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UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

SUPERVISORY BELIEFS AND BEHAVIORS ASSOCIATED WITH VETERAN TEACHER MOTIVATION

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

LINDA JONES
Norman, Oklahoma
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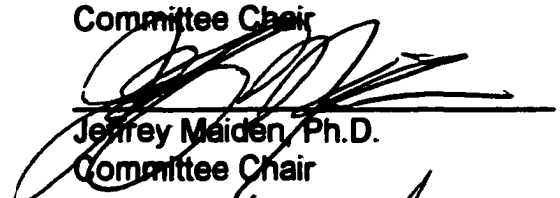
SUPERVISORY BELIEFS AND BEHAVIORS ASSOCIATED WITH VETERAN TEACHER MOTIVATION

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

BY



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To my mother, Mildred Venters, for believing in your children.

Your life has been an example of sacrifice and paying the price

to do what is right. You are the hero in our family.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined how principals view the supervision of veteran teachers, and identified supervisory beliefs and behaviors that may affect veteran teacher motivation. Two interviews with six elementary principals were conducted. First interviews sought data that describe the broad context of supervision from the principals' perspectives. Second interviews sought data to describe conditions that support or inhibit veteran motivation. Five supervisory belief themes were identified: (a) empowerment, (b) trust and professional treatment, (c) caring climate, (d) recognition, and (e) growth. Belief themes paralleled what principals identified as needs of veteran teachers. Findings suggested little consensus regarding the meaning of teacher motivation, processes that foster motivation, de-motivators, and challenges principals face in the supervision of veteran teachers. Findings suggested consensus regarding the meaning of teacher autonomy. Demographics showed veterans outnumber novices two-to-one among participants' work sites. Implications included (a) greater emphasis in training and staff development for principals regarding age-related issues that affect the supervision of veterans, and (b) conferences designed for consensus-building among principals in order that common information regarding motivation is broadened, and informed, collaborative support can occur. Suggestions for future research included studies comparing veteran teachers' perceived needs to principals' perceptions of veterans' needs to determine whether discrepancies emerge and, if so, where.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Most teachers, when asked to ponder whether their administrators are providing what they need from supervision in order to grow positively in the profession, will respond with a resounding *negative*. Few teachers will report a "satisfactory or better" supervisory relationship. Administrators are too "often viewed as barriers rather than conduits" to growth (Carr 1997, p. 242). The general feeling among teachers regarding supervision is one of "indifference or hostility" (Blumberg, 1980, p. 14).

A study conducted by Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) offered concurring and disturbing observations. The perspectives of 114 teachers from two states were sought and examined to discover what teachers say they need, want, and get from supervision. One emergent theme from this study was *Supervision as a Meaningless/Invisible Routine*. Zepeda and Ponticell reported, "for a good portion of teachers in both states, supervision could also be a . . . shallow and hollow ritual in which neither teacher nor supervisor was invested and from which nothing meaningful or useful resulted" (p. 19).

Many supervisors, when evaluating the worth of their supervisory efforts, report almost polar perceptions from those of the teachers (Blumberg, 1980). That is, while most teachers view an administrator's supervision as a waste of time, administrators view their own contributions as beneficial.

For veteran teachers, the supervision outlook is even worse. The growth

needs for veteran teachers require different supervisory approaches (Brundage, 1996). Nevertheless, "supervision for veteran teachers appears largely ignored," and is in need of research to gain greater insight into what those approaches should be (p. 94). Of the little research available on the supervision of veteran teachers, Starratt (1992) pointed out that almost none report any actual behavioral changes.

Richardson, Short, and Prickett (1993) declared that "without teachers who are motivated to teach, the search for excellence will be in vain," (p.171). Simply said, unmotivated teachers make for unmotivated students. The trickle down effect implies that no lasting and productive growth can be expected in America's schools and classrooms when the needs of the adults in charge are either disregarded or unrecognized.

Benefits to teacher motivation are to be gained from providing opportunity for teachers to become more autonomous practitioners. Research has indicated that autonomous behaviors may lead to increased effectiveness. In fact, autonomy has been identified as an innate human need (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1994). Autonomous individuals operate both independently and interdependently, set personal goals, and exercise self-evaluation (Costa & Garmston, 1994).

Autonomy may be harder to achieve in some veteran teachers, however. Those who have been supervised under a more traditional, authority-driven model may feel uncomfortable with idea of control over their work (Poole, 1995). Additionally, the tendency among some veteran teachers to avoid

risk-taking poses a hindrance to autonomous practice.

For managers of education, administrators in particular, motivating those in their charge is the prime call of duty, albeit a difficult one (McCall, 1997). Some consider a principal's most important and most difficult job to be that of motivating the staff to perform beyond a level of mere competence (McCall, 1997). "It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of the principal's role as motivator. . . . It is crucial" (p. 99).

For motivation to be enhanced through supervision, it is critical that principals recognize the needs of their veteran teachers. If what teachers need from an administrator versus what they get creates a gulf, it is unlikely their own motivation will be ensured or their autonomy enhanced. Further, if the unique needs of veteran teachers are not recognized, those needs cannot be met or nurtured. If teachers' needs go unmet, it cannot be expected that their classroom performances will be improved.

Some questions emerge from this discussion. Given that teacher motivation is recognized as critical to successful schools and directly impacts students, do administrators consciously address the motivation needs of teachers? Can veteran teacher motivation be fostered within the supervisory relationship? What supervisory behaviors enhance veteran teacher motivation?

Background

One of the most perplexing questions in the study of human behavior is, *Why*. Understanding why an individual chooses certain behaviors over

others and why an individual will sustain certain behaviors while other behaviors are abandoned, holds continued intrigue for philosophers and researchers. Answers to the question of why people do the things they do are complex and not always easily discovered, but the quest endures.

Thousands of pieces of literature have been devoted to the subject of motivation. Thompson (1996) estimated that over 40,000 documents have been produced that address human motivation, and he indicated that this estimate is probably low. It is clear that answers to questions of human motivation, though elusive, are hotly pursued and deemed important.

For many, the importance of understanding human motivation is tightly connected to the functions of their jobs or daily lives. Teachers endeavor to find ways of fostering the engagement of learning in their students; school administrators and business managers search for keys to unlocking greater productivity and growth in their subordinates; parents strive to find the buttons that make their children "tick." The challenge in each of these examples is clear. "Even motivating ourselves is challenge enough. . . .we all have our hands full just trying to generate our own motivation" (Reeve, 1996, p. 1). However, Reeve (1996) proclaimed that it is possible to learn the skills necessary to motivate others.

Those who manage adults in the workplace daily face the frustrations of dealing with unmotivated persons. There is ample consensus among theorists and practitioners alike that unmotivated people deter the organizational goal of excellence; therefore, it is critical to understand human

behavior in order to identify motivational processes (Bess, 1997; Imundo, 1991; Reeve, 1996; Richardson et al., 1993).

Since the 1960s, educational research has produced much literature suggesting ways an administrator can influence teachers to rise above a mere level of competence. Most supervision textbooks include a chapter or portion thereof devoted to human resources management. Those chapters include discussion of the well-known and tested theories of motivation as applicable to organizational structures. The theories are often inadequate in that they are incomplete or impractical (Newsom, 1990). Usually authors also include a checklist of supervisory behaviors or some schemata outlining elements that enhance motivation and productivity.

It is clear that authors of supervision literature view motivation of staff as a vital concern, perhaps even a duty of the supervisor (e.g., Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996; McCall, 1997; Richardson et al., 1993). Yet, unmotivated personnel, in particular late-career teachers (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990), continue to permeate schools.

From the business sector, in *The Effective Supervisor's Handbook*, Imundo (1991) indicated that most supervisors do not have the behavioral science training, nor the time to adequately apply the management practices that have been developed in business literature. A seminal work from the education sector offered like sentiments. In *Supervision and Teachers: A Private Cold War*, Blumberg (1980) asserted that very little effort has been expended on motivation in professional education. Other researchers

supported this claim by specifying that more motivation research in education is in order (Kay & Chritophel, 1995; Newsom, 1990; Steers & Porter, 1991).

Indeed, a vast amount of time and literature over this century has focused on motivation theory and human behavior in the workplace, yet "the techniques for applying theory to practice are at relatively low levels of development" (Imundo, 1991, p. 33). Steers and Porter (1991) agreed that in spite of decades of advances in the development of psychological models and "managerial attention to motivation" (p. 14) the role of motivation in organizations as related to psychological models is a fairly modern phenomenon.

Compounding the principal's daunting charge to motivate teachers is the complexity of the concept of motivation. Understanding motivation requires understanding of human relationships, human behavior, and perceived needs (Blumberg, 1980; Imundo, 1991; Steers & Porter, 1991). Human motivation is hinged upon a cycle of perceived needs and the actions necessary to satisfy those needs (Imundo, 1991).

Thus, if teachers' perceptions are that their needs are not being met, the logic follows that motivation will suffer. For principals to "continually explore ways to motivate teachers and staff" (Richardson et al., 1993, p. 171), they must be in tune with the needs of those individuals. To remain vigilant in finding ways to motivate their staffs, principals must be aware of their own personal belief systems that drive their supervisory behaviors.

Problem Statement

A common thought in much of the literature that deals with motivation in the workplace is that the research and/or applications are in need of further examination. Though motivation research and literature are expansive and cross numerous vocational fields, researchers uniformly and often explicitly have called for more (Blumberg, 1980; Kay & Christophel, 1995; Cross, 1981; Newsom, 1990; Steers & Porter, 1991). Assuming that people will learn and do exactly what they *want* to learn and do is true, then motivation may be "potentially the most productive line of research" (Cross, 1981, p. xx).

One clear benchmark of a motivated individual is autonomy. Autonomy, or self-directed behavior, is a defining element in many motivation theories and applied models. Autonomy distinguishes intrinsically-controlled behaviors from extrinsically-controlled behaviors. Autonomous behaviors are characterized by self-directed, full engagement; they are intrinsically controlled. Additionally, self-directed, or self-determined behaviors often result in increased performance, one of the primary goals in education.

Research provides significant indications that autonomous behaviors are "of higher quality and have more positive correlates than controlled behaviors" (Deci & Ryan, 1994, p. 5). Clear benefits are to be gained from providing opportunities for teachers to become more autonomous practitioners.

Veteran teachers, in particular, have been socialized into a type of regulatory supervision in which the administrator is viewed as the one with the power and professional judgment (Brundage, 1996). Experienced teachers

often do not view themselves "as experts possessing reliable, practical knowledge," though they are likely to have a greater knowledge base and experience level than the supervisor (p. 93). To strengthen a veteran teacher's sense of autonomy, a principal must understand the need for encouragement and affirmation of the experienced teacher's abilities (Brundage, 1996; McBride & Skau, 1995).

Promoting veteran teacher autonomy and enhancing teacher motivation may require the principal to obtain a body of motivation knowledge from which to draw. Motivation literature is prolific. Applications of theory in the form of models and adaptations to models abound. With all that has been written to help supervisors perform their jobs more effectively, the questions arise of whether principals know what the literature has to offer and whether they are readily turning to it for guidance.

Perhaps what administrators know to do, they are not doing. Perhaps what administrators know to do is not working. Conceivably, the principal may view suggested behaviors in the literature as unrealistic given the demands of the administrator's job. Further inquiry into principal supervision of veteran teachers may lead to the discovery of some important gaps in an administrator's training and understanding with regard to the motivation needs of the veteran teacher. An examination of administrators' beliefs with regard to supervisory practices and their own supervisory beliefs may bring about a clearer understanding of where motivation efforts for veteran teachers fall short.

Purpose of the Study

This study was encompassed in two endeavors. The first was to gain an understanding of how principals view the supervision of teachers. More specifically, perceptions were sought to describe *how* principals think about supervision, *what* they claim their supervisory practices are, and *why* they choose those practices. The second endeavor was to discover, or infer among the principals' perceptions, any specific beliefs or behaviors that affect the motivation of their veteran teachers.

Research Questions

Primarily, the purpose of this study was to collect, describe, and examine the perceptions of elementary school principals with regard to their beliefs and behaviors associated with veteran teacher motivation. What supervisory behaviors promote growth and support the motivation of veteran teachers? What supervisory behaviors restrict the motivation of veteran teachers? In order to answer these questions, it was necessary to examine the perceptions of administrators. To direct this process, the following research questions were considered:

1. How do administrators describe the supervisory process?
2. What do administrators identify as beliefs and behaviors that direct their supervisory processes?
3. How do administrators describe the meaning and intent of teacher motivation?

4. How do administrators describe behaviors that enhance motivation in veteran teachers?
5. What do administrators view as factors that inhibit motivation in veteran teachers?

Definition of Terms

Motivation – ". . .what energizes human behavior, what directs or channels such behavior, and how this behavior is maintained" (Steers & Porter, 1991, p. 6); ". . . the conditions and processes that activate, direct, and sustain behavior" (Bess, 1997, p. 4); ". . . the internal processes that give behavior its energy and direction in multiple ways such as starting, sustaining, intensifying, focusing, and stopping (Reeve, 1996, p. 2); "Work motivation is the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain work-related behaviors toward achievement of personal goals." (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 168, cited in Thompson, 1996, p. 4).

Motive – ". . . need, want, drive or impulse directed toward goals which may be conscious or subconscious" (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996, p. 27).

Drive – specific energizers (such as hunger and thirst) toward or away from certain goals (Steers & Porter, 1991).

Autonomy – self-directed behavior; intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1994).

Professional autonomy – discretionary decision-making in the workplace; the ability to make informed decisions by observing and gathering information, analyzing that information, and accepting responsibility for the outcomes of one's decisions (Burk & Fry, 1997); ". . . .the degree to which a person has freedom, discretion, and independence to schedule and carry out the work" (Thompson, 1996, p. 21).

Supervision – ". . .the giving and receiving of help regarding performance of some task or the resolution of a problem" (Blumberg, 1980, p. 18); ". . . the function in schools that draws together the discrete elements of instructional effectiveness into whole-school action." (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995, p. 5); ". . . a partnership in inquiry." (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988); leadership which coordinates and manages school activities to improve learning (Wiles & Bondi, 1986).

Veteran teacher – For the purposes of this study, veteran teacher signifies one whose teaching experience ranges from seven years and beyond. Other terms that may be used interchangeably with *veteran teacher* in this study, and from the literature reviewed in chapter two, include: experienced teacher, tenured teacher, mid-career teacher, late-career teacher.

Significance of the Study

While numerous studies examining human motivation exist, most of them in education examine student motivation. Of the little research available on teacher motivation, almost none focus on the needs of veteran teachers.

Additionally, much of the available research on supervision needs of teachers addresses the beginning teacher or the problem teacher. As the "graying" of America's teaching force continues its numerical climb, it is increasingly important to focus on the needs of mid- and late-career teachers.

Many qualitative studies in education seek the perspectives of teachers in data collection. While gathering the perspectives of teachers is critical in gaining understanding of their supervision needs, the picture is incomplete without the perspectives of the administrators as well. It is believed that in collecting the administrators' perspectives, some important pieces of the supervision puzzle can be found, and that articulating those perspectives will lead to an increased understanding of the principal/teacher relationship.

Along with noting aspects that emerged in the examination of collected data, the intent of this study was to identify "gaps" in current practices that may account for inhibited motivation in veteran teachers. It was hoped that this study would provide a fuller understanding of supervisory beliefs and corresponding behaviors that play significant roles in supporting or inhibiting motivation in veteran teachers.

Assumptions

Certain assumptions served significant roles in the gathering and analysis of data for this study. Those assumptions were:

1. Building and maintaining motivation in veteran teachers are important aspects in the pursuit of achieving effective schools.

2. Principals are the best source of data for this particular study.
3. Participants are able to describe behaviors that enhance and inhibit motivation in veteran teachers.
4. Participants' responses reflect their perceptions honestly and accurately.

Limitations

Limitations of this study included:

1. The concept of motivation can be elusive and necessitates articulation of definitions. Definitions require interpretation. Participants' understanding of motivation may differ from one another's and from the researcher's. Therefore, data results were not intended to be representative of all possible perceptions of behaviors that enhance and inhibit motivation.
2. Data were collected early in the first semester and early in the second semester of the school year. It is possible that perceptions would have been different later in the school year when staff schedules tend to be fuller.
3. The data were gathered from elementary principals from three suburban school districts within one state. Generalizations may or may not apply to other school districts of similar description across states.

Researcher Perspective and Personal Rationale

My interest in the supervisory needs of veteran teachers and the motivation for conducting this study stemmed from my personal experiences as both a veteran teacher and a supervisor of teachers. In fact, it was my discontent as a veteran teacher that led me to the decision to become an administrator.

During my eighth year of teaching, unrest for staying in the profession developed. Two discomforting professional perceptions developed in me as well. First, it seemed a lack of administrator participation in the development of, and academic collaboration with the veteran teacher existed. Second, a perception grew that principals perhaps were unaware of the needs of experienced teachers. Therefore, my understanding of collaborative growth from supervision was limited to what I had read in journals.

First-hand experience as a supervisor of veteran and new teachers helped me see some supervision inequities. Programs that tended to the needs of beginning teachers were rather well-established in the public schools. However, programs for experienced teachers were nonexistent. It seemed veteran teachers were left to their own devices and left to their own growth plans or lack thereof.

It is my hope that the efforts of this study will contribute to the meaningful understanding of the supervision needs of veteran teachers. From this meaningful understanding, it is hoped that fruitful dialogue among stakeholders will result in better supervision practices for veteran teachers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature selected for this chapter serves as a backdrop for better understanding the issues related to this study. This study addressed supervisory beliefs as they affect veteran teacher motivation. As the study of motivation is widely faceted, it is probable that a number of important and related motivation aspects are likely to influence supervisory relationships. Therefore, in addition to an overview of selected motivation theories, conditions such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and autonomy are also presented.

The supervision of veteran teachers, likewise, is affected by a number of related issues. Historical frames of reference for supervisory roles and the theory bases that have influenced those roles adds another layer of understanding to the complexities of human supervision. Accordingly, a brief historical overview of supervision is presented along with current literature that addresses conditions related to the supervision needs of veteran teachers.

Motivation Theory Overview

Motivation as a psychological concept has been embraced as having sound potential to add meaning and perhaps even influence in the lives of people (Bess, 1997). It is mistakenly thought of by some, however, as a unitary concept (Deci & Ryan, 1994; Reeve, 1996). That is to say, motivation

is approached as if it only varies in amount and degree of intensity. Instead, there are many types of motivation identified by theorists, such as the motivation to learn new things, performance motivation, the propensities to seek success or avoid failure, and intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation (Reeve, 1996).

The word motivation is a Latin derivation of *movere*, meaning "to move." Definitions of motivation abound, but most include three factors: (a) activation, (b) direction, and (c) sustainment. From an analysis of definitions, Steers and Porter (1991) explained motivation as the merging of three elements: (a) what energizes a behavior, (b) what guides the behavior, and (c) how the behavior is maintained. Reeve (1996) similarly interpreted motivation as processes that energize and direct behavior. Energy implies a level of strength and persistency, while direction implies an aim or purpose. The processes within an individual are needs, emotions, and cognitions.

Foundational to the origin of motivation theory is the principle of hedonism, the tendency to seek pleasure and to avoid pain. The prevalence of hedonism in motivation theory continued until the end of the nineteenth century (Steers & Porter, 1991). From that time, three distinct waves of change influenced motivation theory development throughout the twentieth century. Figure 1 shows the progression of those changes.

The first theories to break from hedonism focused on instinct (Berlyne, 1971). Three noted psychologists, McDougall, James, and Freud, each

made contributions to instinct theory (Steers & Porter, 1991). McDougall (1908) characterized instinct as inherited or innate. James (1890), however, described instincts as unaware and automatic behaviors that included curiosity, love, and fear. Freud's (1915) work turned thoughts toward unconscious motivations–behaviors such as dreaming and errors in one's speech or writing, later known as "Freudian slips."

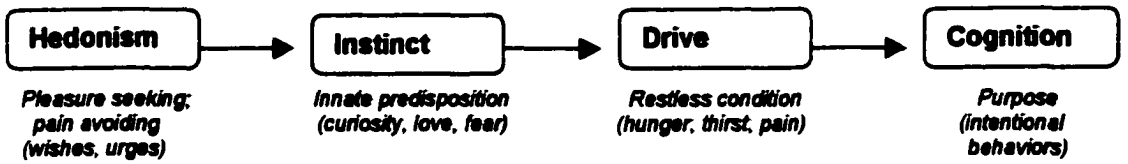


Figure 1. Major transitions of thought and research in motivation theory development. (Developed from Berlyne, 1971; Steers & Porter, 1991.)

By the 1920s instinct theories began to be challenged. One criticism was that the number of instincts identified rose well into the thousands. Questions also arose as to whether unconscious motivations were actually learned behaviors. These charges led to the next wave of motivation theory that focused on drives (Steers & Porter, 1991). Historically, human drives have been presented in the literature as akin to instinct. Drive has also been described as a condition of discomfort or restlessness (Berlyne, 1971).

The third wave of change in motivation theory came in the 1930s with the emergence of cognitive theory (Steers & Porter, 1991). Cognitive theory suggested human behavior is "purposeful," that one anticipates future events. One's belief or values about his or her environment *at present*, impact future behavioral choices. Basically, cognitive theories are founded upon the interaction of two variables–beliefs about behavior outcomes (later known as

"expectancies") and values of those outcomes (later termed "valance"). Cognitive theories have continued as a foundational venue for motivational research through the decades from the 1930s to the present.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The notion of intrinsic versus extrinsic factors is implicit in many theories of motivation. The inner motivational resources one can draw upon when faced with goals or challenges fall into three categories (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Reeve, 1996). The categories are psychological needs, cognitive domain, and emotional states.

Psychological needs include self-determination, competence, and relatedness. Cognitive domain areas address self-efficacy, achievement, goal setting, and personal control beliefs. Emotional states include curiosity, interest, personal pleasure, and enjoyment. Each state influences motivation.

Intrinsic motivational factors may be likened to one's inclinations, interests, capacities, strivings, curiosity, and spontaneity (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Reeve, 1996). Even in the absence of external rewards or influences, intrinsically-motivated behaviors are performed. The "reward" is personal enjoyment or growth. Representative of intrinsically motivated behavior is self-directed learning and autonomy.

Much of what is known regarding internal variables comes from the psychological literature, whereas external variables are more often seen in the literature related to education (Cross, 1981). It is important, though to view human behavior as a "stream of responses of the individual to his environment" (p. 130). Therefore, Cross (1981) recommended the blending

of the two schools of thought as a way to provide fuller understanding and continuity of research.

Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, is environmentally induced (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Reeve, 1996). People often rely on outer environmental resources to spur them into action. Things such as alarm clocks, deadlines, and making the grade are examples of extrinsic or outer motivational resources. Behaviors resulting from extrinsic motivation would not occur spontaneously; they are contingent upon external prompting or rewards.

Research has shown that use of extrinsic rewards can cause diminishing returns and may create an even larger appetite for further rewards (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985). A cycle is created that becomes difficult, if not impossible, to control. Perhaps most detrimental is the fact that as extrinsic rewards are used as inducements, especially for activities that might otherwise be intrinsically satisfying, intrinsic motivation may decrease.

Extrinsic Motivation in Schools

Studies have documented that the use of extrinsic influences in the schools has produced detrimental effects on students (Deci & Ryan, 1991; 1985). Educators have made assumptions that external rewards have greater power than intrinsic rewards to motivate behavior. An added complication to the use of external rewards with school children is that often behaviors that are extrinsically motivated *look the same* as those intrinsically motivated.

In an investigation of this dilemma, Deci and Ryan (1985), posed the question of what would happen to an individual's intrinsic motivation if he or

she began to receive extrinsic rewards for an intrinsically motivated activity in which he or she is already engaged. Unfortunately, the findings of the study supported that an individual is less likely to repeat the activity of his or her own volition. This loss is referred to as "the hidden cost of rewards" by Lepper and Green (1978, cited in Reeve, 1996).

The "hidden cost of rewards" is evident among adult populations as well. Clearly, the value school cultures have placed on external rewards is misguided and has not been successful (Hayden, 1993). Inducing behavioral change through external rewards creates a quandary when applied to adults. For example, applying merit pay systems for teachers is complex (Walker & Symons, 1997). Measuring teaching performance inevitably relates back to student performance. Influences on student learning are many, and to identify the influence of one teacher is nearly impossible. Moreover, consensus on criteria for measuring the success of teaching or learning has not been easy to develop.

Fortunately, the effects of the use of extrinsic influences to motivate are not always negative (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Reeve, 1996). Two examples illustrate some positive effects of extrinsic factors. First, if motivation for a given task is low to begin with, extrinsic factors do not pose a threat to intrinsic motivation. When almost no intrinsic motivation is present for a task, extrinsic factors act as a contingency for accomplishment of the task. Another example of positive effects from extrinsic factors is the wise use of verbal praise. If verbal praise, or feedback, is specific and connected to a goal attempt, increased motivation is fostered.

The challenge in balancing the use of extrinsic and intrinsic influences lies

in the discerning use of each. Motivation research findings for the use of extrinsic rewards runs a little counterintuitive to what many have believed is good practice (Reeve, 1996), namely using prizes and incentives to increase the odds of compliance. Yet, removing all extrinsic factors may actually inhibit motivation in certain circumstances, especially as a means-to-an-end contingency for what some may view as dull activities. A multi-dimensional approach is advisable, one that incorporates strategies using both intrinsic factors (autonomous and self-directed) and extrinsic factors (environmentally imposed or awarded).

Selected Theories/Models of Motivation

Steers and Porter (1991) examined sets of variables among numerous motivation theories. They constructed a general model that is simplified but representative of the major models most commonly cited in the literature. The basic elements of the general model are (a) needs or expectations, (b) behavior, (c) goals, and (d) feedback, in some form.

Motivation is often described in terms of needs, which if unmet, activate behavior. A need-satisfaction cycle is created whereby an individual chooses behaviors that he or she perceives or anticipates can reduce or satisfy the need (Imundo, 1991; Steers & Porter, 1991). Needs activate a sense of disequilibrium that triggers the "move" to accommodate those needs. Needs represent the "stimuli" while "motivation" is represented by the observable, directed behavior (Imundo, 1991). Once satisfied, the need is no longer a motivator (Thompson, 1996).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Need satisfaction as a motivator has filled much of the motivation theory literature. Humans share a number of universal needs (food, water, air, and so forth), yet the needs cannot be commonly ranked for all people (Imundo, 1991). The intensity felt and priority placed on needs are as individual as the persons sensing them.

Maslow (1954) is attributed as providing a classic framework for understanding the connection between need satisfaction and motivation (Glickman et al., 1995; Hayden, 1993; Hersey et al., 1996; Thompson, 1996). Needs are arranged in an ordered dominance, that is, as the most primary or potent need is satisfied, a second-order need emerges as dominant. This hierarchy provides a limited explanation of what happens to an individual's motivation once a "lower" need has been satisfied. The individual will seek behaviors that he or she views capable of satiating the strongest present need.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs begins with physiological needs. Basic biological needs such as food, water, and sleep are considered prime above all. Until these needs are fulfilled, at least partially, it is very unlikely an individual will put forth any effort in meeting other kinds of needs. Next in the hierarchy are needs related to safety, or security. Safety needs include physical and financial security, order, stability, and freedom from the fear that these needs will not be met in the future. Once safety needs are met (again, at least minimally), a need for social belonging will be considered most important. To satisfy the need for social belonging, an individual will seek both identity and acceptance through friendships, meaningful and affectionate

relationships, and affiliations with groups.

When needs to belong have begun to be met, an individual will seek esteem from his or her social groups. To satisfy the esteem need, an individual may seek recognition through taking leadership roles or holding various "status" positions within the group. The goal is affirmation of one's competence, and building of one's self-confidence and self-esteem. Sometimes, however, a child or adult will seek to satisfy esteem needs through *inappropriate* ways (Hersey et al., 1996). For example, a child may show off or act out, while an adult may become argumentative or disruptive at work.

Finally, if one has achieved the regard of others to the point his or her sense of power and ability are intact, self-actualization needs come to the fore. While at the previous level, esteem was sought through the approval of others, at the self-actualization level, one seeks to maximize his or her own personal potential according to his or her personal values. Following one's own road to achievement is motivation based on self-actualization needs. Maslow (1954) himself said:

> Even if all [needs are satisfied] . . . a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what he is fitted for. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man *can* be, he *must* be. (p. 91)

Considerations are advisable when applying Maslow's hierarchy. First, Hersey et al., (1996) related that Maslow did not intend the needs to be representative across all people in all situations. Instead, Maslow viewed the needs list and order as *typical*, but contextually influenced. Second, Glickman et al., (1995), pointed out that the developmental nature of humans

necessitates differences in needs.

Although need stages are achieved in ordered succession, the time increments for reaching each varies considerably among people. Further, "retreat can occur" due to crises or major life changes (Glickman et al., 1995, p. 66). In other words, a job change may cause an otherwise confident person (esteem needs) to revisit the social belonging (acceptance) level.

It is the reiterative nature of need satisfaction that has influenced the figurative rendition of the hierarchy as cyclical rather than linear (See Figure 2). Large arrows represent linear progression of need satisfaction, while small arrows represent retreats to former need areas.

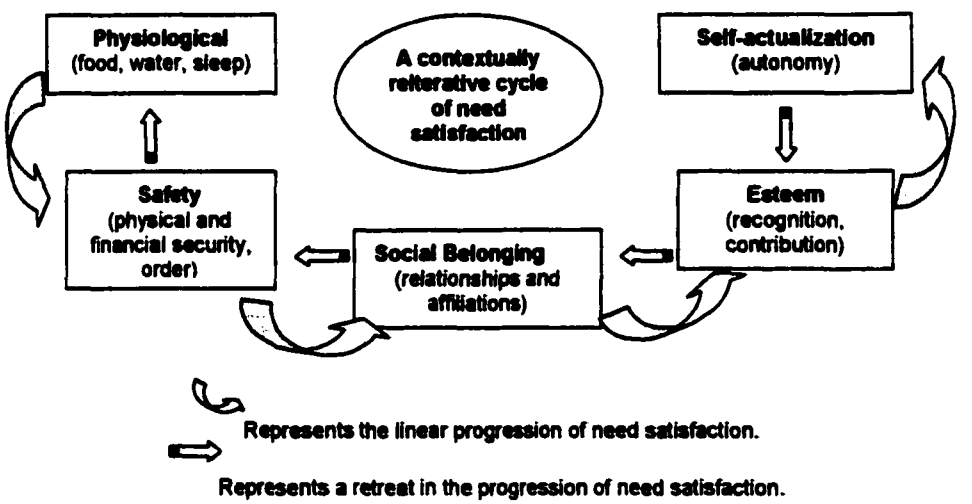


Figure 2. Representation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as reiterative cycles. (Developed from Glickman et al., 1995; Hersey et al., 1996; Thompson, 1996)

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg (1966) viewed human motivation as two-dimensional. He believed man sought to satiate two basic needs: (a) the need to avoid pain,

and (b) the need for psychological growth. This view provided a premise for understanding intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. From Herzberg's study of the motivations of engineers and accountants, he and fellow researchers discovered distinct differences between what they termed hygiene factors (extrinsic influences) and satisfiers (intrinsic influences).

Hygiene factors, also known as dissatisfiers or maintenance factors, are tangible conditions in the workplace. They include organizational policy, technical supervision, salary, status, job security, interpersonal relationships, and work conditions. Herzberg found that when hygiene factors were not sufficiently maintained, workers became dissatisfied. However, when hygiene factors were sufficiently maintained, workers did not necessarily become satisfied, they merely were *not* dissatisfied. Maintenance of hygiene factors, therefore, was not shown to improve workers' motivation (Glickman et al., 1995; Hayden, 1993; Thompson, 1996). Maintenance of hygiene factors was shown to provide a better foundation from which satisfiers could operate.

Satisfiers, also known as motivators, are intangible factors that can lead to increased motivation. Motivators are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and possibility of growth. When sufficiently present, satisfiers contribute to job satisfaction and enhance motivation (Thompson, 1996). Satisfiers are intrinsic and growth oriented. Individuals who see evidence of satisfiers in the workplace and have the opportunity to pursue them, are more likely to move toward self-actualization (Glickman et al., 1995; Hayden, 1993).

Replications of Herzberg's study in educational settings have rendered similar results (e.g., Blumberg, 1980; Hayden, 1993; Silver, 1982). Hayden

(1993) reported that schools are more readily applying Herzberg's concepts to staff development. Thompson (1996) urged principals to create conditions that allow opportunity for teachers' higher needs to be satisfied.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

References to McGregor's (1960) work often appear in educational supervision textbooks and classes (e.g., Acheson & Gall, 1992; Hersey et al., Thompson, 1996; Wiles & Bondi, 1986). McGregor's theory work may not constitute a motivation theory in the truest sense, but the theory provides an explanation of how supervisors view and work with those who are within their charge (Thompson, 1996).

According to McGregor, people may be perceived through one of two viewpoints or orientations. For example, a supervisor with a Theory X orientation sees others as lazy, unmotivated, and averse to work. He or she probably relies upon extrinsic influences, or "carrot-and-stick" approaches to motivating employees. On the other hand, a supervisor with a Theory Y orientation sees others as naturally enjoying work and receiving satisfaction from it. A Theory Y supervisor motivates others through providing growth opportunities, challenges, promoting autonomy, and offering recognition (Thompson, 1996; Todes, McKinney, & Ferguson, 1977).

Sergiovanni (1992) developed three "rules of motivation" that provide an interesting interpretation of McGregor's orientations. He explained the Theory X orientation as grounded in the belief that "What gets rewarded gets done" (p. 27), the first rule of motivation. Conversely, if there is no reward, there is no effort. Theory Y orientation, however, is grounded in the belief, or

second rule of motivation, "What is rewarding gets done" (p. 27). In this orientation, there is no dependency upon extrinsic rewards; motivation is intrinsic. An alternative to Theory X and Theory Y provides the third rule of motivation. Based on principles of moral leadership and shared values, the third rule of motivation is, "What is good gets done" (p. 27). Motivation in this belief system is synonymous with fulfilling one's duties or obligations.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's (1964) motivation theory was predicated upon three conditions: (a) the relationship between effort and performance, (b) the relationship between performance and outcomes, and (c) the perceived value of the outcomes (Hersey et al., 1996; Silver, 1982; Thompson, 1996). Expressed as *expectancies* and *valences*, these conditions are attended to in sequence, each contingent upon the former.

In the first condition, the effort-to-performance expectancy is "calculated" by an individual. He or she estimates the likelihood that a given level of effort will lead to a favorable level of performance. If that calculation is positive, motivation to expend the effort is high. The second condition, the performance-to-outcome expectancy, if calculated high, will cause the motivation process to continue. At this stage an individual assesses whether a level of performance will actually lead to a certain outcome. Finally, the perceived value of the outcomes, known as the valence, is considered. An individual will consider at this point whether the outcomes are preferable or not. If the outcomes or rewards are viewed as desirable, motivation remains high and actions follow.

The Expectancy Theory was adapted by Newsom (1990) as a diagnostic tool to determine an employee's level of motivation. This model may also be helpful in determining why motivation is low and how it may be increased. Nine aspects pertinent to work performance comprise the diagnostic tool.

Expressed as nine C's that can help managers understand employees' motivation, the aspects are grouped according to expectancies and valences. The nine C's, or aspects pertinent to work performance, were developed with the business sector in mind. However, each may be applicable to the education sector as well. Figure 3 displays the nine C's with questions adapted for principals as guides in their assessment of the teachers they supervise.

Relation to Expectancy	Questions to Guide Principals
Effort-to-Performance 1. *Capability* 2. *Confidence* 3. *Challenge*	1. *Is the teacher competent to do the job? What can be done to develop skills and encourage growth?* 2. *Is the teacher confident that he/she can do the job? What can be done to build confidence?* 3. *Is the job too easy? What opportunities for challenge or change can be provided?*
Performance-to-Outcome 4. *Criteria* 5. *Credibility* 6. *Consistency* 7. *Compensation*	4. *Can the teacher differentiate between effective and ineffective teaching? What steps can be taken to help the teacher recognize effective teaching?* 5. *Does the teacher trust the principal? Does the teacher believe he or she is supported by the principal? How can trust and credibility be fostered?* 6. *Does the teacher recognize fairness and distinguish it from equity? What can be done to ensure comparable treatment for comparable performance?* 7. *Does the teacher receive recognition from peers and/or the principal? What are some ways to give recognition for good performance?*
8. *Cost* 9. *Communication*	8. *What does a particular assignment/duty cost the teacher in personal and professional terms? Does the cost outweigh the benefit? What can be done to minimize costs?* 9. *Does the teacher perceive communication as open and ongoing? How can comprehensive communication be built?*

Figure 3. A model of the Expectancy Theory adapted for principals. (Adapted from Newsom, 1990).

The first three C's relate to the effort-to-performance expectancies. A

manager needs to assess whether an employee is capable and confident to perform the job and whether the job presents sufficient challenge. A principal, likewise, needs to assess a veteran teacher's confidence and need for more or less challenge.

The next four C's are connected to performance-to-outcome expectancies. They include criteria for performance, manager credibility, belief in the manager's consistency, and compensation for outcomes. Perhaps principals mistakenly assume veteran teachers, by virtue of years of experience, have an innate sense of what constitutes quality teaching performance. Additionally, principals may need to consider the veteran teacher's need for "compensation" in the form of recognition.

Cost is the next consideration. This does not imply cost to the company, but cost to the employee. For example, assigning additional duties to an employee who has just experienced a serious life change will, under certain circumstances, produce diminishing returns. Taking on extra-duty responsibilities that require after-hours commitments can cause great hardships on teachers with childcare needs.

Finally, communication needs to be ongoing and comprehensive. Is communication two-way? Is communication presented in a variety of formats, both verbal and written? Are opportunities for clarification provided? Perhaps for veteran teachers especially, time spent in collaborative and meaningful dialogue is critical to promoting trust and growth. If such an atmosphere is established, teachers are likely to become more autonomous, more cognizant of their own abilities to self-direct and self-evaluate (e.g., McBride & Skau, 1995; Poole, 1994; Siens & Ebmeier, 1996).

Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory

Autonomy is fundamental to the theory of self-determination. When one's actions are dictated through personal choice and initiation, he or she is self-determined; thus, motivation is high. On the other hand, motivation is impaired if one's work or actions are externally controlled. This is especially true if the work is complex. Motivation, therefore, is predicated upon *intention* or purpose (Deci & Ryan, 1994). Some actions are *amotivated,* not regulated by any intent, such as flinching or an immediate response to anger by hitting. Those actions are not accurately termed motivation. To the degree one has a purpose for behaviors, those behaviors are considered *motivated.*

Focal to self-determination theory is the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic control (Reeve, 1996). More than a dichotomy, intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation is illustrated as a continuum of degrees to which one may range in terms of personal autonomy, or self-determination (Rigby, Deci, Patrick, & Ryan, 1992). The continuum is, in large part, expressed as types of extrinsic motivation that may result in an internalization of motivating behaviors in an individual.

The continuum of motivation, outlined in Figure 4, displays ranges of motivation, expressed as degrees of self-determination. The degrees range from absence of self-determination (no autonomy) to full self-determination (full autonomy). The types of extrinsic motivation displayed represent motivation of intent. They include external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation.

Externally regulated behaviors are intentional, but rely on prompts or rewards. They represent no self-determination. For example, an employee

may not complete his or her project without an employer's intervening with a deadline or penalty. Introjected regulation refers to behaviors that are not fully self-determined, yet do not require external prompting. The prompting comes from within the individual in the form of sensing right and wrong, or fear of guilt. In this sense, the prompting is like an outsider's voice coming from inside the individual. For instance, an employee may not choose to do his or her work because it is personally fulfilling, nor because an employer has issued a threat, but because he or she knows that neglecting the work will cause feelings of guilt over taking pay for time squandered.

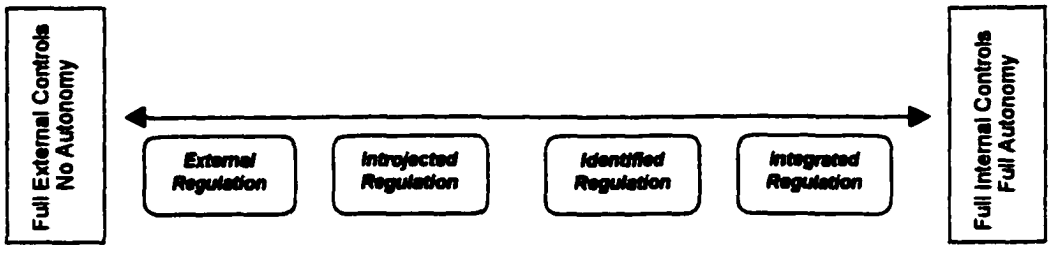


Figure 4. Motivation continuum representing the ranges of self-determined behavior. (Adapted from Deci & Ryan, 1994; Reeve, 1996; Rigby, Deci, Patrick, & Ryan, 1992.)

Next, identified regulation represents behaviors that have become integrated into one's sense of self. In the employee/employer examples cited above, an employee exercising identified regulation chooses to do his or her work because a valuation is attached to the behavior. For example, the employee may know that working hard brings fulfillment for a job well done or even aids in possible promotion, both of which he or she views as important.

Toward the far end of the motivation continuum, integrated regulation

represents the fullest form of self-determination from extrinsic motivation. At this level of motivation, one integrates values and regulations into his or her sense of self. What were once considered externally-induced regulations have now become integral to the individual's personal regulatory functions. Integrated regulation is "the most autonomous and mature extrinsic" regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1994, p. 7) and may be facilitated by social contexts that support autonomy.

Ultimately, intrinsic motivation is characterized by complete self-determined behavior. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are pursued because of the pleasure, personal interest and challenge, or satisfaction an individual derives from them. "A total involvement of the self" results from intrinsically motivated behavior (Deci & Ryan, 1994, p. 7).

Though self-determined behavior is fully autonomous, it may be enhanced through contextual conditions. For example, a study by Danner and Lonky (1981) substantiated that challenge may activate intrinsic motivation. The challenge, however, must be "optimally discrepant" from what it relatively easy or relatively difficult for the individual (Deci & Ryan, 1994, p. 8). With regard to the supervision of veteran teachers, an implication may be made that principals can create conditions that promote self-determined or autonomous behavior by providing opportunities for challenge.

Job Characteristics Model

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) of work motivation, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976), is suggested by Thompson (1996) as having "important implications for principals" in their endeavor to provide

environments in which work motivation is intrinsic (p. 20).

Three psychological states are named in JCM as necessary prerequisites to high intrinsic motivation. Those states are (a) experienced/felt meaningfulness of the work, (b) experienced/felt responsibility for the work outcomes, and (c) knowledge of work results. The psychological states are more likely induced by the presence of core job characteristics specific to each state.

Core job characteristics that influence the state of experienced/felt meaningfulness of the work are skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Next, experienced/felt responsibility for work outcomes is influenced by autonomy. Last, knowledge of work results is influenced by feedback.

Important to the application of JCM in the workplace is the understanding that psychological states occur *within* an individual. Therefore, the states are not under the direct control of the manager or principal as the case may be. The psychological states can be influenced by the presence of the core job characteristics that create conditions more likely to enhance intrinsic motivation. Providing core job characteristics is in the direct control of the principal.

Supervision Overview

The origin of business supervision is rooted in nineteenth century industrial inspections (McBride & Skau, 1995). Employers watched those in their hire to determine the levels of efficiency and productivity. Development of factories led to the viewing of men and women as producers. Since the onset

of industrialization, managers have sought tactics and programs that would motivate workers to become more and more productive (Pajak, 1993; Todes, McKinney, & Ferguson, 1977).

America's transformation and rapid growth in the late 1800s and early 1900s wedged a change in education as well as in business. The move from an agrarian society to an industrial one made the need for more and better education apparent to Americans. Monitoring teacher deficiencies along with tighter controls on curriculum were seen as means to better educating the youth. Thus, one of the first major areas for change was school governance, that is, school administration (Reese, 1992; Siens & Ebmeier, 1996).

Early supervision consisted of inspection for the purposes of monitoring and controlling the teacher's efficiency. The supervisor diagnosed the problems and prescribed the solutions. The content of early administrator programs dealt more with the technical aspects of the job rather than human relations.

Supervision literature has characterized the principal by an array of tasks. Roles have developed from inspector, answer giver, evaluator, and expert, to instructional leader, collaborator and coach (e.g., Dyer & Fontaine, 1993; Siens & Ebmeier, 1996; Wiles & Bondi, 1986). Table 1 provides a summary of supervisory roles and the beliefs that characterize them over time.

Authoritarian leadership or top-down management is "counterintuitive [but] it has persisted because teachers and educators are socialized in the model from the moment they enter school and experience institutionalized learning

for the first time" (Dyer & Fontaine, 1993, p. 29). Indeed, the field of supervision is entrenched in a prescriptive mode of thinking. Researchers and practitioners have pursued methods more fervently than they have pursued understanding (Glanz, 1995).

Table 1

Supervisory Roles and Beliefs

Time Period	Role of the Supervisor	Characterized by:
1850s	Principal-Teacher	"First among Equals"
Late 1800s – early 1900s	Inspector, diagnostician	Authoritarianism, bureaucracy
1920s	Controller, monitor	Technical management
1930s – 1940s	Participator, curriculum developer	Democracy, cooperation
1950s	Change maker, problem solver	Prescription, product-orientation
1960s – 1970s	Collaborator	Inquiry, collegiality
1980s	Instructional leader, coach	Shared decision-making, collegiality
1990s	Promoter of growth	Reflective teaching practices and self-evaluation among staff

(Developed from Dyer & Fontaine, 1993; Glickman, 1992; McBride & Skau, 1995; Pajak, 1993; Siens & Ebmeier, 1996; Wiles & Bondi, 1986)

Applications of Motivation Theory to Supervision

Theorists have provided a substantial body of motivation research within organizational theory that has served to ground and shape business supervision in this century. Herzberg (1966) added the concepts of hygiene factors (e.g., salary and work conditions) and motivating factors in the workplace. Maslow (1954) provided a logical progression for the order of meeting and satisfying human needs. McGregor (1960) contributed the well-known Theory X, that is more directive and punitive, and the Theory Y, that is more humane and self-directed. These and other models have been readily

incorporated into the business world and have been synthesized and reworked as the tenor of the times politically and economically demanded, and as newer theories of management came to the fore (Hersey et al., 1996; Richardson et al., 1993; Todes et al., 1977; Wiles & Bondi, 1986).

The progression that the business world of management took in applying motivational and organizational developments from theory to practice, was not so quick or logical in the world of education. In time educators borrowed from organizational practices in business. However, cross-situational applications were not always successful, perhaps because supervision in education cannot be completely analogous to supervision in business. Educational supervision deals with *human* products (Wiles & Bondi, 1986), full of complexity and often unpredictability.

Early educational administration texts offered examples of omission in human relations and organizational theory. By the 1950s though, influences of the social foundations and behavioral sciences had trickled into master's degree programs in education. Additionally, a major trend of increased interest in motivation theory as applied to organizational behavior and management began in the early 1960s (Steers & Porter, 1991). Most organizational behavior as well as general management and psychology research included reference to research and issues of motivation in the workplace.

In an educational administrative textbook, Blumberg (1980) asserted that efforts spent on motivation in professional education were very scarce. "Perhaps for the love of children, teachers are presumed to be highly

motivated to work well—a dubious point of view at best" (p. 92). Nevertheless, a vast amount of time and literature over this century has focused on motivation theory and human behavior in the workplace, yet "the techniques for applying theory to practice are at relatively low levels of development" (p. 33). Steers and Porter (1991) agreed that in spite of decades of advances in the development of psychological models and much managerial consideration of motivation, the role of motivation in organizations is a fairly modern phenomenon.

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) delineated twenty-one leadership domains necessary for the principal to be successful. One of the domains was "Motivating Others." The following definition was developed for that domain (Thompson, 1996):

> Creating conditions that enhance the staff's desire and willingness to focus energy on achieving educational excellence; planning and encouraging participation; facilitating teamwork and collegiality; treating staff as professionals; providing intellectual stimulation; supporting innovation; recognizing and rewarding effective performance; providing feedback, coaching and guidance; providing needed resources; serving as a role model. (p. x)

Conditions That Affect Supervision

Many obstacles keep principals, who assume the primary responsibility for supervising teachers, from becoming good motivators. The field of educational supervision is wrought with criticism and complexity. Criticisms

are drawn from both those within the field and those outside. From within, practitioners and organizational management experts charge that inadequate funding, lack of training, poor resources, and public diversity challenge their efficiency. Theorists argue that there is little consensus on what constitutes supervision and no clarity among what the responsibilities and duties are or should be. Those outside the field of supervision—parents and the general community—charge a lack of leadership from those within the schoolhouse. Educators claim no particular benefit to be gained from supervision (Blumberg, 1980; Sandell & Sullivan, 1992; Starratt, 1992).

The goals of supervision may be clear—personal and professional growth for teachers, and improvements in instruction for students—but measuring those goals is problematic (Blumberg, 1980). Criteria for reliably measuring effective supervision are vague. Even if criteria could be clearly delineated, in the real world of management, leadership, and supervision, daily "chaos" delivers an ever-changing and ambiguous context (Brookfield, 1986) in which to measure those variables. Further, in the attempt to adapt to those variables, most supervisors fall short for they have not received suitable training in behavioral sciences, nor do they have the necessary time to adequately use the techniques they do know (Imundo, 1991).

Clear definitions for supervision and practical frameworks for practice have eluded the profession. Simply characterizing the practice of supervision as improvement of instruction fails to bring due consideration of the many critical aspects of the *processes* involved (Glanz, 1995). Over thirty years ago

Goldhammer (1969) wrote regarding the absence of a clear framework for supervision describing methods as "random" and "archaic" (p. viii).

Among those who have posited that the term supervision is questionably obsolete, Glickman (1992), suggested the following alternative terms: *coaching, collegiality, reflective practitioners,* and *critical inquiry.* Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1995) illustrated supervision through a metaphor, calling it the "glue" in successful schools that effectively unites the various parts.

Though definitions of supervision do not reflect consensus, noted similarities exist. Many include the dimension of inquiry. Cook (1996, p. 46) provided these collaborative and synthesized examples of the meaning of clinical supervision:

1. a process of practical inquiry incorporating data collection, hypothesis building, and analysis of data (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969);
2. a quality artistic form of inquiry in the form of educational connoisseurship and criticism (Eisner, 1982);
3. a partnership in inquiry (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988);
4. a reflective process engaging teachers in inquiry (Garman, 1986; Schon, 1988; Smyth, 1984).

Definitions have evolved to include the notion of relationships as well. Blumberg's (1980) definition of supervision, "the giving and receiving of help regarding . . . some task or the resolution of a problem," was contingent upon the interpersonal relationships established (p.18). McBride and Skau (1995)

referred to a "community of persons" as a more accurate understanding of the supervisory process.

Supervision of Veteran Teachers

Working with the experienced teacher presents unique challenges for supervising principals. Experienced teachers express needs that are different from those of the novice. The novice expresses the need for help with "survival"–learning to manage the immediate (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). As years of experience grow, teachers express the need to refine their efforts and experience meaning in their work.

Reflective supervision is one way veteran teachers can experience growth. Reflective activity is built into several models of supervision. Cognitive coaching, clinical supervision, and developmental supervision all have aspects related to reflection (Cook, 1996; Costa & Garmston, 1994; Pajak, 1993; Siens & Ebmeier, 1996). Promotion of reflective practice can lead to more meaningful dialogue between principals and veteran teachers. Yet, veterans who are accustomed to traditional supervision may feel uncomfortable with the dissonance that reflective practices can produce. Teachers need to feel a sense of safety and respect in order to openly reflect (McBride & Skau, 1995). Principals face the challenge to promote those conditions so that veteran teachers feel "invited" into reflection.

Blumberg (1980) wrote of another challenge principals face in the supervision of veteran teachers. He reported that supervisors expressed "a great deal of concern," with regard to the supervision of older teachers, namely those with ten years or more experience (p. 28). Blumberg described

the supervision of veteran teachers as complex, and claimed that tenure may only exacerbate the complexity. He also charged that tenure makes it more difficult to bring about change in a teacher's performance. Tenure to the teacher means that the system has issued a vote of confidence; and therefore, the teacher may feel shielded from certain sanctions.

Starratt (1992) lamented that after a teacher has been tenured, supervision fails to yield any significant improvement in the classroom. He posed the question, "Is it any wonder that veteran teachers find supervision humiliating?" (p. 85). He reasoned that the humiliation felt was due to meaningless conversations and "bureaucratic intrusions" into the tenured teacher's classroom made in the name of supervision (p. 85). Uniform prescriptions and "one-size-fits-all" supervision do not benefit the veteran teacher.

Change in veteran teachers may not be so easy to achieve, however. A study by Castle and Hunter (1997) examined the longitudinal effects of a professional development center (PDS) on preservice teachers and veteran teachers. The PDS joined preservice teachers with veteran teachers in cooperative teaching efforts geared to improve preservice education and professionally enhance the veterans. The findings of this four-year study revealed that the veteran teachers perceived the PDS successful and contributory to their professional growth. However, the veteran teachers did not relate professional growth to any changes in their own classroom instruction.

The findings in the Castle and Hunter (1997) study led the authors to question the viability of the current structure of most professional

development plans. The authors also explained the lack of veteran teachers to perceive any classroom change partially due to the view that teaching is considered an isolated role. Teachers tend to have entrenched notions of their work and their roles at work. The thought was posed that entrenchment promotes a type of autonomy that restricts collaborative inquiry and inhibits change.

Perhaps entrenchment and lack of inquiry may be explained by adult development theory and age-specific needs. Levine (1993) alleged that adequate attention to adult developmental transitions has not been given. Levine cited Levinson (1993) who claimed adults spend half of their lives in various shifts of passage and growth states. Age-related needs affect an adult's view of the world—how they construct meaning. The growth needs of adults are "vitally linked to the success of students" (Levine, 1993, p. 223). Perhaps implied by this discussion is an admonition for administrators to tune in to adult stages of veteran teachers for effective supervision.

Personal issues in the lives of veteran teachers can also affect their professional lives and the supervisory relationship (Pajak, 1993). It is not uncommon for principals to "experience a teacher crying at some point in a conference" (Acheson & Gall, 1992). The fact that experienced teachers are usually older than inexperienced teachers may sometimes mean that issues in their personal lives are more burdensome than those of younger teachers, and could possibly affect professional performance. For example, increased health issues, heavier financial responsibilities, and perhaps care of aging parents are concerns that older teachers may face.

Experienced teachers may be reticent to talk about the problems they face

in the workplace, at least initially, and the problems they face are different than what less experienced teachers face (Pajak, 1993). With reference to supervision conferencing or consultation, it has been suggested that a principal listen more and talk less (Acheson & Gall, 1992).

Motivating Adults to Achieve

Two very distinct approaches are generally taken with respect to motivating others to achieve (Ryan, Connell, & Grolnick, 1992). The first is a directive approach. Authoritarian in nature, directive methods rely upon the utilization of external rewards or approval from an "expert." The second approach is humanistic in that individuals are encouraged to move from dependence upon the expert, to a more self-regulated or autonomous capacity. Motivation in this approach is viewed as achievement-oriented, but also as developmentally-oriented. That is, the capacity to self-direct is seen as growth in motivation.

Why adults choose or do not choose to participate in learning activities was explored by Cross (1981) in her book, *Adults as Learners*. Cross devoted a chapter to review the literature related to motivation of adults in an attempt to provide a framework for those who facilitate adult learning. She concluded that full understanding of adult motives is doubtful because motives are not usually singular, and motives continually change as age and circumstances change. However, she cited work by Morstain and Smart (1974) who discovered six factors that tend to motivate adults to learn. The factors are: (a) social relationships, (b) external expectations, (c) social

welfare, (d) professional advancement, (e) escape/stimulation, and (f) cognitive interest.

A caveat was offered by Cross—the "kingpin" of psychological research in motivation has been the premise that people with low self-esteem will not perform as well in achievement-related settings. It is perhaps unfortunate, that most educational settings are designed as achievement oriented.

Motivation in the workplace has been pursued often as misguided efforts to coerce another to achieve or perform. Thompson (1996) declared that motivation is not synonymous with compliance or job satisfaction. Indeed, many in supervisory roles such as teacher, parent, principal, or employer, have approached attempts to motivate with coercive measures such as rewards and punishments. Rewards and punishments have been found to control behavior in a short-term sense, but usually have lead to less desirable long-term results (McKeachie, 1997).

Reeve (1996) encouraged those in authority to regard the ultimate purposes of motivating others as more than achieving outcomes. Personal growth, lifelong learning and socialization are also intents of motivating others. Thinking of motivation as strictly as means to an end "somewhat cheapens the concept" and clouds the more meaningful goals of growth, intrinsic value, and satisfaction (McCall, 1997, p. 110).

The relationship between the one wishing to do the motivating and the one intended for the motivation, can create a type of dependency cycle. An "interpersonal power differential" (Reeve, 1996, p. 3; see Deci & Ryan, 1985)

oftentimes occurs. A parent/child relationship, coach/team player, or supervisor/subordinate relationship illustrate the "power differential." The one with the least power is dependent upon the one with the most power. Vulnerability emerges in the power relationship by virtue of the fact that the parent, coach, or supervisor possesses more expertise or position. A cautionary question arises from this discussion: Why does one wish to motivate another? If the answer is compliance, perhaps the endeavor is not motivation at all, but rather a form of coercion (Reeve, 1996).

In their review of the most prominent motivation theories, Walker and Quinn (1996) found five emergent themes representative of what most contributes to motivation. Motivation is maximized when an individual (a) is competent, (b) has adequate autonomy, (c) creates worthwhile goals, (d) receives feedback, and (e) receives affirmation.

Autonomy

Motivation literature is full of reference to the concept of autonomy. It is difficult to think of autonomy as distinct from motivation. In fact, autonomy is a defining element in some motivational theories and applicable practices. A self-directed learner may be described as an autonomous learner; a self-directed teacher may be described as an autonomous teacher.

The notion of autonomy often brings to mind images of an isolated individual who is skilled at information acquisition, assimilation, and design. It is important, however, not to equate autonomy with solitude or methodological proficiency (Brookfield, 1986; Costa & Garmston, 1994;

Reeve, 1996). "Autonomy is not isolation" (R. Anderson, personal communication, November 14, 1998). Instead, it is more a matter of consciously and freely choosing or discerning one's optimal learning and or working environment, while recognizing a range of alternatives.

Autonomy represents the degree of independence and discretionary scheduling an individual may exercise in his or her work (Thompson, 1996). Moreover, autonomy is realized to a fuller extent within a framework of organizational relationships (Brookfield, 1986). The connection between interdependence and autonomous work is furthered portrayed by Burk and Fry (1997) who described autonomy as the ability to gather information "through observing and talking with others" (p. 647).

It is sometimes assumed, and wrongly so, that autonomy, or self-directed learning, is a benchmark defining adult status. Autonomy is not an empirical marker of adulthood, nor are adults innately autonomous or self-directed (Brookfield, 1986). Rather, autonomy is a developmental process that may be achieved in varying degrees and at various ages throughout the life span.

Autonomy and Teacher Isolation

Traditional teaching is often viewed as an independent, isolated act. Contacts with colleagues are usually quick, informal exchanges (Little, 1990). Against this backdrop, teaching is a private act, and teacher autonomy comes under attack. "Teacher autonomy rests on freedom from scrutiny and the largely unexamined right to exercise personal preference [where] trial and error serves as the principal route to competence" (Little, 1990, p. 513).

In the view that teaching is an independent act, done alone, an isolated autonomy is promoted making it difficult for teachers to think of each other and the building principal as partners in inquiry and change (Castle & Hunter, 1997). Sweeney (1994) offered further criticism of isolated autonomy, writing that it "restricts teachers from observing others, thus depriving them of opportunities to compare their performance and situations with those of others or to add to their repertoire of teaching behaviors" (p. 232).

With regard to the growth needs and supervision of veteran teachers, isolated autonomy may prove problematic for the building principal. For instance, some experts have indicated that veteran teachers tend to maintain the status quo (e.g., Blumberg, 1980; Burk & Fry, 1997; Pajak, 1993;). They either do not wish to update their teaching practices or they are reticent to try new methods. Veteran teachers, especially in contrast to novice teachers, avoid risk-taking (Pajak, 1993).

The literature suggests that principals can and should curb an atmosphere of isolation among teachers (e.g., Castle & Hunter, 1997; Little, 1990; Reitzug, 1997; Sadowski, 1993; Sweeney,1994). Examples of "collective" work outside the education arena demonstrate the need for and benefits from shared expertise and pooling of human resources. For example, a complex surgery, an orchestra performance, or an elaborate court case, require joint efforts among teams of professionals.

Supervision literature abounds with references that encourage a move from an isolated classroom to collaborative inquiry (e.g., Binkley, 1995;

Brundage, 1996; Coyle, 1997; Little, 1990; Reitzug, 1997; Sadowski, 1993). However, all collaborative efforts are not equal, nor are they all profitable. Little (1990) argued that though the move to collaboration is a break from traditional norms, many collaborative efforts "may do more to bolster isolation than to diminish it" (p. 511). She further declared that "advocates have imbued [collaboration] with a sense of virtue," expecting it to reverse isolation and create an enhanced community of learners (p. 509).

Rigid adherence to collaboration can pose a threat to one's sense of autonomy in the workplace. Where personal discretion and performance are made public, teachers may face some psychological costs (Little, 1990). Forfeiture of one's privacy, loss of personal latitude in the classroom, and openness to scrutiny of performance may cause teachers to be resistant to collaborative efforts. However, when professional teams are built slowly, with respect and trust clearly in place, a profitable shift in autonomy can take place. From private, individual, and *independent* autonomy, individuals move to public, collective, *interdependent* autonomy. Where members believe their competence is not in question, commitment to the group at large is enhanced (Little, 1990).

Autonomy and Teacher Control

The question of how much control a teacher should be able to exercise regarding his or her classroom decisions and professional growth nags at the foundation of autonomy in the workplace. Can too much control—too much autonomy—be harmful? Sweeney (1994) asserted that "issues of teacher

control and autonomy are anchored in quicksand" (p. 226). On one hand, policy makers and legislators do not consider all teachers equal in ability, "nor do they trust them to make appropriate decisions" (p. 226). On other hand, educators view teaching as a craft, one that requires the freedom to design unique methods for each child's unique developmental needs.

At issue among principals and supervisors regarding autonomous practices of teachers is the fear of teachers' inappropriate decisions (Sweeney, 1994). Principals would like to assure school constituents that teachers are competent. Though no "airtight" promise regarding a teacher's competence can be made, a variety of monitoring avenues can be built into the supervision and evaluation processes. Along with visits to the classroom, principals can collect data through informal observations of teachers with students outside the classroom.

Teachers do not always feel the freedom to make the educational choices they deem best for their students. Many are compelled to maintain traditional practices for fear of the risks involved (Burk & Fry, 1997). Practicing autonomy presents risks for the teacher, both personally and professionally. Fears expressed include being excluded from "the group" by more traditional teachers. Another fear was that of being thought a poor teacher by those whose teaching philosophies are different from one's own (Burk & Fry, 1997).

Autonomy and the Teacher's Workplace

Much of the literature written to describe professionalism in the workplace centers around three concepts: (a) expertise, (b) altruism, and (c) autonomy (Bottery, 1996). Autonomy in the workplace implies "the professional's need and right to exercise control over entry into, and subsequent practice within, [a] particular occupation" (p. 180).

A teacher's workplace is a dynamic, changing, and complex environment. Teacher's are called upon to make "hundreds of highly subjective teaching decisions during a hectic day . . . confounded by dozens of rapidly changing interacting contextual factors and the need to employ highly developed interpersonal skills to implement instructional decisions" (Sweeney, 1994, p. 224). Though autonomy and flexibility of thought are acknowledged in the literature as important aspects of teaching, they are often neglected in teacher development plans and not addressed in the supervisory process. Schools often do not recognize or advocate these characteristics (Burk & Fry, 1997; Glickman, 1985).

It is within an administrator's responsibilities to provide opportunities for activities that promote autonomy. These may take the form of participatory decision-making regarding resources, organizational procedures, and personal solutions to matters of classroom management and curriculum.

Socialization into the traditional hierarchical models of supervision and adult learning have created an inhibition or feeling of uneasiness with the idea of personal control over one's work and/or learning environment (Brookfield,

1986; Poole, 1995). Brundage (1996) reported that this inhibition was especially true for experienced teachers, and required a principal's active endeavor to "empower" veteran teachers in their practice. Empowerment, which is more a matter of "power *to*, not power *over*," when properly applied, serves to strengthen a teacher's sense of autonomy (McBride & Skau, 1995, p. 26).

Focus Summary

Development of thought in motivation theory and in organizational theory is wide-ranging. Independently, both theories are highly refined. Connections between motivation theory and organizational theory have a long history as well. While applications of motivation theory to supervisory practice have made their mark on educational supervision, the calls for more research in the area of workplace motivation remain (e.g., Blumberg, 1980; Kay & Christophel, 1995; Newsom, 1990; Steers & Porter, 1991). Research that combines the schools of psychology and social science is needed and called for as well (Cross, 1981).

Teacher motivation is fostered when the conditions and opportunities that promote it are in place (Thompson, 1996). Principals are prime candidates for creating those conditions. The literature sets forth conditions that enhance motivation, including: (a) promotion of autonomy, (b) provision of meaningful work, (c) feedback that is specific and connected to attempted goals, and (d) recognition of efforts.

Historically, authoritarian supervision has not provided the conditions that

enhance motivation. Changes in the roles principals have assumed over the decades have touched on those conditions, however. Roles such as collaborator, coach, and promoter of growth all bring the principal closer to promoting motivation in the veteran teacher. The work of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration in creating the leadership domain, "Motivating Others," provides evidence that current thought in supervision has moved in a direction that is motivation supportive.

Still, the connection between supervision and the motivation of veteran teachers is almost void of literature. Further, variables associated with the supervision of veteran teachers are many. Age-related issues and issues of entrenchment of roles complicate the principal's efforts to motivate veterans. Assumptions that veteran teachers, by virtue of age and experience, are innately motivated adults or autonomous thinkers, have clouded the need to nurture those human states and perhaps stifled possible research efforts.

Implications for supervisory practice may be drawn from the literature. Ample consensus among theorists and practitioners reveals the belief that unmotivated people deter the organizational goal of excellence (Bess, 1997; Imundo, 1991; Reeve, 1996; Richardson, Short, & Prickett, 1993). Creating the conditions that foster motivation and autonomy in veteran teachers remains a critical charge for the building principal.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to collect, describe and examine perspectives of principals regarding their supervisory beliefs and behaviors that influence motivation in veteran teachers. To accomplish this purpose, two sets of interviews were planned and conducted. First interviews were designed to seek data that describe the broad context of supervision from the perspectives of the participants. Second interviews were designed to seek participants' perspectives regarding specific supervisory beliefs and corresponding behaviors that support or inhibit veteran teacher motivation. The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do administrators describe the supervisory process?
2. What do administrators identify as beliefs and behaviors that direct their supervisory processes?
3. How do administrators describe the meaning and intent of teacher motivation?
4. How do administrators describe behaviors that enhance motivation in veteran teachers?
5. What do administrators view as factors that inhibit motivation in veteran teachers?

Research Design and Rationale

As this study sought to examine participants' individual perspectives, it was qualitative in nature. A qualitative design allows more flexibility for respondents to offer their descriptions. Rather than marking items with fixed values or limited response choices, as on surveys or questionnaires, face-to-face interviews take more into account. The context of a participant's workplace, for example, plays an important influence upon his or her perceptions.

Qualitative methods were chosen for this study because they offered the researcher an up close and personal peek into the participants' perceptions of their socially-constructed realities. Qualitative inquiry offered a better likelihood that the data collected were truly representative of the participants' worlds as they saw them, for "perceptions are best known through the most original source" of data, the participant's own thoughts and words (Langenbach, Vaugn, & Aargard, 1994, p. 12). Understanding human perceptions is significant, because one's personal views of the world do affect the choices he or she makes (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

While quantitative research assumes an objective reality, qualitative research recognizes that reality is individually and personally constructed based on one's view of the world (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Quantitative methods, including surveys and experimental designs, are more suited to "unambiguous concepts and finely tuned indicators with high levels of reliability" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 42).

No assumptions were made that quantifiable data exists to answer the type of questions this study proposed.

Qualitative methods offered flexibility in data collection and analyses needed for exploratory research in this study. Flexibility in procedures allowed the researcher to assume a discovery-orientation to data collection and an inductive-orientation to analysis (Patton, 1990). In fact, it was critical that the methods of research not be too tightly specified before the research began (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). This "looser" approach allowed the researcher to modify as needed. The flexibility or "elastic quality" of qualitative methods did not imply, however, that the methods were less demanding or focused (Janesick, 1994, p. 212).

The research questions of this study were designed to elicit the *what, how,* and *why* in principal supervision of veteran teachers. *How* and *why* research questions are often best examined through case studies, especially when context is to be explored as well (Yin, 1984). A qualitative case study strategy provided the researcher an avenue to detailed, in-depth examination of individual or multiple cases in a holistic context (Patton, 1990).

Case studies may vary in number and type of case. For example, a researcher may investigate a single person or a number of persons within a similar context; a single event or several events; a document or set of documents. A range of combinations and complexity of designs is possible within case study design. The majority of qualitative case studies fall within the continuum of small and single case to large, multiple-subject or multiple-

site cases (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). This research employed a multiple-subject case study approach.

Writers claim that the utility and value of case study design provide great promise for contributions to research knowledge and policy formation (Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1994; Yin, 1984). Though not intended as generalizable to the population at large, case study findings offer focused views of particular cases from which one can learn. Whether one is investigating a person, an event, a program, or an organization, case studies provide in-depth, real-life views of examples of the phenomenon in question (Patton, 1990).

Research methods for examining adult motivation typically come under four basic designs: (a) depth interviews, (b) statistical analysis of motivational scales, (c) survey questionnaires, and (d) hypothesis testing (Cross, 1981). The most common of these four is survey questionnaires. Motivation surveys are often constructed in a format that presents checklists of possible reasons behind given behaviors. Surveys provide a fairly easy method for gathering data that will be quantified. However, surveys cannot fully reflect what an individual may think concerning an item (Newsom, 1990). Surveys can only deal with context in a limited way (Yin, 1984).

Depth interviews, on the other hand, lend themselves to the "subjective insights" of the participants that enhance the understanding researchers hope to gain (Cross, 1981, p. 88). The researcher's aim is to understand an individual's personal experience from that individual's unique perspective.

The assumption is made in qualitative interviewing that the individual perspective is meaningful and can be known and articulated (Patton, 1990).

Questions for qualitative interviewing vary in amount of structure. They range from highly structured to very unstructured and open-ended. An advantage of highly structured questions is less variation among respondents. A disadvantage of high structure in questioning is the possible omission of important data or misunderstanding on the part of the participant resulting in inapplicable data (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Unstructured questions, however, allow for greater depth (Fontana & Frey, 1994). Less structured questions, in conversational tone, are most commonly used by qualitative interviewers.

Patton (1990) outlined three common approaches to open-ended questioning. The approaches are (a) informal conversational, (b) general interview guide, and (c) standardized open-ended. Each offers a distinct influence in the manner and tone of an interview.

The informal conversational interview is entirely spontaneous, and participants may even be unaware that an interview is taking place. Informal conversational interviews are most often the ongoing conversations a researcher will hold during the course of extended fieldwork. A general interview guide is an outline of issues to be discussed. The interviewer may adapt the wording and order of questions to suit a particular context, but seeks some common information from all participants. Standardized open-ended interviews utilize exact wording for each question and with each

participant, thus minimizing the disparity of information from respondents.

As flexibility is encouraged in qualitative design, interview questions may represent a combination of approaches. It is not critical that the researcher maintains a single style of questioning within the interview. It is important that the researcher maintain a common theme and outline for each participant, however, if the intent of the study is to generate multiple insights on a single issue or set of issues. Patton (1990) cautioned the researcher against a lack of precision in unstructured interviews. For example, researchers may unknowingly ask a series of questions within one response item creating tension and confusion in the mind of the respondent. The respondent does not know which question is being asked of him or her in that case.

For this study, a general interview guide was used in combination with a standard open-ended approach (see Patton, 1990). That is, open-ended questions were written in advance and used in the interviews exactly as they were written. However, the interview guide approach allowed flexibility to explore or probe issues further, individualizing each participant's responses. The questions ranged from open-ended to semi-structured.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations in research endeavors have traditionally centered around (a) informed consent, (b) right to privacy, and (c) protection from harm for the participants (Fontana & Frey, 1994). Additionally, ethical

considerations include honest data collection (Langenbach et al., 1994) and accurate reporting (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Ethical considerations must span the entire research process. That is, these concerns must be dealt with before conducting the research, during data collection and analysis, and in reporting.

In consideration of ethical issues, researchers have suggested that an informed consent be written and signed by both the researcher and the participants (e.g., Fontana & Frey, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Generally, the written informed consent explains the purpose of the study, ensures confidentiality of the participants, and offers to share the results of the study with the participants. An informed consent form was used in this study (see Appendix A).

Population

In determining a research site and sample population, researchers will often seek out a friend, fellow researcher, or other informed person to aid in entry and selection (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Qualitative sample populations are often small and purposefully selected (Morse, 1994; Patton, 1990). That is, the primary goal in selection and size is obtaining "information-rich cases. . . . from which one can learn a great deal" about the phenomenon in question (Patton, 1990, p. 169). The emphasis is not on obtaining maximum sample sizes but on minimum sample sizes that reasonably represent the phenomenon.

Sampling choices for quantitative study are random and statistically selected. For qualitative study, sampling choices need to be more "characteristically" selected (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 441). Patton (1990) listed a variety of strategies for characteristically or purposefully selecting participants. Among the variety listed are:

1. extreme or deviant case
2. homogeneous samples
3. typical case
4. stratified purposeful samples
5. critical case
6. purposeful random samples
7. convenience samples

This study employed a combination of homogeneous sampling and stratified purposeful sampling. Homogeneous sampling is a process of choosing a small group of similar participants. The purpose of homogeneous sampling was to collect data that describe a particular group or subgroup. Stratified purposeful sampling constituted a slightly broader group than homogeneous sampling. In stratified purposeful sampling, each "strata" or group represented a narrower section of an already homogeneous group. For example, in this study a group of elementary principals represented a homogeneous group. This group was further stratified in that is consisted of elementary principals with five or more years of administrative experience.

Participants for this study were chosen from among certified administrators

at three suburban school districts within central Oklahoma. The researcher utilized key informants from each district to locate possible participants. The school districts ranged in size from approximately 13,000 to 20,000 students. District populations included each of the five major ethnic groups and a variety of socioeconomic levels. However, the large majority of patrons in each district were Caucasian and middle class.

Six principals working in the K-8 grade levels from among the three school districts selected were sought as volunteer participants. A criterion for selection was that principals had at least five years of experience as administrators. Both male and female participants were sought and selected.

Procedures

Purposeful sampling began in the fall semester of 1999. Upon completion of sampling, potential respondents were given an informed consent form (see Appendix A) describing the purpose of the study, procedures, and potential risks and benefits of participation. The consent form also explained the conditions of voluntary participation, confidentiality, and contacts for questions about the research and participants' rights. The consent form further explained that interviews would be audio-taped, transcribed, and kept in the locked possession of the researcher.

A more detailed written description of the study (see Appendix B) was made available to participants and their superintendents who desired such. Each potential participant was reminded in writing that the study was

voluntary, and that any questions concerning the consent would be addressed. Of the six potential participants identified through key informants, all returned signed informed consent forms and participated in the study.

Upon return of signed consent forms, interviews were scheduled and conducted. Interview schedules and locations were determined mutually between each respondent and the researcher. Each participant's work site served as the location for the interviews.

Two in-depth, private, and face-to-face interviews with each participant were planned. However, one participant dropped out of the study after the first interview due to personal family illness. Each interview was numbered and audio-taped on a separate cassette. The first interview was conducted early in the first semester of school year 1999-2000. The second interview was conducted early in the second semester of school year 1999-2000. The average duration for first interviews was forty-five minutes; for second interviews, it was twenty-five minutes.

The interviews were considered focused interviews as described by Yin (1984). Focused interviews are usually short, may be open-ended, and are conversational in tone. An interview guide set the protocol for discussion. Two interview guides, one for first interviews, and one for second interviews, served as instruments. The interview guides (see Appendices C and D) allowed the researcher to focus the issues, yet modify or digress from planned questions as the need for clarification arose.

Questions for the interview guides were examined for content clarity and

validity. A content validity check helped ensure that the interview questions were indeed likely to measure what they were intended to measure. Typically, validity checks are performed through the critiquing of experts or scholars (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Langenbach et al., 1994; Long, Convey, & Chwalek, 1986). Therefore, interview questions for the first interview guide were submitted to three university professors for reading and critiquing. Modifications were made as deemed necessary. Second interview questions were submitted to one university professor for reading and critiquing.

First-round interviews, in early fall, sought data that describe the broad context of supervision from the perspectives of the participants—how they view supervision, what they do, and why. The transcribed data from first-round interviews were examined for aspects related to teacher motivation and to a broad view of supervision of veteran teachers. From examination of first-level data, questions for round-two interviews (see Appendix D) were formulated to seek participants' perspectives specific to supervisory beliefs and corresponding behaviors that support or inhibit motivation in veteran teachers.

As supplements to audio-taped interviews, the researcher made written field notes during each interview. Field notes included contextual information regarding the interviews, the researcher's personal reactions, and preliminary codes, insights and interpretations (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Field notes were compared to audio-taped interviews and transcribed data as an

aid to analysis. Examined notes were incorporated where applicable into later analyses.

Data Analysis

Data analyses were considered ongoing from the beginning of the interview process (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Langenbach et al., 1994; Rubin & Rubin, 1995; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Analyses began as field notes were taken. Written notes included preliminary coding of themes and any additional observations or questions that the researcher considered important.

The process of qualitative data analysis is not linear; it is recursive. It is also "messy, ambiguous," and not neatly or tightly structured (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Highly structured analysis methods provide focus, but may distill the data to the point that meaning is very narrow if not lost (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). However, some systematic, yet flexible approach, is needed to aid in managing and drawing meaning from the often overwhelming mass of data.

Many designs for qualitative analysis are offered among writers (e.g., Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Patton, 1990; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Most of the approaches to data management include three basic steps:

1. Reading and coding the data for themes and patterns;
2. Sorting and displaying the data for further analysis; and

3. Drawing meaning, conclusions, or explanations from the data.

Marshall and Rossman (1989) listed five "modes" or "phases" of data management. The modes are (a) organizing, (b) generating categories, (b) testing emergent hypotheses against the data, (d) searching for alternative explanations of the data, and (e) writing the report. Each mode or phase involves reducing the data into manageable pieces and interpretation, bringing meaning to the data. Miles and Huberman (1994) offered similar phases. They are data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification.

Preliminary analysis for this study began with note taking during the interviews. Following transcription of all round-one interviews, more in-depth analyses began. First, data from each participant were read individually and in their entirety in order to gain a sense of the overall content, while coding any distinguishable categories, patterns, general themes, or inconsistencies. This included looking for common language that would aid in the development of an understandable terminology for round-two interviews.

Next, data collected per question were analyzed collectively to identify similar categories, patterns, or themes. From the emergent themes and commonalties, specific categories were then coded (see Glaser & Strauss,1967; Patton, 1990; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). It was intended that first-level data would produce a broad picture of how principals view supervision. Preliminary and overriding supervisory belief themes were noted also. Development of round-two interview questions followed.

Preliminary ideas for possible round-two questions were discussed between the researcher and sponsoring professors. However, it was expected that round-one data would generate insight for additional or different round-two questions. No presumptions regarding exact round-two questions were made in advance. A field note from one of the first interviews provided an unexpected area for inquiry in round-two. The note, "What frustrations do you most experience?" brought to the fore an important issue in the supervision of veteran teachers: Obstacles, frustrations, or challenges unique to the supervision of veteran teachers.

Following the development of round-two interview questions, second interviews were scheduled and conducted. Field notes again were made as a supplement to audio-taped data. Round-two interviews were then transcribed, and in-depth analyses began. Analysis procedures for second-level data followed the same design as for first-level data. Additionally, second-level data were examined for content as they related to motivation supportive practices.

All data were read multiple times by the researcher in order to identify themes per question and to discover or infer any overriding supervisory beliefs. As themes appeared to be fairly established across all available data, an additional and broader analysis was made.

In an attempt to discover comprehensive themes across all data, two broader, working categories were created: (a) needs of the veteran, and (b) processes that foster motivation. All categorized data per individual interview

question, including themes and isolated responses, again were reviewed in light of the two broader categories. The two broader categories were then compared to each other. Finally, the overriding supervisory belief themes were compared to the two broader working categories, and similarities and differences noted.

Descriptions of identified themes as well as isolated responses were written into narrative summaries. Attempts to explain the data in terms of broader significance were written into the summaries as well.

Broader significance was not intended to imply generalizability in this study. Stainback and Stainback (1989) suggested that generalizability is not possible for two reasons. First, people and settings are complex, with subtleties marking their uniqueness. Second, people, their beliefs, and settings are not static; they are ever changing. If one wishes to generalize findings from qualitative data, the "burden of proof" lies more with him or her than the original researcher (Stainback & Stainback, 1989, p. 103). The original researcher could not possibly know all the variables in context that would allow an accurate transference. Further, it is not likely that one's qualitative research could ever be replicated with the same results by another researcher (Huberman & Miles, 1994; Stainback & Stainback, 1988; Stake, 1994).

Validity

Quantitative studies tend to focus on the *reliability* of data; that is, that the data can be replicated given another study of the same kind. Qualitative

studies, on the other hand, tend to focus on whether data are *valid*, meaning that the data represent what they are intended to represent (Langenbach et al., 1994; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). To ensure validity in qualitative research, researchers use corroboration, "peer debriefing" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and procedures described as triangulation.

The term triangulation is borrowed from land surveying (Janesick, 1994; Patton, 1990). Two points of reference from a landmark make location more precise. Also, geometrically, a triangle is the strongest shape. In qualitative studies, triangulation refers to procedures whereby the researcher seeks at least three sources or experts to verify or clarify data interpretation (Janesick, 1994; Langenbach et al., 1994; Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Stake, 1994). Triangulation is not intended as a means to verify that data are accurate or that "the truth" has been discovered. Rather, triangulation is intended as a procedure to ensure that data presented are trustworthy, or truly representative of the phenomenon studied (Langenbach et al., 1994; Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

Validity in this study was addressed in two ways. First, all data were read multiple times by the researcher. Second, three additional researchers were asked to corroborate findings by reading and coding a sampling of the data. The independent and non-participating researchers provided an opportunity to check for comparable analyses and credibility of findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Comparable analyses were noted between the findings of the researcher and the non-participating researchers.

While quantitative research may be considered value free and objective, qualitative research may be considered value bound (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). "There is no attempt to pretend that research is value free" (Janesick, 1994, p. 212). The subjectivity of qualitative research has been fodder for debate among researchers (Patton, 1990). Credible researchers should strive to adopt positions of neutrality regarding the research they are conducting (Patton, 1990). That is not easy, however, as some research questions are borne from the researcher's personal experience (Morse, 1994). As this research question was developed from the researcher's personal and professional experience, it is acknowledged that her values played a role in the choice of methods and analyses of data.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to collect, describe and examine perceptions of elementary principals with regard to their beliefs and behaviors that direct their supervision. Additionally, data were examined to discover, or infer among the principals' perceptions, any specific beliefs or behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation.

A description of the participants and a brief summary of site demographics are presented in this chapter. Following demographic information, the research design and procedures used in this study are summarized. Next, data findings are reported, arranged according to research questions.

Participants and Site Demographics

This study employed a combination of homogeneous sampling and stratified purposeful sampling for participant selection. Homogeneous samples are small groups of similar participants. Six elementary principals made up the homogeneous sample for this study. In stratified purposeful samples, each strata represents a narrower section of an already homogeneous group. For this study, the sample population became stratified as one of the selection criteria was five or more years of administrative experience.

Administrative experience of the participants ranged from eleven to nineteen years. Table 2 gives further demographic information about each participant including gender and years of experience as a classroom teacher prior to administrative experience. Three of the participants had served as assistant principals before becoming principals. Additionally, one of the principals had worked as a manager in two financial institutions before entering the field of education.

Table 2

Participant Demographics

Participant	Gender	Years of Teaching Experience	Years of Administrative Experience	Prior Experience as an Assistant Principal
One	Female	12	11	No
Two	Female	5	12	No
Three	Female	5	18	Yes
Four	Female	8	11	No
Five	Male	4	19	Yes
Six	Male	11	13	Yes

The principals for this study were chosen from among certified elementary principals at three suburban school districts within central Oklahoma. The school district populations ranged in size from approximately 13,000 to 20,000 students. District populations included each of the major ethnic groups and a variety of socioeconomic levels. The large majority of students and staff in each district, however, were Caucasian and middle class.

As the focus of this study was supervision of veteran teachers, information regarding years of experience of teachers at each site was also obtained. Table 3 displays a list of numbers of teachers and years of experience represented at each of the sites. A single asterisk represents each principal's years of teaching, while a double asterisk represents his or her combined years of teaching and administrative experience.

Table 3

Site Demographics Representing Teachers' Years of Experience

Site	Number of Teachers	Years of Teaching Experience					
		1st year	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-20	Over 20
One	28 Principal	3	5	3	4	8 *	5 **
Two	29 Principal	3	4	4 *	1	15 **	2
Three	34 Principal	1	5	1 *	7	10	10 **
Four	24 Principal	2	3	1	5	7 *	6 **
Five	31 Principal	1	5	2 *	4	17	2 **
Six	28 Principal	2	2	4	5 *	12 **	3

* represents principal's teaching experience **represents principal's combined teaching and administrative experience

Each site had a considerably higher number of experienced teachers than beginning teachers. Regrouping the years of experience data into larger subsets presented a clearer view of the variance in numbers of beginning

teachers to numbers of experienced teachers.

Because the definition of veteran teacher in this study was seven years and beyond, the years of experience data were regrouped into two subsets based on that definition. The first subset, novice teachers, represented the numbers of teachers with one to six years of experience. The second subset, veteran teachers, represented the numbers of teachers with seven years and beyond of teaching experience. The principals were not included in this regrouping of data. Figure 5 displays this regrouped data.

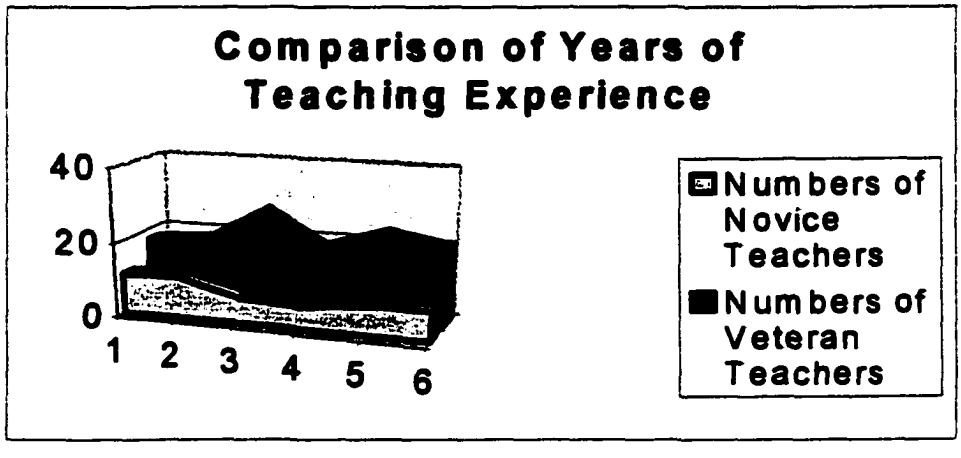


Figure 5. Representation comparing numbers of novice teachers to numbers of veteran teachers.

In four of the six sites selected for this study, the numbers of experienced teachers compared to numbers of beginning teachers was more than double. Among all sites combined, the total number of experienced teachers versus the total number of beginning teachers was more than double, 123 to 51,

respectively. Therefore, in this study, 71% of the teachers supervised by participants were considered veterans, while 29% of the teachers supervised were in their beginning years of teaching.

Procedures

Qualitative research design and methods were used to collect data for this study. Following purposeful sampling, selection of participants, and upon return of signed consent forms, data collection began. Six elementary principals from three school districts were selected to participate in this study.

Two in-depth, face-to-face interviews with each participant were scheduled. The first interviews were conducted early in the first semester of school year 1999-2000. An interview guide (see Appendix C) served as an instrument for all of the first interviews. The first interviews were designed to seek data that described the broad context of supervision and to identify any conditions that affected motivation.

From examination of the transcribed first-level data, questions were developed for the second interviews with each participant. An interview guide (see Appendix D) served as an instrument for all of the second interviews. The second interviews were designed to seek participants' perspectives specific to supervisory beliefs and behaviors that influenced motivation in veteran teachers. Second interviews were scheduled and conducted early in the second semester of school year 1999-2000. One participant was not able to continue participation in the second round of the study due to personal

family illness. Therefore, data from round-two interviews represented only five participants.

All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed. Field notes supplemented all transcribed data. Each transcribed interview was read in its entirety first to gain a sense of the overall content of the participant's responses. Next, data collected per question were analyzed collectively to identify similar or dissimilar themes among participants. Finally, all data were reviewed again for specific supervisory beliefs and behaviors.

First-Level Data

First-round interviews were conducted to obtain a broad sense of supervision from the perspectives of elementary principals. Additionally, data were sought to describe conditions that affect teacher motivation. Succession of questions for round-one interviews was designed to be deductive. That is, each successive question narrowed the focus of the conversation toward supervision of veteran teachers.

Data generated from the first interviews are reported per question. Questions for first-level interviews were:

1. Describe what a motivated teacher looks like.
2. What kinds of things do you think foster teacher motivation?
3. Describe the processes at work in your building that foster teacher motivation.

4. What are the big differences between the novice teacher (less than three to four years of experience) and the veteran teacher (seven or more years of experience)?
5. How would you describe the purposes you serve in the supervision of a novice teacher?
6. How would you describe the purposes you serve in the supervision of a more experienced teacher?

Question One Data: Descriptions of a Motivated Teacher

Responses to the question, "Describe what a motivated teacher looks like," were varied with the exception of two generalized themes. The first theme was excitement for the job. Four of the six participants described a motivated teacher in terms of being excited, ready, or looking forward to coming to work. One participant said motivated teachers "are engaged in activities that they're excited about."

Another participant spoke in terms of what she hoped were intrinsically-motivated behaviors in teachers, "doing the best job they can because they *want* to, not because of anything that I'm doing or the parents are doing." One principal described a motivated teacher as "someone that cares." He explained:

> My biggest belief in this business, if I'm hiring somebody, I want people that have compassion. That's my first choice over anything else, because I am such a believer that if the teacher likes what they're doing and likes their kids, then the kids are going to be successful, and the teacher's going to be successful.

The second theme that emerged among responses was adaptability. The idea of flexibility and "doing whatever they need to do" to get the job done were described. The following comment from one of the principals illustrated this theme:

> Well, a big part, I believe, in being a motivated teacher is to realize that education is changing and that we need to always be learning. . . . I think a motivated teacher is always looking for ways to improve, . . . and to understand how students are changing [and how the school population may be changing].

Other descriptions of a motivated teacher did not present themselves from more than one or two respondents. Descriptions included believing the work is meaningful and taking care of self. Another participant said that motivated teachers want to "share what they're doing," and that their practices are expansive rather than routine.

Question Two Data: Things That Foster Teacher Motivation

The principals' perspectives were varied in response to what kinds of things foster teacher motivation. Only one theme, culture, could be generalized among more than two participants. Even then, culture was described by each of four participants using a different frame of reference.

The first participant did not use the word culture, but described a school climate in which teachers feel supported and are allowed sufficient time for meaningful and accessible learning. This particular principal offered voluntary book studies, scheduled for two-hour blocks in the middle of the school day, once per week. Parents were sought to cover classes while teachers met to reflect upon and to share thoughts regarding current literature. When a group

of her teachers decided on their own to do another book study and invited the principal to attend, she was pleased to think that "this learning [had become] institutionalized; that this is how we do things here."

Another participant described a culture that fosters motivation as one "that encourages risk-taking." Still another principal promoted a school climate that is business-like, consistent and predictable. This principal felt that just as children respond to order and predictability, so do adults. She asserted that parents respond more favorably to an orderly school. Finally, one participant, who makes it a practice to leave notes and suckers in her teachers' mail boxes, said she wanted all who entered the building "to feel this is a safe place that they are also loved in."

One principal stated that involvement outside the classroom fosters motivation and meets many growth needs of teachers. This principal explained that going back to college, grant writing, involvement in building or district-level committees, and empowering a teacher with more responsibilities—all work toward fostering motivation.

Several other responses illustrated the variety of things that principals do to foster motivation in their teachers. Support from the principal was cited by two individuals. Both of these principals also explained that the principal needs to be an example or role model. One principal said that the principal should set an example for continued learning. The other principal explained that teachers should see that the principal does not have any different

expectations for herself than she does for the teachers. Finally, only one participant said that money, meaning pay increases, fosters motivation.

Question Three Data: Contextualized Processes That Foster Motivation

Question two was somewhat general, "What kinds of things do you think foster teacher motivation?" Question three mirrored question two, with the added dimension of personalizing it to the participant's particular work site. When asked to "Describe the processes at work in your building that foster teacher motivation," many of the participants reiterated responses they had made to question two. However, many additional responses were given as well.

A multitude of responses to question three were made, most of them made by only one or two persons (see Appendix E). However, four themes emerged as common among most of the participants. The four themes were: (a) personal recognition, (b) community feeling versus isolation, (c) faculty meetings as professional development, and (d) empowerment.

The first theme, personal recognition, was addressed in two participants' buildings through faculty meetings. One principal begins each of her weekly faculty meetings with "compliments and appreciations." This idea stemmed from their building-wide focus on positive classroom discipline. The principal described the process this way:

> A part of positive discipline in the classroom is that at the beginning of the class meetings, you start with compliments and appreciations. We do that at faculty meetings . . . so that the teachers not only read about it, they [participate] in it. One of the things it did is it put a real positive spin on a

faculty meeting, so that you start talking about good things instead of coming in, "Ugh, here we are Wednesday afternoon. I would really rather be somewhere else."

The other principal who used faculty meetings to recognize teachers, used the "Golden Apple Award" at faculty meetings. The Golden Apple Award is self-generated through the staff, including non-certified staff, by their giving it to one another as the school year progresses. The principal gives the first award of each school year by presenting the small gold apple to an individual and complimenting him or her. At the next faculty meeting, the recipient may then pass the award to another staff member in like fashion. One teacher could not decide to whom she wanted to give the award, so she bought small golden apples for the whole staff. The principal commented that the award has grown through the building, "and that's a motivator to know that somebody truly notices something you do."

Creating a community feeling versus isolation was a second common theme among responses to question three. Four of the six participants spoke directly about the need for face-to-face gatherings and collaboration. A fifth participant did not speak explicitly of "community" among the staff, but described activities in her building that create a feeling of togetherness and caring for one another. Two examples are eating with her staff, and circulating the "Hug Basket." If a staff member is going through a particularly difficult time, such as caring for an aging parent, other staff members will contribute small gifts to be placed in the Hug Basket and given to that individual.

A third theme common among five of the six participants was using faculty meetings as a time for professional development. Two principals expressed that they try to model the building focus, or goals, in their faculty meetings. One principal described faculty meetings as "a time to develop a community of learners." By contrast to the five participants who spoke of faculty meetings as a time for staff development, one participant said that he holds very few faculty meetings, and that those held are very brief. He explained that scheduling meetings can be a "hassle" for teachers, and that most of what needed to be shared could be done so in a note.

Finally, empowerment was identified as a motivating process by four of the participants. Empowerment presented itself in a variety of formats. Two principals described teams of teachers, parents, and others who meet regarding things such as curriculum, building-wide goals, and site budgets. Another principal described empowering the people in her building as trusting them to make decisions. She added:

> Now, I never just hand it over and say, "You do it and I never want to see it again," but I hand it over and say, "This is yours to do. Let's talk about it, and then you go do it." . . . Just because they're not the principal doesn't mean they can't do the job. And if you put trust in them, I think that's a real motivator.

Question Four Data: Differences Between Novice and Veteran Teachers

Participants were asked the following question, "What are the big differences between the novice teacher (less than three to four years' experience) and the veteran teacher (seven years or more years' experience)?" This question was designed to elicit a general picture of

experienced versus inexperienced teachers and to lay groundwork for participant responses to succeeding questions.

The majority of responses to question four focused on describing the veteran teacher rather than the novice. Only one of the responses describing a novice teacher could be generalized among participants. Four of the principals spoke of a novice's limited experience and ability in dealing with parents. One principal implied that lack of experience affects a novice's credibility in the minds of the parents. She commented:

> And so then parents are always a little skeptical, you know, just kind of, "OK, how much does she know?," and "Yes, she's new, that's nice, but will she really know how to teach my child and care about my child?"

Another participant described a novice's limited ability to deal with parents who drop by the classroom unexpectedly or angry. The principal said that a beginning teacher may try to handle the situation immediately, even to the point of interrupting his or her class to do so. She gave this example:

> The first-year teacher kind of stumbles around and says, "OK, we'll step over here for just a second;" and tries to handle it right then, because they don't know yet that they have that authority to say, "I'm with children right now, and I cannot talk to you yet."

Responses describing the veteran teacher centered on the benefits that can be gained only through years of experience. Confidence was the benefit mentioned most by the participants. Five of the six participants made reference to the significance that a veteran's confidence plays in dealing with parents, mastering content, refining the delivery of content, and managing behavior in the classroom.

Participants described another benefit to be gained from experience that differentiates the veteran from the novice teacher—the ability to handle dilemmas and surprises. One principal said that in handling a difficult student or situation, "experience plays a role in problem solving." She continued to explain that even if the problem is one that the veteran teacher has not dealt with previously, past experience boosts the veteran's confidence, and he or she thinks, "Well, I've done these other things; I can handle this." Another principal said that veterans tend to "take surprises in stride," and that it is "pretty hard to shake them up." Finally, a principal characterized veteran teachers as not getting "frazzled" as easily as novice teachers.

Two isolated descriptions of veteran teachers are noteworthy among the generalized descriptions. First, one principal said that veterans needed less feedback than novice teachers. This principal added that she worked hard to ensure that the feedback was meaningful, however. Another principal said that as teachers mature, they need to feel some control over the decisions in their building, including finances. This particular principal stated that he felt it was important to give the maturing teacher opportunities to make decisions regarding their work place. He explained that as a building principal, he cannot be an expert in everything. He said, "I must rely on them," and "I want them to become the experts."

Question Five Data: Purposes the Principal Serves in the Supervision of a Novice Teacher

Three themes emerged from the responses to the question, "How would you describe the purposes you serve in the supervision of a novice teacher?" The themes were: (a) principal visibility and regular contact, (b) pre and post-observation conferences as a time of learning and growth, and (c) grade-level veterans as mentors.

The first theme, principal visibility and regular contact, was referred to by four of the six participants. One principal described her personal communication with novices in terms of leaving them lots of notes to encourage them and "informally touch[ing] base with them a lot." Another principal said that she "will observe, and do a lot of walking around." Still another principal discussed her alarm at the number of teachers who do not stay in the profession past five years and said that that is the reason she gives novices "a lot more warm fuzzies" than veterans in her building.

Three of the principals articulated the second theme, use of grade-level veterans as mentors to the novice teachers in their buildings. One principal said, "There's something the novice teacher needs from those teachers [veterans] that I can't give." Another principal said of grade-level chairpersons in her building:

> I really rely on those people, because I will flat say to the new people, "If you have a question, go to your grade-level person first, because more than likely, they will know the answer before I will."

The third theme, using pre- and post-observation conferences as a time

for learning and growth, was mentioned by two participants. However, both participants said that this particular aspect of supervision was a purpose they served in both the supervision of novice and veteran teachers.

One principal provided this isolated response to question four:

> People, I mean every novice teacher is not the same. I have to look at them just the same as I would a student in my classroom. I'm not going to teach a standard curriculum just because I teach third grade. . . . I need to provide individualized instruction for the novice just as I would for a student in my classroom. What are they needing? . . . I look at what my job is, is to find out and to know that person well enough to know what they need and to provide it.

This principal said that he looked at his role as one of caring for the novice. He also pointed out that novices should not be burdened by the auxiliary functions of a building, such as chairing committees, but be allowed to focus on their work in the classroom.

Question Six Data: Purposes the Principal Serves in the Supervision of a Veteran Teacher

Five themes were evident among the responses to question five, "How would you describe the purposes you serve in the supervision of a more experienced teacher?" Those themes were: (a) less observation time in the classroom, (b) post-observation conferences as a time for reflection and growth, (c) broadened expectations, (d) providing professional growth opportunities, and (e) providing leadership opportunities.

Less observation time in the classroom, the first theme discovered among responses, was supported by a majority of the participants. Four of the six principals reported that they did not spend as much time in the classrooms

observing veteran teachers. One principal said that most of the veterans would like her to be in their classrooms more. Another principal portrayed her supervision of veteran teachers as "not a whole lot different [than for novices] other than you're not doing as much."

The second theme that emerged from question six data, post-observation conferences as a time for reflection and growth, was addressed by three of the six principals. The idea that pre- and post-observation conferences are a time for growth was presented in data regarding novices as well as veterans. The difference in the data sets, however, was that principals seemed to view veteran post-observation conferences as more reflective in nature than those with novices.

One principal specifically asks her teachers, novice and veteran, what kind of feedback they would like from her in their post-observation conferences. Her expectations of the veteran, however, are higher. She specified:

> I want that conference to be meaningful. . . . And I think part of being a professional and part of ongoing learning is being able to verbalize, "Here's how you can help me; here's some areas I think I need help in, or I would like to grow in this year." And a professional should be able to do that.

A third theme present among the data for question six was broadened expectations. Half of the principals expressed that their expectations were more expansive for veteran than for novice teachers. One principal voiced his expectation as a hope that veteran teachers would feel a greater sense of responsibility "because they've been given more responsibility." Another principal explicitly said her expectations are higher for the veteran teacher.

She expects veteran teachers to be able to handle the more difficult parents, present new information from workshops at faculty meetings, and serve in leadership capacities.

Providing professional growth opportunities was the fourth theme discovered among question six data. One principal reported that it was difficult to find meaningful staff development opportunities for veteran teachers, but that that was an area she worked hard to achieve. Another principal stated that she tries to find and provide the funds for professional growth opportunities for the veteran teachers in her building.

The fourth theme, providing leadership opportunities, is perhaps closely related to the broadened expectations set for veteran teachers by their building principals. A participant described her purpose in providing leadership opportunities as:

> I think that they know that I respect them as professionals; I encourage them as professionals. [For example, for] the positive discipline training this year, I immediately got them to be leaders back in our building. So they're the ones doing the training this summer. I'm always trying to get them to be in roles of leadership and allow teachers those opportunities.

Another principal illustrated the fourth theme in terms of his expectation that veteran teachers in his building be experts in some area, and develop leadership skills by chairing committees beyond the building level. He spoke of his role in supporting and helping veteran teachers mature to the level that their focus moves beyond their classroom. He added:

> I think that's how we prevent experiencing burn out. Different people have different needs. Some teachers might be very content teaching in the same room, but [with] almost everybody that I've ever known, there comes

a point in time, they may not want to change grade levels, but they need more. They need more than when they started the first day of teaching.

Second-Level Data

From analysis of first-level data, questions for the second interview protocol were developed. Second interviews were conducted to seek participants' perspectives specific to supervisory beliefs and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation. Questions for second-level interviews were:

1. What do you see as the biggest need(s) of the veteran teacher?
2. What frustrations, obstacles, or unique challenges do you face in the supervision of the veteran teacher? Describe some of those and how you approach them.
3. What kinds of things do you think de-motivate the veteran teacher?
4. How do you go about motivating the veteran teacher?
5. Describe what it means to have professional freedom or discretion in decision-making at work. What does that look like in the veteran teacher?
6. Describe the kinds of things or conditions that might *encourage* a veteran teacher to exercise professional freedom in decision-making at work.
7. Describe the kinds of things or conditions that might *discourage* a veteran teacher from exercising professional freedom in decision-making at work.

Question One Data: Needs of the Veteran Teacher

Participants were asked, "What do you see as the biggest need(s) of the veteran teacher?" Analysis of data produced four generalized themes. The four themes were: (a) increased pay, (b) recognition, (c) challenge or change, and (d) sensitivity to life stages and circumstances.

The first theme, increased pay, was mentioned by three of the five participants. For two of those three principals, money was their first response to question one. One of those principals explained that his wife, a veteran teacher of thirteen years, quit teaching in order to pursue a higher-paying job. He commented, "So many [teachers] are finding out they can make more money doing something else." In her first year of employment outside of education, the principal's wife's salary surpassed her highest annual earnings in teaching.

Regarding a veteran teacher's need for increased pay, another principal laughed lightly when she used the word "money," and added:

> Money, I can't give them. Recognition, I can, in terms of making them leaders in the school. I just don't think veteran teachers are paid enough. They work so hard, and they get more piled on them all the time.

The third principal speaking of the need for higher pay for veteran teachers, expressed her concern this way:

> When you look at the pay scale, at least within our district, there is a very small gap between an entry-year [teacher] and someone with thirty years' experience, if they've kept the same education. And so that concerns me.

Recognition emerged as the second theme among responses to question one. Rather broadly defined among the responses, recognition included

appreciation from administrators, peers, and parents; awards; and favorable public sentiment. One principal lamented poor public sentiment for teachers saying:

> I really don't feel like in our business that the public looks up to you, you know. I really feel like we're a babysitter first of all, and that it's like, "Well, if that guy had a real job, he would know what life is like."

The veteran teacher's need for challenge or change surfaced as the third theme among question-one data. Two of the participants who spoke of a veteran teacher's need for change, described their own role in encouraging or providing those changes. One principal addressed the need for change with this comment:

> I think they [veterans] sometimes have a need to want to do something different, and I try to encourage [them] if they decide they want to try something different or try another grade level. I see that more in the *middle* teacher. . . so, really the encouragement, and sometimes getting out of their way. And I think giving veteran teachers a job; in other words, giving them responsibility.

Another principal remarked that people who decide to go into the field of education "need change to remain excited about the profession, [that] things can become routine, and teachers can hit the wall." He also pointed out some of the ways change can be accomplished for the veteran teacher. Conducting a workshop, chairing a committee, changing grade levels, writing grants, and going back to school were some of this principal's examples. This principal felt one of his roles was to help provide those opportunities for change.

The fourth theme among responses was sensitivity to life stages and circumstances. Three of the five participants spoke of issues related to an

aging staff. Issues such as a teacher's child not doing well in college, a teacher's marriage "falling apart," a parent's or spouse's illness, and the teacher's own health were named. Dealing with an aging staff presented issues that were new to the experience of one principal. She commented:

> I haven't been in a building where I've had an older staff. Most of the time, they're either close to retirement or they're under forty, so usually we don't deal with those kinds of issues. And that's not the case here. We're all in that same middle-age boat, and so how do you handle that when they're going off on a neighbor teacher, or on me, or, how do you deal with all that kind of stuff? That's something I never thought about.

One female principal described the tension that health issues can cause among staff. She said:

> I have four [teachers] going through menopause right now, so we had this battle of the thermostat. . . . The temperature of the building was either too hot [or] too cold. They'd go to the bathroom and the toilet paper would be gone, and no one would have told the custodian, and so they'd come out screaming about that; I mean literally screaming.

Another principal, also female, offered a similar thought, "You know women, when they get to that age and they start going through all that stuff, and man, that's tough."

One principal explained that age-related issues bring up the need to care for the individual teacher beyond the professional level extending to a personal level. Additionally, a principal added that when a staff member's personal situations are affecting him or her in the classroom, the principal is forced to deal with it in some way at school. She remarked:

> You have to handle some of it. I can't handle their family problems, and you have marriage and all that kind of stuff, but [I try to think], "OK, what can I do to help school be calmer for them?"

Several isolated responses were voiced among the participants; that is,

some responses were voiced by only one individual. For example, one participant expressed that veteran teachers need help making connections among the mass of information that is available to them. This principal continued to explain that the veteran needs help refining information into usable formats and implementing it. She said that "to assume that they [veteran teachers] are so skilled that they just take it and go off on their own is a pretty big assumption." Another participant declared that veterans need opportunities to share their expertise.

Another isolated response to question one was made by one principal who said that veteran teachers need meaningful professional development. She said that finding and providing it for them is one of her biggest challenges as a principal, and added, "All of us need that [no] matter how long we've taught." This principal expressed frustration at the inadequacy of the content of recent staff development meetings to produce any "Ahas" among the veteran teachers on her staff.

Question Two Data: Frustrations, Obstacles, and Unique Challenges in the Supervision of Veteran Teachers

The principals were asked to think about what frustrations, obstacles, or unique challenges they face in the supervision of veteran teachers. Then they were asked to describe some of those frustrations and tell how they approached them. Several participants appeared to need longer think time

on this question than on other questions. An additional prompt was offered to some participants.

Only two themes clearly emerged within the data, and those were generalized between only two participants. Clearly, most responses were isolated remarks. However, a majority of the responses reflected a connection to veteran teacher attitude.

Backing a teacher when the teacher is wrong, and indifference to children and parents were the two themes discovered among responses. Both of these themes were evident in the interviews of the same two participants. Both principals expressed that those two issues were the areas they most disliked about their jobs.

With regard to backing a teacher when the teacher is wrong, both principals felt it was a difficult but necessary duty. One principal explained a repercussion of not backing the teacher. He said that it would soon be spread through the school, "See, [the principal] won't back me." The other principal expressed her frustration at being put in the middle of the teacher's conflict with a parent. She remarked:

> You [the principal] didn't have anything to do with that teacher who opened their mouth and said something they shouldn't have said, but by golly, you're expected to go take care of it. And of course the parent wants their head on a platter. You just want to say, "You dummy; don't you ever say that again." I would *never* say that, but that's what you want to say.

This principal added that sometimes she simply cannot resolve the conflict, and that she is "stuck" in the middle trying to appease the parent, care for the child, and back the teacher.

Indifference to children and parents was the second theme among responses. One of the principals said that this is a problem he sees more often among experienced teachers. He lamented, "It really seems like some of my older ones are maybe colder than what the younger ones are." This principal made the point that it is easy to find someone who can teach reading and writing, but finding one who is compassionate is difficult. The following story portrays one of this principal's most trying incidents with teacher indifference:

> A couple of years ago, I had this kid who won all-city in wrestling, and granted, he's not the best student in the world. But I was down there when he went up to his teacher and said, "Look what I won last night!" And she said, "Well, you need to sit down and spend that much time on your school work." And it killed me, because here's a kid, and that's the biggest deal in his life.

The principals were asked how they approached the problem of indifference to children and parents with the veteran teacher. One principal said he tried to help the teachers gain an understanding of the context in which the child lives in order to develop empathy for the child. He also indicated that he encouraged teachers when writing or speaking to parents, to frame their comments in terms of how "we" can help the child, instead of what "you" need to do as a parent. The other principal said that her approach is matter-of-fact and even-keeled. She tries to remain calm, present the facts, and not make the issue a personal attack on the teacher.

One isolated remark connected to veteran teacher attitude, was helping the veteran see that he or she still needs to be growing in the profession. The principal who made this point said she approached the issue by generating

discussion with the teacher at pre- and post-observation conferences with an intent to promote self-reflection. She added, "I want them to be able to do more of a self-analysis or critique themselves," and perhaps use video-taping as a means to self-evaluate their classroom performance. Additionally, an isolated frustration named was how to supervise the veteran teacher about to retire who begins to "coast" through the last teaching years.

Another isolated remark connected to veteran teacher attitude was narrow mindedness. One principal voiced her frustration when faced with the attitude among some veteran teachers of, "I know better because I've taught longer." This principal described her approach to this frustration as one of helping the teacher see the long-term history of a particular situation or student, and sometimes even saying, "Look, I've been dealing with this for a long time. . . you're going to have to trust me on this one."

One participant spoke of time frustrations, both her time and the veteran teacher's time. Regarding her time, the principal commented that veteran teachers would like the principal in their classrooms more often because "they want me to know they're doing a good job, and I should be in there more often." The principal approaches this frustration by focusing on the times she is directly involved, and sometimes even instructionally involved, with the students in the veteran teacher's classroom. Her reason for classroom involvement, she explained, is "so that I know their students [and when the teacher comes to talk about a problem with a student,] I know who they're talking about."

Regarding time frustration for the veteran teacher, the principal spoke of the need for more time to collaborate so that the teacher feels support when implementing a new practice or decision in his or her classroom. The principal said:

> I think that one of the things that happens is that we work on this all together [e.g., a building-wide focus], and we make decisions all together, and we do instruction all together, but then the bottom line is, teachers have to implement it by themselves in their room. And I think that I need to figure out a way . . . of how we can get them support in their room.

The principal expressed that it is challenging to find ways that support teachers in their classrooms, but do not make them feel intruded upon or judged. She explained that "there's a little bit of threat, even with peer coaching," that makes it difficult to encourage veteran teachers to collaborate in this manner.

Another principal proclaimed her frustration with the evaluation system:

> I wish our evaluation process was different for veterans. Right now, it's the same. It doesn't matter if you're in your entry [year], your residency, or if you've taught thirty-two years; it's the same. . . . And I really wish [that] our district could ask for exemption from the state to be able to [create a different process].

This principal described her idea for an evaluation process in which the veteran teacher writes his or her own professional development plan. She suggested that the plan may take two to three years to fully realize, but that progress would be measured through growth in the designated areas and through a portfolio the teacher puts together.

Question Three Data: Things That De-Motivate the Veteran Teacher

Data generated from the question three produced only one identifiable theme across participants and among the twenty-five responses noted. Lack of parental respect emerged as the only common de-motivator named. Three of the five participants spoke to this issue, and one other participant addressed lack of parental support in a subsequent interview question.

One principal expressed lack of parental respect this way:

> To me that is maybe one of the biggest deflators there is when they [the teachers] feel like they've really made progress and tried to do something [for the student], then they get ripped for it. . . . I don't know of hardly anything worse than the post office or teaching school as far as you take all the abuse of the world.

Another principal described lack of parental respect in a type of "no-win" context. When a teacher is young, she explained, parents do not think the teacher knows much. A grace period follows. Then when the teacher is older, the parents think, "Well, she's been here too long," or, "She doesn't understand my child." This principal also expressed frustration due to the oversensitive parent who cannot take any criticism of his or her child.

The remaining responses among the data were not duplicated in any participant's interviews. However, the remaining data clearly fell into three distinct sub-groups of de-motivators related to:

1. Principal behavior;
2. Educational issues at large; and
3. Outside influences.

Five responses represented de-motivators related to principal behavior.

Four of the responses were given by the same participant. The first response, the principal finding fault, was explained this way: If the teachers "felt like I went in there just to find problems," or "just to look for things they did wrong," that would de-motivate them. Other principal behaviors that de-motivate included not knowing the teacher or students well, not taking time to build a rapport with the teacher, and not connecting supervision to a "reality base" for the teacher.

The fifth principal behavior connected to de-motivation was not trusting the teachers, or "breathing down their necks." One principal explained that if teachers feel they are neither trusted nor treated as professionals, they will live to that expectation. He added that trusting, however, begins with the hiring process. This principal promoted spending plenty of time in interviewing potential employees to better ensure a good fit between their basic work values and those found building-wide.

The majority of responses to question three fell under the category of de-motivators related to educational issues at large. Sensing a futility of work was one issue named. For example, if a teacher has worked long and hard in a committee or on a project, and the work is not accepted, that can make the teacher feel he or she had no "say-so" from the beginning.

A sense of being overwhelmed by too much "stuff," a feeling that regulations are being forced upon a teacher as more "busy work," and an overemphasis on standardized test scores were additional de-motivators named. Lack of recognition from the principal, peers, and parents surfaced

as a de-motivator as well. Additionally, low pay was voiced as a de-motivator.

Three outside influences were named by participants as de-motivators. The first was reading about a teacher's or a principal's criminal misconduct in the news. The principal who voiced this response expressed concern for the reputation of teachers at large saying, "Well, there's another mark against all of us that we have to deal with now." Personal problems at home, such as health and family concerns, were indicated as de-motivators. Additionally, the complexity and increasing severity of issues that children come to school with were also named, specifically issues related to family dysfunction.

Question Four Data: How the Principal Motivates the Veteran Teacher

Participants were asked, "How do you go about motivating the veteran teacher?" All of the responses could be generalized into one of three themes: (a) interpersonal relations with the principal, (b) professional collaboration with the principal, and (c) recognition.

Three participants contributed responses related to interpersonal relations with the principal. One principal said she tries to build rapport with teachers. Another said he resists the old-fashioned expectation that a certain amount of distance between the principal and the teacher should be assumed so that the "authority figure thing" is upheld. He added that in the present day a principal should "try to be as personal with [teachers] as [he or she] can." A third principal conveyed similar sentiment in that his staff needed to know he genuinely cared about what happens to them and their families outside the

workplace. He said to do that, "you just treat people like you want to be treated, [and] you try to be a part of what's going on."

A second theme, professional collaboration with the principal, was discovered among responses as a way to motivate the veteran teacher. This theme was evident among activities principals named such as being instructionally involved in the classroom to know what is going on, and meeting regularly to talk through plans and concerns. Another principal makes strong efforts to see that teachers get what they need and want. She relayed a point she had learned from her mentor principal:

> It's the old adage of, if they're doing a good job, and there's something they want [you] to do, and you can do it for them, do it. . . . If it's something they need for their classroom, I want them to have it. If there's a workshop they want to go to, we want them to go.

Additional thoughts as to how principals collaborate in order to motivate veterans included openness and listening, and acceptance of teachers' differing teaching styles. Regarding openness and listening, one principal said, "I try really hard to listen to what they say," and let "them be the expert." The same principal expressed that acceptance of teachers' differing teaching styles is important for these reasons:

> I don't try to change people, because you're not going to anyway; and you just get frustrated if you try. You have to accept them for what they are because they all have good qualities. And they all work with children differently, which is important.

Finally, recognition emerged as a motivating theme among question four data. Writing personal notes to teachers and sharing teachers' successes in faculty meetings and over the intercom were two ways that principals

mentioned to give recognition. Another principal reported looking for grants and awards, then encouraging veteran teachers to apply. This principal applies some friendly coercion by personally handing teachers an award packet and stating, "Let me know how I can help, but I'm proofing [the application] before you mail it." She admitted that she "hounded" the veterans in her building to apply for awards because she felt they were uncomfortable seeking any recognition on their own.

Question Five: Description of Professional Freedom in Decision-Making at Work for the Veteran Teacher

Question five was designed to seek principals' perceptions of the meaning of veteran teacher autonomy. Participants were asked, " Describe what it means to have professional freedom or discretion in decision-making at work. What does that look like for the veteran teacher?" Four of five participants responding to this question defined professional freedom at work as personalizing one's time and duties within given constraints. Samples of participants' responses illustrated the common thread among their descriptions. Each of the following samples has been paraphrased for brevity and clarity:

- You have to be aware of your boundaries, the constraints you're working with, and then set them aside. Those are the givens. So professionally, your job is to live within the boundaries and not waste your time fighting them. Then, you *do* have professional choices you make based on your teaching style, your students' learning needs, and the focus of the curriculum.

- There's a framework that you can give a teacher so that there's some consistency in a school and within a district. There has to be a balance between what happens in a school and a district. I think that [professional freedom] means being able to have some selection of curriculum and methodology that is not dictated. There is not a one-size-fits-all standard.

- I know teachers have no choice about P.A.S.S. [priority academic student skills] objectives, but P.A.S.S. objectives are so broad. All I expect is that teachers know what they have to cover, and however [they] teach it, that is [their] decision.

Principals gave several examples of how veteran teachers may personalize their time and duties. One principal allows her staff to create their own duty schedules. She also allows great flexibility in the teachers' coming and going from the building, and added that she does not see them taking advantage of that freedom. This principal further commented, "I spend a lot of time saying, 'Do what works for you.'"

Another principal said she does not check lesson plans and explained, "I trust them to write good lesson plans and to be ready [for their class]." She also described teachers' freedom to restructure their class time, such as spending two hours on Social Studies instead of forty minutes.

One principal explained that not allowing professional freedom creates too much structure. He likened too much structure to a one-size-fits-all coat. For some, he said, the coat would drag the floor. For others, an arm could not be squeezed into the coat. This principal further explained his frustration that educators are trained to individualize for students, but that individualization is not promoted for the teachers. He recounted his own student teaching experience to illustrate. Trying to imitate his mentor teacher only led to his

feeling inadequate. "I kept thinking, 'I must not be a good teacher, because what I'm doing isn't working,'" he recalled. As he learned to tailor his teaching to make it fit his style, he learned to enjoy his profession.

Question Six Data: Conditions That Encourage Veteran Teacher Autonomy

Among data collected for question six, only one theme was clearly apparent—communicating respect and trust in the teacher. All five participants made reference to this condition. One principal described her support as a "hands-off" approach that demonstrates to teachers trust in them to do their job. One principal asserted:

> Treat them like you expect them to make decisions. You value the decisions that they've made, even if [the decisions made are] not how you would make [them]. It's really a long-haul thing. I think it's a trust issue.

Another participant remarked:

> If you give them a responsibility and they do it, [don't] come back and say, "Well, that's not the way I wanted it done." . . . Once they know you really are going to let them make that decision, and you're going to stick with what they do, I think that encourages them to go ahead and do it again.

Among other conditions that encourage veteran teacher autonomy was avoiding criticism of a decision or its outcome. One participant said she tries "not to squelch people," when they approach her with an idea. However, if the teacher's idea needs refinement, the principal encourages the teacher, saying, "Think about a way you can present this to the faculty and let's see where it goes." Her approach puts the thinking back on the teacher.

The principals indicated that support and positive feedback from peers, parents, and children encouraged teacher autonomy. Additionally, listening to

critical opinions from a teacher was mentioned by a principal. She explained that one of her teachers felt the principal had asked for opinions from the staff, but did not take them into serious consideration. The principal explained her dilemma:

> And I felt like here was a test of: "Do I really do what I say I do?" I also am willing to listen in a faculty meeting to opinions that are critical of what I've done. . . . And very often, those criticisms, if nothing else, make you analyze and be sure of what you're doing.

Question Seven Data: Conditions That Discourage Veteran Teacher Autonomy

Two generalized themes emerged from question seven data. The first theme, resistance to change, is akin to the adage, "If it ain't broke, don't fix it," according to two participants. Those principals reported that veteran teachers tend to succumb to the notion that change is unnecessary, especially if things are going along well. "Why rock the boat?" is their thinking. Additionally, a principal added that veteran teachers have seen many bandwagons come and go, only to come again. She commented, "What we're already doing is working, [so] don't make us just turn this upside down" for the benefit of a "new" idea.

Criticism, a second theme, was named among conditions that discourage autonomy. One principal described criticism as getting "beaten down." This principal made the point that criticism can come from principals, parents, students and even the person him or herself. She said, "You can beat yourself down faster than anybody else can." Further, this principal described

some teachers who face a family life void of encouragement. "Some people get beat down at home, so it's tough for them to come to school," and it is important to handle those people with care, the principal added. The principal further explained:

> I have a couple of staff members in my building that get absolutely no encouragement at home from a spouse . . . . You have to encourage them here, because they're not going to get it anywhere else.

Principals indicated that intimidation discourages teacher autonomy. Describing his disgust of administrator intimidation, one principal asserted, "It's like the principal is God or something, and the teachers are peons." Another principal reported that teachers get discouraged when feeling coerced into some mandate or decision that they see as having no meaning or importance for their classroom.

One principal described a situation that could potentially discourage teacher autonomy. Identifying a single teacher as "the best" or "the star" is not encouraged in this principal's building; instead, teamwork and collaboration are valued and encouraged. She explained the potential rub regarding autonomy:

> It could be discouraging to the star who is not getting the attention she wants, but if I were to let her be the star, that would be discouraging to other people who are trying to be emergent leaders.

The principal further added that lots of teachers on her staff are exceptional.

Prevalent Supervisory Beliefs and Behaviors

Transcribed data were analyzed in four stages. In the first stage, data from each participant were read individually to gain an overall sense of the content. In the second stage, data collected per question asked of the participants were analyzed to identify categories or themes. In the third stage, data were analyzed collectively to discover overriding, or prevalent themes representing supervisory beliefs and behaviors. Finally, themes and isolated responses from all data sets were reviewed in an attempt to verify comprehensive themes across all data.

All data were read multiple times by the researcher to discover or infer among perceptions any specific beliefs that direct the participants' supervision of veteran teachers, and any behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation. Five prevalent themes were clearly represented in the data. For the purposes of reporting and discussion, the themes are best articulated as conditions or belief goals of supervision. As such, the themes represent conditions necessary for supervision to benefit veteran teachers. The following themes were identified:

1. Empowerment
2. Trust and Professional Treatment
3. Caring Climate
4. Recognition
5. Growth

All five identified beliefs were observed in both first-level and second-level

data. Additionally, each belief was represented in at least four participants' remarks. Four beliefs, empowerment, trust and professional treatment, caring climate, and recognition, were represented in all six participants' data. Finally, all belief themes, except for trust and professional treatment, were also identified themes in first-level data for question three, "Describe the processes at work in your building that foster teacher motivation."

Principals made reference to empowerment in ten of the thirteen interview questions. Empowerment was discussed in terms of providing teacher leadership opportunities, allowing shared decision-making, and reducing veteran teacher burn out. One participant cited empowerment as a prime motivating force. He said, "To motivate [teachers], I think first and foremost, they need . . . to be empowered."

Some principals expressed the belief that they cannot be experts in all areas of their school, and that empowerment promotes shared responsibility. One principal said of the teachers, "I must rely on them." Another said:

> I make very few decisions here on my own. I have [teams of teachers and parents who help]. I also feel like, whoever has to live with the decision, should make it.

A principal cautioned that, "if you ask somebody's opinion, you better listen to it." She said that in faculty meetings, she makes a conscious effort not to guide the discussion, but to offer information that shows her point of view.

One principal framed part of his empowerment remarks in terms of budget decisions. The teachers in his building make their own choices on what they purchase. He said, "I'm not Big Daddy that you come to and ask permission

to spend money." This principal also described how empowerment can create ownership and unity:

> What that does when you empower teachers, it really does put responsibility on them. And when you know you're responsible for something, you're going to work harder. . . . The attitude becomes: I will conquer. We will conquer.

Numerous references to communicating trust and treating teachers as professionals were made. Three principals connected their comments to poor public sentiment toward teachers. One principal said that making teachers feel respected as professionals is difficult when so many people, including legislators, attack what is done in public education. Another principal declared that the public mindset toward the profession is that "*Anybody* can teach kids."

Most of the comments directed toward professional treatment were made with regard to the principal's trust in and respect for the teacher. A participant said, "I feel if teachers are to act as professionals, I need to treat them as professionals." Another participant said, "I try to treat them like they're professionals instead of like, 'I'm the principal; I'm God, and I know everything there is to know about education." A principal also said, "I try really hard to give them the 'Thou Shalts' in a way that doesn't demean them."

Two principals spoke of professional treatment as a motivator for better job performance. One said that if a weak teacher is treated as if he or she is a professional, and if the tone of the school is professional, then the weak teacher will either rise to the call or leave the profession. Another principal said that as she respects and encourages her teachers as professionals, they

are more willing to take risks and try new things.

Caring for the teacher personally and creating a community feeling in the building were addressed by all participants across all data. One principal connected the care teachers are shown personally to the care they are shown professionally. He described an environment in which the two cannot be thought of independently. The principal explained that people who have gone through a particularly difficult personal or professional crisis are then able to offer encouragement to others. "We help each other through [those kinds of things]," he commented.

Another principal told the story of one of her veteran teachers, who while caring for both of her ill parents worried about the number of days she had taken off to take them to doctors' appointments. The principal encouraged the veteran teacher saying, "They [your parents] have to go to the doctor, and you have to be the one that takes care of them." Two other principals spoke of the need to care for family first, profession second. The following comment from one of them illustrated this point:

> A teacher has a very inflexible schedule. They don't have a lot of freedom in their day like I do to do the things that they should do. And I feel like they can't be a great teacher if they don't take care of their faith and take care of their family. . . so I try to help them in *whatever* way I can.

Comments from participants with regard to caring for the teacher on a personal level were connected many times to comments regarding creating a climate or community of care among all in the building. One principal

described her belief in a climate of care this way:

> Climate is a real big deal with me, and I want everyone who walks through the front door, whether it's the two-year-old toddler that's someone's little brother, or the eighty-five year-old grandmother who's coming in to volunteer or eat Thanksgiving dinner, as well as the staff and parents and children, to feel like this is a safe place that they are also loved in.

Other participants described activities in their schools designed to fight isolation and to create face-to-face contact, such as opening exercises in the morning and faculty social gatherings. Gestures such as the "Hug Basket" at one school, a basket distributed among the staff to be filled with small gifts and presented to a fellow staff member who has experienced recent personal trauma, help ensure a community of care.

The belief that teachers must be recognized for their efforts was discovered as a common theme among all participants. Principals described recognition as "paying attention" and "truly noticing" a teacher's efforts. Recognition was presented in variety of ways, including compliments given in faculty meetings, notes from the principal, nominations for building and district awards, displaying diplomas, and earning national certification. One principal shared that it is her practice to nominate only veteran teachers for certain honors. She explained that veterans "deserve some perks," and that novices have not had time to refine their classroom practices.

Four principals voiced that teachers need recognition from peers, the district, students and parents, and the principal. One principal shared that recognition can "really kindle the fire again" for veteran teachers in times of professional disillusionment or discouragement. He said, "[If] we were

honest, we all have wondered why we even went into the profession." He shared:

> I have seen teachers that have been in this building sixteen years, and they will have a child come back and say, "You were the best teacher I ever had." I mean, that's good for five more years.

He explained, "All of us need compliments, but I started thinking, 'OK, if that's what we need, have we really given that?'" This principal encouraged peer recognition through a voluntary staff assignment to write one's own former teachers letters of appreciation.

Principals expressed their belief that veteran teachers need to continue to grow in the profession. Actually fulfilling that need, however, was viewed as a challenge for principals. First, finding meaningful professional development was cited by one principal who claimed that most workshops produce very few "Ahas" for the veteran teacher. Second, helping veteran teachers see that they *should* be growing was voiced as problematic. Finally, another principal proclaimed that some veteran teachers have not learned or are not comfortable with self-evaluation or reflective practice needed for growth.

Two principals spoke of their belief that pre- and post-observation conferencing offer opportunities for self-evaluation and growth in veterans. One principal said she works to "gather data" in the observation time that later she and the teacher can use together for a time of reflection and growth. Another principal expressed her frustration that veteran teachers "don't know" what data to ask their principal to collect on their behalf. This principal added, "I want them to be able to do more of a self-analysis or critique themselves."

She also said that veterans "should" be able to do that.

Principals also viewed discussion and sharing during faculty meetings as opportunities for growth. Three principals organized voluntary book studies to promote current literature and reflective collaboration among their staffs. Another principal described "new" opportunities as means to growth for veteran teachers. He mentioned serving on district committees, grant writing, continued training, and going back to school as activities that encourage growth.

In addition to supervisory beliefs and corresponding behaviors presented as themes, a variety of additional supervisory behaviors were identified from the data. Setting higher expectations for veteran teachers and finding leadership opportunities were two examples. Additional supervisory behaviors also included facilitating opportunities for the veteran teacher to refine and implement instructional practices. One principal spoke of her role as a "filter" for teachers, sifting among multitudes of information and mandates so that what is delivered to teachers does not overwhelm them. Another principal viewed his primary role as "removing the roadblocks" for veteran teachers; that is, identifying and addressing those things that squelch veteran teachers' professional freedom and discourage their sense of professionalism.

Comprehensive Themes

In an effort to discover comprehensive themes across all data, two broader, working categories were created: (a) needs of the veteran teacher,

and (b) processes that foster motivation in veteran teachers. All data responses were considered for this review, including themes and isolated responses.

Comparing the two broader categories to each other yielded a clear parallel. Most of the items on the needs of the veteran teacher list could be matched to a counterpart on the processes that foster motivation list. For instance, the needs of the veteran list included recognition, and the counterpart on the processes that foster motivation list was personal recognition. The need for change or challenge, and its counterpart, involvement outside the classroom, represented another example of the congruence between broad categories.

Finally, congruence between the broad category lists and the prevalent belief themes was observed. In other words, the needs of the veteran teacher list matched the processes that foster motivation list; and those two lists, in turn, closely matched the prevalent supervisory beliefs list.

CHAPTER V

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was conducted to gain an understanding of how principals view the supervision of veteran teachers. Perceptions were sought to describe how elementary principals think about supervision, what they claim their supervisory practices are, and why they choose those practices. Data were examined to discover specific beliefs that direct participants' supervision of veteran teachers and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation.

A review of the study, research questions and demographics are presented in this chapter. Following the review of the study, major findings are summarized and discussed. Finally, implications and recommendations based on the results of this study are presented.

Review of the Study

A qualitative design and methods were used to collect, describe and examine perceptions of elementary principals with regard to their supervisory beliefs and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation. To direct this study, the following research questions were used:

1. How do administrators describe the supervisory process?
2. What do administrators identify as beliefs and behaviors that direct their supervisory processes?

3. How do administrators describe the meaning and intent of teacher motivation?
4. How do administrators describe behaviors that enhance motivation in veteran teachers?
5. What do administrators view as factors that inhibit motivation in veteran teachers?

Procedures

Following selection of participants and upon return of signed consent forms, data collection began. Six elementary principals from three school districts were selected to participate in this study. Data collection was obtained through personal interviews with each participant.

Two in-depth, face-to-face interviews with each participant were conducted. The first interviews took place early in the first semester of the school year 1999-2000. The second interviews took place early in the second semester of the same school year. Interview guides (see Appendices C and D) served as instruments for all interviews.

First interviews were conducted to collect participants' perspectives regarding the broad context of supervision and conditions that affect teacher motivation. Second interviews were conducted to collect participants' perspectives regarding their specific supervisory beliefs and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation.

All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed. Each transcribed

interview was read in its entirety first to gain an overall sense of the participant's perspectives. Next, data were read collectively per question asked to identify similar or dissimilar themes among participants. Next, all data were examined in order to discover participants' specific supervisory beliefs and behaviors. Finally, data were analyzed for overriding themes relating to supervisory beliefs and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation.

Demographics

Principals selected for this study ranged in administrative experience from eleven to nineteen years. Two participants were male, and four were female. Three of the participants had experience as assistant principals prior to becoming principals. One participant had prior experience as a manager in the business sector.

Years of experience among the teachers at each site was obtained. In four of the six schools, the number of veteran teachers compared to the number of novice teachers was more than double. In total for this study, the number of veteran teachers represented 71% of the population of teachers, while the novice teachers represented only 29%.

Interpretation of Findings

One goal of this study was to gain an understanding of what it means to supervise veteran teachers from the perspectives of those who know it well,

the principals themselves. It was hoped that this research would produce insight into beliefs principals hold that guide their efforts to supervise and affect growth in veteran teachers. Major findings reflect the beliefs and corresponding behaviors that elementary principals in this study view as enhancing or inhibiting veteran teacher motivation.

Data analysis and findings reported in the preceding chapter were arranged according to interview questions. Discussion and interpretation of findings are presented in this chapter according to the research questions that directed this study. The research questions, however, are reorganized to accommodate discussion of findings under three broad categories: (a) meaning of teacher motivation, (b) factors that influence teacher motivation, and (c) prevalent supervisory beliefs and behaviors.

An unexpected outcome of this study comprises a fourth broad category for interpretation of findings. Upon review of first-level data, and during development of round-two interview questions, an important issue affecting the supervision of veteran teachers emerged. Principals face frustrations and challenges that are unique to the supervision of veteran teachers. As those challenges can complicate the principal's ability to affect teacher motivation, the findings generated from this topic are presented for interpretation.

Meaning of Teacher Motivation

Only two generalized themes – excitement for the job, and adaptability and flexibility – emerged from data. It is significant that the principals in this study agree that excitement is important to motivation. The literature supports this

claim. Steers and Porter (1991) analyzed a number of definitions for motivation looking for commonalties. They found that what energizes behavior is an important element in defining human motivation.

It is also significant, however, that very little other consensus among participants was found for describing a motivated teacher. Among the isolated responses given to describe teacher motivation, only one participant cited believing that the work itself is meaningful. Sensing one's work as meaningful and worthwhile is directly tied to high motivation (McCall,1997; Steers & Porter, 1991).

Another isolated response, taking care of self, corresponds to motivation literature regarding needs satisfaction. Many writers refer to Maslow's (1954) work in explaining the connection between the human needs cycle of satisfaction and motivation (e.g., Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995; Hayden, 1993; Thompson, 1996). The participant who spoke of taking care of self in describing a motivated teacher, perhaps made an implicit connection between care of self-need satisfaction and the ability to move to a higher level of motivation.

The varied responses among principals in describing a motivated teacher may imply that a body of general knowledge in motivation theory does not exist among supervising practitioners. Possibly, the available body of knowledge in motivation theory has not been stressed to sufficient degree in administrative training. If those implications are indeed the case, they are consistent with a history of omissions and cursory attention to motivation

theory in educational administration textbooks over this century. Applications of motivation theory to practice are still considered as a somewhat underdeveloped and modern phenomenon (Imundo, 1991; Steers & Porter, 1991).

Autonomy

A consensus of descriptions for autonomy was clearly evident among participants. The term autonomy was not used in questioning; instead, participants were asked to describe professional freedom in decision-making at work. Four of the five principals described professional freedom as personalizing one's time and duties within given constraints. The term autonomy was used by only one principal.

All participants, in response to *other* interview questions, made reference to empowerment, however. In ten of thirteen interview questions, the issue of empowerment was brought into the discussion. Participants' descriptions of empowerment mirrored their descriptions of professional freedom or autonomy. These data appear to indicate that principals recognize what professional freedom at work looks like. The data also indicate that principals value empowerment for veteran teachers. What is not clear from the data findings is whether the principals perceive autonomy and empowerment as synonymous.

When asked what conditions encourage professional decision-making at work, only one theme was discovered among responses, communicating respect and trust in the teacher. One participant voiced positive feedback as

means to encourage autonomy, and referred specifically to feedback from peers, parents and students, not from the principal. Motivation literature indicates that feedback encourages autonomy (e.g., Reeve, 1996; Walker and Symons, 1997), and even more so when it is specific and connected to a goal attempt (Deci & Ryan, 1991).

This discussion raises the question of how much value principals place on their giving feedback to veteran teachers. The data may suggest that the principals in this study do not connect feedback to autonomy. In response to an interview question that inquired about the differences between novice and veteran teachers, one participant declared that veterans need less feedback from the principal. The principal indicated that she worked to ensure the feedback was meaningful, however. The findings regarding feedback may represent a gap between what principals know to do and what the literature indicates can be done to promote autonomy.

Factors That Influence Teacher Motivation

Clear resemblance among some data sets became apparent upon final analysis. In an attempt to discover comprehensive themes across all data, the researcher grouped applicable data into two broader working categories. Those categories were needs of the veteran teacher, and processes that foster teacher motivation. All data were reviewed again in light of the broader working categories. It became apparent that much of the needs list mirrored the processes list. In other words, processes that were named could fulfill the needs that were listed. For example, needs such as challenge and

professional development were mirrored by processes such as involvement outside of the classroom and meetings as a time for professional growth, respectively.

Another strong parallel was observed between the prevalent supervisory beliefs themes and the two broader working categories. The five prevalent beliefs–empowerment, trust and professional treatment, caring climate, recognition, and growth–clearly reflected what the data represented as needs of the veteran teacher and processes that foster teacher motivation.

A caveat to the paralleled data sets sheds important light in understanding implications of the findings. In analyses using the broader working categories, the researcher incorporated all data, including isolated responses. However, in the analyses for the development of prevalent belief themes, isolated responses were not considered. Therefore, isolated responses may be representative of possible gaps in many participants' understanding of what veteran teachers need and what processes may be used to meet those needs.

De-Motivators

While it is critical to discover what processes encourage motivation, it is important to identify the factors that inhibit motivation as well. Principals contributed twenty-five collective responses to the question, "What kinds of things do you think de-motivate the veteran teacher?" Only one identifiable theme emerged, lack of parental respect. In an attempt to classify the remaining data, the researcher organized responses into three sub-groups:

(a) de-motivators related to principal behavior, (b) de-motivators related to educational issues at large, and (c) de-motivators related to outside influences.

It may be inferred that since most responses were isolated remarks, perhaps no clear and general knowledge among principals regarding factors that inhibit motivation exists. One participant said that not connecting supervision to a "reality base" is a de-motivator. Supervision and motivation literature support this claim. Starratt (1992) pointed out that meaningless conversations in the name of supervision offer no benefit for veteran teachers and create dissatisfaction in them.

While principals may have little control over de-motivators related to educational issues at large, such as low pay and overburdening regulations, principals do have some control over other de-motivators. Feeling overwhelmed by too much information and overemphasis on standardized test scores are de-motivators that principals may have some influence regarding. One principal declared that one of her main roles is serving as a "filter" for teachers, sifting through multitudes of information before the information can bombard the teacher. That role is supported in motivation literature by Thompson (1996). He claimed that the principal can create the conditions "which satisfy the needs" of the teachers (p. 5) and foster motivation. If a teacher is overburdened unnecessarily, it follows that he or she is "stuck" in the need-satisfaction cycle and motivation is stifled.

Prevalent Supervisory Beliefs and Behaviors

A goal of this study was to gain a fuller understanding of supervisory beliefs and behaviors that affect veteran teacher motivation. All data were analyzed to discover possible overriding, or prevalent supervisory beliefs and corresponding behaviors. The overriding beliefs reflected what principals indicated either explicitly or implicitly as core supervisory values. The five belief themes identified were:

1. Empowerment
2. Trust and Professional Treatment
3. Caring Climate
4. Recognition
5. Growth

The identified belief themes clearly paralleled and served as answers for what principals reported as needs of the veteran teacher. For example, the principals' belief that veteran teachers need to be empowered was clearly recognizable in the data. Numerous remarks reflecting the need to respect the teacher as a professional were also made. Caring climate and recognition also were widely presented in the data.

Growth was the only theme not represented by all six participants. Further, it was the least discussed theme among the data. This is not to imply that any principal viewed or presented growth as unimportant. Rather, it may raise questions as to the amount of attention growth in veterans is addressed among principals and in principal training programs. It may also

raise the question of whether the connection between veteran teacher growth and veteran teacher motivation is made in the principal's mind.

The need for challenge and growth are clearly connected to motivation in the literature. Theorists and writers have substantiated the claim that motivation is enhanced through challenge and growth. Herzberg (1966) believed that one of man's two basic needs is the need for growth. Herzberg's work has served as a framework for many other theorists (e.g., Blumberg, 1980; Hayden, 1993; Silver, 1982; Thompson, 1996). Others supported that motivation, and in particular autonomy, are enhanced by challenge (e.g., Danner & Lonky, 1981; Deci & Ryan, 1994).

Challenges in the Supervision of Veteran Teachers

In attempting to better understand the supervision needs of veteran teachers and how principals may better meet those needs, it is important to understand what obstacles principals face in this duty. Participants were asked to describe any frustrations, obstacles, or unique challenges they face in the supervision of veteran teachers. Only two themes emerged from the data, and those two themes–backing the teacher when the teacher is wrong, and indifference to children and parents–were representative of only two participants.

Isolated responses representing challenges to the principal included helping the veteran see that he or she still needs to be growing in the profession, and how to handle the veteran who begins to "coast" through the

last teaching years before retirement. Additionally, a principal described her frustration with the inadequacy of the evaluation system given that it is the same for both the novice and the veteran teacher.

An absence of consensus among the principals' perceptions as to the challenges faced in the supervision of veteran teachers may suggest a number of things. First, perhaps the challenges and frustrations are so numerous that it is unlikely a small study would reveal many commonalties. Second, it is possible that as teachers age, the complexity of life's circumstances makes it difficult to compartmentalize concern issues. Third, it is conceivable that the principal's time is so taken by the needs of novice and problem teachers that awareness of frustrations in supervising veterans is relegated to the "back burner" in the principal's mind.

An inaccurate assumption may be made by principals with regard both to veterans teachers' needs and to the challenges faced in the supervision of veterans. Principals may presume or expect that veterans can "make it on their own" by virtue of their experience; therefore, any needs the veteran teachers may have or any frustrations they may cause for the principal, are concerns put on hold while other, more immediate concerns in a building are addressed.

Although not specified under the category of frustrations or challenges in supervision of veteran teachers, age-related issues concerning veterans surfaced in other data. Principals commented that health issues such as menopause play a role in the veteran teacher's ability to manage well at

school. Care of aging parents was addressed by principals with regard to the veteran's need to miss days of school. Perhaps under reexamination with the participants in this study, age-related issues might be brought into the discussion as representing challenges in the supervision of veteran teachers. Certainly, age-related issues can impact the veteran teacher's school performance and therefore require the principal's involvement.

Implications and Recommendations

Given the limitations of this study, including participants' unique and differing perceptions regarding motivation, and the homogeneous population sampled, implications and recommendations are not intended as generalizable across all principals. Implications and recommendations may be considered representative for the population sampled and only suggestive to other similar populations.

Implications for Practice

The demographic data in this study regarding number of veteran teachers versus number of novice teachers shows a two-to-one ratio. The sheer majority veteran teachers in schools makes it important that adequate attention be paid to their supervision needs. Entry-year programs for novice teachers are well established, required, and in place in schools in many states. Programs geared to the unique needs of veteran teachers also should be established and addressed in schools.

Principals, along with central office personnel, university professors, and

representative veteran teachers should meet to discuss the issues unique to the veteran teacher, to veteran teacher supervision, and how those issues impact the veteran teacher's work world. Discussions among pertinent parties are encouraged to bring about a clearer consensus of issues and needs regarding the veteran teacher. Opening the dialogue among various parties allows for diversity of thought and considerations that might otherwise be left out if the principal were to address them on his or her own. Only after due consideration of veteran teachers' needs with ample consensus-building among concerned parties, can programs geared to meet those needs be designed and implemented.

Borrowing from one participant's responses, principals should also be actively "filtering" literature, district requirements, and state mandates for the veteran teacher. A teacher's time is not as flexible in comparison to the principal's, and teachers' schedules can become quite burdensome when "add-ons" are thrust upon them. Therefore, principals should sift through the mass of current literature and mandate guidelines before the teachers are asked to review or implement them.

The supervision and evaluation processes for veteran teachers should be differentiated from those used for novices. Often, supervision efforts for veteran teachers does not yield any change in the veteran (Starratt, 1992). While good teaching is good teaching no matter the age of the educator, the needs and concerns of the veteran are clearly different than those of the novice. It is reasonable to expect that the veteran's teaching concerns should

have moved beyond survival, content mastery and technique, to critical analysis of pedagogy, and the value and application of content.

Differentiating supervision and evaluation requires that principals devote time with veteran teachers to promote reflection. Not all veteran teachers are skilled in the higher stages of reflection, but given their experience base, and provided they receive guidance, veterans may be capable of reaching the higher reflective stages. Veteran teachers who are accustomed to traditional supervision need facilitation in generating reflective thought and applying it to their teaching.

Supervision and evaluation may be differentiated for veteran teachers through modifications in evaluation instruments. Simple checklists should be abandoned in favor of professional growth plans. Principals and veterans should thoughtfully consider long-term goals and avenues for achieving growth when writing the growth plans. Growth plans should be jointly evaluated by the principal and veteran teacher through dialogue to determine progress, to set new goals, and to make needed adjustments in the growth plans. Tangible demonstrations of teacher growth, such as portfolios and reflective journals, can serve as supportive pieces in assessing achievement of goals.

Finally, issues of veteran teacher autonomy need closer attention from the principal. Autonomy is acknowledged as motivation supportive in the literature, but often neglected in the supervisory process (Burk & Fry, 1997; Glickman, 1985). The findings in this study supported that principals value

empowerment; however, principals should not assume that veteran teachers are autonomous, or self-directed learners by virtue of their age. Therefore, autonomy should be encouraged by the principal through providing opportunities that include participation in decisions regarding curriculum, resources, and scheduling; and leadership training and opportunities.

Implications for Principal Training

Greater emphasis in principal preparatory classes should be paid to motivation theory and application. For example, understanding types of motivation such as performance motivation, and intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation, are foundational to understanding any applications to supervision. Principals in this study described motivated teachers in terms of excitement for the job, but excitement is only one aspect connected to motivation. Principals need training to help them recognize what conditions enhance and sustain excitement for the job.

Understanding the connection between motivation and sensing one's work as meaningful should be explored to a greater extent in preparatory classes, staff development programs, and other continued training offered to practicing principals. Creating the conditions for meaningful work, and creating the conditions for growth opportunities should be topics of discussion among principals and university professors at state and national meetings. If growth in veteran teachers is to be realized within the supervisory relationship, it is critical that principals in training, as well as practicing principals, develop a

greater understanding of adult motivation and corresponding supervisory behaviors that affect such.

Finally, university classes for principal training, as well as local, state, and national conferences, need to place greater emphasis upon, and need to spend more time exploring age-related issues affecting the supervision of veteran teachers. Numbers of veteran teachers outnumber novices, and are likely to grow as life spans increase and as individuals remain in the workplace longer. Consequently, principals will be faced with increasing numbers of veteran teachers and consequential issues related to an aging staff.

Recommendations for Future Research

Since this study produced a wide range of responses regarding the needs of veteran teachers, it is suggested that future research be conducted in two related areas. First, baseline research with veteran teachers themselves should be conducted to determine what they view as their supervision needs as well as their growth needs. Next, studies that compare the veteran teachers' perceived needs to principals' perceptions of veteran teachers' needs should be conducted to see whether discrepancies emerge, and if so, where.

It is strongly recommended that studies designed to generate veteran teachers' needs data, not be limited to populations of veteran teachers only. This recommendation is influenced by adult learning theory and motivation theory. Adult learning theory suggests that "felt needs" inventories often do

not accurately reflect true needs (Brookfield, 1986). Therefore, to poll veteran teachers only limits possible discoveries of important needs of which they themselves may be unaware. Motivation theory suggests that motivation hinges on a cycle of need satisfaction. Therefore, studies are encouraged that combine the psychological (motivation) theory bases with the social sciences (adult learning) theory bases (Cross, 1981).

Further research is recommended to investigate the obstacles and unique challenges that principals face in the supervision of veteran teachers. The findings from this study suggested that no general knowledge base was present among the participants regarding the challenges they face. Therefore, studies designed to identify and to examine obstacles and challenges need to be conducted. More attention to this area may generate greater consensus among principals' perceptions, so that a foundation for valuable collaborative efforts may be made in addressing those obstacles.

Finally, it is recommended that this study be replicated to determine if similar findings may result among larger or different sample populations. It is further suggested that revisions to the design of this study be made in order that other, but similar replications, can be conducted. Revisions to this study should include a reduction in interview questions, a larger population, a more diverse population, and a narrower research focus. For example, a similar, but more narrowly focused study, might examine the supervision of veteran teachers specifically with regard to autonomy.

Concluding Commentary

It is encouraging that the findings of this research indicate an alignment between principals' core supervisory beliefs and those presented as valuable in the literature. Empowerment, trust and respect, caring climate, recognition, and growth are what participants claimed as their driving and foundational supervisory beliefs. The findings and implications of this research, however, also pose challenges for principals.

Principals are challenged to engage in consensus-building with regard to veteran teachers. Principals need some conformity in recognizing the needs of veteran teachers so that collaborative efforts can promote meeting those needs. Principals are challenged also to consciously recognize and apply motivation theory to their supervisory practices.

It seems odd that the prime goals in educating children are not readily applied in the supervision of adults. An educator's job may be to impart knowledge and develop skills, but an educator's primary goal is to advance in his or her students the capacity to think and grow. Somewhere in the shuffle of mission statements, new programs, and mandates, the very clear aim of educating students–growth and motivation–gets lost when it comes to educating and supervising adults. Principals have a tremendous opportunity to change that omission.

Volumes of literature have been written to address motivation. Volumes of literature have been written to address supervision. The same cannot be

said of addressing the supervision of veteran teachers or the motivation of veteran teachers. It is this researcher's hope that groundwork for addressing these issues has been furthered by the work of this study.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

This research is being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma, Norman campus. This document (signed) serves as your consent to participate in this study.

INTRODUCTION

- Title: Supervisory Beliefs and Behaviors Associated with Veteran Teacher Motivation (a dissertation study)
- Principal Investigator: Linda Jones
- Sponsor: Dr. Jeffrey Maiden

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

- The purpose of this study is to collect, describe and examine perspectives of principals regarding their supervisory beliefs and behaviors with regard to the supervision and motivation of veteran teachers.
- Each participant will be interviewed twice; once in the first quarter and once in the second quarter of school year 1999-2000. Each interview will be audio-taped and transcribed. Interviews will last thirty to forty-five minutes.

ANTICIPATED RISKS/BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

- No foreseeable risks or discomforts to the participants are anticipated.
- Benefits to the participant may include broader understanding of and personal insight into his or her supervisory beliefs and practices.
- Benefits to the investigator may include broader understanding of supervision from the viewpoint of the principal; partial fulfillment of doctoral degree; possible future publication of study findings.

PARTICIPANT'S ASSURANCES

- Participation is voluntary with the option to withdraw at any time without penalty.
- Confidentiality is ensured; neither names nor titles will be used in any field notes, transcribed notes, or written reports. Tapes, transcriptions, and field notes will be kept in a locked box. Only the researcher and sponsoring professors will have access to the tapes, transcriptions and field notes.
- Contact for questions regarding your rights as a research participant is: Office of Research Administration, 325-4757.
- Contacts for questions about this research project are: Linda Jones, 748-5429 and Dr. Jeffrey Maiden, 325-1524.

I have read the above informed consent form. I understand what I will be asked to do as a participant. I understand I may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. I agree to participate in the research study described above.

Participant's Signature	Date
Interviewer's Signature	Date

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Supervisory Beliefs and Behaviors Associated with Veteran Teacher Motivation

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study is to collect, describe, and examine perspectives of principals regarding their supervisory beliefs and behaviors with regard to the supervision and motivation of veteran teachers. Primary objectives include:

- Seek and collect data that describe the broad context of supervision from the perspectives of the principals—how they view supervision, what they do and why.
- Seek and collect data that describe supervisory aspects that affect veteran teachers.
- Examine collected data for any specific beliefs, behaviors, or related conditions that affect veteran teachers.

Research provides significant contributions to the study of beginning teachers and the supervision of beginning teachers. Little research exists, however, regarding the needs and supervision of veteran teachers. Additionally, veteran teachers present unique needs and challenges to the supervision process. It is the intent of this study to contribute understanding to the supervision needs of veteran teachers, and to provide insight into creating conditions that motivate and support the needs of veteran teachers.

RESEARCH PROTOCOL

A qualitative research design is planned which will include two in-depth, face-to-face interviews with each participant. Upon return of signed consent forms, interviews will be scheduled and conducted with each participant. The first interview is planned for early in the fall semester, and the second interview is planned for late in the fall semester.

The first interviews will seek data that describe the broad context of supervision from the perspectives of the principals. From examination of the transcribed data of first interviews, questions will be formulated to seek participants' perspectives specific to supervision beliefs and behaviors that affect and influence veteran teachers. Interview guides will be used for each interview (see attachments). Each interview is expected to last from thirty to forty-five minutes. With participants' permission, interviews will be audio-taped. Transcription and in-depth analysis of interviews will follow.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Each participant will be assigned a pseudonym and number. Audio tapes, transcriptions of data, field notes, and computer disks will then each be assigned a corresponding number. All data will be kept in the locked possession of the researcher. Only the principal investigator, faculty sponsor and doctoral committee will see the raw data. Neither the participants' names nor their specific job districts will be used in reporting the data. Analysis of data may be used later in manuscripts or articles submitted for publication, however, recorded interviews will be erased when no longer needed for this study.

SUBJECT BENEFIT/RISK

No foreseeable risks or discomforts to the participants nor society are anticipated as a result from participation in this project. Benefits to the participant may include broader understanding of and personal insight into his or her supervisory beliefs and practices.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW GUIDE
(To be used in first interviews.)

INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS

1. I'd like to know a little about your professional background. How long have you been a principal? How long in this district?
2. Tell me about your professional experience before becoming an administrator.

Background Comments

I'm here to get a picture of the veteran teacher's world at work from your perspective as the principal. I'd like to find out some of the processes in your school at work for them, what kinds of things are used to help them in practice and in development. I'd like to understand the principal's view of the differences in needs of fairly experienced teachers versus fairly inexperienced teachers and to understand your thinking of the purposes you play for each. Ultimately, I'd like to find out more about your supervisory beliefs and behaviors regarding veteran teachers. We'll start from a broad scope.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Please think for a moment about what teacher motivation means to you. Describe what a motivated teacher looks like.

2. What kinds of things do you think foster teacher motivation? In other words, tell me what things you think make a motivated teacher.

3. Describe for me the processes at work in your building that foster teacher motivation or development. What kinds of things or activities are in place in your building that support or foster teacher motivation?

4. What are the big differences between the novice teacher (say, less than 3 to 4 years experience) and the veteran teacher (say, 7 years or more experience)?

5. How would you describe the purposes you serve in the supervision of a novice teacher? OR If I were a novice in your building, describe what I might experience in relation to supervision or types of support practices.

6. How would you describe the purposes you play in the supervision of a more experienced teacher? OR If I were an experienced teacher in your building, describe what I might experience in relation to supervision or types of support practices.

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW GUIDE
(To be used in second interviews.)

Background Comments

In our first interview, my goal was to gain a broad picture of how principals view supervision—what they believe and what they do. I asked you to describe a motivated teacher and things that foster motivation. I also asked you to describe the differences between the novice and the veteran, and the purposes you play in the supervision of each. Today, we will narrow the focus to the veteran teacher only. The literature doesn't address veteran teachers to any great extent, especially with regard to their supervision, so that is the direction of this particular study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What do you see as the biggest need(s) of the veteran teacher?

2. Think about what frustrations or obstacles or unique challenges you face in the supervision of the veteran. Tell me about some of those and how you approach them.

3. What kinds of things do you think de-motivate the veteran teacher?

4. How do you go about motivating the veteran teacher?

5. Think for a moment about what it means to have professional freedom or discretion in decision-making at work.
   If you were to describe that concept operationally, what does that mean for the veteran teacher? OR What does that look like in the veteran teacher?

6. Describe the kinds of things or conditions that might *encourage* a veteran teacher to exercise professional freedom in decision-making at work.

7. Describe the kinds of things or conditions that might *discourage* a veteran teacher from exercising professional freedom in decision-making at work.

APPENDIX E

Contextualized Processes That Foster Motivation

First-Level Data, Interview Question Three, List of Responses

Question: Describe for me the processes at work in your building that foster teacher motivation or development. What kinds of things or activities are in place in your building that support or foster teacher motivation?

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1. Principal as model of building-wide focus in faculty meetings
2. Community feeling through face-to-face meetings; no isolation
3. Voluntary book studies for faculty
4. Application of book studies
5. Cooperative teaming among principal, classroom teachers, and resource teachers
6. Principal support of time, money, and staff development days
7. Faculty meetings as staff development
8. Support buddy system ("social pal")
9. Motivational quotes posted throughout
10. Principal in the classroom as teacher
11. Gifts, food for teachers
12. Professional treatment
13. No weekly faculty meeting
14. Empowerment in curriculum decisions
15. Empowerment in school budget decisions
16. Mentoring between veterans and novices
17. Recognition by peers (Golden Apple Award)
18. Non-certified staff included in meetings
19. Vertical curriculum teams
20. School-wide opening exercises
21. Teacher leadership teams
22. Parent advisory teams
23. Principal visibility (e.g., playground, lunchroom)
24. Notes from principal in teachers' mailboxes
25. Principal explains philosophy behind decisions