THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY ON REWARD STRUCTURE PREFERENCE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background and Significance of the Problem

The education of young people is important to the survival and to the advancement of any society, but more especially for those countries which depend upon the full democratic participation of their citizenry. At the same time that American society is placing a significant emphasis on improving education, researchers conclude that, in ever increasing numbers, competent people are leaving the profession and others are not choosing careers in teaching (Clay, 1984); therefore, it has become imperative to investigate why people may choose a teaching career and to understand ways to attract and retain them in the classroom.

Historically, it is suggested that people chose teaching as a career because they wished to provide service to their communities or because there were few other alternatives which allowed them this service option (Smallwood, 1976). However, within the last decade there have been many factors which have negatively influenced the supply of new teachers and the retention of experienced, highly competent teachers (Rodman, 1985). For example, according to the Carnegie Task Force (1986), new career opportunities have been opened for many gifted women who were traditionally limited to

teaching or nursing. Also, it is becoming difficult to attract and retain minorities to careers in teaching because many are "opting for higher-paying professions outside of education" (Gilroy & Johnson, 1990, p. 1). Furthermore, as education college enrollments have declined, business college enrollments have increased in many universities as a result of dramatic differences in the financial and status rewards now offered to graduates of these two programs (Sedlak & Schlossman, 1986).

While attracting new teachers has become difficult, the retention of teachers has also become a problem. A whole body of literature has developed which attributes teacher burnout and eventual resignation from the teaching profession to a loss of professional control and a trend toward depersonalized reward structures (Cox & Wood, 1980). According to McClosky (1987) some teachers are sensing a loss of control to reform innovations such as programed learning packages and legislatively mandated curricula. Podemski and Mangieri (1987) point out that, while service to society has been an integral reason for entering the profession in the past, teachers now may require varied motivational reinforcements which confirm that their services are worthwhile and appreciated. Others point to the growing discontent of teachers with the structure and the delivery of professional rewards (Ayalon, 1989; Maher, 1983) and with the way that the rewards are individualized (Frateccia & Hennington, 1982).

The increasingly difficult economic times being experienced by many districts (Carnegie Task Force, 1986) further compound the

paradox of declining interest in a teaching career and the increasing societal need to attract and retain professional teachers. According to Parks (1983), the involvement of administrators in structuring motivation systems becomes even more important in periods of economic decline.

Although teachers report that service to society is one of the most important reasons for entering education, they frequently feel frustrated by their lack of professional autonomy (Podemski & Mangieri, 1987). One teacher puts it this way:

> I think teachers must be treated as professionals, and as I have again and again pointed out to you, they will do what they want to anyway. They will emphasize what they think is important. I may be totally wrong, but I have to act on my conscience. And this is what I have done for 17 years, because I've had very few competent administrators to work with so I work in spite of them. (Hawthorne, 1986, p. 35)

If it is possible to attract and retain better educators by restructuring rewards, then it is important to personalize motivational systems by determining which rewards are effective or ineffective for specific educators. Such information could be used by school administrators to enhance teacher professionalism with reinforcements that are within the administrator's control, that is rewards which are not necessarily tied to economic and social forces beyond the schoolhouse (Blocker & Edwards, 1982). In addition, preparation programs for school administrators could incorporate this information to provide aspiring administrators with more appropriate supervisory options. Ultimately, if reward structuring can induce motivated and competent people to continue to enter and

to remain in the profession, then instructional delivery and the quality of the work-place should improve (Brockner, 1987).

There are two perspectives on motivation which seem to have an impact in reward systems. These are expectancy theory and autonomy. These will be examined, each in turn.

Expectancy Theory

The results of several studies (Kanungo & Hartwick, 1987; Bess, 1981; Terpstra, 1979) indicate that expectancy theory is useful in separating the specific contingencies that affect the participation of people in a task and those that affect the quality of their performance. Expectancy theory, as it is presented in the work by Vroom (1964), states that motivation can be conceptualized as the combination of two major elements. The first element is one's expectancy that an action will have a particular outcome (direct); and the second element is the instrumentality of that outcome in relation to other valued outcomes (indirect).

In their joint research, Vroom and Deci (1971) go on to point out that an employee's motivation to perform effectively is determined by two variables. The first variable is referred to as effort-reward probability which is a person's subjective probability that a degree of performance will result in the obtaining of a valued reward. The second variable is reward value or valence which is a person's perception of the reward. The force on a person to act is a function of the valence of the direct

outcome and the expectancy that the act will result in those direct outcomes.

Intrinsic Motivation Theory. Deci has continued to elaborate upon expectancy theory in his recent research, and states that intrinsic motivation "is based on the innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination" (Deci & Ryan, 1985 , p. 32). People have needs which "motivate an ongoing interaction with the environment of seeking and conquering challenges that are optimal for one's capacities" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 39). Deci goes on to state that rewards can be distributed in three modes. These modes are task-noncontingent rewards, the "rewards given to people for participating, independent of what they do"; task-contingent rewards, the "rewards that are given for actually doing, i.e., completing the task"; and performance-contingent rewards, "used to mean that a reward is given for a specified level of effective performance." (Deci & Ryan, 1985, pp. 73-74) Few jobs, including teaching, provide task-noncontingent rewards, as employment is usually based upon some kind of minimal degree of task completion. Teachers do not keep their jobs just by reporting to work each day; there are minimal responsibilities and duties such as daily record keeping, classroom management, and reporting grades which are supposed to be based upon some kind of teaching.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Deci goes on to argue that while intrinsically motivated behaviors are inherent in all persons, people respond to different reward structures (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

A reward contingencies taxonomy composed of performance-contingent, task-contingent, or task-noncontingent rewards affects intrinsic motivation, positively or negatively, depending upon the person's personality (Rummel & Feinberg, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 1985). A highly competitive performance-contingent reward, for example, may have a negative impact upon intrinsic motivation in some people and not in others (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In other words, while there is an innate need for competence, the influence of differing reward contingencies may negate or enhance the need, depending upon the person's personality.

Causality Orientation Theory. If, as the aforementioned theories state, rewards have an impact upon intrinsic motivation; is it possible to ascertain which personality orientation, such as autonomy expectation, may be best suited for certain reward contingencies? Deci responds to this question by stating that research is sorely lacking in the area of field experience, but he offers a wealth of theoretical conclusions which posit an interaction between autonomy orientation and reward preference (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This study will attempt to determine if this theoretical interaction is applicable to teachers.

Professional Autonomy

Besides reward structuring, another theory integral to this study is professional autonomy.

It should first be noted that there is a difference between professional status and professional attitudes relating to autonomy.

There are many traditional definitions of professional status. Blau and Scott (1962), for example, define a professional as an expert who is trained in a limited and narrow area; and they also emphasize self-imposed control by colleagues rather than by bureaucratic rules. Etzioni (1964) takes a more narrow view of professionals as those people whose necessary training lasts longer than five years. Professional attitudes on the other hand, for the purposes of this study, relate to a person's perception of autonomy. The literature supports the relationship of the autonomy perceptions of a person to professional attitudes (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985).

Administrators probably cannot influence the professional status of teaching with reward structuring, but they can influence professional attitudes. For example, Jenkins (1983) states that professionalization must also include a practice of rewarding excellence. Lam (1983) concluded that the ways the organization grants autonomy and controls with rewards are key factors in determining professional attitudes. Still another study by Maeroff (1988) suggests that professionalization can be viewed as empowerment.

As has been noted, the concepts of teacher professionalism and autonomy have become virtually synonymous in the education literature in recent years (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990; Raelin, 1989b; Maeroff, 1988; Street & Licata, 1988). In Hall's (1969) monumental work on autonomy, the concept of autonomy is defined as "the feeling that the practitioner ought to be allowed to make decisions without external pressures from

clients, from others who are not members of his profession, or from his employing organization" (p. 82).

"Pavalko (1971; p. 22), Lawler and Hage (1973, p. 109), and Freidson (1970, p. 98, 154) have pointed out the critical importance of attitudinal autonomy to the phenomenon of profession." (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985, p. 61) If a person's attitude toward autonomy is truly important to one's perspective on professional expectations, then this interrelationship may impact the retention of people in teaching careers.

Research reveals that no instrument exists, other than the instrument originating in the Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985) study (See questions 14-35 in Appendix A), which attempts to encompass the measurement of Hall's parameters of autonomy. The Forsyth and Danisiewicz instrument provides a means to measure professionalism between aspirants of various careers, and it also defines a person's perceptions regarding autonomy, which is appropriate for this study. Much of the question content in this instrument was adapted from the autonomy research of Corwin (1963) and Hall (1968, 1969), thus attempting to assure construct validity for the questions. "Factoring procedures used to construct the autonomy scales insured their discreetness; the interfactor correlation was .13" according to Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985, p. 69).

Figure 1 illustrates the evolution of the theory base constructs for reward structuring and autonomy that have been heretofore discussed in this chapter.

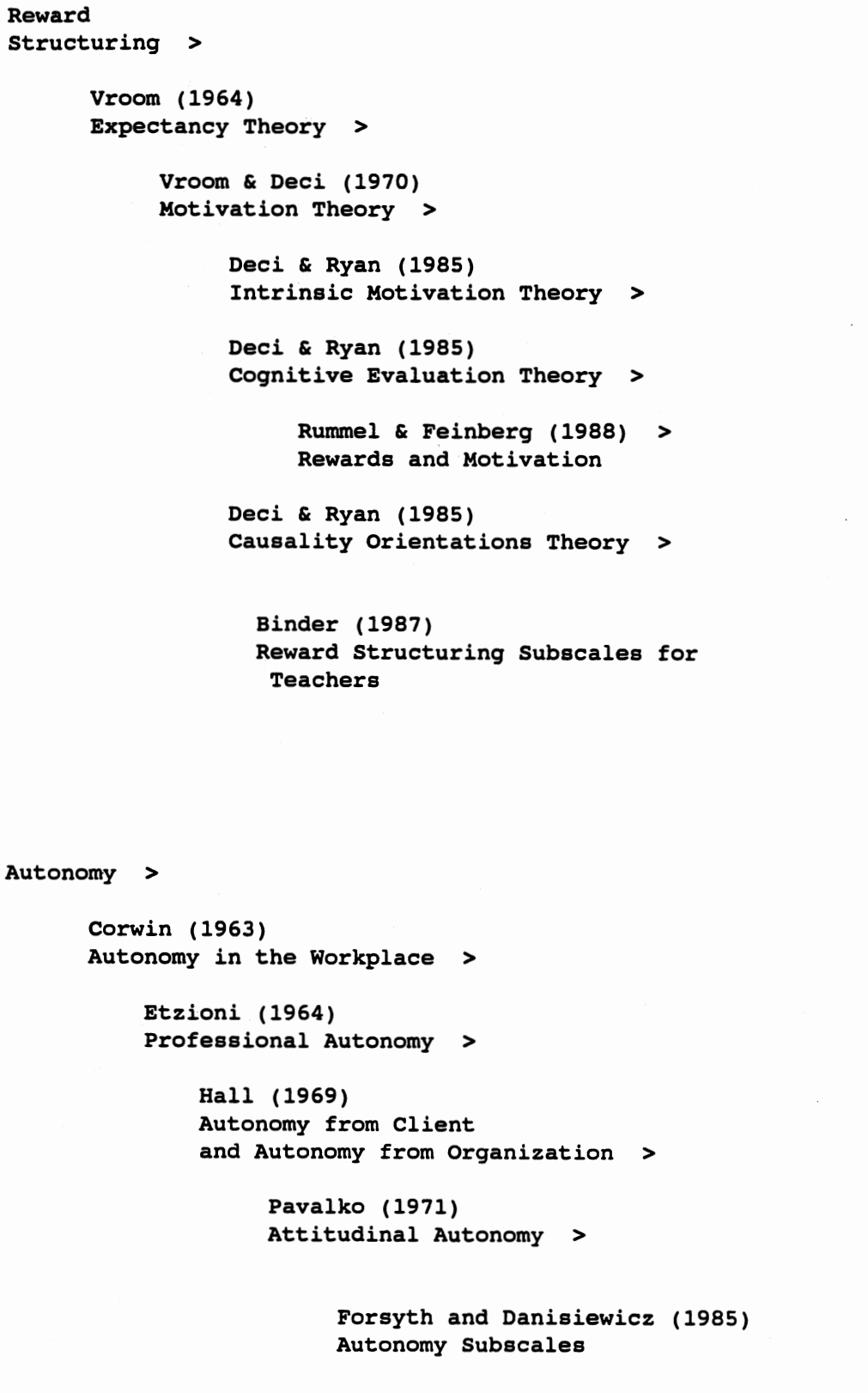

Figure 1. Mapping for Construct Validity of Theory Base

Problem Statement

For those school administrators who wish to facilitate rather than constrain professional attitudes among teachers, the issue of motivation is extremely confusing. While some researchers believe that teachers prefer participatory motivation systems, such as yearly automatic salary increments (Azumi & Lerman, 1987; Watts, 1984); others report that educators are more satisfied with performance motivation systems, such as achievement recognition (McAdams, 1988; Mitchell, 1988; Rawlinson, 1988; Fruth, 1982).

It is possible that both conclusions, while in apparent conflict, are accurate when other factors are considered. For example, educators who value professional autonomy would, perhaps, desire a reward structure which recognizes creativity and the quality of their contributions to their students. Conversely, teachers who value the security of the organization would, perhaps, appreciate a reward structure which emphasizes seniority and the consistency of their contributions to the organization. It is proposed then, that the interaction between perceptions of autonomy and reward preferences may be significant in retaining some teachers in the profession.

Some researchers have concluded that rewards influence the commitment and retention of teachers (Mitchell & Peters, 1988; Watts, 1984; Kaiser, 1981). However, administrators appear unclear as to which kinds of rewards best meet the expectations of teachers (Johnson, 1986). The type of reward, either performance or participative, seems to be important (Binder, 1987). Reward

preferences can be measured by questions (See questions 36 - 65 in Appendix A) that are part of the Teacher Incentive Plan Survey, or "TIPS" (Binder, 1987). The literature also suggests that professional autonomy may be a key factor in determining the kinds of rewards that teachers expect.

There are some unique constraints relating to reward structuring and teacher autonomy previously discussed which may make teacher expectancies difficult to identify. There may also be other moderating variables which impact the interaction between autonomy and rewards such as gender, size of the school district, the school's student population, locale (urban/rural), school level (elementary, high school, etc.), student ability level taught, grade level taught, the highest degree held by the teacher, family income, nonteaching employment experience, and marital status.

Statement of Purpose

It is the purpose of this study to analyze the problem, which is how the perceptions of autonomy and other modifying variables affect the reward preferences of teachers. Administrative use of a reward structure which reflects teacher preferences for performance or participatory rewards may impact a person's decision to remain in the profession. The research evidence suggests strongly that there is a need to investigate the relationship of perceptions of autonomy to reward preferences among teachers (Bartell, 1986; Raelin, 1989a). Another study has concluded that the unique characteristics of teaching also create a need to investigate the reward options

available for teachers (Lortie, 1975). Ultimately, as previously noted, such an understanding would benefit students, teachers, and society.

Definition of Terms

Reward structuring is a planned set of administrative or peer-developed acts of recognition, praise, or monetary compensation which attempt to bolster teacher's self-esteem or manipulate their behavior (Binder, 1987). Reward structuring will be operationalized by scores on the incentive option section of the Teacher Incentive Plan Survey (Binder, 1987) which indicate a high preference for reward structuring or a low preference for reward structuring and also includes two types of motivators discussed below.

1. While all rewards rely generally upon a degree of participation in an activity, for the purposes of this study: participatory rewards are "those which attract a person to a job and keep him/her there as long as conformation to minimum job requirements takes place" (Binder, 1987, p. 14). This is the task-contingent reward structure of Deci (Deci & Ryan, 1985) in which "task-contingent rewards are generally administered in the absence of additional effectance-relevant feedback" (p . 75).

2. Performance rewards are defined as "those received contingent on one's performance" (Binder, 1987, p. 14) and which focus on "the quality of one's performance relative to some type of normative standard . . ." (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 74).

Professional autonomy is the feeling that the practitioner ought to be allowed to make decisions without external pressures from clients or from organizational restraints (Hall, 1969, p. 82). Professional autonomy will be operationalized by scores on the "Autonomy Survey" (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985).

Teacher Experience denotes whether a person is classified as a probationary teacher or whether the person is classified as a career teacher. The Oklahoma School Code (Section 94) distinguishes between probationary teachers and teachers with continuing contracts. Usually, if a teacher has taught for more than three years, that teacher has tenure and thus is employed with a greater degree of security than if he or she has taught for less than three years. This security may impact a person's attitudes about autonomy on the job. It should be noted that with the passage of House Bill 1017 in 1990, by the Oklahoma legislature, the law "changed the term tenured teacher to career teacher, . . . and those with less than three years service remain probationary teachers" (Oklahoma Educator, 1991, p. 16). Recent research suggests that probationary teachers can be termed novice or beginning teachers and that career teachers can be referred to as competent, proficient, or expert teachers but it is important to note that the literature supports the idea that teachers may differ in the context of their job expectancies and that further research is needed in this area (Sabers, Cushing, & Berliner, 1991). For purposes of this study, therefore, teachers who have taught for three years or less shall be termed probationary and those who have taught for more than three

years shall be termed career teachers.

Chapter Summary

Research studies dealing with teacher perceptions of autonomy indicate that a major problem in attracting and retaining competent and motivated career teachers can be found in the failure of the profession to meet individual reward expectations adequately. But a conflict exists between research conclusions concerning the value teachers place on various types of reward structures. How perceptions of professional autonomy affect reward preferences among teachers is an area in need of further study (Frase, 1982).

As the twenty-first century approaches, there appears in the literature an urgency to learn about teacher expectancies and how these relate to

> . . . a system in which school districts can offer the pay, autonomy, and career opportunities necessary to attract to teaching highly qualified people who would otherwise take up other professional careers (Carnegie Task Force, 1986, p. 11).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

It is the purpose of this study to determine how perceptions of professional autonomy and preferences for rewards affect the retention of teachers. This chapter will present a review of selected literature to investigate the following areas: administrator perceptions of rewards; use of rewards for retaining teachers; professional autonomy; and intervening variables related to reward structuring and teacher autonomy.

Administrator Perceptions of Rewards

Kreis and Milstein (1985) point out that a function of school administrators, through supervisory techniques, is to enhance instruction. But, because of escalating societal crises and evolving curriculum constraints, administrators must have a better perception of how rewards relate to teacher expectations to assist them in meeting their goals more adequately (Barth, 1986). Kreis and Milstein (1985) argue that in a capitalistic society like the United States; ambition, learning, academic persistence, intelligence and professional entry are rewarded by money, power, and status. This is true in almost every occupation except teaching (Weiss, 1988).

Christopher T. Cross, Assistant Secretary for Educational Research and Improvement with the United States Department of Education in the George Bush administration, feels that the area of teacher motivation, as well as the motivation of students and parents are "the most important questions we face . . . we also want more scholars - both inside and outside the federal education research system - to explore it" (Cross, 1990). The school administrator's supervisory objectives, therefore, should reflect this need to identify teacher motivation factors, explore the kinds of reward expectations of teachers, and to implement a reward structure which individualizes support for each person (Johnson, 1986).

But, a review of the literature suggests that administrators have been receiving somewhat conflicting data relating to rewards and motivation with regard to teachers. On the one hand, some researchers suggest that administrators must exercise strong authority to make their schools effective (DuFour, 1985). In this light, rewards serve primarily as controls to enhance performance. This point of view directs that teachers will perform better if they are rewarded for their efforts (DuFour, 1985). On the other hand, if a teacher does not perform well, the incentives should be withdrawn (DuFour, 1985). For example, one school system in Arizona offers teachers performance rewards ranging from computers to conference money (Andrews, 1987) and an Illinois community bestows $500.00 checks to teachers who have met certain performance standards beyond the minimum requirements of their jobs (Andrews,

1987). To support this view that monetary rewards can support teacher expectations, some researchers have concluded that teachers favor the merit pay concept and actually prefer extrinsic and ancillary rewards over intrinsic rewards (Azumi & Lerman, 1987).

On the other hand, administrators are told by other researchers that one of the major reasons that teachers are leaving the profession is that they are dissatisfied with the lack of rewards which reflect teacher expectations in terms of intrinsic motivation (Walker & Moffit, 1979). This research suggests that the administrator should provide individualized rewards which foster self-esteem to meet the professionally intrinsic expectations of teachers. From this perspective, merit pay may not meet the expectations of all teachers. If some teachers feel a professional self-actualization by merely being teachers, then no performance reward would suffice (Frataccia and Hennington, 1982). Likewise, one might not expect that a professional surgeon would do a better job for more money, or that a professional nurse would more capably heal a patient for better compensation. For some, teaching in and of itself is the prize and participatory rewards alone meet expectations (Frataccia & Hennington, 1982).

Administrator perceptions of rewards also reflect what they have been taught about rewards in their administrative training and in their own experiences (Morphet, Johns, & Reller, 1974). Typically, administrators have reflected perceptions of rewards in what McGregor (1960) has indicated as either Theory X or Theory Y. Administrators who have perceived rewards from a Theory X

perspective assume that teachers have a dislike of work, want to avoid responsibility, and strive only for security and therefore they must be coerced or controlled by rewards and punishments to put forth an adequate effort (McGregor, 1960, pp. 33-34). Administrators who have perceived rewards from a Theory Y perspective assume that teachers naturally enjoy teaching, that they will exercise self-direction in meeting goals, that they will seek responsibility and that administrators can, through individualized rewards, fulfill teacher expectations (McGregor, 1960, pp. 47-48). These theories have been well researched in the realm of business and industry, and many school administrators have been trained in the application of these two ideas to teacher supervision (Morphet, Johns, & Reller, 1974).

More recent research, however, indicates that the application of private industry based management systems like Theory X, Theory Y, or MBO (management by objectives) to the schoolhouse may not take into consideration the complexity and uniqueness of the relationship of teacher to student (Kowalski, 1984). Some researchers are beginning to conclude that the traditional belief that 'what is good for the management of business is also good for schools' is, at best, a belief that can be correctly applied only with caution (Kowalski, 1984, p. 119). The environmental interference, goal conflicts, reward potentials, and goal selection in public schools compared to private business are characteristically different, and therefore the supervisory practices of school administrators in relation to mid-management administrators in business are

necessarily different (Kowalski, 1984, p. 122). It can be concluded from the literature, therefore, that at least some of the supervisory practices regarding reward structuring that school administrators have been taught to emulate from industry will not work with teachers and other techniques must be investigated to best meet teacher expectations (Kowalski, 1984).

Use of Rewards for Retaining Teachers

School teaching is an isolated activity, and there are limited opportunities for recognition (Lortie, 1975). Teachers usually spend their days somewhat isolated from their colleagues. They spend time in one-on-one relationships with students, in the teaching process before groups of students, and in grading papers or planning lessons. So, because of the isolation of the teaching routine itself, some administrators have difficulty evaluating teacher expectations and then individualizing their rewards (Daniel & Okeafor, 1987).

Another characteristic of teaching which impacts reward structuring is the limited availability of performance-contingent motivators (Heath, 1981). Because people in most professions at mid-career frequently earn twice or more than three times that of entry-level persons; income equates to status and esteem. But in the case of education, teachers at mid-career may earn only a little more than entry level teachers. Consequently, many teachers have become secure with the participatory reward system afforded them in their school setting (Binder, 1987). Such a system may emphasize

yearly, small automatic salary increments or group medical insurance that is available to all employees, not as rewards for performance, but as participatory benefits. These benefits are incidental to employment with the school district, which by state law must provide certain incentives to all teachers regardless of their level of performance (James, 1991).

Teaching provides educators with unique opportunities to foster and observe immediate student growth and development. Some educators feel rewarded when they perceive that their influence has resulted in increased student achievement (Lowther, 1982). Unfortunately, however, teaching frequently does not provide educators with many opportunities to perceive the long-term effects of the teaching efforts (McLaughlin, 1986). Reward structures must be constructed therefore, which provide teachers with the feedback necessary to see the impact of their teaching on the learning process, whether that impact is positive or negative (McLaughlin, 1986). McLaughlin (1986) also suggests that teachers may require differing rewards, depending upon their own expectations, which will provide them with the necessary feedback. These may include rewards for merely participating as a teacher such as automatic job benefits, or they may include rewards based upon administrative, community, or peer controls such as receiving a paid sabbatical, being designated as a 'master teacher', being paid for curriculum writing, or even being promoted to a supervisory job (McLaughlin, 1986).

Cherrington and Wixom (1983) state that the process of performance-contingent rewards for some teachers not only provides professional recognition for the honoree, but provides renewal for the profession. To be effective as such, performance-contingent rewards must have credibility with the members of the profession. Awards programs must be well-planned, impressive, worthy of the accomplishments being honored, well publicized, and constantly revised and improved (Collins, 1988). The selection must be deemed fair and equitable by all concerned (Dreyer, 1988). If the rewards are not deemed to be fairly dispersed, then the rewards will have an undermining effect upon the professional commitment for all concerned, even from the point of view of the recipient (Morgan, 1984).

Mechanisms for delivery of rewards are important, but the way the rewards are structured is just as important. Shin (1987), for example, advises principals to structure performance-contingent rewards that allow all teachers to be considered, regardless of tenure. If only teachers nearing the close of long careers in education are afforded formal honors then younger teachers will receive little opportunity for recognition. It may be noted that Stern and Shepherd (1986) indicated that teacher consultant colleagues provided the most guidance in terms of professionalism for entry level teachers. Therefore principals should consider the important role played by more tenured teachers in developing a sense of professionalism among newer teachers.

Even though the relationship between reward structures and teacher retention in the profession is apparently unknown (Bartell, 1986), it can be concluded from the above statements that if some teachers have a desire to have their expectations met with a well structured and individualized reward system, and if the teaching field provides mostly unstructured or sparse rewards, then it can also be concluded that this may be a cause of a growing unrest among some teachers (Oliver, 1988). The premise that organizational obligations can be balanced with teacher expectations is basic to the research of Hawthorne (1986). Hawthorne encourages administrators to be more supportive and collegial toward teachers. Research indicates that while teachers do not expect the full autonomy from clients or from organizations that is sought by such people as medical doctors or lawyers (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985), professional expectations can be enhanced if administrators are supportive of teachers in their teaching activities rather than simply administering the curriculum (Engelking, 1986). The research conclusions of Davis (1984) concur: administrators can be more supportive of teachers, sometimes utilizing very indirect methods of instructional supervision.

Professional Autonomy

Donelson (1988) concludes from his research that a lack of autonomy is a major cause for a low sense of professional commitment among some teachers. This relationship of autonomy to the retention of some teachers appears to be a stronger relationship than previous

research had believed. It has previously been believed that teachers wanted to teach regardless of the pay or regardless of the reward structure utilized by a school's administration (Donelson, 1988). Donelson (1988) points out, however, that the loss of autonomy by teachers due to new technology, renewed emphasis upon better standardized test scores, and the introduction of programed learning modules, have created a need to further investigate the role of autonomy in the retention of teachers in the profession. Donelson goes on to suggest that one of the responsibilities of the education profession is to provide for empowering teachers with rights and responsibilities which will insure in them a sense of autonomy, or many may choose to leave the profession (Donelson, 1988).

Wise and Darling-Hammond (1985) suggest that supervisory evaluations may be used to provide an individualized sense of professionalism for teachers. If formative evaluations can be constructed which meet individual teacher expectations rather than summative evaluations which focus on bureaucratic rules, then teacher job discontent may lessen (Rice, 1989). Some teachers feel, therefore, that the criteria by which they are evaluated should reflect their individual teaching assignments, their students' potential for progress, and the realization of their own goal attainment (Rice, 1989). In other words, it would be unfair to designate teachers as 'master teachers', who would receive merit pay rewards, only those teachers whose students improved a specified amount on standardized test scores, or whose students always

behaved, since this kind of summative criterion might not take into consideration such factors as student levels (learning disabled, emotionally disabled) or grade level taught (Rice, 1989).

Conversely, Boberg (1985) reported that professional attitudes are dependent, in part, upon collaborative activities between educators. A teacher who experiences professional collaboration and collegial sharing may develop a stronger commitment to the profession. On the other hand, a teacher who feels alone or not in control of the forms of administrative, summative evaluations directed toward him or her, may lose the motivation to teach (Boberg, 1985). Another researcher states that some teachers expect, and should experience, from the beginning of their careers and throughout their teaching life, collaboration and collegiality (Sockett, 1989). To these teachers, autonomy may not be as important as professional sharing and mutually derived goals.

Investigation into literature dealing with the concept of professional autonomy begins with the ideas presented by Hall (1968) in which he concluded from his research that practitioners are allowed to make decisions without external pressures from clients or from organizational constraints. Professional autonomy has continued to be defined by other researchers in separate studies as autonomy from client (Freidson, 1970) and autonomy from organization (Braude, 1975).

Raelin, (1989a) suggests that administrators can foster teacher autonomy through professional development activities, mentorship, dual career ladders, and project management. Raelin sees teacher

autonomy being granted by administrators on three levels: strategically, administratively, and operationally. The empowerment of teachers, then, becomes a program generated by the school district's philosophy toward teacher autonomy (strategic), the school administrator's use of teachers in decision-making (administrative), and the classroom autonomy granted teachers in the education of their students (operational) (Raelin, 1989).

Forsyth and Danisiewicz concluded from their research study comparing students preparing to enter various careers, that teaching aspirants scored above the mean in terms of autonomy from client but below the mean for autonomy from employing organization (1985, p. 71). These findings substantiated their hypotheses which were based theoretically upon the ideas of Etzioni (1964), regarding the perceived status of education. No known research conclusions exist, however, to explain why education aspirants have been found to be generally client autonomous (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985, p. 73) but this tendency may provide a clue to why most teachers appear to prefer participatory rewards rather than rewards based upon performance (Binder, 1987).

Intervening Variables Related to Reward Structuring and Teacher Autonomy

While some research points out that administrators can and should nurture a professional attitude among teachers, other research points out that there are forces at work which are in opposition to this effort. McCloskey (1987) concludes that newer

policies and practices impacting education have begun to remove control of classrooms from teachers. He also points out that various policies have provided 'disincentives' for teachers to remain in teaching. McCloskey also points out that programed learning modules can turn the teacher into a technician which downplays teacher creativity, creates added teaching burdens, forges a system that favors products and rejects people, and most importantly to this study, foster the development of a system which lacks individualized rewards for teachers. While these new educational practices affect teachers in several ways, there are some more specific variables which may impact reward structuring and teacher autonomy.

Age of the Teacher

Some researchers (Mottaz, 1987; Sweeney, 1981a) have concluded that the chronological age of the teacher may have an effect on teachers' perceptions of rewards. Retirement benefits appeared more important to some older teachers than to some younger ones. Higher salaries were apparently more important to some younger teachers. Some teachers who are younger may tend to have different priorities than older teachers relative to the expectations derived from their teaching experiences (Lipka & Goulet, 1979). Shin and Putnam (1982) conclude that many more older teachers tend to apply for academic honors and professional rewards than do younger teachers.

Another study (Lowther, 1982) concluded that some teachers at mid-career experience a "malaise" which influences teachers'

attitudes regarding autonomy and rewards. Some teachers at mid-career may tend toward favoring participatory rewards and may tend to be less interested in autonomy if the activity involves a higher than expected degree of risk (Lowther, 1982).

Gender of the Teacher

Rewards and status are sometimes unequally distributed by gender. Dahisteny (1978) concluded that competence and autonomy were factors relating to professionalism in the academic world, and that some men and women are not treated equally in the areas of rewards and status they receive as recognition for competence as judged by colleague interaction. If this is the case then, according to Dahisteny, there is a patriarchal model of professionalism that exists in academia and that it must absorb feminization if it is to counter the imbalance offered to men and women. Reward structures must be in place that do not penalize women, for example, during times of pregnancy and childbirth. A fair and equitable professional attitude would allow people to lead richer lives, regardless of gender.

Biklen (1982) noted that some female elementary teachers felt a degree of autonomy from their building administrator but not from the school district central office; that even though a principal may grant a certain degree of autonomy to perform classroom responsibilities, the central office maintained bureaucratic controls which teachers felt constrained them as responsible professionals. Biklen also noted in the same study that some of her

subjects felt that their authority was threatened by the behavior of parents and the parent's image of the teachers' role. Biklen concludes in a more recent study (1983) that findings regarding gender by some educational researchers have been limited by stereotypical assumptions about the nature of women and that future research must attempt to investigate this topic more objectively.

The research of Avi-Itzhak (1988) concluded that the female Israeli kindergarten teachers of her study were not satisfied with the meeting of their expectations regarding security and social relationships and that their expectations for esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization were not met. The female teachers felt that the autonomy offered to them by their administrators was not sufficient for the level of professionalism and university study they had achieved (Avi-Itzhak, 1988).

But other research says gender is not a factor in regards to teacher expectations (Kaufman & Fetters, 1980). Kaufman and Fetters (1980) reported that men and women do not differ significantly in regards to their teaching expectations in many ways, including perception of autonomy. The difference in research conclusions concerning gender may be due in part to the interaction of the gender variable with other variables such as single parenthood, locale, or other modifying moderators (Sadker, Sadker, & Klein, 1991).

Student Ability Level Taught

Sweeney (1981b) concluded that a correlation may exist between

the motivation preferences of some teachers and the ability levels of the students they teach. Generally, teachers who teach higher ability students such as gifted and talented students tend toward favoring performance-contingent rewards such as merit pay (Rogers, 1985). A teacher who teaches trainable mentally handicapped (TMH) students may tend to not prefer merit pay since merit pay may be associated with student achievement progress and sometimes TMH students or other special education students do not experience traditional forms of progress which are routinely evaluated by school administrators.

Teaching Experience

Another study (Griffin, 1984) implies that how long a teacher has taught may influence his or her feelings of autonomy. Additionally, a study by Daniel and Okeafor (1987) concluded that probationary teachers tend toward a greater reliance on institutional rules and, until they are granted tenure, may be more reluctant to express an independence from administrator controls.

Grade Level Taught

Several studies (Azumi & Lerman, 1987; Kasten, 1984; Leigh, 1979) conclude that the grade level taught influences the reward expectations of some teachers. Teachers who teach in elementary grades may tend to depend more heavily upon organizational factors when making decisions than high school teachers. High school teachers may tend toward more autonomy, partially because they may

be more course content oriented than elementary teachers such as primary grade teachers, who may be more concerned with child development issues. Research by Azumi and Lerman (1987) concluded that elementary teachers tended toward rewards based more upon ancillary, participatory schemes such as career ladders for all teachers rather than performance based rewards such as merit pay based on professional involvement. Research by Kasten (1984) indicates that some elementary teachers' attitudes towards performance based rewards are highly impacted by interactions of such things a divorces, family income, and other life events.

Nonteaching Employment Experiences

McCullers, Fabes and Moran (1988) have determined that some teachers who enter the profession with prior employment experiences as an adult, may have differing attitudes about teaching than those who have only teaching experience. A person who has never had a job outside of teaching may have differing expectations regarding his or her reward expectations than a person who has had a job(s) in the non-academic sector (Sockett, 1989). Logan (1988) has concluded that entry-level teachers who come from private-sector careers tend to favor performance rewards since most were experienced with this reward structure. It is also important to note that in localities that experience downturns in the economy, the relatively secure salaries of teachers may appeal to many people in other careers (Beck, 1988).

Level of University Study

Fritts (1979) concludes that the level of educational preparation has an affect upon teacher expectations. This study concludes that teachers with more education are more likely to favor a more autonomous environment. Teachers with higher degrees are also more inclined to prefer reward structuring such as career ladders and salary increments based, in part, upon educational attainment. Fritts (1979) also notes that teachers with minimum degree attainments are less likely to favor well-defined reward structures.

Size of the School and School District

Fritts (1979) states that the size of the school and school district impacts teacher perceptions of autonomy from the organization. It is surmised that larger settings rely more heavily upon written bureaucratic rules and therefore teachers in larger districts may tend to experience less autonomy than those who teach in smaller districts, and thus rely more heavily upon more formalized reward structures. There is no definitive study in this area, however, to provide solid research conclusions in the area of teacher expectations of autonomy with regard to the size of the school district or school in which they teach.

Urban, Suburban, Inner-city,

Rural Locale

Reed and Busby (1985) conclude that a variety of incentives and rewards are necessary to recruit and retain competent teachers in rural areas. This study shows that teachers who teach in rural areas, separated from metropolitan statistical areas, often teach in economically depressed locales. The teachers may be the highest paid, most educated and socially prominent people in the rural area and may have expectations that are different from teachers who teach in the wealthier suburbs of a metropolitan area.

Another study by Noblit (1986) concludes that local initiative and support may determine the role of autonomy for teachers. Teacher autonomy may be seen as a means to maintain local controls over education as teachers who are employed by a school district may tend to reflect local philosophies and standards and therefore the influence of such entities as national textbook publishers or programed learning plans from the state may be diminished by teacher control (Noblit, 1986).

It is reported widely in the literature that administrators are finding it increasingly difficult to retain teachers in inner-city schools that are experiencing increased incidences of gang violence, theft, absenteeism, teenage pregnancy, and truancies (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990). President Ernest L. Boyer of the Carnegie Foundation has noted that two out of five teachers said they would choose another profession if they had it to do over and that this figure was higher among teachers who work in

inner-city schools (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990).

Sociological definitions of what constitutes rural or urban environments appear to vary with studies. Various criteria have been used to identify metropolitan and rural areas such as occupations, demographics, ecology, culture, and socio-organizational structures. This study shall rely upon the broad criteria of population in defining an area as inner city (older, central part of a city of 50,000 or more people, characterized by crowded, poorer conditions); metropolitan (a city of 50,000 or more people but not an inner city); suburban (a town or area adjacent to a city of 50,000 or more people); or rural (a town or area not adjacent to a city of 50,000 or more people). This study follows the criteria for demographic classification found in The Encyclopedia of Sociology (1981) which provides general information regarding the sociological characteristics of demography.

Chapter Summary

While the impact of a teacher's expectations about autonomy upon reward preference are unknown, research indicates that a relation may exist. Other researchers have concluded that administrators can influence professional attitudes of teachers. If administrators can correctly match rewards to teacher expectations, then administrative goals may be achieved and the teaching environment enhanced.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: there is no significant preference by teachers for participatory rewards or performance rewards.

Hypothesis Two (a): there is no significant difference in participatory rewards experienced by probationary and career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (b): there is no significant difference in performance rewards experienced by probationary and career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (c): there is no significant difference in participatory rewards desired by probationary and career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (d): there is no significant difference in performance rewards desired by probationary and career teachers.

Hypothesis Three: there is no significant difference in participatory reward preference between probationary or career teachers and performance reward preference between probationary or career teachers.

Hypothesis Four: there is no significant difference between the autonomy perceptions of probationary teachers and career teachers.

Hypothesis Five: there is no significant difference between the autonomy perceptions of teachers and their reward preferences.

Hypothesis Six: there are no significant differences in autonomy perceptions or reward preferences between probationary teachers and career teachers.

Subsidiary Hypotheses

Hypothesis Seven: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or the reward preferences of teachers compared to their gender.

Hypothesis Eight: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or the reward preferences of teachers compared to the size of the district in which they teach.

Hypothesis Nine: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the size of the school in which they teach.

Hypothesis Ten: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the type of community (locale) served by their school.

Hypothesis Eleven: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the type of school level in which the teacher works.

Hypothesis Twelve: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the ability level of their students.

Hypothesis Thirteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the grade level they teach.

Hypothesis Fourteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teachers.

Hypothesis Fifteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their age.

Hypothesis Sixteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their family income.

Hypothesis Seventeen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their nonteaching employment experiences.

Hypothesis Eighteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their marital status.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The literature indicates that there may be a relationship between perceptions of professional autonomy and reward preferences among teachers. It has been suggested in the literature that principals play an important role in teacher retention in the profession by the reward structures that are administratively implemented (Mitchell & Peters, 1988). It has also been suggested that there is a growing need to investigate the relationship of perceptions of autonomy to reward preferences among teachers (Bartell, 1986; Raelin, 1989a).

The theoretical concepts introduced by Deci and Ryan (1985) provide that intrinsic motivation is based, in part, upon reward expectations. The research of Binder (1987) concludes that teachers generally favor participatory reward structures over performance reward structures, and the research of Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985) concludes that teacher aspirants vary in their perceptions of autonomy. This study attempts to confirm these previous research conclusions regarding autonomy and teacher reward preferences and also determine how reward preference is affected by various subsidiary variables.

Design of the Study

Design and Purpose

This is a basic causal-comparative, or ex post facto research study to determine the effects of autonomy perceptions and several other variables on the reward preferences of teachers.

Sample Selection

The target population for this study consists of all public school, classroom teachers in Oklahoma. In the winter of 1990-1991, individual school faculties were randomly selected, using a table of random numbers, to participate in the study (See Appendix B). Faculties were selected using a cluster random selection process (Gay, 1987) from a list of all schools in Oklahoma that was available in the 1990-1991 Oklahoma Educational Directory.

Questionnaires were distributed to five percent of the public school teachers in Oklahoma who were employed for the 1990-1991 school year (n = 1,500).

Response Rate

Given a one-hundred percent response rate, the sample would provide a n = 1,500. The results yielded a response rate of sixty-eight percent (n = 1,023).

Subjects

The population for this study consisted of all public school teachers in Oklahoma who were teaching in the 1990-1991 school year. Teachers were defined in this study as persons who teach in classrooms without counseling or administrative responsibilities. Subjects must have been willing to fill out a questionnaire voluntarily (See Appendix A) which determined their perceptions about autonomy and reward structure preferences as well as certain demographic and personal information.

Field Procedures

Pilot Study

In January of 1991, a pilot study was performed on a randomly selected sample of fifty teachers. The purpose of this pilot study was to determine the clarity and construction of the instrument.

Administrative Permission

The offices of the superintendents of every school district in Oklahoma, in which teaching faculties were randomly selected to participate in this study, were contacted by phone by the author prior to the mailing of the questionnaires. All superintendents who were contacted granted permission for the study to be conducted with teachers within their school districts, most citing that this ex post facto study provides that no treatment was to be performed and no student responses were necessary. Permission to conduct the

study was also requested in a letter mailed to the principals of each school from which teachers were randomly selected to participate. All building administrators approved the distribution of the questionnaires.

The questionnaires were mailed to principals who then distributed the questionnaires to faculty members. Attached to each of the 1,500 questionnaires were self-addressed, stamped envelopes, provided by the author, which were to be used by each respondent to return the instrument to the author. With this procedure, an attempt was made to assure that the responses would be free from administrative over-sight or control and the respondent could return the questionnaire at his or her convenience.

Controls and Incentives

The use of randomization in the sample selection process attempted to provide some degree of research control. Respondents were asked in a cover letter to take some time alone to give their full attention to the answers. The cover letter which accompanied each questionnaire explained confidentiality and anonymity and also contained a personal message from the author detailing the purpose, significance, and usefulness of the study. A copy of this letter is found in Appendix A.

Respondents were encouraged to complete the questionnaire as a participant in a doctoral dissertation study which hopefully benefits themselves as professional educators, based in part from the conclusions derived from their answers and from the answers of

their peers. Respondents personally returned the instrument to the author, free from administrative scrutiny. A code placed on each envelope enabled the researcher to determine which faculties had responded and provided information for follow-up.

Follow-up

Follow-up inquiries were made six weeks following the mailings, if surveys were not returned from teachers. Principals indicated if they wished to receive an abstract of the study upon its completion, as a followup to teacher participation. This follow-up abstract will be mailed to participating school administrators who will be asked to make the correspondence available to faculty members.

Limitations of the Study

This study's target population consisted of all teachers in Oklahoma who were teaching in the 1991-1992 academic year. Researchers might be cautioned against using the results of this study to generalize attitudes of teachers from other states. A state's funding for education, regional issues, local problems and other factors may influence the variables that were discussed in this study.

Subjects were chosen using a random, cluster selection process (Gay, 1987) to facilitate the large numbers of people involved in the study (n = 1,500). No attempts were made to equalize numbers of subjects by gender, family income, or any other variable except type of school (elementary, middle or junior high, or high school). With

such a large sample, however, it was deemed that the resulting sample population reflected the target population closely.

This was a causal-comparative study. "Manipulation, and control which characterize experimental studies are all sources of weakness" (Gay, 1987, p. 257) for this type of study. Another problem that is inherent in this type of study is that some other major variable, other than the identified independent variables considered, may affect the dependent variable of reward preference, and that this effect could be the real cause of the observed difference. This was a limitation study using respondents from faculties teaching in the Spring of 1991.

Other serendipitous relationships may also affect the variable comparisons in this study. This study did not focus on recent events in Oklahoma which may have affected teacher attitudes, such as the impending voter referendum regarding the repeal of HB 1017 (a 1990 monumental education funding legislation for the state), the continued low per-pupil expenditure in Oklahoma, and other similar factors. Teachers' activism in regards to empowerment and autonomy, shared decision-making in regards to teacher rewards, and the sometimes perceived east-west regionalism within the state's boundaries were not accounted for in this study, except through randomization in the sample selection process.

Instrument

As part of the questionnaire given to the subjects, twenty-two questions ascertaining attitudinal autonomy were asked. These

questions were adapted from the study of autonomy as presented by Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985). The reliability of the scale was pilot tested by the authors (alpha coefficient = .83) which was confirmed by the study.

Also, likert-like questions relating to reward structure preferences which were utilized in the study by Binder (1987) were asked. The Binder study showed a high degree of reliability when correlated to the pilot study which preceded it. The results of the study showed a strong preference for participation motivators over performance motivators comparing responses using a simple t-test as t = 24.49, which was significant at the .05 level as P was less than .001. The Binder study also found a relationship between teacher experience and degree of participation in incentive programs showing that, between groups of teachers with differing amounts of experience, the differences were found to be significant at the .05 level, as F = 3.154 leading to a probability of P = .0157.

Also as part of the questionnaire for this study, certain demographic and personal data were asked which covered anticipated mediating variables which research indicated may impact the sample's responses. These variables include age of the teacher, gender, student ability level taught, grade level taught, nonteaching employment experiences, level of university study, size of school district, locale, family income, marital status, and size of school.

Methodology by Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: there is no significant preference by teachers for participatory rewards or performance rewards.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores of respondents on questions 36, 37, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 51, 52, 58, 59, 60, 61 and 62 (questions indicated on the TIPS sub-scale that have validity in the ascertaining of participatory reward preferences) were compared to the mean scores of respondents on questions 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 48, 49, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 63, and 64 (questions indicated on the TIPS sub-scale that have validity in the ascertaining of performance reward preferences). Questions 50 and 65 were optional and encompass performance rewards such as coaching or sponsorships. A t-test is used to determine whether the means are significantly different.

Hypothesis Two (a): there is no significant difference in participatory rewards experienced by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 36, 37, 43, 44, 45, 46, and 47 were compared to teacher experience (question #8) using a one-way analysis of variance procedure.

Hypothesis Two (b): there is no significant difference in performance rewards experienced by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 48, and 49 were compared to teacher experience (question #8) using a one-way analysis of variance procedure.

Hypothesis Two (c): there is no significant difference in participatory rewards desired by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 51, 52, 58, 59, 60, 61, and 62 were compared to teacher experience (question #8) using a one-way analysis of variance procedure.

Hypothesis Two (d): there is no significant difference in performance rewards desired by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 63, and 64 were compared to teacher experience (question #8) using a one-way analysis of variance procedure.

Hypothesis Three: there is no significant difference in participatory reward preference between probationary teachers or career teachers and performance reward preference between probationary teachers or career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to the participatory reward questions and the performance reward questions are compared to the experience (question #8) of the respondents using a one-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Four: there is no significant difference between the perceptions of autonomy by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 14-35 were compared to the experience (question #8) of the respondents using a one-way ANOVA. Note: throughout the statistical analysis,

the following items are reversed scored: 14, 16, 17 , 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 31, 33, 34, and 35.

Hypothesis Five: there is no significant difference between the autonomy perceptions of teachers and their reward preferences.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences as indicated from their answers to questions 36-65 using a one-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Six: there are no significant differences in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences between probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to probationary or career teachers (question #8) using a two-way ANOVA.

Hypothesis Seven: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers compared to their gender.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to gender (question #1) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Eight: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers compared to the size of the district in which they teach.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to district size (question #2) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Nine: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the size of the school in which they teach.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to school size (question #3) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Ten: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the type of community served by their school.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to community type (question #4) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Eleven: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the school level (elementary, junior high/middle, high school) in which the teacher works.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to school level (question #5) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Twelve: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the ability level of their students.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (question 36-65) compared to student ability level (question #6) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Thirteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the grade level they teach.

To teach for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (question 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to the grade level the teacher teaches (question #7) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Fourteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to the teachers' degree (question #9) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Fifteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their age.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward

preferences (question 36-65) compared to age (question #10) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Sixteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their family income.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to family income (question #11) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Seventeen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and employment experience.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to employment experience (question #12) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

Hypothesis Eighteen: there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their marital status.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales (questions 14-35) are compared to their reward preferences (questions 36-65) compared to their marital status (question #13) using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

In the two-way ANOVA procedures used to test Hypotheses 6-18, reward preference serves as the dependent variable in each instance.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analyses of data were measured from the survey responses of 1,023 respondents who returned usable instruments from the sample population of 1,500 randomly selected teachers, resulting in a response rate of 68.2 percent. These survey responses were obtained in the Spring of 1991 from teachers randomly selected to represent a cross-section of classroom teachers in the elementaries, middle and junior highs, and high schools in Oklahoma.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how teacher preference for reward structuring is effected by perceptions of autonomy and other modifying variables such as gender and school district size. If administrators can correctly match reward structures to teacher expectations, then administrative goals may be achieved and the retention of teachers in the profession may improve.

Descriptive Statistics

The following information reflects the results of the survey responses, beginning with the demographic questions on the survey (see Appendix A).

Item One on the survey requested the gender of the respondent. There were 707 females and 295 males who indicated their gender on

the survey. There were 21 respondents who left blanks on this question.

Item Two asked the respondent to indicate his or her district's size, with regard to the number of students enrolled. These responses were categorized, for statistical purposes, into three categories. There were 275 respondents placed into category one which was comprised of districts with 1,000 students or less. There were 350 respondents placed into category two which was comprised of districts with more than 1,000 but less than 10,000 students. There were 330 respondents placed into category three which was comprised of districts with 10,000 students or greater. There were 68 surveys with blank or inappropriate responses for this item.

Item Three asked the size of the school of the respondent with regards to enrollment. The respondents were categorized into three groups. There were 27 respondents from schools with less than 100 students. There were 514 respondents from schools with more than 100 but less than 500 students, and there were 451 respondents from schools with more than 500 students. The mean for school enrollment among the respondents was 595 students. There were 31 blank responses on this item.

Item Four requested the respondent to indicate the type of community served by his or her school. There were 98 respondents who characterized their school-communities as inner-city. There were 191 respondents who indicated their school-communities were metropolitan. There were 225 respondents who indicated their school-communities were suburban, and there were 487 respondents who

indicated their school-communities were rural. There were 22 blank responses for this item.

Item Five asked the respondent to indicate the school level. Respondents who indicated that they taught in an elementary school setting numbered 363. Respondents indicating that they taught in a middle-school or junior high school setting numbered 330. Respondents who indicated that they taught in a high school setting numbered 273. Respondents who indicated that they taught in a kindergarten through 12 setting numbered 22. There were seven respondents who indicated "other" as their response. There were 28 blank responses to this item.

Item Six asked the respondent to indicate the ability level of their students. Of the respondent's answers, 79 indicated they taught high ability students, 464 indicated they taught middle ability students, 154 indicated they taught low ability students, and 295 indicated they taught heterogeneous groups of students. There were 31 blank responses for this item.

Item Seven asked the respondents to indicate the grade level that they predominantly taught. The mean grade taught was seventh grade. There were 24 surveys with blank responses to this item. This item was categorized into K-2 grades = 142 respondents; 3-5 grades = 167 respondents; 6-8 grades = 307 respondents; 9-10 grades = 86 respondents; and 11-12 grades = 297 respondents.

Item Eight asked how many years the respondent had taught. The responses were categorized into two categories: three years or less (probationary teachers), and more than three years (career

teachers). The probationary-teacher category of three or less years experience had 114 respondents and the career-teacher category of more than three years experience had 883 respondents. The mean for the number of years taught by the respondents was 13.7 years and the mode was 14 years. There were 26 blank responses.

Item Nine asked for the highest degree held. There were 560 respondents who held bachelor degrees, 387 who held master's degrees, 41 who held specialist certificates, and eight who held doctorates. There were 27 blank responses.

Item Ten categorized the respondents' ages. There were 152 respondents aged 21 - 30; 339 respondents aged 31 -40; 370 respondents aged 41 -50; 130 respondents aged 51 -60; and 14 respondents aged 61+. There were 18 blanks for this item.

Item Eleven categorized the respondents' family income. There were 416 with incomes $17,000 - 36,999; 380 with incomes $37,000 - 56,999; 159 with incomes $57,000 - 76,999; and 41 with incomes $77,000+. There were 27 blanks for this item. Item Twelve asked the respondents to characterize their employment history. There were 603 respondents who were categorized as having taught as a sole career. There were 382 respondents who were categorized as per their indication that they moonlight or have worked in other jobs. Thirty-eight left blank responses to this item.

Item 13a asked for marital status. There were 782 who indicated they were married; 105 indicated they were single; and 110 indicated they were either divorced or widowed. There were 26 blanks for this item.

Item 13b asked for number of dependents living in the home. There were 145 with one dependent (self); 264 with two dependents; 195 with three dependents; 279 with four dependents; 86 with five dependents; 23 with six; one with seven; one with eight; and three with ten dependents. There were 26 blank responses for this item.

The autonomy scale consisted of twenty-two likert-like items (delineated in Chapter Three) with five options each, which would present a range of possible scores between 22 and 110. A score of 110 would indicate very high autonomy and a score of 22 would indicate very low autonomy. Respondents who scored 44 or less were categorized into the low autonomy group and respondents who scored above 44 were categorized into the high autonomy group. A score of 44 was used to indicate the separation point between low and high autonomy for because this is the way it was scored originally and the lower two-fifths of the possible scores reasonably determined a lower sense of autonomy based upon the wording of the likert-like options (see questions 14 - 35 on the instrument found in Appendix A.) The data from 1,023 surveys resulted in an overall mean for autonomy of 77 with a mode of 72.00 and a standard deviation of 8.11. A split-half reliability procedure was performed on the autonomy section of the survey (see questions 14-35 in Appendix A) which yielded a coefficient of .71. This coefficient was corrected using the Spearman-Brown prophesy formula thus providing a reliability estimate of .83 for the autonomy scales.

The participatory reward subscale consisted of fourteen likert-like questions (delineated in Chapter Three) with a range of scores

between 0 to 14 indicating the respondent did not participate at all in participatory rewards or these rewards were unavailable, to a score of 70 (extensive utility of the reward). The resulting sample grand mean for the participatory subscale was 35.102 with a mode of 36.000.

The performance reward subscale consisted of fourteen likert-like questions (delineated in Chapter Three) with a range of scores between 0 to 14 (a score of 0 indicating that all rewards were unavailable to the respondent or a score of 14 indicating that the respondent did not participate in any performance reward) to a score of 70 (extensive utility of the reward). The resulting sample grand mean for the performance subscale was 34.234 with a mode of 30.000.

When combining both subscales into the overall rewards preference scale, the total score possible for a respondent who had the strongest preference for reward structuring would total 140 and a respondent who least preferred reward structuring would score 28. (Theoretically, a zero score would also be possible if no rewards were available to the respondent, but in Oklahoma, every school district provides some degree of participatory or performance rewards, so every respondent indicated utility of at least some of the rewards.) This score became the dependent variable for the hypotheses testing for Hypotheses 6-18.

A split-half reliability procedure was performed on the reward preference section of the study (see questions 36-65 in Appendix A) which yielded an internal consistency reliability coefficient of

.80. This coefficient was corrected using the Spearman-Brown prophesy formula thus providing a reliability estimate of .84 for the reward preference scales.

Tests of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

There is no significant preference by teachers for participatory rewards or performance rewards.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores of the respondents on questions from the participatory reward sub-scale (these fourteen items are delineated in Chapter Three) were compared to the mean scores of respondents on questions from the performance reward subscale (these fourteen items are delineated in Chapter Three). A t-test was used to determine whether the means were significantly different. The results of the t-test analysis are presented in Table I.

TABLE I

t-TEST BETWEEN PARTICIPATORY REWARD AND PERFORMANCE REWARD PREFERENCES OF TEACHERS

Reward Preference	Mean	SD	t
Participatory	35.1017	8.944	3.21*
Performance	34.2336	12.620	

*p < .05

The resulting t value of 3.21 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a significant difference between the mean for participatory reward preferences and the mean for performance reward preferences among teachers with a more positive preference for participatory rewards (see Table I). The mean difference was .8680. The first hypothesis therefore, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Two

(a) there is no significant difference in participatory rewards experienced by probationary teachers or career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (b) there is no significant difference in performance rewards experienced by probationary teachers or career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (c) there is no significant difference in participatory rewards desired by probationary teachers or career teachers.

Hypothesis Two (d) there is no significant difference in performance rewards desired by probationary teachers or career teachers.

To test for these hypotheses, the responses to questions 36-50 (questions which determine rewards that the respondent has experienced) and the responses to questions 51-65 (questions which determine rewards that the respondent desired) were compared to the years experience (question #8) of the respondents using one-way

analysis of variance procedures. The results of these procedures are summarized in Table II.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR REWARDS EXPERIENCED AND REWARDS DESIRED BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Scale	SS	df	MS	F
Participatory Rewards Experienced				
Between Ss	0.460	1	0.460	2.246
Within Ss	203.916	995	0.205	
Total	204.376	996		
Performance Rewards Experienced				
Between Ss	0.155	1	0.155	0.995
Within Ss	154.863	995	0.156	
Total	155.018	996		
Participatory Rewards Desired				
Between Ss	0.066	1	0.066	1.703
Within Ss	38.326	995	0.039	
Total	38.391	996		
Performance Rewards Desired				
Between Ss	0.160	1	0.160	0.739
Within Ss	215.310	995	0.216	
Total	215.469	996		

NS $p > .05$

The means for rewards experienced and rewards desired by teaching experience are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

MEANS FOR REWARDS EXPERIENCED AND REWARDS DESIRED BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Teaching Experience	M
Hypothesis 2 (a) Participatory Rewards Experienced	
Probationary Teachers	16.03
Career Teachers	16.98
Hypothesis 2 (b) Performance Rewards Experienced	
Probationary Teachers	17.86
Career Teachers	17.01
Hypothesis 2 (c) Participatory Rewards Desired	
Probationary Teachers	18.05
Career Teachers	19.02
Hypothesis 2 (d) Performance Rewards Desired	
Probationary Teachers	17.13
Career Teachers	17.90

The results (see Table II) do not show a significant difference in rewards experienced or rewards desired by probationary teachers or career teachers. The null hypotheses, therefore, are not rejected.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in participatory reward preference between probationary teachers or career teachers and performance reward preference between probationary teachers or career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to the performance reward questions and the participatory reward questions were compared to the teaching experience of the respondents using a one-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF ONE-WAY ANOVA PROCEDURES FOR YEARS OF EXPERIENCE BY PREFERENCE FOR PARTICIPATORY OR PERFORMANCE REWARDS

Scale	SS	df	MS	F
Participatory Rewards				
Between	5.2472	1	5.2472	0.086
Within	60915.4102	995	61.2215	
Total	60920.6563	996		
Performance Rewards				
Between	34.3158	1	34.3158	0.240
Within	141972.3711	995	142.6858	
Total	142006.6250	996		

NS $p > .05$

The means for reward preference by experience are presented in Table V.

TABLE V

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY EXPERIENCE

Experience	N	M
Participatory Rewards		
Probationary Teachers	114	35.4825
Career Teachers	883	35.7021
Performance Rewards		
Probationary Teacher	114	34.2281
Career Teachers	883	34.8141

The results (see Table IV) do not show a significant difference in preferences for participatory rewards or performance rewards by probationary or career teachers. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference between the perceptions of autonomy by probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the responses to questions 14-35 were compared to the experience of the teachers (question 8) using a one-way ANOVA procedure. The results of this analysis are presented in Table VI.

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR KINDS OF AUTONOMY BY EXPERIENCE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	7880.7211	1	7880.7188	2.134
Within	3674337.3125	995	3692.8013	
Total	3682218.000	996		

NS p > .05

The means for perceptions of autonomy by experience are presented in Table VII.

TABLE VII

MEANS FOR KINDS OF AUTONOMY BY EXPERIENCE

Experience	N	M
Probationary Teachers	114	77.114
Career Teachers	883	77.256

The results (see Table VI) do not show a significant difference in perceptions of autonomy by probationary or career teachers. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference between the autonomy perceptions of teachers and their reward preferences.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy sub-scales, indicating whether they had high or low perceptions of autonomy, were compared to their reward preferences using a one-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE VIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND REWARD PREFERENCE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	47821.6910	1	47821.6875	113.015*
Within	424838.4570	1004	423.1458	
Total	472660.1250	1005		

* $p < .05$

The means for reward preference by autonomy perception are presented in Table IX.

TABLE IX

MEANS OF REWARD PREFERENCE
BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION

Autonomy Perception	N	M
Low Autonomy Group	36	71.3055
High Autonomy Group	970	76.4227

As Table VIII depicts, the resulting F value of 113.015 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is significant difference in reward preference by perceptions of autonomy. The low autonomy group scored a mean of 71.3055 for reward preference and the high autonomy group scored a mean of 76.4227 with an absolute mean difference between groups of 5.1172 (see Table IX). Therefore, the respondents who indicated that they had a low perception of autonomy tended to have less preference for reward structuring than did the respondents who indicated that they had a high perception of autonomy. The fifth hypothesis, therefore, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Six

There are no significant differences in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences between probationary teachers and career teachers.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to their teaching experience using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

The results (as indicated in Table X) do not show a significant difference in autonomy perceptions and reward preferences between probationary teachers or career teachers. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY AND YEARS EXPERIENCE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Years Experience (A)	40.773	1	40.773	0.106
Autonomy (B)	539.930	1	539.930	1.400
A X B	1.366	1	1.366	0.004
Error	377593.438	979	385.693	

NS p > .05

The means for reward preference by autonomy and experience are presented in Table XI.

TABLE XI

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE
BY AUTONOMY AND EXPERIENCE

Group	N	M
Probationary Teachers	110	75.68
Career Teachers	873	76.43
Low Autonomy Perception	19	71.00
High Autonomy Perception	964	76.46

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers compared to their gender.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers regarding autonomy were compared to their reward preferences compared to gender, using a two-way ANOVA procedure. Table XII presents the results of this procedure.

TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE
BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND GENDER

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	628.821	1	628.821	1.631
Gender (B)	1.764	1	1.764	0.005
A X B	1511.570	1	1511.570	3.922
Error	378126.125	981	385.449	

NS p > .05

The means for reward preference by autonomy and gender are presented in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE
BY AUTONOMY AND GENDER

Group	N	M
Male	290	76.25
Female	695	76.33
Low Autonomy Perception	20	70.75
High Autonomy Perception	965	76.42

The results do not show a significant difference in the reward preference of teachers by autonomy perception and gender. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Hypothesis Eight

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers compared to the size of the district in which they teach.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to district size using a two-way ANOVA procedure. The results of this procedure are presented in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND DISTRICT SIZE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy(A)	147.689	1	147.689	0.421
DistSize(B)	30649.387	2	15324.691	43.701*
A X B	2840.417	2	1420.209	2.050
Error	327530.688	934	350.675	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 43.701 ($p < .05$) for district size indicates that there is a significant difference between the reward preferences of respondents from different sized school districts.

The mean score for teachers from small districts was 71.03; from medium sized districts the mean was 73.19; and the mean was 84.10 from large districts. These means are presented in Table XV. (Note: henceforth, unless there is a significant interaction, refer to Table XIII for the autonomy perception means, as each of the following test results continue to score the same variable of autonomy each time, only with a different 'modifying' variable.)

TABLE XV

MEANS OF REWARD PREFERENCE
BY DISTRICT SIZE

Group	N	M
Teachers from Small Districts	271	71.03
Teachers from Medium Districts	343	73.19
Teachers from Large Districts	326	84.10

Table XVI presents the absolute mean differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 2.52

TABLE XVI

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DISTRICT SIZES FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

	A Small	B Medium	C Large
Means	71.02	73.19	84.10
A - 71.02		2.17	13.08*
B - 73.19			10.91*
C - 84.10			

* > Tukey HSD (2.52)

The eighth hypothesis, that there would be no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and the reward preferences of teachers compared to the size of the district in which they teach was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Nine

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the school in which they teach.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to school size, using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE XVII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND SCHOOL SIZE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	556.890	1	556.890	1.484
School Size (B)	11170.004	2	5585.000	14.878*
A X B	461.646	1	461.646	1.230
Error	364872.313	972	375.383	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 14.878 ($p < .05$) for school size indicates that there is a significant difference between reward preferences of respondents from different sized schools. The means for reward preference by autonomy and school size are presented in Table XVIII.

TABLE XVIII

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE
BY SCHOOL SIZE

Group	N	M
Teachers from Small Schools	26	73.70
Teachers from Medium Schools	508	73.13
Teachers from Large Schools	443	79.95

The absolute mean difference between school sizes for reward preference are presented in Table XIX.

TABLE XIX

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCHOOL SIZES FOR
REWARD PREFERENCE

	A Small	B Medium	C Large
Means	73.70	73.13	79.95
A - 73.70		0.57	6.25*
B - 73.13			6.82*
C - 79.95			

* > Tukey HSD (3.403)

Table XIX presents the absolute mean differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 3.403.

The ninth hypothesis, therefore, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Ten

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the type of community served by their school.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to the reward preferences compared to community type, using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

The resulting school-community F value, found in Table XX, of 31.966 ($p < .05$) indicates that the school-community has a significant effect on teacher reward preference.

TABLE XX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND TYPE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	764.416	1	764.416	2.200
Community (B)	33316.531	3	11105.508	31.966*
A X B	3757.271	3	1252.424	3.605
Error	339081.063	976	347.419	

* $p < .05$

The means are presented in Table XXI and the absolute mean differences between groups are shown in Table XXII, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 3.34.

TABLE XXI

MEANS OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY TYPE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY

Type of Community	N	M
Inner-City	94	83.64
Metropolitan	188	85.80
Suburban	222	75.59
Rural	480	71.47

TABLE XXII

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCHOOL-COMMUNITIES FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

	A Inner-City	B Metro	C Suburban	D Rural
Means	83.64	85.80	75.59	71.47
A - 83.64		2.16	8.05*	12.17*
B - 85.80			10.21*	14.33*
C - 75.59				4.12*
D - 71.47				

* > Tukey HSD (3.34)

The tenth hypothesis, that there would be no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the type of school-community, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Eleven

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the type of school level in which the teacher works.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to school level, using a two-way ANOVA procedure. This analysis is presented in Table XXIII.

TABLE XXIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND SCHOOL LEVEL

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	847.337	1	847.337	2.211
SchLevel (B)	1443.119	2	721.560	1.882
A X B	4895.504	2	2447.752	6.386*
Error	362989.500	947	383.304	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 6.386 indicates a significant interaction between the autonomy perceptions of the respondents and the school levels (elementary, middle or junior high school, and high school) of the respondents. The means of reward preference by autonomy and school level are presented in Table XXIV.

TABLE XXIV

MEANS OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY AND SCHOOL LEVEL

Variable/Category	N	M
Teacher's Perception of Autonomy		
Low	19	69.74
High	934	76.44
School Level		
Elementary	359	75.80
Middle	325	77.97
High	269	74.99

Table XXV presents the absolute mean differences between autonomy and school level for reward preference.

TABLE XXV

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND SCHOOL LEVEL FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

Means		Elementary 75.80	Middle 77.96	High 74.99
Low Autonomy	69.74	6.06*	8.22*	5.25*
High Autonomy	76.44	0.64	1.52	1.45

* > Tukey HSD (2.45)

Table XXV presents the absolute differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 2.45. Hypothesis Eleven, therefore, was rejected.

Hypothesis Twelve

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the ability level of their students.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to student ability level, using a two-way ANOVA procedure. This procedure is presented in Table XXVI.

TABLE XXVI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY AND STUDENT ABILITY LEVEL

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	610.686	1	610.686	1.603
Ability (B)	318.944	3	106.315	0.279
A X B	8253.441	3	2751.147	7.220*
Error	369231.250	969	381.043	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 7.220 indicates that there is a significant difference in the interaction between perceptions of autonomy and student ability level.

The means of reward preference by autonomy and ability are presented in Table XXVII.

TABLE XXVII

MEANS OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY AND ABILITY LEVEL

Variable/Category	N	M
Teachers' Perception of Autonomy		
Low Autonomy	19	70.71
High Autonomy	958	76.44
Student Ability Level		
High Ability	77	76.27
Middle Ability	458	76.11
Low Ability	153	77.65
Heterogeneous Grouping	289	76.00

Table XXVIII presents the absolute mean differences between groups.

TABLE XXVIII

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND STUDENT ABILITY FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

Means		Student Ability Level Low 76.27	Middle 76.11	High 77.65	Heterogeneous 76.00
Low Autonomy	70.71	5.56*	5.40*	6.94*	5.29*
High Autonomy	76.44	0.17	0.33	1.21	0.44

* > Tukey HSD (2.52)

Table XXVIII presents the absolute differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 2.52.

The results show a significant difference in the reward preferences of teachers by perceptions of low autonomy and the ability level of their students, thus rejecting the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Thirteen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the grade level they teach.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to the grade level the teacher teaches, using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE IXXX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND GRADE LEVEL TAUGHT

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	807.459	1	807.459	2.129
Grade Level (B)	7059.996	4	1764.999	4.654*
A X B	2897.106	4	724.277	1.910
Error	370127.063	976	379.229	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 4.654 ($p < .05$) for grade level indicates a significant difference between the reward preferences of respondents in respect to grade level taught. Table XXX presents the means for reward preference by grade level.

TABLE XXX

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY GRADE LEVEL

Grade Level Taught	N	M
K - 2	139	74.18
3 - 5	165	75.93
6 - 8	303	80.15
9 - 10	86	72.66
11 - 12	293	74.66

Table XXXI presents the absolute mean differences between grade levels for reward preference.

TABLE XXXI

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GRADE LEVELS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

	A K-2	B 3-5	C 6-8	D 9-10	E 11-12
Means	74.12	75.93	80.15	72.66	74.66
A - 74.12		1.81	5.22*	1.46	0.54
B - 75.93			4.22*	3.27*	1.27
C - 80.15				7.49*	5.49*
D - 72.66					2.00
E - 74.66					

* > Tukey HSD (3.03)

Table XXXII presents the absolute mean differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 3.03.

The thirteenth hypothesis, that there would be no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the grade level they teach, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Fourteen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teacher.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to the teachers' degree.

TABLE XXXII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND HIGHEST DEGREE HELD

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	758.972	1	758.972	2.038
Degree (B)	14223.078	3	4741.023	12.729*
A X B	1286.565	2	643.283	1.727
Error	362029.438	972	372.458	

* $p < .05$

The resulting F value of 12. 729 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a significant difference between the reward preference of the respondents and the degree that they hold.

TABLE XXXIII

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY HIGHEST DEGREE HELD

Highest Degree Held	N	M
Respondents with Bachelor's Degree	555	73.16
Respondents with Master's Degree	378	80.05
Respondents with Specialist Cert.	38	81.78
Respondents with Doctorate	8	91.24

Table XXXIV presents the absolute differences between groups, with an asterisk next to those differences deemed significant as per the Tukey HSD value of 3.47.

The fourteenth hypothesis, that there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teachers, was rejected ($p < .05$).

TABLE XXXIV

ABSOLUTE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HIGHEST DEGREE HELD FOR REWARD PREFERENCE

	A Bachelor's	B Master's	C Specialist	D Doctorate
Means	73.16	80.05	81.78	91.24
A - 73.16		6.89*	8.62*	18.08*
B - 80.05			1.73	11.19*
C - 81.78				9.46*
D - 91.24				

* > Tukey HSD (3.47)

The fourteenth hypothesis, that there is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teachers, was rejected ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis Fifteen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their age.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to age using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE XXXV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE
BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND AGE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	579.226	1	579.226	1.501
Age (B)	908.068	4	227.017	0.588
A X B	1529.930	3	509.977	1.322
Error	377750.813	979	385.854	

NS p > .05

The means for reward preference by age are presented in Table XXXVI.

TABLE XXXVI

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY AGE

Age	N	M
21 - 30	151	74.72
31 - 40	333	77.10
41 - 50	363	76.78
51 - 60	127	74.95
61+	14	75.60

The results do not show a significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their age. The results of the data, therefore, fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Sixteen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions of reward preferences of teachers and their family income.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to family income using a two-way ANOVA procedure.

TABLE XXXVII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND FAMILY INCOME

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	753.185	1	753.185	1.998
Income (B)	2400.806	3	800.269	2.123
A X B	4204.969	3	1401.656	3.719
Error	365954.063	971	376.884	

NS p > .05

The means for reward preference by family income are presented in Table XXXVIII.

TABLE XXXVIII

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY FAMILY INCOME

Family Income	N	M
$ 17,000 - 36,999	408	75.18
37,000 - 56,999	375	76.66
57,000 - 76,999	157	75.78
77,000 +	39	83.15

The results do not show a significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their family income. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Hypothesis Seventeen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their employment experience.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to employment experience using a two-way ANOVA procedure. The results of this procdure is presented in Table XXXIX.

TABLE XXXIX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	596.565	1	596.565	1.554
Employment (B)	984.365	1	984.365	2.564
A X B	85.627	1	85.627	0.223
Error	370505.500	965	383.943	

NS p > .05

The means for reward preference by employment experience are presented in Table XL.

TABLE XL

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE

Employment Experience	N	M
Teaching as Sole Career	595	75.33
Other Career Experience	374	77.40

The results do not show a significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their employment experience. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Hypothesis Eighteen

There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions or reward preferences of teachers and their marital status.

To test for this hypothesis, the respondents' answers on the autonomy scales were compared to their reward preferences compared to their marital status.

TABLE XLI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY AUTONOMY PERCEPTION AND MARITAL STATUS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Autonomy (A)	670.206	1	670.206	1.741
MariStatus (B)	1544.323	2	772.161	2.006
A X B	328.718	2	164.359	0.427
Error	376133.438	977	384.988	

NS p > .05

TABLE XLII

MEANS FOR REWARD PREFERENCE BY MARITAL STATUS

Marital Status	N	M
Married	771	75.97
Single	102	75.28
Divorced or Widowed	110	79.81

The results do not show a significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their marital status. The null hypothesis, therefore, is not rejected.

Summary

A significant difference was found between the participatory reward preferences of teachers and their performance reward preferences. Teachers in the sample population preferred participatory rewards over performance rewards.

A second difference was found to exist between teachers' autonomy perceptions and their reward preferences. Statistically, the teachers who perceived that they had a higher degree of autonomy in their jobs had a higher statistical mean for reward preference than those who perceived that they had a low degree of autonomy.

Another significant difference occurred when comparing reward preferences, perceptions of autonomy, and district size. There was a significant difference between the large district teachers' responses and those from the medium and small districts. There was also a significant interaction between autonomy perception and district size. Likewise, there was a significant difference when comparing reward preferences, perceptions of autonomy, and school size. Again, there was a significant difference between the large school teachers' responses and those from the medium and small schools.

There was a significant difference between the reward preferences and perceptions of autonomy between teachers from inner-

city school-communities and metropolitan school-communities compared to suburban and rural school-communities. Inner-city and metropolitan teachers scored the higher means for reward preference.

There was a significant interaction between autonomy perceptions and school level as well as a significant interaction between autonomy perception and student ability level.

There was a significant difference between reward preference and grade level taught. There was a significant difference in the scores of the 6-8 grade teachers, commonly employed in middle schools and junior high schools, compared to teachers who teach other grade levels.

A significant difference was noted when comparing reward preference to the highest degree held by the teacher. The mean scores for reward preference progressively increased with the higher the degree earned, with a substantial jump for those earning the doctorate.

Table XLIII provides a summary for the hypothesis testing for this study.

TABLE XLIII

SUMMARY TABLE FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING

	Hypotheses	Results
1	There is no significant preference by teachers for participatory rewards or performance rewards.	*
2	(a). There is no significant difference in participatory rewards experienced by probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
2	(b). There is no significant difference in performance rewards experienced by probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
2	(c). There is no significant difference in participatory rewards desired by probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
2	(d). There is no significant difference in performance rewards desired by probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
3	There is no significant difference in terms of types of rewards between probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
4	There is no significant difference in the perceptions of autonomy by probationary teachers or career teachers.	NS
5	There is no significant difference between the autonomy perceptions of teachers and their reward preferences.	*
6	There are no significant differences in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences between probationary teachers and career teachers.	NS
7	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and the reward preferences of teachers compared to their gender.	NS
8	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and the reward preferences of teachers compared to the size of the district in which they work.	*

TABLE XLIII (Continued)

	Hypotheses	Results
9	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the size of the school in which they teach.	*
10	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the type of community served by their school.	*
11	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the type of school level in which the teacher works.	I
12	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the ability level of their students.	I
13	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the grade level they teach.	*
14	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and the highest degree held by the teacher.	*
15	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their age.	NS
16	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their family income.	NS
17	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their employment experience.	NS
18	There is no significant difference in the autonomy perceptions and reward preferences of teachers and their marital status.	NS

*p < .05
NS = Not Significant
I = Interaction Significant (p < .05)

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

It has been noted previously in this study, that the effects of perceptions of autonomy, and various other subsidiary variables, on reward preferences may be significant in attracting and retaining teachers in the profession. The findings in this study provide insight into the role of teacher expectancies and the reward structure of the school.

A summary of the results of the study can provide an administrator with timely information regarding teacher expectations regarding the rewards available in the school setting and may enable the administrator to meet teacher expectancies more adequately. For example, prior research conclusions regarding teacher reward preferences have been reinforced with the finding of this study of Oklahoma teachers regarding teacher preference for participatory rewards over performance rewards. The results of this study also indicate that there is no significant difference in the reward structure expectations of teachers new to the profession and those who have taught for longer periods of time, nor does this study find that there are significant differences regarding teacher reward preference and autonomy perceptions pertaining to gender, teacher

age, the family income of the teacher, the teacher's employment experience, or the teacher's marital status.

A significant difference appears to exist generally between the autonomy perceptions of teachers and their reward preferences. A significant difference also appears to exist concerning reward preferences of teachers when the areas of district size; school size; school-community; grade level; and when the highest degree held by the teacher are considered.

Significant interactions were discovered between autonomy perception and the school level in which a teacher works and also between autonomy perception and the ability level of the students being taught.

Findings of the Study

This study reinforced previous research (Binder, 1987) regarding teacher reward preferences. The teachers' responses on the participatory reward subscale yielded a mean of 35.102. This result indicated that the mean on the participatory subscale was significantly higher than the mean on the performance subscale statistically implying that teachers prefer participatory rewards such as yearly automatic salary increments, sabbaticals universally granted to teachers for study or travel, leaves of absence, tuition reimbursement, district paid workshops or in-service training, promotions available to all teachers, and medical and financial fringe benefits. The mean for the responses on the performance reward subscale was 34.234. Since the performance reward subscale

mean was significantly lower than for the participatory reward subscale, it is ascertained that the participatory rewards were preferred over performance rewards such as career ladders, rank of 'master teacher', and work stipends for exemplary performance (resulting in such 'extra' assignments such as being paid for curriculum writing.)

No significant differences were found in reward preferences when comparing teachers who are new to the profession and those who have taught longer. There were no differences with regard to the expectations of what rewards should be available within the teaching profession and the actual rewards that have been experienced by probationary teachers or career teachers. Probationary teachers and career teachers also did not differ significantly in the types of rewards that they expect, although career teachers did have higher mean scores concerning the strength of their expectations for reward structuring. Likewise, there were no significant differences between probationary teachers' or career teachers' views when comparing their autonomy perceptions to their reward preferences.

Gender, teacher age, family income, employment experience (such as prior careers, moonlighting, etc.), and marital status, all appear not to affect significantly teachers' attitudes regarding their perceptions of autonomy in the school setting and their preference for rewards. As has been noted in Chapter III in the study limitations section, this was a limitation, causal-comparative study, and some unknown variable may interact with these factors producing these results.

On the other hand, perceptions of autonomy do appear to affect reward preferences significantly, for teachers in general. The results of this study indicate that those teachers who have lower perceptions of autonomy in the school setting have less preference for reward structuring when compared to teachers with a higher perception of autonomy who appear to have stronger preferences for rewards. Also, as indicated in Chapter IV, the majority of the respondents indicated a perception of high autonomy concerning their jobs. This confirms the recommendations by education authors in recently published literature (Sockett, 1989; Weiss, 1988) for increasing the degree of teacher autonomy. Also as indicated in Chapter IV, there was a significant interaction between autonomy perception and school level, specifically at the middle-school level, as well as an interaction between autonomy and the ability level students.

Another significant difference appears to exist in reward preference when compared to the size of the district in which a teacher teaches. As the size of the district increases, the tendency is that teachers have stronger preferences for reward structures, with a pronounced increase for teachers who teach in the largest school districts. There is also a significant interaction between autonomy perceptions and the size of the school district in which the teacher teaches. The findings indicate that, generally, as the district increases in size, the teacher appears to experience more autonomy.

Likewise, teachers who teach in the larger schools responded differently regarding their preferences for reward structures than those teachers who teach in smaller schools. Teachers who teach in larger schools tend to prefer reward structuring more than those teachers who teach in smaller schools. There is also an interaction between autonomy perceptions and the size of the school in which the teacher teaches. Generally, the results indicate that as the school size increases, teachers experience slightly higher perceptions of autonomy on their jobs.

There also appears to be a difference in the reward preferences of teachers when comparing the school-communities in which they teach. Teachers who teach in rural schools tend to have less preferences for reward structures than all other areas. Teachers who teach in suburban school-communities are next in their strength of preferences. Teachers who teach in metropolitan districts have the strongest preference for reward structures, followed by those teachers who teach in inner-city schools. The results also indicate a significant interaction between autonomy perceptions and school-community. Generally, teachers in metropolitan areas have a higher sense of autonomy than do teachers who teach in rural areas.

Regarding grade level taught and reward preference, the single group of teachers who have a significant preference for reward structuring appears, from the results of this study, to be those teachers who teach sixth, seventh and eighth grades. These grades are common to junior high and more especially to middle school settings. The teachers who tended toward less preferences for

reward structures were teachers who teach the younger high school students in the ninth and tenth grades, however, this sample was comparatively small.

Another significant finding in this study concerns the reward structure preference of teachers when consideration is given to the degree status of the teacher. The results indicate that as the educational attainment of the teacher increases from a bachelor's degree, to a masters, to a specialist's certificate, and finally to a doctorate, the preference for reward structuring increases. Teachers who have earned their doctorates also appear to prefer reward structures with a much stronger attitude than teachers at other levels. This finding must be tempered, however, with the understanding that there were only eight teachers with doctorates who responded to the survey. While it was not the intention of the author to equalize subjects by degree, it was difficult randomly to select those with doctorates from a sample population of teachers in Oklahoma, who are classroom teachers only (no counseling or administrative duties).

Conclusions Based on the Findings

As has been previously noted, school administrators appear unclear as to which kinds of rewards best meet the expectations of teachers (Johnson, 1986). The results of this study provide some answers to this question by confirming previous research conclusions (Binder, 1987; Frataccia & Hennington, 1982) that teachers generally prefer participatory rewards over performance rewards. It is also

noted that the results of this study indicate that probationary and career teachers do not differ significantly in their preference for rewards. While new and more experienced teachers appear to have the same expectations concerning rewards, these two groups of teachers also had similar perceptions regarding autonomy in the school setting. Perceptions of autonomy or reward preference do not appear to be effected by gender. This conclusion supports the previous research findings of Kaufman and Fetters (1980) who reported that men and women do not differ significantly in regards to their expectations from teaching. These two variables also did not significantly differ among the respondents in this study in regards to the teacher's age, the family income of the teacher, or the teacher's employment experience or marital status. Another conclusion resulting from this study is that, for teachers in general, the lower their autonomy perceptions - the lower their preference for rewards to be structured. Conversely, the teachers who have higher perceptions of autonomy significantly differ by having a greater preference for reward structuring.

The results of this study indicate also, that teachers who teach in the larger school systems significantly differ from their colleagues in smaller systems in regards to reward preferences. The larger the school district, the greater the tendency for a teacher to prefer reward structuring. Convergently, teachers who teach in larger schools also tend to prefer reward structuring over their colleagues who teach in smaller schools.

Another conclusion of this study is that teachers who teach in metropolitan school-communities tend to prefer reward structuring more than teachers in rural school-communities. The difference between urban and rural school teaching experiences have been substantiated, in other areas, by previous researchers (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990), but this is the first time, to the author's knowledge, that significant differences have been shown to exist between these two groups, in the area of reward structuring.

An important conclusion affecting the administration of middle schools, is that teachers of sixth, seventh, and eighth graders tended to belong to the group of teachers who had the strongest preference for reward structuring compared to teachers from other grade levels. Teachers in these grade levels had a significantly different attitude about reward preference than did other groups of teachers as well as experiencing higher perceptions of autonomy.

A most interesting difference was discovered among teachers concerning reward structuring preferences compared to their educational preparation. The results indicate that the more education that a teacher has, the greater the preference for reward structuring. Teachers who had earned their master's degrees had stronger preferences for reward structuring than did teachers with bachelors. Teachers with specialist's certificates had stronger preferences than did teachers with master's degrees. And teachers with doctorates had a very significantly stronger preference for reward structuring than did teachers with specialist certificates.

The mean score for reward structuring by those with terminal degrees was significantly higher than all other scores, however, as has been noted, the respondents with doctorates were only eight in number, which provides less meaningful results for that group.

Implications of the Study

The implications of the results of this study in regards to administrative decision-making pertaining to reward structuring are numerous. The teachers who responded in this study significantly preferred participatory rewards such as yearly automatic salary increments, paid inservice workshops, and medical and financial fringe benefits rather than performance rewards such as merit pay, rank of 'master teacher', or such programs as career ladders. Administrators should not expect significant differences among teachers concerning gender, teacher age, the family income, employment experiences, or marital status to affect the reward preference of teachers.

Administrators may consider that the results of this study indicate that the size of the school district and the size of the school appear to affect teacher preferences for reward structuring. Teachers in larger districts and/or larger schools do tend to want a defined set of reward structures to be in existence in the school setting and these teachers have strong preferences for reward structuring.

Special note should also be given to the difference in the responses from middle school teachers. This study confirmed

previous research (Watland, 1988) which indicates that teachers who teach sixth, seventh and eighth graders tend to expect more autonomy and have a greater expectation for reward structuring than other teachers who teach other levels.

Administrators might also investigate the significant difference found in this study regarding educational attainment and reward preference. Teachers with doctorates have significantly higher preferences for reward structuring than do teachers with bachelor's degrees. Generally, as the educational accomplishment of the teacher increases, there is a greater preference for reward structuring.

Recommendations for Further Research

As has been previously discussed, there is a great need to continue to investigate the reward options available for teachers (Raelin, 1989a; Bartell, 1986; Lortie, 1975). Future research projects should focus on how leadership styles of administrators might affect teacher reward preferences. Research is needed to investigate the differences in reward preferences between teachers who are active in union or professional organizations and teachers who are not. Also, the differences between public and private school teachers in relation to reward preference is an area of possible study.

This study did not identify and sample a large number of classroom teachers with doctorates which might provide a more meaningful interpretation regarding the reward preferences of this

group. Future researchers might focus on the educational attainment variable of teachers in comparison to reward preference and autonomy perceptions. It appears to this author that a target population of classroom teachers with doctorates in Oklahoma, who have no administrative or counseling responsibilities may not be very large and so samples might be sought from other states as well.

Recommendations for Field Practice

It has been noted previously that teachers envision collaboration and collegiality in the process of meeting their expectations as professionals (Sockett, 1989). The results of this study indicate that administrators might investigate the rewards expectations of teachers to better structure rewards within a school. Administrators and teachers may jointly create a rewards structure specific to the faculty's expectations. Prescriptively, administrators must survey their teachers to determine reward preferences and through an individualized, collegial plan, create a teacher based reward structure.

While the reality of school district rewards and benefits packages necessitates district-wide negotiations processes with teacher collective bargaining organizations, there should be some leeway, on a school-by-school basis to individualize the structure of rewards. For example, the results of this study indicate that teachers in middle schools tend to have higher expectancies of autonomy and stronger reward preferences than do elementary school teachers. Administrators of middle schools or junior high schools

might, collegially, provide a greater degree of autonomy for teachers and a more defined set of rewards. Another recommended change might occur in reward structuring based upon school size. The results of this study indicate that the larger the school, and also the larger the school district, the greater the teacher expectations for a reward structuring. In other research (Fritts, 1979) similar conclusions were reached, and administrators should take into consideration the effects of the size of the bureaucracy as it seems to affect teacher reward expectations.

The difference between the reward structure expectations between teachers in rural schools and teachers in metropolitan schools is also notable and administrators in cities should take the higher reward preferences of their teachers into consideration when investigating teacher attitudes. Administrators may also take note of the differing reward preferences between teachers with regard to their degree status. While the unequal treatment of public school classroom teachers with regard to their degree status is perhaps a novelty (except in regards to some district's salary schedules) the results of this study indicate that this is an area in need of more field experience.

Concluding Comments

The application of more recent theoretical ideas such as Intrinsic Motivation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to the area of teacher expectations, with regards to reward preference is a dynamic area of

study with far-reaching effects on education. As one respondent pointed out on her survey, "Thank you for doing this study. Everyone seems to think that they know what teachers want, but this is the first time I've been asked." Also, there were some respondents who expressed unsolicited comments on their surveys indicating anger and anguish at the ill-defined reward structure of their schools.

New theory bases point to this need to make rewards more school-specific and more teacher-specific. As has been noted in Chapter I, merely inundating teachers with various rewards such as designation of Master Teacher, merit pay, and career ladders may actually have unintended effects on teacher attitudes and teacher productivity. Some rewards actually may have a negative impact upon the teacher, dependent upon his or her personality and other factors previously cited in this study, and thus district central offices, school boards, and legislators may need to investigate the uniqueness of the teaching profession before rewards are structured.

Rewards and the education profession must return full circle to the significance of the investigation to understand ways to attract and retain teachers in the classroom. The professional demands on teachers are continuing to change, and researchers must continue to study various motivational reinforcements which help confirm that the services of our teachers are worthwhile and appreciated.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT

Dear Teacher,

I need your help. I am collecting information for my Doctoral Dissertation and your input is vital to my success.

You have been randomly selected to participate in a study relating to reward structures and autonomy. It is important for our profession that these variables be examined if we are to ask administrators and the public to provide rewards that are appropriate to keep teachers in the profession. Research evidence suggests strongly that there is a need to investigate the relationship of perceptions of autonomy to reward preferences among teachers. If your feelings as a teacher can guide an administrator in developing a reward structure best suited to your expectations then, this in turn would be of benefit to you.

Your answers to these questions will be used only in this study; the purpose of which is to collect data for a doctoral dissertation. Your responses will be confidential, and your participation in this study will remain anonymous. By the very nature of this study, some of the questions may be of a personal nature. However in the spirit of research and the hope that this study's conclusion may benefit teachers like yourself, your responses are vitally needed. The anonymity of you, your school, and your school district will be maintained. Do not sign your questionnaire. Please take this questionnaire only if you are considered to be a full-time certified classroom teacher in an Oklahoma public school for the 1990-1991 school year. Do not take this questionnaire if you are a full-time or part-time administrator, counselor, supervisor, central office staff member, or an educator who is not directly involved in the teaching of students in a classroom situation.

Please take a few quiet moments to answer these questions at your leisure, preferably when you are alone and can give this your full concentration. Please answer each item truthfully, and when you are finished with the questionnaire, please return it as soon as you can by mailing it back to me immediately in the enclosed envelope. You do not need to return this cover letter with your questionnaire so just tear off this sheet and return the two remaining sheets in the mail to me.

Thank you for your help in this study.

Sincerely yours,

Ronald Foore
Doctoral Candidate
Oklahoma State University

P. O. Box 906156
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74112

Mark or fill in the correct response.

1. **Gender:** ____A. Male ____B. Female

2. **Size of School District:** (Approximate number of students) _____

3. **Size of the School in Which You Teach:** (Approximate number of students) _____

4. **Type of Community Served by Your School:**
_____ A. Inner City (older, central part of a large city, 50,000 or more in population, characterized by crowded, poorer areas)
_____ B. Metropolitan (a city 50,000 or more people i.e., Bartlesville, Tulsa, Enid, etc.), but not inner city.
_____ C. Suburban (a town adjacent to a city of at least 50,000 i.e., Sand Springs, Owasso, etc.)
_____ D. Rural (a town or area not adjacent to a city of 50,000 or more people i.e., Shattuck, Laverne, etc.)

5. **School Level:** (Circle the most appropriate label for the grades that are found in your building:
__ A. Elementary __ B. Middle/Jr High School __ C. High School __ D. K-12 __ E. Other_____

6. **Student Ability Level You Teach This Year:**
_____ A. High (Most of your students are high IQ, honors, or G&T)
_____ B. Middle (Most of your students are average ability)
_____ C. Low (Most of your students are low ability)
_____ D. Diverse (You teach mostly heterogeneous groupings)

7. **Grade Level(s) You Teach This Year:** _____

8. **Including This Year, The Number of Years You Have Taught in Public Schools:** _____

9. **The Highest Degree You Hold:** ___ A. Bachelors ___B. Masters ___C. Specialist ___D. Doctorate

10. **Your Age:** (For demographic study purposes only)
___ A. 21-30 ___ B 31-40 ___ C. 41-50 ___ D. 51-60 ___ E. 61+

11. **Your Approximate Family Income This Year:** (All responses are anonymous and confidential)
___ A. $17,000-36,999 ___ B. $ 37,000-56,999 ___ C. $ 57,000-76,999 ___D. $77,000 +

12. **Employment Experiences: (Check all that are appropriate)**
___ A. Teaching has been my sole career
___ B. Before I taught, I was employed in other work (as a previous career)
___ C. I taught, then worked in another career, and have now returned to teaching
___ D. I moonlight in another job(s) as I teach

13a. **Marital Status:** ____ A. Married ____ B. Single ____ C. Divorced ____ D. Widowed

13b. **Number of Dependents in Your Household: (counting you, your spouse if you are married, and children or other dependents)** _____

Circle the number which best represents your answer to the following questions.
1 = Always 2 = Mostly 3 = Sometimes 4 = Seldom 5 = Never

14. I try not to let the attitudes of students sway me from holding with decisions I believe to be in their best interests.	1 2 3 4 5
15. Students may know a lot about what they want to learn and therefore they should be allowed to participate in decisions related to that learning.	1 2 3 4 5
16. Giving students what they want educationally does not necessarily serve their best interests.	1 2 3 4 5
17. Students often do not understand the complexity of decisions I make in their best interests.	1 2 3 4 5
18. I think my colleagues ought to be more flexible in allowing their students to participate in decisions made in their regard.	1 2 3 4 5
19. In order for me to serve my students effectively, it is important that they surrender their judgement to mine.	1 2 3 4 5
20. In my relationships with students I discourage their attempts to function as equals in the situation.	1 2 3 4 5
21. If a student expresses disapproval of my services, I often try to adjust my approach.	1 2 3 4 5
22. Ultimately my concern is in making technically sound rather than popular decisions about students.	1 2 3 4 5
23. I expect my students to respect the decisions I make in their regard.	1 2 3 4 5
24. I believe independence from student influence is the hallmark of expert service.	1 2 3 4 5
25. I should not allow myself to be influenced by the opinions of those colleagues whose ideas do not reflect the thinking of the administration.	1 2 3 4 5
26. I believe I should adjust my occupational practice to the administration's point of view.	1 2 3 4 5
27. Typically, the administration is better qualified to judge what is best for a student than I am.	1 2 3 4 5
28. Personnel who openly criticize the administration of this school should be encouraged to go elsewhere.	1 2 3 4 5
29. This school should not expect to have my wholehearted support.	1 2 3 4 5
30. I believe it is important to put the interests of the school in which I work above everything else.	1 2 3 4 5

1 = Always 2 = Mostly 3 = Sometimes 4 = Seldom 5 = Never

31. It should be permissible for me to violate a school rule if I am sure that the best interests of the students will be served by doing so. 1 2 3 4 5

32. In case of doubt about whether a particular teaching practice is better than another, the primary test should be what seems best for the overall reputation of the school. 1 2 3 4 5

33. I should try to put what I judge to be the standards of my occupation into practice, even if the rules and procedures of this school discourage it. 1 2 3 4 5

34. I believe that administrators should facilitate my work rather than direct it. 1 2 3 4 5

35. I should try to live up to what I think are the standards of my occupation even if the administration does not seem to respect them. 1 2 3 4 5

Of the following teacher incentive options that you have experienced, check how you would rate your <u>participation</u>? (To what degree do you choose to participate if it is available to you?)

	Unavailable	Do Not Participate	Extensive	High	Moderate	Limited
36. Sabbaticals (as a reward for your performance)	___	___	___	___	___	___
37. Leave of absence (a leave of absence as a reward for your performance; not maternity, military, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___	___
38. Career ladders	___	___	___	___	___	___
39. Rank of Master teacher	___	___	___	___	___	___
40. Work stipends (as a reward for your performance: example: being paid extra for curriculum writing)	___	___	___	___	___	___
41. Recognition awards	___	___	___	___	___	___
42. Merit pay	___	___	___	___	___	___
43. Tuition reimbursement (reimbursement for profession related courses as a reward to you)	___	___	___	___	___	___
44. Paid workshops/in-service	___	___	___	___	___	___
45. Promotions	___	___	___	___	___	___
46. Salary step increments	___	___	___	___	___	___
47. Medical/Financial benefits	___	___	___	___	___	___

	Unavailable	Do Not Participate	Extensive	High	Moderate	Limited
48. Special projects	___	___	___	___	___	___
49. Fitness/Wellness programs	___	___	___	___	___	___
50. Other _____	___	___	___	___	___	___

(Other may include special pay jobs rewarding your performance: coaching, sponsor, etc)

In the previous section you rated your *participation* regarding incentive options. Now, how would you rate the following incentive options to effectively meet your <u>expectations</u> as a classroom teacher?

	Highly Desirable	Very Desirable	Desirable	Somewhat Desirable	Undesirable
51. Sabbaticals	___	___	___	___	___
52. Leaves of absence	___	___	___	___	___
53. Career ladders	___	___	___	___	___
54. Rank of Master teacher	___	___	___	___	___
55. Work stipends	___	___	___	___	___
56. Recognition awards	___	___	___	___	___
57. Merit Pay	___	___	___	___	___
58. Tuition reimbursement	___	___	___	___	___
59. Paid workshops/in-service	___	___	___	___	___
60. Promotions	___	___	___	___	___
61. Salary step increments	___	___	___	___	___
62. Medical/Financial benefits	___	___	___	___	___
63. Special projects	___	___	___	___	___
64. Fitness/Wellness programs	___	___	___	___	___
65. Other _____	___	___	___	___	___

Thank you for answering these questions. Please return this questionnaire to me as soon as you can. Your help is appreciated.

APPENDIX B

RANDOM SAMPLING STRATIFICATION EXPLANATION

Major Objective of Random Sample Stratification

1. To obtain approximately equal stratified samples of 500 high school teachers, 500 middle school/junior high school teachers, and 500 elementary teachers teaching in randomly selected public school faculties in Oklahoma, in the Winter of 1990-1991. (n = 1,500)

2. To randomly select teachers representing a variety of demographic areas in Oklahoma with regard to locale, size of district, and size of school.

Subsidiary Objective of Random Sample Stratification

Within the random selection of teachers, certain susidiary classifications were analyzed, including gender, experience, family income, degrees held, etc. It was not deemed important that equal numbers from each of these groups be sampled since the large number of respondants provided a representative sample for each group.

Process

Using a Table of Random Numbers (Gay, L. R. 1987. Educational

Research. Columbus:Merrill Publishing Company, p. 523) and the 1990-1991 Educational Directory published by the Oklahoma State Department of Education, a stratified random sampling was utilized with regard to school faculties (see Gay, 1987, p.107-112).

Steps

1. Assign sequential numbers to the each of the alphabetized school districts

(i.e., Academy Central = # 001

Achille = # 002

Ada = # 003 etc)

2. By randomly selecting a starting number from the Table of Random Numbers (Gay, 1987, p. 523), the random number was matched, in the order in which it fell in The table, with the correspondingly numbered school district. Since the number of Oklahoma school districts is less than 1,000, only the last three digits of the random numbers were used and if the random number exceeded the number of school districts then that number was skipped. This process continued until 1,500 teachers were selected. The Directory indicates the number of teachers in each faculty that were selected. therefore, corresponding quantities of instruments were sent.

3. Once all of the school districts were randomly identified, the superintendent was contacted by phone, personally by the author, and informed about the selection process and about the study. Permission was asked to mail the instrument to the principals of each of the schools that were selected. If necessary, the instrument was mailed to the superintendent or a designated district research representative(s) for investigation

4. The instruments were then mailed to each principal, with a cover sheet directed to the principal which informed him or her of the study, and directed any inquiries to the superintendent's office if there were any questions.

5. The principal then distributed the instruments to each teacher in the building.

6. Each instrument had a cover letter from the author which explained the study and which provided directions for its completion. Each respondant filled out the instrument at his or her own convenience.

7. Each respondant mailed back the instrument, in a self-addressed, stamped envelope, that was attached to the instrument and cover letter. This process was then freed from any administrative scrutiny or controls.

Observations Regarding the Sample

1. Through the random selection process, districts were selected with approximately equal geographical location from all four quadrants of the state.

2. The districts selected represented a complete range of district and school size ranging from very small districts to larger districts.

3. Some districts were difficult to characterize with regard to school types but attempts have been made to accurately designate HS, MS, JHS, Elem.. Some districts do not distinguish between elementary or MS/JHS teachers so these districts were eliminated from the sample.

4. To equalize the samples from each level, some districts toward the end of the random selection were only included to select certain grades (middle school, for example) since the other levels were already full.

Determination of Sample Size

"For causal-comparative studies ... a minimum of 30 subjects per group is generally recommended" (Gay, 1987, p. 115) Therefore it

was hoped to find samples of at least 30 individuals from each of the subsidiary analysis groups (inner-city well-experienced teachers, rural new teachers, etc.)

Large District Sampling

Since large districts were randomly selected, it was necessary to randomize the selection of teachers from within these districts since to sample the entire teacher corps from these three districts would provide a n > 4,000+. The teachers were randomly selected from these districts through teacher lists provided by the school districts.

Randomization and Bias Control

It was hoped that through the use of randomization throughout this selection process, that bias was controlled. This process has produced a n = 1,500 which represents slightly more than five percent of the classroom teachers in Oklahoma public schools.

APPENDIX C

ADMINISTRATIVE PERMISSION LETTER

FOR SURVEY DISTRIBUTION

Jane Doe, Principal,
Sample High School
C/O John Doe, Superintendent
P. O. Box 000
Sample, OK 73000

February 21, 1991

Dear Ms, Doe,

I am a doctoral candidate in Educational Administration at Oklahoma State University and by a process of random sampling, the faculty of your school have been chosen to participate in the data collection phase of my dissertation. I would appreciate it if you would distribute the enclosed surveys to the teachers in your building. Please inform them that their answers will be anonymous and that your school will not be identified by name in the study. This survey is being sent to 1,500 randomly selected teachers in Oklahoma, so their responses will be part of a large sample. If you have more teachers than you received surveys, please randomly distribute the forms.

If the policy of your district suggests that you obtain central office approval before allowing teacher participation in research studies, please forward a copy of this letter and a survey to the appropriate central office person to obtain their approval. If central office approval is not necessary, then please distribute the enclosed surveys as soon as possible.

Please note that this research survey has been approved by my Doctoral Committee at OSU. If you desire, please call my dissertation advisor, Dr. Kay Bull (405) 744-6040, if you have any questions regarding the authenticity of this study.

I am dependent upon you to distribute the enclosed surveys and SAS envelopes. If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact my advisor by phone as listed above, call me at my school (918) 831-3300, or call collect at my home (918) 838-7306.

Sincerely,

Ronald E. Foore
Doctoral Candidate, OSU
P. O. Box 906156
Tulsa, OK 74112

APPENDIX D

CORRESPONDENCE LETTER WITH AUTHORS

OF INSTRUMENTS

Dr. Patrick B. Forsyth
UCEA
116 Farmers Building
Tempe, Arizona 85287-2211

January 3, 1991

Dear Dr. Forsyth,

By way of introduction, I am a doctoral candidate at Oklahoma State University. I am in the midst of my dissertation, and my thesis concerns the relationship of teacher autonomy to reward preference.

In researching the area of autonomy instruments, Dr. Lynn Arney suggested that I investigate the instrument that you and Dr. Danisiewicz developed which you published in the article titled, "Toward a Theory of Professionalization" in the February, 1985, issue of *Work and Occupations*. I have discovered that this is a great instrument which covers both areas of Hall's Theory of Autonomy: Autonomy from Client and Autonomy from Organization; which means your instrument fits in well with my research ideas and I hope to include it in my questionnaire. Your instrument would be coupled with survey questions regarding reward preferences from the TIPS survey written by Joan Binder (University of Massachusetts) as well as topical demographic data. I appreciated the article which you wrote and have cited it in my dissertation. My committee members and department faculty speak highly of you and your reputation is truly regarded at OSU.

I would be happy to forward to you the statistical conclusions of my research, once it has been completed, if you wish. I also would appreciate a correspondence from your office regarding this communication, which I will include in my dissertation appendix.

Sincerely,

Ronald E. Foore
Doctoral Candidate, EAHED
Oklahoma State University

5814 East 21st Place
Tulsa, OK 74114-2312

UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
Headquartered at Arizona State University, College of Education
116 Farmer Building • Tempe, Arizona 85287-2211
PHONE: 602-965-6690 • FAX: 602-965-9144

March 4, 1991

Ronald E. Foore
5814 East 21st Place
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74114-2312

Dear Mr. Foore:

Thank you for your letter of March 3 requesting permission to use the measures of attitudinal autonomy developed by Thomas Danisiewicz and myself and described in *Work and Occupations*, Vol. 12, No. 1, February 1985. You are welcome to use these instruments and I would be happy to provide any information relative to their use that may not be clear from the article.

Good luck with your research.

Cordially,

Patrick B. Forsyth
Executive Director

Dr. Joan Binder
P. O. Box 625
Charleston, NH 03603

January 3, 1991

Dear Dr. Binder,

I am a doctoral candidate in educational administration at Oklahoma State University. My dissertation thesis concerns the area of teacher autonomy and reward preferences.

In researching the area of teacher reward and incentive preferences, I discovered the TIPS instrument which you wrote in conjunction with your dissertation at the University of Massachusetts. In preparing my data collection questionnaire, I hope to incorporate the subscale questions dealing with incentives (pp. 244-245 in your dissertation) in relation to autonomy scales published by Dr. Patrick Forsyth in research he performed in 1985.

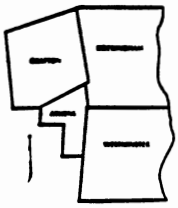
Your work will be duly cited in my dissertation. I appreciate the fine work that you did in the research which I have read and I and my doctoral committee feel that it fits in perfectly with my research objectives.

I will be happy to forward to you the statistical conclusions of my research, once it has been completed, if you wish. I also would appreciate a correspondence from your office regarding this communication, which I will include in my dissertation appendix.

Sincerely,

Ronald E. Foore
Doctoral Candidate
Oklahoma State University

5814 E. 21st Place
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74114-2312



WINDHAM NORTHEAST SUPERVISORY UNION
Atkinson Street Building
BELLOWS FALLS, VERMONT 05101

HUGH C. HAGGERTY
SUPERINTENDENT
802 463-9958

GERALD A. DENNIS
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT
802 463-9958

March 25, 1991

Mr. Ronald E. Foore
Doctoral Canadidate
Oklahoma State University
5814 E. 21st Place
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74114-2312

Dear Mr. Foore,

Thank you for your correspondence informing me of your intent to utilize the TIPS instrument, which I developed during my dissertation on teacher incentive and reward systems, in your research data for your own doctoral study.

I would appreciate a copy of your statistical conclusions and applaud your effort to conduct further investigation into the area of teacher autonomy and reward preferences.

I wish you luck in your pursuit of your doctorate in educational administration. Please do not hesitate to contact me if I can be of assistance.

Sincerely,

Joan Binder

Joan Binder, Ed.D

VITA

Ronald E. Foore

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY ON REWARD STRUCTURE PREFERENCE

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, February 27, 1950, the son of Dale E. and Mary G. Foore. Married to Nanette R. Foore.

Education: Graduated from Will Rogers High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received Bachelor of Arts in Education from Northeastern State College in Tahlequah, 1972; received Master of Education degree at Northeastern State College in 1974; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1991.

Professional Experience: Educator, Tulsa Public Schools, August, 1972 to Present.