarding the teaching profession) with the national averages indicated various demographic differences. As shown in Table 1, only 10% of TCTA respondents were male while the national average of male teachers is 16%. When viewing the number of married respondents, only 169 participants were included because 14 indicated they were both "married" and "other," so that data could not be included. Nationally, over 50% of teachers hold a Master's degree, but only 35% of TCTA respondents held a Master's degree. TCTA data indicated that 38% of its teachers work in suburban districts while 42% of teachers at the national level work in rural school districts. The average TCTA teacher has taught more than seventeen years while the national average is less than fourteen years. When comparing salaries between TCTA and teachers across the nation, Texas teachers earned \$8,467 less than the national average. Ironically, this particular dollar amount is slightly more than TCTA teachers indicated they needed in order to stop moonlighting. Of the 188 TCTA respondents, 90% of subjects who responded to the survey were female while 10% were male (see Figure 1). Sixty-two percent of TCTA participants planned to leave the teaching profession while 38 percent

wanted to continue teaching (see Figure 2). Teachers who held moonlighting jobs worked an average of 11.6 hours per week at a variety of jobs. On an interesting side note, 11.6 hours is the exact same number of moonlighting hours as indicated in Henderson's (2006) 1990 and 2000 studies. The extra jobs held by teachers included a variety of occupations. As shown in Table 2, the top moonlighting jobs included bus drivers, coaches, gate salespersons, salesmen, tutors, and university instructors.

Teachers gave a variety of reasons for wanting to leave the profession (see Figure 3). The greatest number of teachers planned to leave because of low pay (when compared with other professions). The threat to teacher retirement and concerns with administration were also main reasons teachers contemplated leaving the profession. Legalities with Special Education were the fourth highest reason teachers planned to leave education. Texas Classroom Teachers Association educators offered a variety of reasons how their jobs could be made easier as educators (see Figure 4). Twenty-five percent of teachers indicated they needed more time to plan while 23% wanted less paperwork. Twenty percent wanted an additional conference period, and 16% believed that having fewer meetings would allow more planning time. The remaining 16% indicated that providing an aide, having fewer duties, fewer staff development days, eliminating CSCOPE, and allowing for a four-day work week for students with Friday being a planning day would offer a better equation for having more time to plan. Participants responded to a short answer prompt on the survey and data was compiled from their responses. Moonlighting made some teachers' lives more complicated. As shown in Table 3, the average TCTA respondent earned \$4,024 while working an average of 11.6 hours per week. Half of the teachers felt their quality of teaching would improve significantly if they did not have to moonlight. If educator salaries increased by \$8,061, then 75% would quit moonlighting. Not all teachers who responded to the survey could moonlight or wanted to work an extra job after hours. As shown in Table 4, some educators were parents with young children and were unable to work an additional outside job even though they needed the additional financial assistance. Others volunteered 10 or more hours per week and had no opportunity to work additional time. Some also received outside financial help that eliminated their financial duress.

Summary

This survey was conducted in order to study demographic information as related to Texas teachers. An online sampling of 185 Texas teachers who are members of the Texas Classroom Teachers Association was studied. Research question one asked what the stereotypical teacher looked like in Texas. The average public school teacher is a 49-year-old married female with a working spouse. She holds a Bachelor's degree, works in a suburban district, teaches elementary school, and is not the major breadwinner of her family. She has worked 17 years in education and earns approximately \$47,602 per year. Research question two asked if the majority of Texas teachers moonlighted and why. Fourteen percent of TCTA respondents moonlighted an average of 11.6 hours per week and needed \$8,061 in additional salary in order to stop moonlighting. Research question three asked how an extra job impacted teaching performance. Fifty percent of respondents felt that moonlighting did not affect their teaching performance. Research question four asked teachers if they would they quit teaching if teacher salaries in Texas increased substantially, and 75% indicated they wanted to quit moonlighting but were unable to do so. Research question five asked what types of jobs teachers did who moonlighted. Moonlighting teachers held secondary jobs that included bus drivers, coaches, gate salespersons, sales

professionals, tutors, and university instructors. Research question six asked if large numbers of teachers were exiting the teaching profession, and TCTA subjects indicated that 62% were seriously indicating exiting the teaching field. Data provided by this study offered insight that predicts a future shortage of teachers, and it also showed the impact moonlighting had on teachers in the classroom.

Implications. Education across the nation needs immediate attention. While the current teaching force in U.S. public schools is 3.2 million (Feistritzer, 2011), 31% of this force is fifty years old or older, so retirement rates are a genuine concern (Feistritzer, 2011). The current demand for teachers is increasing while the current supply of teachers is well below the demand. Alternative teacher certification programs are being developed in order to recruit (nonteaching) college graduates, business professionals, and others in order to fill the future teacher shortage. When considering education and experience, teachers earned 12% less in 2010 than other professions (Archer, 2011). Classrooms in Texas and across the nation are possibly facing serious teacher shortages unless action is taken to prevent such a disastrous result for the future of our nation.

Conclusions. There are several significant items of data that surfaced from this research. Based on the number of new hires and those who are retiring, the current teacher supply will be diminishing. Colleges need to know about these trends in order to both retain and recruit strong teacher candidates to fill an upcoming shortage. Is there a significant reason why only 10% of those responding were men? Can men no longer support a family if they are in the education field? Or did many male members simply not respond to the survey? These are among many questions about which one can only speculate. Since they are not answered by this research, it can be grounds for further research. The state of Texas needs to take a serious look at teacher salaries in order to be competitive in the professional world.

Recommendations

One of the purposes of this research was to compile data for future research. By comparing Texas Classroom Teachers Association and Texas State Teachers Association (once data becomes available), data could be compared and then presented to other states to determine if there is a nationwide trend between the two groups regarding various demographics, as well as the United States. More research could be conducted in order to compare data from teachers who complete the survey but are not members of any teacher organizations. Future research may show a differentiation between teachers who are members of professional organizations and those who are not.

While in the initial stages of research, this particular study could have far-reaching effects for teachers. Further research could compare salaries and moonlighting data across the United States. Additional research could be conducted in order to compare statistical data with that of other Texas teacher associations. Data may then be compared with teacher associations from other states to determine if there is any correlation with other states between teacher associations and teacher demographic data.

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Table 1
Demographic Descriptive Analysis for TCTA Moonlighting Survey

Demographic	N	TCTA Percentage	National Percentage
Age	185	49	--
Gender	184	--	--
Male		10	16
Female		90	84
Married	*169	74	--
Spouse Works	179	73	--
Highest Degree	184	--	
Bachelors		64	44
Masters		35	55
Doctorate		1	1
Breadwinner	185	39	--
District Type	180		
Urban		27	31
Suburban		38	26
Rural		35	42
Grade Level Taught	180		
K-5		47	} 73
6-8		31	
9-12		22	
Years Taught (less than 14 years)	184	37	58
Salary	176	47,602	◇56,069

Note. N equals number of TCTA respondents; National statistics were provided by National Center for Education Information (NCEI) except where indicated with a ◇, as National Education Association (NEA); *14 of respondents responded with both Married *and* Other; NCEI data was created using a Likert scale; Dash indicated data not obtained or not reported.

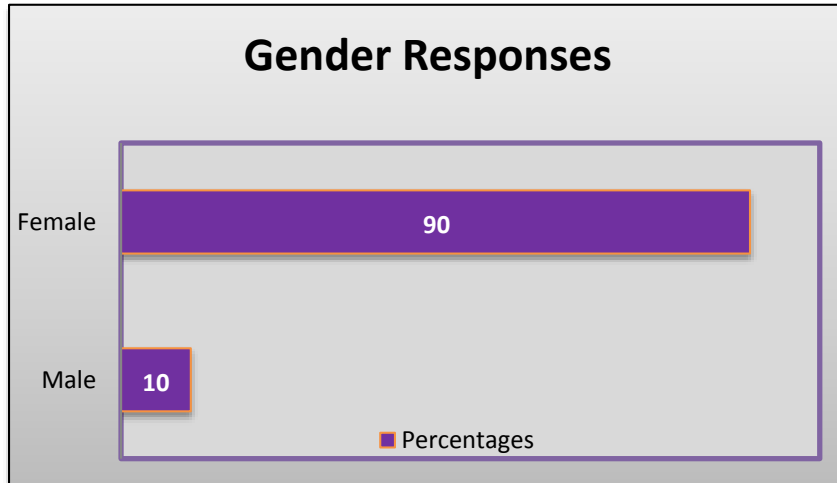


Figure 1. responses to TCTA survey. This figure illustrates the percentages of females and males who responded to the online link.

Gender to TCTA survey. This figure illustrates the percentages of females and males who responded to the online link.

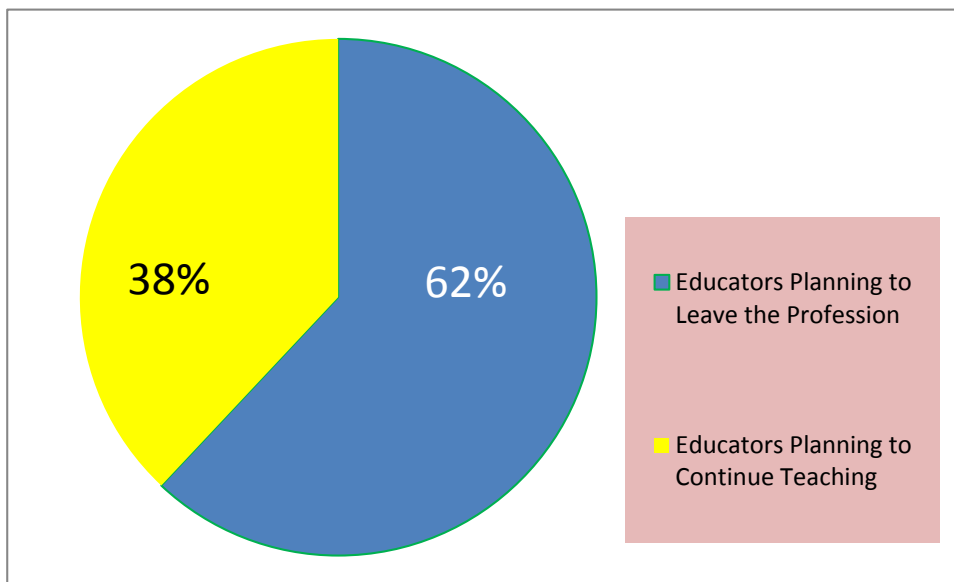


Figure 2. Teachers planning to continue/leave teaching. This figure illustrates the percentages of teachers who plan to remain in/exit the teaching field.

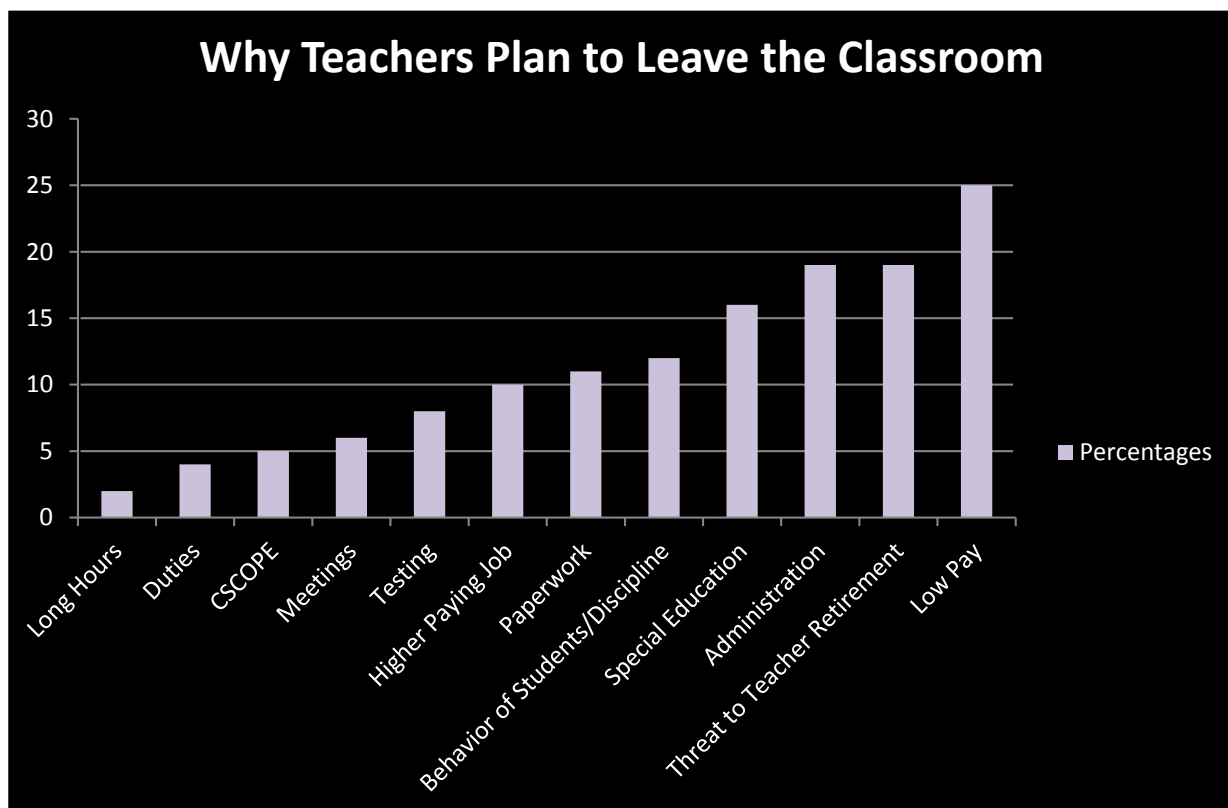
Table 2
Moonlighting jobs held by TCTA teachers

Positions held by moonlighting teachers
Beer Girl (Drive-thru, Maker of mixed drinks)
Bus Driver
Coach

Funeral Home Worker
Gate Salesperson
Piano Teacher
Produce clerk at local supermarket
Sales
Self-employed maker of rockers & coolers
Spotter for football team/Scorekeeper during basketball
Tutor
University Instructor
Writer for academic publishers

Note. The list of jobs held by moonlighting teachers indicates the secondary occupations in which teachers worked. Jobs most frequently held are bolded.

Figure 3. Reasons for leaving the teaching profession



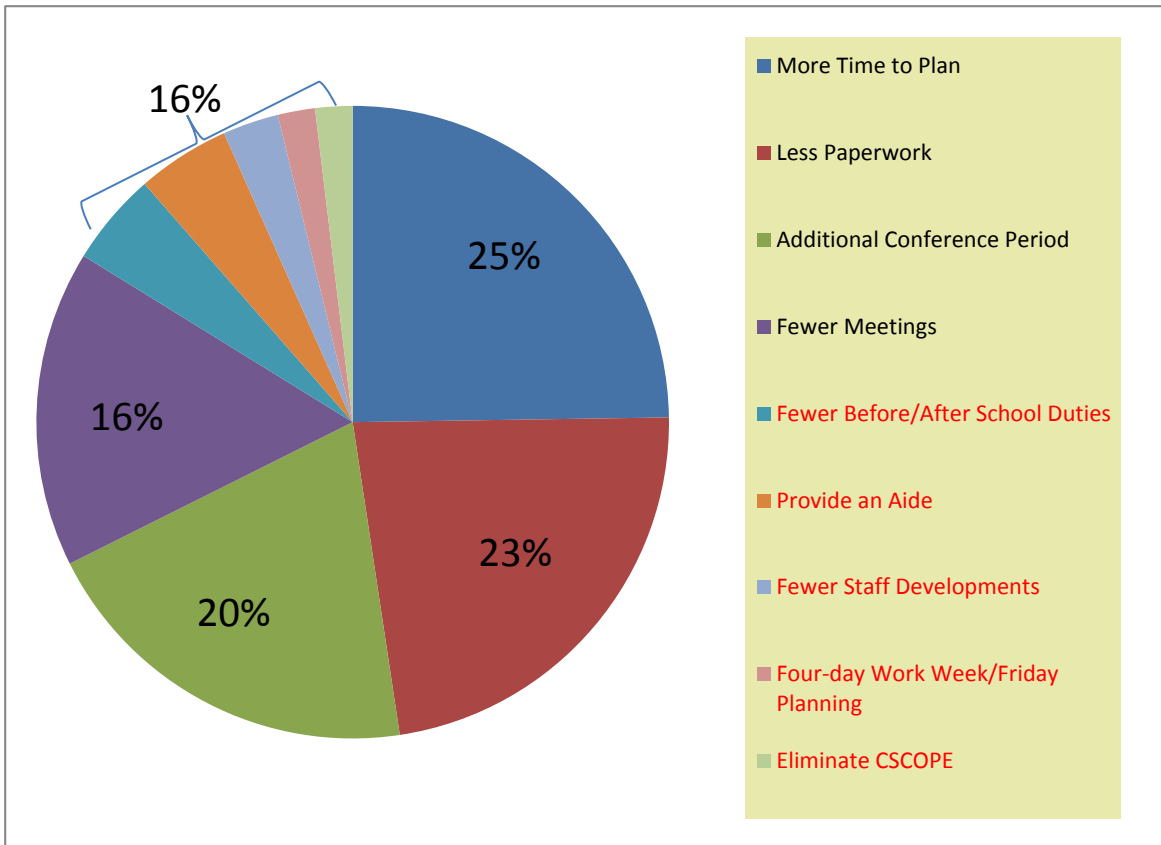


Figure 4. Teaching changes that could be made to allow educators adequate time to prepare and teach. This figure illustrates the desired changes in education that teachers believed would make their jobs as educators easier.

Table 3
Impact of moonlighting on teachers

Moonlighting factors that impact teachers	
Amount Earned from Moonlighting Each Year	\$4,024
Hours Spent Per Week During School Year Moonlighting	11.6 hours
Number of Those Who Felt Quality of Teaching Would Improve If They Didn't Moonlight	50%
Number Who Would Quit Their Moonlighting Job If Teaching Pay Increased	75%

Additional Salary Needed to Quit Moonlighting Job	\$8,061
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Table 4

Other moonlighting factors that affect teachers.

Unusual Moonlighting Exceptions
Mom (Can't moonlight but need to)
Volunteer (Work 10 + hours per week/Can't moonlight)
Receive \$2300 monthly annuity
Divorce settlement provides substantial income