2018

Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Walden University
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Abstract

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MA, Westminster College, 2003

BS, Westminster College, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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June 2018

Abstract

In the public education accountability movement, politicians and corporate reformers claim that student performance on standardized tests is an appropriate and reliable measure of a teacher's ability to educate. Given the process of holding K–12 classroom teachers directly accountable for individual student achievement based on standardized testing results, the teachers at XYZ Elementary School are currently motivated to change only through externally controlled factors or extrinsic motivation. The purpose of this research was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation that motivate teachers to engage in strategies and methods that indirectly influence students to learn over the long term. The purpose of the mixed transformative emancipatory design focused on change orientation and the social injustice inflicted upon professional educators (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The study took place at a single-site elementary location with 19 volunteer teachers. The qualitative and quantitative data included 2 assessments, 1 experiment, 1 activity, and individual interviews. Data analysis of this transformative, mixed-methods, emancipatory design revealed the participants of XYZ Elementary School were ready and willing to change, felt low levels of autonomy in the workplace, experienced levels of flow (intrinsic motivation) in the classroom, and experienced low levels of support or appreciation from political leaders and the business community. The implication for local social change is the reexamining of current extrinsic motivation and management techniques to help educators become more effective. Broader social implications of this study are that teachers who experience higher degrees of autonomy and sense of purpose also feel a greater amount of intrinsic motivation to teach and learn.

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Dedication

This study is dedicated to my loving husband who continually provided motivation and support.

Acknowledgments

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge the hard work, patience, and dedication of my wonderful professor Dr. Kathleen Van Horn. She has demonstrated what a true professor stands for and emulates. I am truly blessed to have had the opportunity to work with this professional.

I would also like to take this opportunity to acknowledge other professionals at Walden who helped to make this journey possible, Dr. Seymour and Dr. Griffin.

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Section 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The purpose of education reflects the desire and the natural curious nature of the younger generation to become a future generation of creative, independent, innovative, and knowledgeable citizens in U.S. democratic society. Education reflects U.S. society (Ravitch, 2010, p. 285). Education bridges a younger generation of citizens to a future generation of productive citizens. Where adults fail in educating children, they fail as a nation (Ravitch, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and policymakers are accountable for providing all children equal opportunities to learn (Kuhn, 2014).

Change in the public educational system inevitably creates necessity and complexity. Most citizens, parents, students, teachers, politicians, and business leaders believe changing the public-school system is one of the most influential and important decisions made for the next generation of citizens. Even though people associate the concept of change as a normal part of life, people gravitate toward consistency, or toward their comfort zone. Deutschman (2007) reported that despite the influx of warranted data, authority, and elements of fear of the unknown, the concept of change renders individuals' irrational, disabling them from making appropriate and positive decisions. For many individuals, the fear of death and pain contained significantly more than their unwillingness to change. Typically, emotions get the best of people, and people gravitate to their comfort zones (Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009).

Change leadership contains one of the single significant challenges to face administrators in education, businesses, governments, professional practices, and

nonprofit organizations (Reeves, 2009). As in many other professional organizations, a culture deeply embedded itself in education. Society must change the culture before educational practices can effectively change (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). Educational change demands a sociopolitical process requiring a change in beliefs and behaviors, and a strong understanding of the human condition as it pertains to the motivation, teaching, and learning circumstances associated with the complex nature of an educational system (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). An abundant number of significant factors directly influence the educator's ability to teach and the student's ability to learn (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Most of these significant factors pertain to the human condition and are completely out of the teacher's as well as the government's control. Examples of significant factors include student socioeconomic status and well-being, parental involvement and influence, internal student motivation, student behavior choices, and student academic ability (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Teachers contain less than 50% influence over student achievement; yet, teachers maintain 100% of the responsibility (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Berliner 2012). David Berliner (2014) reported addressing the high rate of American childhood poverty would potentially attribute a higher influence on student learning and achievement. Childhood poverty contains a much higher influence on student achievement than teacher influence (Berliner, 2014; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). UNICEF (2012) reported the United States with a higher rate of childhood poverty than any other civilized nation. Klein (2014) claimed the nation must address the public-school crisis before childhood poverty may be amended. All of these factors have a significant influence on student

performance. All of these factors are controlled by the students and their families and are not in the school's or the teacher's direct control.

According to Reeves (2009), "Culture is reflected in the behavior, attitudes, and beliefs of individuals and groups. The single greatest impediment to meaningful cultural change is the gap between what leaders say that they value and what leaders actually value" (p. 37). When accepting the Democratic nomination in August 2008, President Obama promised to give teachers respect and pay a better wage. In exchange, President Obama expected higher standards and more accountability (Education Week, 2009). President Obama's current Secretary of Education Arne Duncan's plan of Race to the Top failed to instigate whole system reform or even to provide a plan to change the educational culture (Fullan, 2010b). The educational reform plan Race to the Top encouraged somewhat appropriate goals and fixates on end results. However, the goals do not agree with the actions. Goals without proper actions or doing what one says they are planning to do appeared deceptive and meaningless (Fullan, 2010b; Reeves, 2009).

President Obama spent $1.7 billion dollars on testing in 2012 (Ujifusa, 2012). The political fixation on standardized testing crippled the effectiveness of public education (Goyal, 2016; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010). Politicians began misinforming the American people with *A Nation at Risk*, an educational report indicating our public-schools were failing and threatening the American way of life (Goyal, 2016; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The report produced no evidence to support the politician's claims (Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017; School Leadership Briefing, 2011). Since the 1980s,

politicians used the illusion of failing public-schools to further the politician's personal agenda with help from the media and a no excuses campaign (Berliner, 2014; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The no excuses campaign allowed politicians and corporate reformers to avoid suspicion, while creating and ignoring serious situations as childhood poverty and racial segregation and blaming the teachers and the teacher unions (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Both Republican and Democratic political parties have teamed up with corporate reformers, or business leaders interested in reforming public education through a business or political style of management, to reform our public-schools in an effective, economic, and systematic manner (Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2010). The politicians and corporate reformers had several theories of practice. First, politicians believed educational reform would occur through higher teacher accountability, school choice, and promoting competition among the public-schools (Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). In addition, the most significant influential factor over student performance included teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Therefore, to hold teachers accountable for their teaching ability, teachers will be paid accordingly through a merit-pay system directly related to student performance on standardized assessments (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). According to Hanushek and Lindseth (2009), teachers needed proper motivation to perform well because they are not held directly accountable for student performance, they have little or no opportunity for advancement, and teacher unions have hindered teachers by protecting them from due process, creating lazy, ineffective, and unmotivated

educators. Hanushek and Lindseth (2009) also posited that, to properly motivate educators, administrators must instigate the relative reward of monetary incentives while holding them directly accountable for adequate student performance. Low-performing schools should close, and low-performing educators should leave the profession (Klein, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009).

The politicians' and corporate reformers' no-excuses campaign for public-school reformation created serious implications for the public-school system and the American people. School choice thought to promote opportunity for minority students, promoted more isolation as a race or class (Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley, & Wang, 2011; Simpson, 2013). School competition creates isolation among teachers and a negative atmosphere within the schools (Leana, 2011). Measuring teacher quality and accountability through standardized testing and merit pay demoralized the profession rather than improving it, as statisticians continually manipulated results to report the type of claims necessary to convince the American people the public-schools must reform (Berliner, 2014; Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel, & Rothstein, 2012 Hursh, 2016). Robert Scott, the former Texas Commissioner of Education (Kuhn, 2014), reported and admitted scores attributed to teacher quality used statistical analysis devised by a corporate reformer. The entire system failed in reliability, credibility, and objectivity and reported whatever the corporate reformers needed the measurements to say (Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014). Merit pay systems contain a long history of failed attempts at motivating employees, especially educators (Goyal, 2016; Murnane & Cohen, 1986; Ravitch, 2014). Blaming teacher unions allowed politicians and corporate reformers to instigate statistical manipulation

and corruption within the public-school system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Ryan and Deci (2017) reported:

>It's often hard to even imagine a school without constant normative evaluations, along with the pressures, tears, triumphs, and ego dynamics associated with them. Amazingly there is little by way of good theory that defends this pervasive atmosphere of social comparison, yet there is much scattered evidence concerning negative effects. (p. 369)

Politicians and corporate reformers have refuted talks or discussions with teacher unions or teacher groups of any kind, who attempt to steer politicians away from their get tough on education stance towards reform (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers followed a top-down management style of business, followed by a series of rewards and punishments to promote motivation on behalf of the educators (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Many political leaders at the state and federal level have been in direct control of what educators teach, how they teach it, and when they teach it for many years (Ravitch, 2010). Most educators did not have a voice over the curriculum taught in the classroom, or the program used to teach the curriculum, and many administrators regulate the teachers' teaching time and curriculum (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2010). Therefore, management and the degree to which reform movements succeed had been in the hands of politicians and corporate reformers for years.

Stewart wrote an autobiography about a rapid rise to business consultant, *The Management Myth: Why the "Experts" Keep Getting it Wrong* (2009). Stewart (2009) belittles most of what management consultants say. However, management consultants do not limit themselves to the business profession. For example, politicians came from every professional walk of life. When they campaigned, the American people made a judgment to determine how well the politician could sell his or her plan or ideas (Pink, 2012). Politicians become management consultants regardless of their expertise of the profession or with people in general. Stewart's account told us that to be a successful management consultant one must be able to make common sense complicated and then sell it well. Politicians and corporate reformers are currently the policymakers or management consultants over the educational industry. These management consultants during the last 30 years had all used the same top-down managerial style of management, incorporating a series of rewards and punishments only to compound the problem even further (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). The only difference seemed to be the intensity with which individuals are inflicting punishments into the educational system (Pink, 2009).

Pfeffer and Sutton's book (2006) *Hard Facts, Dangerous Half-Truths, and Total Nonsense*, reached many of the same conclusions as Stewart. "The advice managers get from the vast, and ever-expanding supply of business books, articles, gurus, and consultants is remarkably inconsistent" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006, p. 33). Freedman (2010) stated, "A large percentage of expert advice is flawed" (p. 11). Many of the so-called experts in education had never been teachers in our public-schools for any significant

amount of time. They are unaware of any professional level of the challenges teachers face on a daily basis concerning curriculum and instructional practices (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Many times, politicians and management consultants have simply incorporated their theories without consulting the actual educators (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Ryan and Deci (2017) reported that politicians have incorporated their own personal opinions into the public-school system without sufficient evidence to support their claims. In any other arena, such actions would be considered unprofessional, unethical, and immoral (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Education remains crucial to maintaining a democratic society (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). The American public-school system inevitably requires change (Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Politicians and corporate reformers treated educational reform as a race without taking into consideration the consequences of their actions (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). Politicians believed competition and holding teachers directly responsible for standardized test scores would create future productive citizens and a healthy economy (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians had become obsessed with how teachers taught the young and ignored the question as to why teachers teach the young, as well as what truly is important to the process of public education (Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). As with many schools across the nation, the state of Utah targeted XYZ Elementary School as a low-performing Title 1 school. State politicians eagerly followed the advice of the federal politicians and corporate reformers, indicating teachers as lazy, ineffective, and unmotivated educators. Politicians and corporate reformers typically indicate teacher

motivation as a primary problem. However, motivation has rarely been the primary

problem and was usually a direct consequence of reform efforts complicating the issue

further (Pink, 2009). XYZ Elementary School teachers' motivation was now directly

related to mandates and sanctions of past and current change reform movements.

As described in Section 2, politicians and corporate reformers are rallying around

elicit policies and procedures without evidence of success promoting only the economic

productivity of future citizens. Educators are primarily concerned with the damage the

politician's plan will have on the motivation of the students and the individual schools

themselves. Also addressed in Section 2 is that educators are solely held responsible for

motivating natural curiosity and promoting within the students the concept of how to

think critically for themselves, while under pressure to produce student achievement test

scores. The politicians and educators are at odds with educational goals, and the direction

public education must take to reform the institution. The battle of educational reform

becomes a matter of power and control. Politicians have power and control over the

educators and the public-school system. In Section 2, I will also explain the current

tyranny of the politicians' present control over the public-school system. The politicians

plan to rule through a series of rewards and punishments without realistic means of

achieving the politician's desired goals. The students caught in the crossfire of the battle

between teachers and politicians will pay the price.

Problem Statement

Given the current process of holding classroom teachers directly accountable for

individual achievement through standardized testing, teachers at XYZ Elementary School

were currently only motivated to change through external rewards and punishments. The purpose of this transformative-emancipatory mixed-methods study included exploring processes other than extrinsic motivation (external rewards and punishments), such as sources of intrinsic motivation (internal rewards and punishments) that motivated teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability, and thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to study and learn over time (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014).

Six main issues formed the extensive background for the existence of the current problem in our public-schools. Educators, politicians, and corporate reformers all viewed the problem with education differently. The first issue included the disagreement on the goals of education. Educators believed the goal of education was to instill a lifelong desire to learn (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Politicians believed the goal of education involved obtaining competitive international standardized testing scores (Hursh, 2016; Klein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). The second issue concerned accountability measures. Politicians argued an educator's job must hold teachers directly accountable for student performance (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). Educators argued the perfection standard as unrealistic and unobtainable because teachers could only indirectly influence any student's individual choice to study and learn (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Stitzlein (2017) reported the accountability crisis has diverted the publics' attention from improving the school system whereby maintaining democracy and shifting society's issues onto the public-schools holding teachers accountable for

unrealistic goals. The third issue included the theory that student performance on standardized tests was an appropriate and accurate measure of teacher ability. Politicians believed student performance was an educator's job (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Educators argued to be held directly accountable for another person's performance was inappropriate, unrealistic, and unobtainable (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The fourth issue concerned differing views over top-down managerial style with a focus on control and compliance. Educators responded to this style of management much like other professions with anger and resentment (Pink, 2009). The fifth issue concerned the imposed laws and sanctions forced upon the education system. Politicians operated under the theory of rewards and punishments. Educators operated under the notion of intrinsically motivating factors, without which, politicians are driving the joy of teaching and learning out of the schools through their external rewards and punishments. Stitzlein (2017) reported:

> Accountability is now often tied to rewards and punishments that signify
>
> whether accountability as a numerical value has or has not been met. In
>
> the case of schools, these occur in many ways, including through public
>
> report cards, closing down failing schools, firing underperforming
>
> teachers, or offering financial incentives for improved performance. (p. 27)

The sixth and final issue included the motive of motivation. Politicians argued educators have become lazy and unmotivated (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Educators argued one cannot motivate an individual to teach and learn through external rewards and

punishments (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). These

six arguments and disagreements between politicians and educators will continue to

escalate the problems facing the public education system until they are resolved (Fullan,

2011a; Ravitch, 2010). The issues discussed as background for this study are found in the

Review of Literature below.

Nature of the Study

The transformative-emancipatory mixed methods case study analyzed what

motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change. More specifically, the true

change involved who participated in intrinsic motivation or The Third Drive. The Third

Drive refers to more than what is commonly known as intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009)

because the Third Drive divides motivation into three categories: autonomy, mastery, and

purpose (Pink, 2009), deriving intrinsic motivation from each area of endeavor. The

study focused on the following five research questions:

1. What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?

2. To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?

3. To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy
   to promote lasting change?

4. To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in
   their mastery levels to promote lasting change?

5. To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of
   purpose to promote lasting change?

The study examined what motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change through three categories of intrinsic motivation or the Third Drive, including autonomy, mastery, and purpose (Pink, 2009). Change readiness, or the ability to begin the true process of change involved an individual's willingness to believe and behave differently from the ways that individual did in the past (Pink, 2009).

The research operated from the premise of a mixed transformative-emancipatory design. The purpose of a transformative mixed-methods design focuses on change orientation and the social injustice inflicted upon professional educators (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design focused on empowering the educators with the knowledge to make changes necessary to shift the power back to themselves and make decisions concerning educational matters (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The philosophical view of the research was the worldview or belief that the researcher would be useful in developing and researching the study. The research questions involved the social sciences, which led towards qualitative factors (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). However, some of the research methods used in the study were quantitative in nature, which allowed the researcher to conduct and analyze both qualitative and quantitative data independently to aid in the comprehension and validity of the research study results. The mixed-methods design allowed me to draw on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative designs.

In Section 3, I provide a detailed discussion about the theoretical background of this transformative mixed-methods study design. For instance, an educative theoretical lens empowers society through the knowledge that politicians and corporate reformers

have managed and taken control over a profession for which they are ill-suited to make professional decisions. Also, in Section 3, I implement a transformative-emancipatory-based theoretical framework to identify a social injustice, or power imbalance, within an organization or between marginalized groups, such as educators and politicians. In Section 3 on the methodology, I also provide details about how this mixed-methods study included both quantitative and qualitative data gathered sequentially to address the debate between educators and politicians. Politicians believe educators are lazy, unmotivated, and unaccountable within their profession (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). To move beyond the accusations made by the politicians, one must understand what truly motivates educators to change (Fullan, 2011a). The location of this mixed-methods study was a single-site location referred to as XYZ Elementary School. The research study called volunteer teachers as participants. There was a total of seventeen classroom teachers, two special educators, and two coaches at XYZ Elementary School. Section 3 includes further details concerning the mixed-methods methodology.

The transformative-emancipatory mixed-methods design allowed me to draw from the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data to focus on change orientation, and the social injustice thrust on professional educators. RQ1 states: What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change and was addressed qualitatively through individual teacher interviews? RQ2 asks: To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change and was addressed quantitatively through the Organizational Change Readiness Assessment, from which the researcher collected only the numerical ratings for the study? RQ3 asks: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ

Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change and was addressed quantitatively by incorporating the Autonomy Audit? Again, ratings, or descriptive statistics only, were the numerical data to be collected and analyzed by this instrument. RQ4 states: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change and was addressed both qualitatively and quantitatively by incorporating the Flow Experiment? The quantitative data collected from this instrument was also descriptive data only. RQ5 asks: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change and was addressed qualitatively by incorporating the What's your sentence exercise? In Section 3, I address the specifics of each measurement.

Purpose of the Study

The basic purpose of this transformative-emancipatory mixed-methods study was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation (external rewards and punishments) such as sources of intrinsic motivation (internal rewards and punishments) that motivate teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability and, thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to study and learn over time (Deci & Ryan, 2012l; Kuhn, 2014). For example, as Gardner (2000, 2009) maintained, when classroom teachers are motivated to plan and implement in-depth lessons using the many different learning styles and/or appealing to their students' multiple kinds of intelligence, it takes them much more time, effort, and energy than planning and implementing lessons using only one or two instructional approaches to reach their students. Therefore, judging the quality of their

teaching must depend on judging their attempt to plan and teach such lessons. Holding

classroom teachers *directly* accountable for the standardized test scores of their students,

using external rewards and punishments as motivation, does not accomplish this kind of

teaching and learning in our classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). This teaching and learning process incorporates a lifetime

endeavor; and, if properly executed, would establish a wise society of independent

thinkers and innovators. Education reflects the mirror image of society (Ravitch, 2010, p.

285). Education becomes part of who we are, and what we will become. However,

education cannot be the cure, the answer, and the scapegoat for the ills of society

(Ravitch, 2010). The mere opportunity does not equate to potential positive experience or

success. Diane Ravitch (2010) reports:

> Our public education system is a fundamental element of our
>
> democratic society. Our public-schools have been the pathway to
>
> opportunity and a better life for generations of Americans, giving
>
> them the tools to fashion their own life and to improve the
>
> commonwealth. To the extent that we strengthen them, we
>
> strengthen our democracy. (p. 241-242)

Education depicts the main element in developing the nation's economy and productive

citizens. Education pertains to the human element and develops human capital

(Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Education empowers the people with knowledge, skills,

and opportunity to influence the growth of a nation. Democracy cannot thrive among

poorly informed and educated citizens, incapable of thinking for themselves and

unmotivated to learn throughout their lifetimes (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

Democracy fails at the hands of those unwilling to promote motivational institutions of

learning (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

About education, the only goal of our nation's self-preserving political leaders

was to improve our international testing scores (Hursh, 2016; Kohn, 2011). Politicians

and corporate reformers made several assumptions about educational reform (Fullan,

2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Baker (2007), an analyst for the Department of Education,

reviewed and analyzed student rankings with international standardized tests. Baker

found no correlation when he compared the financial and economic stability of the

country to standardized testing scores, meaning the tests prove nothing about the stability

of the country as politicians claimed.

Also, at the top of the list, politicians, and corporate reformers assumed teachers

are simply not motivated to perform at a high level (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009;

Ravitch, 2010). Once a teacher has earned tenure, politicians and corporate reformers

believed teachers have no motivation to perform with no means to advance their

placements or compensate their paychecks monetarily for high performance (Hanushek &

Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). Hanushek, a college professor, and researcher projected the

school systems needed to fire between 10% and 15% of the bad teachers every year

(Ravitch, 2010). It is important to note that Hanushek had never been employed in a K-12

institution or worked for a school district. Hanushek's main influence over public

education came from an economic standpoint. Politicians and corporate reformers

profited over the privatization of education and the consequences of such actions allowed

teachers and students to regret and despise school (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016;).

Also, corporate reformers and politicians assumed student performance would be directly affected by teacher quality and that teachers needed to be held solely accountable through merit pay for student performance on one or several standardized assessments (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). For this reason, it is considered treason in the business community to engage in an open discussion with teacher unions, as the only purpose of the teacher unions is to protect bad teachers and serve only in the interest of the teachers (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers used statistical analysis to manipulate and deceive the American people into thinking the public-school system needed reformation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers intentionally deceived the American people by undermining confidence in America's public-schools (Ravitch, 2014, p. 63). The no excuses campaign allowed politicians and corporate reformers to refute any discussions between educators and the manipulated data spread across the country.

The outcomes of this study may increase our understanding of the true sources of what motivates educators to perform at their best. In the last analysis, there is no substantial data supports the theory that student performance on a standardized test could accurately measure the quality of an educator's teaching ability (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers become motivated by a team of professionals working together on curriculum (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Teachers become motivated by new learning theories and methods of teaching. Teachers become motivated to quit when standardized tests or test practice activities are forced upon them (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a). Teachers become motivated to teach better by offering them more money to engage with other teaching professionals in using new learning theories and methods to reach more students, not by issuing threats, being degraded, or disrespected, or harassed (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Educators become teachers because they enjoy working with children, and they love to learn (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Leithwood, 2007). Offering more money to accomplish something that is unrealistic only made the task unobtainable mixed in with stress, anxiety, and resentment (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Teachers believe politicians and corporate reformers have systematically torn apart the American public education system (Hursh, 2016; Hursh, 2015; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

The top-performing countries on international standardized tests spent years reforming their public educational systems, focusing on curriculum, instructional practices, collaboration, and capacity building (Fullan, 2011a). The top performing countries did not dwell on test taking strategies and skills, or promote competition among educators (Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ravitch, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011). The top performing countries did not threaten teachers or school systems with sanctions of accountability and merit pay systems (Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011; Stitzlein, 2017). Top performing countries did not spend millions of dollars closing low-

performing schools, promoting charter schools, offering a choice of schools, or stressing accountability and testing (Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ravitch, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011; Stitzlein, 2017). Naturally, the normal progression and healthy competition among schools motivated educators to collaborate, build capacity, and improve the curriculum and teaching practices in a meaningful and respectful manner (Fullan, 2011a).

Educators argued the purpose of public education in America was to promote opportunity, knowledge, and economic wealth. To pursue an education and a lifetime of learning was to promote a democratic society (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). Politicians' and corporate reformers' pursuit of superficial endeavors, such as business management practices and competitive international test scores, only served to undermine every American citizen's opportunity to obtain an education as an independent, creative, and innovative thinker (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016). The only thing being promoted by politicians and corporate reformers is the newly found business of distributing testing materials, practice test materials, and tutoring services (Kumashiro, 2012). The inappropriate distribution of control and power over the public education system only serves a socialist society rather than a democratic society (Ravitch, 2014; 2010).

Years of failed educational reform has staggered the collaborative efforts between educators and politicians. Skepticism and doubt are symbols of remaining open-minded and rational (Ravitch, 2010, p. 2). Becoming overly certain of one's beliefs and theories, especially when lacking substantial credible evidence to support those beliefs, individuals

tend to object to any new evidence that may refute their beliefs. Doubt is an indicator of our ability to think and process new information and evidence objectively (Ravitch, 2010, p. 2). Over certainty of our theories and beliefs leads to arrogance, misdistribution of power and control, and finally, to a dictatorship (Ravitch, 2010).

Public educational reform was an important topic to all the American people. Unfortunately, the corporate sector had influenced politicians and policymakers to incorporate business reform principles into educational institutions. The corporate sector refused to consider the implications such practices would have or the appropriateness of the resulting actions the educational organizations would experience (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; 2014). Corporate reformers argued that structural and managerial changes, such as accountability, choice, charters, and merit pay, would contribute to educational reform (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Hursh, 2016; Klein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). Teachers and schools would be held accountable and judged by their performance using standardized tests as the measuring tool (Hursh, 2016; Klein, 2014; Kumashiro, 2012). Firing educators who failed to demonstrate adequate progress defined by measured student performance and closing schools for noncompliance operated just like the business industry (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Hursh, 2016; Klein, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017). Both political parties believed that public-schools are a burden because of bureaucracy, ineffective because they are a monopoly; teachers are also ineffective as they are lazy and unmotivated, and schools only serve the interest of adults and do not produce a return on the investment made by taxpayers (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009;

Klein, 2014). Finally, teachers' unions only served as a blockade to government officials

to fire all the bad teachers, which are most of them, and hold all teachers directly

accountable for student performance (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch,

2010).

The intent of this study was to educate the citizens that no one wins in a war. The

war on education began when the politicians and corporate reformers refused to

collaborate with educators (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians have made unrealistic ultimatums

and threats of unemployment creating hostile work environments. Children are at the

heart of the American democracy (Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). It is the public

education system which created the opportunity for every American child to become

whom they desire to become. Politicians attempted to take that freedom away as they

dictated accountability measures upon our institutions of learning to win a contest, be top

in the world in national and international standardized tests, which contained no valuable

incentives. Forced learning only creates a generation of unmotivated thinkers (Ryan &

Deci, 2017). Forcing teachers to motivate students in the manner which the government

desires has created only resentment in our educators (Pink, 2009). Meanwhile, current

educators and possible future educators are seeking employment elsewhere. Motivation

comes from personal human capital (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). One cannot force

motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017; 2000). The American children have been suffering the

natural consequences of the war on education. Outsiders have referred to America as the

land of the free. However, democracy is only as strong as its educated citizens (Ravitch,

2010; Stitzlein, 2017). Unfortunately, intelligence, common sense, and applied

knowledge are measured poorly on a standardized test (Kohn, 2011).

Conceptual Framework/ Theoretical Background

The Emancipatory Theory was one of two theories to form the theoretical

foundation. The theoretical foundation guided the researcher through the phases of the

study based on the beliefs and ideals of the researcher. The Emancipatory Theory takes a

theoretical stance for underrepresented or marginalized groups (Creswell & Plano Clark,

2011). The researcher was advocating for the marginalized classroom teachers. The

transformative-emancipatory mixed methods case study design was shaped by the

researcher to address the needs of a specific population calling for change (Creswell &

Plano Clark, 2011). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 44) suggested knowledge

becomes a power with a social relationship framework, "and the purpose of knowledge

construction is to aid people in improving society." Classroom teachers were quickly

becoming a marginalized group. The war on education is not about change in the public

education system. The war is about control, and this type of control will 'undermine the

motivation of both teacher and student and ultimately crush their capacity to be motivated

to learn' (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 377). The debate is about how the politicians want to

promote motivation and change in the public education system. The politicians and

corporate reformers idea of motivational theory has no supporting evidence or theoretical

background to support their claims (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The transformative-

emancipatory paradigm provided support for effective change theories and processes as

opposed to externally enforced change theories.

This study based the conceptual framework on the concept that change remains constant and complex (Connor & Smith, 2011; Fullan, 2009; Kotter & Cohen, 2002). Our society has become so accustomed to change, we rarely stop and take the time to think about change realities and the consequences that follow instigated change. Educational change is a sociopolitical process requiring changes in beliefs and understandings as a foundation to everlasting reform (Fullan, 2009). Educational change is directly related to motivation (Connors & Smith, 2011; Fullan, 2007; Kotter & Cohen, 2002). In order to make effective changes in the public-school system one must motivate both teacher and student (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Differences in behaviors and emotions must change before beliefs (Fullan, 2007; Kotter & Cohen, 2002). Bate, Bevan, & Robert (2005) indicated new experiences were a precursor to changed beliefs. New experiences allow individuals to reflect on old beliefs, entertain new ideas, and generate motivation through their emotions. Ravitch (2010, p. 2) stated doubt and skepticism are signs indicating a rational and open mind. Overconfidence and failure to debrief and collaborate with opposing participants are strong indicators of arrogance, power control, and a socialist society (Ravitch, 2010). These situations rarely create positive consequences.

Politicians and educators have debated change in the educational process since the induction of public education in America. As the industry in America has changed, so must the ways that we teach our children. Over the last couple of decades or so, politicians, corporate reformers, educators, researchers, and the community have reached a dead end (Fullan, 2011a). Change was no longer the debate (Pink, 2009). Change was inevitable (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). The debate evolved over the process of change

and how and what changes should occur (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). The debate and the war on education is about control (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Politicians and corporate reformers believed schools were training centers, and their main function was to produce productive citizens prepared for the workforce (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers looked at education as a business. As a business, when the business was no longer profitable, one closed it down. When employees cannot accomplish a job, one fires them and hires others who accomplish the job (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). To politicians and corporate reformers public-schools are a business, not a public service. As a business, when assets are no longer profitable the business throws them out. Public-schools are not in the business of throwing out unsuccessful children. The problem was schools function nothing like a business (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Vollmer, 2010). Corporate reformers disagree and argue that educators use children's misbehavior and inability to learn as an excuse to avoid effectively teaching young citizens (Klein, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Yes, teachers were hired to teach students. However, when students do not learn, one does not close them down or throw them out. The act of learning is not an exact science. One cannot break it down into smaller pieces and dictate when every child should possess certain knowledge (Goyal, 2016; Pink, 2009). The human condition is not a business (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Curriculum standards already had some students so anxious over the end of the year tests that they simply gave up (Ryan & Deci, 2017). It is much easier than attempting to do something they are not ready to do and have no desire to do in the first

place (Pink, 2009). A child learns directly through its own expended effort (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2012).

The political legislation, heavily funded by corporate reformers, led the way to aggressively attacking the problems facing our public education system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Business and economic leaders were typically in control of our schools and districts. Political legislation such as No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top instigated a series of external rewards and punishments directed at teachers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). The main focus was on test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Kumashiro, 2012). The curriculum focused on test scores (Ravitch, 2014; 2010). Teachers and schools were held directly accountable for student achievement using test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Teachers, researchers, and teachers' unions were no longer effective lobbying organizations as the politicians and corporate reformers had shut down all means of collaborative communication with their 'get tough' on education efforts (Ravitch, 2010).

Educators took a different view on the purpose of education and how to instigate change into the education system. According to educators, the purpose of education was to instill the need to pursue a lifelong endeavor of learning in their students and teaching those students the knowledge and skills necessary to become productive citizens was their job (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Influence of this magnitude required a focus on the human condition about properly motivating human beings to choose

worthwhile behaviors (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Change of this magnitude was

extremely complex and unique (Fullan, 2011a). Politicians and corporate reformers

reduced teaching methods of this magnitude to a series of programs, methods, training,

and assessments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Educators knew every school was unique.

Every class was unique, and every child was unique. If the process of learning occurred

the way politicians claimed, then everyone in the world would be using the innovation by

now. Stitzlein (2017) reports public-schools are a platform to promote democracy and

citizen responsibility rather than consumerism. Politicians are now allowing individuals

and special interest groups to 'shop' for what they want with the very tax dollars

earmarked for public-schools (Stitzlein, 2017, p. 25). Public-schools and charter schools

are not as synonomous as one would think, as public-schools are free and open to the

public, while charter schools receive public funds without providing free and open access

(Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

Educators believed a change of this magnitude required changes in beliefs and

behaviors, and to change beliefs and behaviors one must motivate individuals (Connors

& Smith, 2011; Fullan, 2007; Pink, 2009). Most individuals believe in the science of the

twentieth century concerning motivation as external rewards and punishments (Pink,

2009). Many businesses, governments, and schools still believe in this theory. For the

businesses and skills necessary in the Industrial Age, this type of motivation seemed quite

effective. However, in the Technological Age, there were a different set of skills

necessary to become productive citizens (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Sornson, 2016). The

skills were no longer learned, memorized, until they became routine. Skills in today's

world required collaboration and communication. They required creative and innovative

thinkers (Fullan, 2011a; 2010b). Practicing basic skills and preparing for standardized

assessments cannot prepare students for this type of environment.

Differing beliefs between educators and politicians have left the change process

within the education system stagnant (Fullan, 2011a). Politicians and corporate reformers

joined forces to take over control of the public education system. Their main goal was to

show evidence of teacher ability by holding educators directly accountable for student

test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein,

2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). They believed that properly motivated

teachers appear through a merit pay system. Teachers must perform like all other

professions and be paid accordingly (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014).

Corporate reformers believe in firing low performing teachers, closing low performing

schools, and in opening charter schools to promote choice for the community (Klein,

2014; Ravitch, 2010; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Reward good teachers with a

sufficient paycheck and punish bad teachers by firing bad teachers (Hanushek &

Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014).

Motivation by force was detrimental (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017; 2000).

Significant educational reform begins with changes in beliefs, teaching methods, and

style through a social process of professional development (Fullan, 2007). External

motivation under duress has never been an effective change agent over a long term (Ryan

& Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009). External motivation under duress may

only seem to be effective over a short term (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2012;

Pink, 2009). However, the anxiety, stress, and resentment associated with the external

motivation tactics proved futile as educators have left the profession or risen in mutiny

(Pink, 2009). Also, students felt and experienced the same stress and pressure as the

educators concerning standardized tests (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011;

Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Politicians and corporate reformers believed forced

extrinsic motivation (external rewards and punishments) would accomplish compliance

through imposed sanctions (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ressler &

Thompson (2013) reported management resorts to controlling tactics and behaviors or

top-down managerial practices when management loses control.

Beliefs and teaching practices can only be changed and developed through a

series of internal motivationally positive experiences that are emotionally challenging

(Fullan, 2007). For instance, an expanded curriculum aided most teachers in most states

(Ravitch, 2010). The demand for teaching and practicing skills only related to basic skills

and standardized assessments leaves little time for new material and little intrinsic

motivation for the teachers or the students with boring and over-practiced testing material

(Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The attempt at motivating children through extrinsic

motivators worked for a short period as it worked at motivating educators (Deci & Ryan,

2012; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009). Internal motivation was

necessary because it becomes the driving force behind the action-oriented movement

(Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). However, forced extrinsic motivation

promotes unwanted behaviors and reactions (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The wrong kind of motivation for the wrong reasons only promoted resistance,

frustration, and unfocused chaos (Pink, 2009). The change began in the individual

classrooms (Elmore, 2004b). If one wants to improve the public-school system, one must

focus on changing behaviors and beliefs of the classroom teachers, which results in a new

internal motivation to press forward for everlasting positive results (Fullan, 2007;

Elmore, 2004b). Ryan and Deci (2017) indicated effective public-school reform begins

with motivating both teacher and student by meeting their 'basic psychological needs'.

(p. 377)

Proper internal motivation was the key to everlasting change (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009). External rewards and punishments simply became inappropriate and produced

only resentment, frustration, wasted resources, a waste of talented teachers, and

unmotivated students (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014).

The Third Drive (or intrinsic motivation) was the social science of today's successful,

happy, and productive businesses and organizations (Pink, 2009). The concept of the

Third Drive has been researched since the 1950's. The research itself was ignored or

dismissed because it did not fit into a category of externally controlled rewards and

punishments (Pink, 2009). Organizations in the twenty-first century needed to adhere to

this type of social science as the workers of today must be properly motivated to create

and design the innovations of tomorrow (Pink, 2009).

Politicians and corporate reformers wanted high test scores and undebated

compliance from educators. Automatically, the elevated pressure to produce high test

scores diminished the teachers' and the students' ability to motivate, engage or even

enjoy the learning process at school (Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). An attempt at forcing

intrinsic motivation proves management agonizes over the loss of control (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Forced compliance drove learning out of the schools for both educator and student (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Attempting to motivate children through extrinsic motivation only works for a short period and expecting intrinsic motivation all day is unrealistic (Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). A balanced classroom contains both extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors throughout the day (Williams & Williams, 2011). These conclusions also apply to classroom teachers.

Teachers at XYZ Elementary School felt the pressure to motivate students to test well. The students at XYZ Elementary School appeared to perform in a typical manner, or in other words; the students acted like children. A typical manner included children who were people pleasers who would do the best that they can no matter what. Then there was the group of children who chose not to work; and, despite teacher's attempts to motivate and explain why the work was important, the children simply did not care. There was also a group of children who simply did not have the mental ability to perform at the progressive level the government projected for them. Some of those children had disabilities, and some were simply slow learners. Once again, teachers are only indirectly responsible for their students' effort and achievement (Deci & Ryan, 2012).

XYZ Elementary School faculty members confided in one another about the frustrations over curriculum, instructional practices, unmotivated students, unfair expectations, lack of respect, overwhelming frustration, and resentment. Several members of the faculty had taken advantage of early retirement, despite being physically

able to work. Two faculty members suffered from mental breakdowns and were forced to

resign. Introductory talk about merit pay for the next year worried several faculty

members. Teachers at the XYZ Elementary School were aware that the expectations

thrust upon them were unrealistic; and, despite the teacher's good intentions and efforts

made in a professional manner, educators did not trust politicians to do the moral thing

and pay them a fair wage. Teachers at the XYZ Elementary School feared if their meager

professional earnings diminished any further, it would be in their best interest to find

employment elsewhere outside of their profession. Thus, as time passed, they became a

marginalized and underrepresented group in need of emancipation (Creswell & Plano

Clark, 2011).

Operational Definitions

Annual Yearly Progress (AYP): the progress made by students shown using a

standardized test given to every student in the state.

Autonomy: relates to the degree of control and choice some individual experiences in

each situation; refers to a state of engagement.

Biological Drive: refers to the need to satisfy a human's or animal's basic needs and

desires, commonly known as our basic needs to survive and live in a healthy and

mentally content manner.

Change Knowledge: "understanding and insight about the process of change and the key

drivers that make for successful change in practice" (Fullan, 2009, p. 9).

Culture: the ideas, customs, skills, arts, of people or groups that transfer, communicate,

or pass along to succeeding generations (Fullan, 2009).

Extrinsic Motivators: commonly referred to as external rewards and punishments. A reward can be anything speculated as a positive in return for a given behavior. A punishment is anything that can be viewed with a negative connotation in response to a given behavior. Under this theory of motivation, all human behavior is driven by external rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Flow: "the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 4).

Intrinsic Motivation: motivated to behave in some manner without the use of external rewards and punishments. Intrinsic motivation can only operate under a system which includes autonomy, competence or mastery, and relatedness or purpose (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

"Mastery: the desire to get better and better at something that matters" (Pink, 2009, p. 109).

Professional Learning Communities (PLC): educators who create "an environment that fosters mutual cooperation, emotional support, and personal growth as they work together to achieve what they cannot accomplish alone" (DuFour & Eaker, 1998, p. xii).

Purpose: "the most deeply motivated people - not to mention those who are most productive and satisfied – hitch their desires to a cause larger than themselves" (Pink, 2009, p. 131).

Measurement Instruments

Autonomy Audit: This instrument measured the Variable, **Autonomy** perceived by the

teachers at XYZ Elementary School. Numerical data was collected as ratings to measure

each teacher's degree of autonomy. This descriptive data was calculated and scaled to

determine a degree of autonomy per participant. Therefore, this instrument collected

descriptive quantitative data. It was developed and researched by Daniel Pink (2009).

Flow Test Experiment: This instrument measured the Variable, **Mastery Levels**. Both

numerical and verbal data was collected to measure participants' belief in their mastery

levels. The researcher coded verbal data for general patterns and themes. Descriptive

numerical data was calculated for some optimal experiences within a 5-day period and

interpreted to reveal the degree of belief in one's mastery levels per participant.

Therefore, this instrument collected both verbal qualitative and quantitative numerical

data. It was originally developed by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and further

publicized by Daniel Pink (2009).

Individual Teacher Interviews: This instrument measured the Variable, **Teacher**

Motivation. The researcher collected verbal data which would then be turned into

general patterns and themes. Therefore, this instrument collected verbal, qualitative data.

The researcher developed the research questions with regards to the research done by

Edward Deci, Richard Ryan, Michael Fullan, Daniel Pink, Douglas Reeves, Linda

Darling-Hammond, Diane Ravitch, and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi.

The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment: This instrument measured the

Variable, **Readiness to Change**. Verbal descriptions were written and turned into

Ratings, descriptive statistics, by the participants themselves *before* the researcher

received and analyzed the data. Therefore, this instrument collected descriptive

quantitative data. It was developed and researched by Reeves (2009).

What's Your Sentence?: This instrument measured the Variable, **Sense of Purpose**.

Verbal descriptions were collected and analyzed for general patterns and themes, looking

for each participant's sense of purpose with regards to education. Therefore, this

instrument collected verbal, qualitative data. It was developed and researched by Pink

(2009).

Assumptions, Delimitations, Scope and Limitations of the Study

The nature of the study assumed the researcher would be an appropriate

moderator by way of asking probing questions, reading nonverbal body language, and

examining and processing participants' answers to discover themes or patterns related to

the participants' responses. Also, the researcher would assume that the participants would

answer interview questions, survey questions, and experiment questions and deliver

journal entries truthfully and honestly. Human behavior is a unique and complex subject.

The researcher assumed the participant response to be honest, but expecting the absolute

truth was unrealistic (Phillips & Burbules, 2000).

As with any research into social phenomena, there were limitations. Limitations

might include access to pertinent information. Possible research participants may not feel

like they can speak up or speak truthfully. Limitations of the study included the number

and willingness of volunteer participant involvement as opposed to random sampling.

The setting of this study was a single-site location limiting the number of possible

participants. The number of willing participants volunteering to take part in assessments, teacher interviews, and the flow experiment also limited the study. Recent political events on the state and federal level initiating merit pay systems and teacher evaluations based on student performance have turned many educators to isolation. Many districts across the nation have also imposed teacher coaches into the classrooms whom many times turn out to be spies for the politicians, corporate reformers, and their administrator followers. Recent events have made educators skeptical, paranoid, and unwilling to participate in studies, regardless of who approved them.

The number of participants allowed to participate in the study delimited the scope of the study. This study was limited to a local site; and, until the study called for volunteers, the researcher couldn't accurately predict how many participants there would be. It was expected to have a minimum of seven volunteers and a maximum of twenty.

As with every research study, there were some potential weaknesses. One potential weakness was social desirability. Human behavior is complex in nature. Social desirability occurs when individuals may not accurately judge or portray a situation because they judge the outcome, and they say what they think the researcher wants them to say or what they think would make them socially desirable. Social desirability is a type of dishonesty performed subconsciously and is considered a potential weakness. Teachers have been heavily scrutinized, especially in the media, and it would not seem unreasonable for an educator to want to appear socially desirable.

Significance of the Study

  The positive side to 50 years of failed reform movements was the knowledge we have gained. Many reform movements have failed mainly because the public-school system implemented a style of management, a teaching method, or a process without regarding the process of change itself and the many factors related to change reform (Fullan, 2007). Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher (2005) developed a system of leading change where they indicate eight major change forces which leaders needed to comprehend and acknowledge, in which they needed to take proper action to address the challenge of change and to survive and flourish into the 21st century. Educational change is a sociopolitical process requiring changes in beliefs and understanding of the numerous factors which build the foundation of the change process delivering everlasting reform (Fullan, 2009). Fullan (2009) had these words to say about the significance of educational reform.

    Educational change has meaning because it pursues moral purpose and does so by bringing best knowledge to bear on critical issues of the day. Above all, when it works, it does so because it motivates "a million change agents" to find meaning in collective action to improve mankind. Meaningful work, action-based, never finished – one could spend a lifetime! (p. xiii)

Educational reform was a learning process to change. Experience, research, and educational studies will continue to benefit the community through improved teaching and learning processes.

A strong public educational system was the key ingredient in developing and maintaining our nation's economy (Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). It is through education that we produce productive citizens to preserve our democratic society. Within our educational institutions lies the power of knowledge, opportunity, skills, and innovation. It is through our educational organizations that our children learn to be citizens of our democratic nation and to become our next generation of leaders (Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

Education has the power to enable the citizens. Education also has the power to destroy democracies (Ravitch, 2014; 2010). Democracy cannot be motivated or empowered by force. Democracy is strengthened only by the willingness of its citizens to learn and innovate.

The American government and corporate reformers were in the process of stifling the public education system by taking control away from the educators. The American government left behind a series of practical tasks to be mastered by both student and teacher in the form of accountability (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017). Through a series of external rewards and punishments, politicians and corporate reformers were attempting to motivate teachers into teaching better, hopefully resulting in higher student performance on national and international testing scores (Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014; 2010).

Educators have been accustomed to a series of imposed sanctions and laws through such legislation as No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top (Berliner & Glass,

2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010). Such legislation preyed upon the emotions of our citizens to save our children from the bad teachers and schools, as depicted in the semi-fictional film *Waiting for Superman* (Goldstein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians stripped control over our educational institutions from the educators. Political leaders have created the schools to function the way that they do through the governments' imposed sanctions, laws, budgets, mandated curriculum, and mandated teaching practices (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010).

Politicians claimed teachers were not properly motivated to teach well as they had no monetary incentives or opportunities to advance in their profession (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Money was no longer considered a reward. Money was a biological need for everyone (Pink, 2009). By using money as a reward, the employer was exerting control over the employee's life, creating anger and resentment in the employee toward the employer (Deci, 1971; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers motivated teachers by threatening their paychecks as politicians linked teacher paychecks directly to student test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians assumed teachers were like all other professionals and linking paychecks to student test performance would motivate teachers to teach well, and the students would perform better (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). The main problem with this scenario included teachers' paychecks held hostage for the students', not the teachers', performance. Teachers were not being paid, or held accountable for, their individual performance, or ability to teach, or the learning environment they had created (Pink, 2009). Teachers possess less than fifty percent influence over student performance

(Berliner, 2014; Berliner & Glass, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers created a situation where educators were forced to work miracles, cheat, or fail (Kuhn, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers manipulated statistical data to interpret whatever management needed the data to show (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The teacher unions became useless because of the untruthful data and allowed politicians and corporate reformers complete control (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Berliner (2012) included the actions of politicians, and corporate reformers created new situations of childhood poverty, racial segregation, and teacher isolation promoting more failures. After so many failings and ignorant reactions to desperate situations it became obvious politicians and corporate reformers wanted investment opportunities and not public-school reformation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers intended to create an illusion of ineptness among educators to produce business opportunities (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Berliner & Glass (2014) found tax incentives and tax credits allowed corporate reformers to invest in education and make profits. While engaging in investment practices which are harmful to public education and kept most Americans in a lower tax bracket, the business leaders revealed true intentions of increasing the gap between the rich and the poor while making a profit (Berliner & Glass, 2014).

Educators were not opposed to being held accountable for their teaching ability (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Teachers only ask that the practices were appropriate, fair, and realistic. Politicians and corporate reformers believed if a teacher teaches well, all of

their students should test well on state and international standardized tests (Ravitch, 2010). Teachers needed to be held directly accountable for student test scores according to the politicians and corporate reformers (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010).

Across the nation in four major cities such as New York City, Atlanta, Chicago, and San Diego, corporate reformers, and politicians took over school systems and districts. All four cities took a 'get tough on education' stance (Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2014; 2010). In each of these cities, teachers were threatened, bullied, disrespected, held accountable, displaced, and fired by the corporate reformers (Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2014; 2010). The corporate reformers and politicians imposed their accountability measures, merit pay systems, closed low-performing schools, opened charter schools, spent millions of taxpayer's dollars, and fired hundreds of low performing teachers and administrators (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Hursh, 2016; Stitzlein, 2017). Currently, there is still much debate about the 'opt out' agenda for students facing the enormous number of high-stakes tests in New York which began in 2015 (Harding, 2015; Ravitch, 2015). The New York Chancellor, Nancy Zimpher, debated students who opted out withdrew the opportunity to view their progress and allow teachers to reteach (Harding, 2015). Ravitch (2015) replied that the information from testing is 'useless' to the teachers without access to scores and content in real time. B. Gates suggested teachers only need testing data as professional development and that his theories are mainly predicated on 'faith' (Hursh, 2016, p. 88). The new school leaders in New York City lowered the scores in a secret meeting so they could report increased achievement to the media (Ravitch,

2010). The business industry and the media all congratulated the leaders on their newfound success and their 'get tough' attitude toward educators. Some business leader tenures lasted as long as ten years, and the only test scores to elevate were the state scores as teachers were instructed to teach specific testing skills (Ravitch, 2010). The actual basic skills of the students diminished as students spent an enormous amount of time preparing for tests rather than practicing the basic skills. Morale and motivation had been at an all-time low for both teachers and students (Ravitch, 2014; 2010).

Sandel (2012) reported New York City districts and Chicago districts attempted to offer students monetary incentives for standardized test scores and found disappointment. Goldstein (2014) also reported several cities across the nation tried to pay teachers for student test scores and found the program unsuccessful. Deci (1971) reported money used as an external reward puts a negative impact on the individual's ability to focus, concentrate, be creative, be innovative, or perform at high levels of higher order thinking (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The act of offering or diminishing a fair baseline salary negates the possibility of a high bonus or stipend (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). When offered an extrinsic reward, most individuals report feeling pressured or coerced (Deci & Ryan, 2012). By offering an inappropriate type of motivation, administration jeopardizes the ability of the individual to perform the activity (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Intrinsic motivation initiates from within through autonomy, mastery or competence, and purpose or relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017; 2000).

It is for this reason; educational researchers urged educators, students, parents, and the community to become active in the fight for education. Motivation was a key

element for both educators and students if we wanted to create an environment conducive to learning and innovation (Pink, 2009). Force had never been a long-term solution or motivator for anything (Pink, 2009). Motivation in the form of external rewards and punishments was the social science of the twentieth century (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). New skills, creative and innovative thinkers, required a different kind of motivation. The Third Drive is about promoting desire and will from within and for the right reasons (Pink, 2009). The Third Drive refers to the underlying reasons motivating us to behave and engage the way that we do without the use of external punishments and rewards (Pink, 2009). The Third Drive has a higher purpose tapping into characteristics such as autonomy, mastery, and purpose (Pink, 2009). External rewards and punishments typically outlived their usefulness and required more and more to produce the same results (Pink, 2009). This type of system only leads to addiction, obsession, frustration, and eventually resentment (Pink, 2009).

The faculty at the XYZ Elementary School experienced very little autonomy over the instructional practices within their classrooms. Reading and math programs had been scripted and made a priority throughout the majority of the day. Time that had been allotted for small groups was now mandated daily to meet the needs of the diverse learners at XYZ Elementary School. Direct instruction models had been designed and scripted to meet the needs of the entire class. The problem lay with the motivation of the students and the teachers. After a while, direct instruction models become tedious, and even the teacher becomes bored. Scripted direct instruction models become routine and

boring. It was a logical step by step instruction process that lacked imagination and creativity.

XYZ Elementary School educators had also been made aware that test scores were the main goal of the school and the district. Skills needed to be taught, practiced, and reviewed until mastery became obtained as measured by a standardized test. It had also come to the attention of the faculty that the state and district were quickly implementing a merit pay system based on three categories including; student test scores, a parent survey, and a principal classroom review. The state implemented the plan as early as the 2014-2015 school year. Educators at the school were anxious and worried, feeling like they had lost the war on education.

The overall significance of this study was to alert readers to the most effective ways to motivate classroom teachers to consistently do their best to educate their students. If we understand what truly motivates teachers and other human beings, we can create different, more productive learning environments than those existing at XYZ School today. Our educational institutions need to be enriched environments filled with learning, discovery, and interest. Politicians and corporate reformers have exerted their efforts in making our schools into test practice institutions. The practice was ineffective, demoralizing, and non-motivating for everyone involved. Competitive international test scores and unrealistic expectations trapped educators in a hopeless situation. Other nations who made this same quest only accomplished their goals through respect, improved curriculum, improved teaching practices, no test practice strategy sessions, and very few standardized tests (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011).

The question the American citizens should be asking themselves is what kind of learning environment do they want to see for themselves and their children (Ravitch, 2010)? Politicians and corporate reformers spent millions of dollars on standardized tests, testing supplies, recording companies, and practice test supplies (Kumashiro, 2012). Other nations testing in the top five countries on the NAEP did not spend more than a third of what we did in the name of accountability and motivation (Sahlberg, 2011). Naturally, accountability occurs when there is a good system of learning and discovery built on the foundation of respect, autonomy, purpose, and mastery of a worthy curriculum (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Again, the basic purpose of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation (external rewards and punishments) such as sources of intrinsic motivation that motivated teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability, and thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to study and learn over time (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014). For example, when classroom teachers were motivated to plan and implement in-depth lessons using the many different learning styles and/or to appeal to the multiple kinds of intelligence of their students, it took them much more time, effort, and energy rather than planning and implementing lessons using only one or two instructional approaches to reach their students. Judging the quality of their teaching must depend on judging their attempt to teach such lessons, which indirectly influence their students to work harder to study and learn because there is an opportunity for all of them to understand the lessons from their various learning

styles and individual intelligences. Holding classroom teachers directly accountable for the standardized test scores of their students, using external rewards and punishments as motivation, does not accomplish this kind of teaching and learning in our classrooms (Gardner, 2000, 2009).

Summary

The basic problem was, given the current process of holding classroom teachers directly accountable for individual student achievement through standardized testing, teachers at XYZ Elementary School were currently only motivated to change through external rewards and punishments. The basic purpose of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods case study was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation that motivate teachers to change. Eduational change is a complex sociopolitical process requiring strong leadership in the areas of the change process, the learning and teaching process, motivation, and an understanding of the human condition as it pertains to the educational system (Fullan, 2011a; 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers fixated on the theory that accountability, school choice, and competition among teachers/schools would reform the educational system (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers modeled their theory from a business perspective using a top-down managerial style. The top-down managerial style operated under the theory of external rewards and punishments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Reward the behavior one expected to see, usually a monetary reward, and punish the behavior one did not want to see, mainly, low test scores (Pink, 2009).

Educators were worried about the consequences a business-like atmosphere would force on the public education system (Ravitch, 2010; Vollmer, 2010). A result of this study may be to educate the public on the ramifications the political and corporate influence has instigated upon the education system. By educating the public on the current strategies and techniques for motivation, our society may begin to explore more effective and appropriate methods of motivating teachers to provide the type of lessons that require more time, effort, and energy, but that will reach and motivate more students to engage, study, and learn.

Section 2 provides a review of the literature concerning this mixed methods case study. First, the literature review reports on the history of education reform in America. The American public-school system has been in a state of reform since the early 1900's (Ravitch, 2010). The accountability fad has been flourishing since the 1980's and quickly gaining momentum (Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). Next, the literature review will discuss the history of learning organizations for both business and education. For the last decade or so, corporate reformers, or business leaders wanted to take control of the public education system, had been collaborating with politicians in an attempt to reform, control, and turned the industry of education into a business (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Finally, the literature review will debate the theories of motivation. A primary concern of politicians and corporate reformers was that educators had become lazy and unmotivated because they had not been held directly accountable for student achievement (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Motivational theories from the twentieth century operating in the business sector typically followed the theory known as external

rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009). However, as early as the 1950's, researchers became aware of a separate motivational theory known as intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive (Pink, 2009). Proponents of this theory of thought claimed that to implement external rewards and punishments, especially where the human condition was concerned, would only destroy the very process one hoped to improve (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Forced behavior only creates frustration, anxiety, anger, and resentment (Pink, 2009).

Section 3 will discuss the nature of this mixed methods case study. This mixed methods case study took place at a single-site location and analyzed what motivated teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change. Research question one, what motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change qualitatively addressed participant motivation using individual teacher interviews (Appendix B). Research question two, to what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change quantitatively measured participant readiness to change using the Organizational Change Readiness Assessment (Appendix A). Research question three, to what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change was quantitatively measured by the Autonomy Audit (Appendix C). Research question four, to what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change was quantitatively and qualitatively measured by the Flow Test experiment (Appendix D). Research question five, to what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change was qualitatively measured by the What's Your Sentence exercise (Appendix E).

Table 1

Research Questions and Matching Measurement Instruments

Research Questions	Types of Analysis	Instrument
Question 1: What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?	Qualitative	Individual Teacher Interviews
Question 2: To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?	Quantitative (rankings)	Organizational Change Readiness Assessment
Question 3: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to make lasting changes?	Quantitative (rankings)	Autonomy Audit
Question 4: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School believe in their mastery levels to make lasting changes?	Quantitative (rankings) and Qualitative	Flow Test experiment
Question 5: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to make lasting changes?	Qualitative	What's your sentence exercise

Section 2: Literature Review

Introduction

A democratic society requires educated citizens (Ravitch, 2010; 2014). Knowledge is what keeps citizens active in the politics, policies, and practices of the nation (Ravitch, 2010). This study's timely problem is that classroom teachers at XYZ School are currently motivated to change through external rewards and punishments or extrinsic motivation, given the current process of holding them directly accountable for individual student achievement through standardized testing. Politicians and corporate reformers made some basic assumptions as to why teachers are currently not motivated to teach to the politicians' level of expectations (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Educational researchers and teachers also made some claims as to why teachers currently are not motivated to teach at the expected levels (Pink, 2009). The question remains, what motivates teachers to perform and how can educators change and maintain this degree of motivation while indirectly influencing student performance?

The discussion in the literature review covered the following topics: Background Issues of the Problem listed the extensive factors about the actual problem of change in education, Goals of Education described the purpose of education in America and why the country first established the institution, and then the History of Education Reform. Almost as early as public institutions of learning were first established in this country, reform movements wanted to change, improve, and influence the system. The next section, The Challenge of Change, looks at the specific elements influencing the outcome of change. The following section, The Process of Change, took an academic view into the

theories of the elements of change, providing step-by-step insight into the change process. The Learning Organizations section broke down the process of management and discussed why we use the processes and techniques we do to manage and produce success or failure. The Motivation Theory section began with learning organizations in the business sector with Frederick Taylor and moved into extrinsic motivation, or external rewards and punishments, and into intrinsic motivation, or The Third Drive and its influence on education today. The War on Education section derived from the Motivation Theory section because it explains why past reform movements failed and how the war on education began. The Motivating the Masses section put theory into practice by emphasizing which theories are proving to be effective and which ones continue to fail.

The strategy that I used for finding research material for this study was trial and error. I typed in several variations of keywords through two main databases, ERIC and EBSCO Discovery Service for business, psychological, and educational needs. The teacher *motivation* keyword search provided little usable data for this study and was outdated. The *term accountability* search proved to generate more material; however, the material did not match the needs of this study. School accountability keywords led more to the opponent side of testing and accountability. Although two book authors, Klein and Hanushek, wrote books supporting direct teacher accountability, actual published research material was difficult to find in favor of testing and teacher accountability. A *motivation* keyword search in the psychological and business databases proved to be more helpful. A combined keyword search of *teacher motivation, accountability*, and

student achievement led to some dissertations concerning professional learning communities. I studied the resources, and many of those citations led to educational researchers, such as Michael Fullan and Douglas Reeves. Michael Fullan's research led the researcher to educational researcher Linda Darling-Hammond, educational historian Diane Ravitch, and psychologist theorists, such as Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, and management researcher Daniel Pink. Daniel Pink's research led the researcher to psychologist Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi. Once the subject of *teacher motivation* appeared through another venue, I found the material necessary to conduct meaningful research into the *change process and teacher motivation*.

Background to the Problem

The problem of this study resulted in a figurative wedge driven between educators, politicians and corporate reformers, which began with differing views on the purpose and goals of education, accountability measures, managerial practices, imposed laws and sanctions, and what constitutes proper motivation practices. Collaborative discussions between politicians and educators cease to exist as politicians from all political parties and corporate reformers formed a cohesive bond in the war against education (Ravitch, 2010; 2014). Everyone agreed on educational needs during the Industrial Age, and the educational needs necessary for the current Technological Age are progressively different (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Reeves, 2009; Sornson, 2016). The conflict arose with assessing the problem, researching and promoting viable solutions, and reflecting on implied theories and improving on proposed theories in a

collegial and collaborative manner (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). The following issues further define this complicated problem.

The first issue between educators, politicians, and corporate reformers is that they do not agree on the purpose and goals of education (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The goal of an educator is to promote the desire to pursue lifelong learning and teaching within the students (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Stitzlein (2017) stated, "Maintaining democracy is one of the most longstanding goals of education" (p. 19). The pursuit of knowledge and the motivation to seek that kind of endeavor is what defines success for the nation's individual citizens as well as the collective group (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Success rewarded or measured regarding monetary means did not occur, toward which politicians and corporate reformers may elude (Ravitch, 2010). Success is found in individuals' ability to think for themselves (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The politicians' goal of education focuses on statistics and test scores as warranted by their actions (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010; 2014). Klein (2014) stated, "School systems in America are government-run monopolies dominated by unions and political interests and not subject to the kinds of accountability and competitive incentives that breed successful organizations" (p. xiv). Politicians and corporate reformers measure educational success with money and standardized test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010). Politicians believe that improved test scores equate to higher intelligence, a higher order of thinking and ability level, and, overall, a better economy and nation of learners (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2010, 2010; Hanushek &

Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers confuse international comparative scores with "American dominance in productivity and participation in the technology-based global market" (Stitzlein, 2017, p. 23). Political forces allow private investors to dominate all aspects of the public education system, which includes our democracy (Hursh, 2016; 2015; Ravitch, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017).

The second issue between politicians and educators is that the two groups view accountability measures differently (Kuhn, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers are opposed, not to being held accountable in their profession, but to how they are being held accountable for student performance. Teachers ask that the evaluation practice be fair, appropriate, and realistic (Fullan, 2011a; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers believe teacher accountability influences competition, which in turn produces success (Klein, 2014). In the name of accountability, politicians and corporate reformers have become consumers with tax dollars by placing responsibility solely on the educators for changing and maintaining the public-school system to promote democracy when that is truly all citizens' responsibility (Stitzlein, 2017). In a democracy, the people have the power to change their local school systems to be what they want them to be; and, yet, politicians and corporate reformers have manipulated the situation so much that the people want nothing to do with politics and the government (Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). The miscommunication appears in the form of teacher accountability relating to student test scores and principal evaluations (Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Teachers influence students, good or bad, and have a significant, if indirect, influence on a

student's internal motivation and visible achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers argue their influence may be great; yet, trying to measure it physically and be held accountable for one hundred percent direct influence for every child's achievement in one's class, every year, is unrealistic (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Berliner and Glass (2014) reported teacher and school influence only attributes to approximately 30% impact on student achievement. Berliner (2012) speculated there are several other outside factors which contribute more to student achievement than teacher quality. Politicians and corporate reformers claim teacher quality is the only factor that counts with student achievement. However corporate reformers prove nothing with evidence (Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Also, Goldhaber (2002) researched the effect teacher characteristics has to directly influence student performance and found approximately 8.5 percent influence from teacher characteristics and approximately 60% from socioeconomic factors which influence student performance. Teachers educate anywhere from 20-40 students in each class on any given day in an elementary school. Secondary teachers see over a hundred students a day on average (Ravitch, 2010). There are numerous significant factors which directly influence a student's ability and desire to learn that are completely ignored and dismissed by the politicians and corporate reformers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Educators agree teacher quality is a significant factor towards student achievement; however, it is impossible to be everything to everyone (Ravitch, 2010).

Table 2

Complicated Issues Involved in the Problem of School Change

Issue 1: Politicians, corporate reformers, and educators do not agree on the purpose of education.	Main Points 1: The politicians' goal of education seems subjected to statistics and test scores as warranted by their actions (Ravitch, 2010). The goal of an educator is to promote the desire to pursue lifelong learning and teaching within the students (Fullan, 2011a; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010).
Issue 2: Differing views toward accountability measures between politicians and educators.	Main Points 2: Teachers are not opposed to being held accountable; they only ask that the measurement be fair, realistic, and appropriate.
Issue 3: Politicians believe in the theory that student performance on standardized tests is an appropriate and accurate measure of a teacher's ability to educate.	Main Points 3: Student performance linked to teacher quality is an inappropriate measurement as it is not valid, credible, or reliable. Nowhere in the world has there been sufficient evidence to suggest that teacher accountability is directly correlated to student success as measured by standardized tests (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010).

(*table continues*)

Complicated Issues Involved in the Problem of School Change

Issue 4:	Main Points 4:
Corporate reformers and politicians believe managing business and the educational system to be the same.	Corporate reformers believe educators are lazy and unmotivated to perform at acceptable levels; and, by managing educators appropriately, reformation will occur (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Corporate reformers and politicians are acting upon the theory of external rewards and punishments and are failing to realize that for education to thrive and succeed managers need to act upon the theory of The Third Drive (Pink, 2009).
Issue 5:	Main Points 5:
Imposed laws and sanctions forced upon the education system is the fifth element separating educators and politicians.	Incentives and sanctions may be effective in the business sector where the goal is money, and the product did not involve human beings. However, in the education system, the goal is not money or test scores or even achievement; it is the development of the human spirit and the gift of knowledge (Pink, 2009). Test scores are taking precedence over knowledge and the human element (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010).
Issue 6:	Main Points 6:
The sixth element is the motive of motivation.	Politicians and corporate reformers believe educators are not motivated to teach well because they are not held directly accountable for how well their students learn as revealed on paper and pencil tests (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). The theory is that punitive accountability will motivate educators to do their jobs using a series of external rewards and punishments (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

According to politicians, every teacher needs to become everything to every student in

the teacher's classroom because it is their job (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009).

So, if an individual teacher cannot teach well enough to promote adequate testing levels

with all their students, then the teacher must be punished by diminishing their paycheck

or simply by firing them (Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers believe

teachers who rise to the occasion should be compensated, while the others need to be

terminated (Klein, 2014). The expectations are unrealistic given the situation (Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Other impacting factors include culture,

parental views and practices, socioeconomic influences and experiences, individual

attitudes, individual abilities, and individual or internal student motivation (Berliner,

2012; Berliner & Glass, 2014). In fact, Berliner (2014) reported, if American public-

schools withdrew students suffering from poverty and their test scores from competition,

America would out-perform many of the world's headliners. America averages higher

than normal child poverty rates than other civilized countries in the world (Berliner,

2012; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). UNICEF (2012) reported the United States

shows a higher rate of childhood poverty than any other advanced nation. In 2013,

UNICEF also reported one-quarter of American children live in poverty, a high

percentage for such a rich nation. Also, Glass (2012) explained international standardized

tests are not comparable because test designers cannot overcome language barriers and

make the tests equally challenging. Several comparisons between tests and countries

made the competition unbalanced as an international comparison. Klein (2014) argued

childhood poverty is an excuse for poor performance. Furthermore, by comparing

American children to other nations "our middle-class and wealthy students are underperforming as well" (p. xiii). Change must take place in the classrooms and without the atmosphere of competition the environment will remain unchanged.

The third issue unresolved between politicians and educators is the theory that student performance on standardized tests is an appropriate and accurate measure of a teacher's ability to educate (Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Bill Gates (2011) debated the United States increased educational spending for K – 12 for the past 30 years, while student testing scores remained stagnant. Most the increased spending Gates referred to failed to include special education mandated by Congress in 1975 (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Most countries who participated in international testing do not include all their students as does the United States. However, the United States experiences gains in PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) scores since 2006 (Berliner & Glass, 2014) and TIMSS (Trends in Mathematics and Science Study) since 1995 (Loveless, 2011). Hursh (2016) reported Bill Gates, "states that testing is the only objective measurement of our students and that the scores inform teachers how to improve. His entire approach to education concentrates on test scores" (p. 90). Klein (2014) commented, "Tests would never be a perfect or totally consistent measure, and small year-to-year changes might say as much about the tests as they did about student performance" (p. 123). Yet, the most complaints from educators come from being judged primarily on student achievement scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

In the mid-twentieth century, America always scored below other countries in math and science, however, in 1964 America took eleventh place out of twelve countries in math. The low ranking, however, means nothing when compared to the other eleven countries economically as speculated by business leaders (Berliner & Glass, 2014), meaning the international ranking means absolutely nothing in the real world (Baker, 2007). Michelle Rhee (2012) compared PISA 2009 scores to the Olympics and suggests American schools are weak and lazy. The proud American public education system relies heavily on past accomplishments and must now rise to the challenge to compete internationally with other countries (Students First, 2012).

Keith Baker worked as an analyst for the United States Department of Education and speculates on the value of rankings for international tests. Baker reviewed and analyzed student rankings and then compared the countries financial stability and economic performance. Baker (2007) reported there is no evidence to support the corporate reformers claims that America is in jeopardy with the economic system or the public-school system. The politicians and corporate reformers misinformed the American people about the public education system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Baker (2007) continued to report America's test scores are competitive considering the United States tests everyone while other countries do not (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010).

Student performance linked to teacher quality was lobbied against by the teacher unions for the mere fact that the measurement is not valid, credible or reliable (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch (2014) reported politicians and corporate

reformers must weaken the teacher's unions to cripple the public education system and allow the business leaders to make a profit (Goyal, 2016). A weakened teacher union limits academic freedom, allows politicians to undermine professionalism through standardized testing and unrealistic accountability measures, and allows politicians and corporate reformers to appear as civil rights activists while promoting and ignoring child poverty and segregation (Ravitch, 2014, p. 22).

Berliner (2012) explained outside factors appear to include twice the impact as in-school factors, including teacher influence. Teachers control nothing outside of the classroom concerning student achievement (Goyal, 2016). Again, teachers held accountable for unrealistic, and unfair expectations means miracles, failure, or cheating (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014; 2010). Sufficient evidence suggests that teacher accountability is not directly correlated to student success as measured by standardized tests (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Politicians assume all around the world teacher accountability is directly related to student achievement and measured by standardized tests, yet no one else in the world measures their educators like America (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Also, no evidence supports the idea that student success is accurately measured using a single, or even multiple, standardized tests (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014). In April 2015, Harding reported New York Chancellor, Nancy Zimpher, cautioned parents not to opt out of testing in order to give the schools an opportunity to see how well they achieved. Ravitch (2015) replied to the parents that the scores mean nothing when they

are delivered in the next school year with new classes and that the test scores really offer nothing of value. In fact, Elizabeth Harris (2015) a *New York Times* reporter wrote that the 'opt out' movement from standardized testing is growing. Harris continues to report as high as 20% of New York children withdrew from the testing, and now the state is being called upon to determine consequences of the schools. Some parents protested over the standardized testing movement and continued to gain momentum (McKenna, 2015). McKenna (2015) continued to report New Jersey advertisements pointed out the stress each student is placed under because teacher evaluations are directly related to a merit pay system. Politicians and business leaders profit over the privatization of education; and, in the process, the children are over-tested and learn to dislike school (Goyal, 2016). Testing became the core of NCLB and Race to the Top legislation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Ujifusa (2012) reported President Obama spent $1.7 billion dollars on testing in 2012, which hindsight dictates taxpayers' money be spent on something more relevant. Hursh (2015) reported the "Arne Duncan and President Obama leadership to be 'disappointing' as they increased privatization, increased high-stakes testing, linked test scores to teacher evaluations," and demanded schools to compete for federal dollars (p. 98). Overall, evidence supports the claim that this kind of accountability does not lead to improved teaching practices, motivation, or influence over students in the learning process (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Reeves, 2009). Even Bill Gates admitted during a speech in 2013, "it would be great if our education stuff worked, but that we won't know for probably a decade" (Strauss, 2015a).

Educators point out that one of the biggest discrepancies noted during the 1990's in New York City as well as in the early 2000's in San Diego is the lack of accountability expected or obtained from the political leaders and corporate reformers (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). These political and corporate reformers subjected their leadership theories and practices on public education. The political and corporate reformers deliberated with only those who supported their efforts, closed low-performing schools, and opened charter schools with no evidence of their being more successful than public-schools (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). The politicians and corporate reformers spent millions of taxpayers' money on programs without a strong curriculum, spent millions of dollars on testing materials, spent millions of dollars on the new charter schools which only progressed as well as the schools that were closed (Ravitch, 2010). The corporate reformers threatened teacher's jobs and paychecks, fired educators who spoke against the leaders, and, in a secret meeting, corrupted the testing data in favor of the new programs, which claimed success to the media instead of the actual outcome of failure or no significant change (Ravitch, 2010). All of these negative aspects came directly from the politicians and corporate reformers while they received a hefty paycheck. No one from the government or the media thought to check their resources, or realized that the evidence did not support the actions of the leaders, nor did they listen to the views of the educators (Ravitch, 2010). Bill Gates believes teachers should not be heard concerning educational issues of any kind and still be held accountable for just about everything (Hursh, 2016). Gates has also reported that his theories on education are leaps of 'faith' and 'may not work' (Hursh, 2016, p. 88).

Klein (2014) reported change in New York under Mayor Bloomberg was undermined by the overbearing protection of the teacher unions. Administration wanted to compensate higher performing educators and terminate under performing educators. Klein (2014) also reported student performance rose, despite the teachers' union interference with change and progress. Klein (2014) reflected on the experience, commenting on the desire to devise "better ways to connect with teachers" (p. 271). Yet, teachers continued to report being degraded, harassed, and publicaly embarassed by administrators (Ravitch, 2014). Also, the act of citizen responsibility to change the public-school system to what it needs to be requires communication and collaboration from all citizens, especially the teachers in the classroom (Stitzlein, 2017).

Statisticians manipulated standardized test scores to mean whatever they wanted them to say (Kuhn, 2014). An example occurred with the New York Miracle in 2009, where 82% of the students passed math and 69% passed English (Gentilviso, 2010). The following year, scores dropped to 54% and 42% respectively. The *New York Times* reported on the speed of dropping scores, which involved an administration willing to stage false hope and false test scores and made the situation more dismal than before (Medina, 2010). The administration attempted to fool the schools into believing incredible success, when, in actuality, leaders only mislead the public again to further their agendas (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Monahan, Lesser, & Kolodner, 2010). Later, despite the corrupt behavior, citizens continue to demonstrate faith in the mayor and other administrators to reform the education system (Medina, 2010).

NCLB and Race to the Top proved nothing in the last decade. By holding teachers directly accountable for student achievement, firing "bad" teachers, imposing high-stakes testing, closing public-schools, opening charter schools, implementing merit pay, and simply harassing and degrading teachers everywhere improves nothing for public education (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). The systems developed to "improve" education only promoted corruption, isolated teachers, limited teacher collaboration, and destroys the very elements which make good public-schools the learning institutions they are (Leana, 2011). Taylor (2015) reported the new agenda of charter schools under an 'authoritarian model' treats teachers as replaceable objects to be turned in for newer and cheaper models. Under this new model of accountability, teachers are no longer reporting to a community of learners, "rather, they became accountable to data collectors and numerical tallies" (Stitzlein, 2017, p. 25). Making the schools and teachers accountable for unrealistic goals puts an unhealthy toll on the very system that promotes democracy (Ravitch, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017). Citizens and politicians are responsible for creating the type of public-schools necessary for the good of the people which requires citizen responsibility (Stitzlein, 2017). Unfortunately, by forfeiting citizen responsibility one relinquishes wealth and power and weakens our overall democracy (Stitzlein, 2017). Politicians and business leaders advocate merit pay systems to motivate teachers with money or shame. Also, teachers teach children; they do not produce or sell something. The work teachers produce is difficult to measure, and yet, business leaders believe high-pressure force will deliver results (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009;

Ravitch, 2014). The American strategy places a highly-qualified teacher in every classroom, which logically equates to high-performing students in every classroom. Unfortunately, every parent, teacher, and student believes that promoting competition in the classroom and measuring teacher quality through standardized testing will not promote high-quality teaching and learning in our classrooms (Berliner 2014; Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel, & Rothstein, 2012). The measuring tool of standardized testing and merit pay assesses something, but it is not teacher quality.

Politicians and corporate reformers claim merit pay will improve student achievement by motivating teachers (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Politicians feel public-schools are failing because of the teachers (Ravitch, 2014). Murnane and Cohen (1986) surveyed the history of merit pay specifically for educators. Corporate reformers claim merit pay motivates all employees to succeed at their jobs, yet merit pay systems never produce any evidence to suggest it is motivating for classroom teachers (Goyal, 2016; Ravitch, 2014; Murnane & Cohen, 1986). Ravitch (2014) also reported the history of merit pay suggests the system for teachers is inadequate. As early as 1918, approximately 48% of America's school districts implemented some kind of merit pay system, and very few were found effective (Murnane & Cohen, 1986; Ravitch, 2014). By 1923, districts involved with merit pay fell to 33% and in 1928 rates dropped to 18% (Ravitch, 2014; Murnane & Cohen, 1986). By 1953, less than 5% of the school districts engaged in a merit pay system (Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers still claim the teacher unions keep them from holding educators accountable and facing the consequences such as a merit pay system (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). However, by this

time in American history most of America's teacher unions were operating now, and the few that existed were weak and disorganized (Ravitch, 2014). Again, politicians and corporate reformers misled the public as teacher unions cannot be the cause of merit pay failure because teacher unions were not functioning during the entire existence of merit pay systems in the public-schools (Ravitch, 2014).

In the 1980's, Murnane and Cohen (1986) reported on a different style of merit pay for teachers called "piece-rate compensation system." Older systems relied on the objectivity of the principals. The piece-rate compensation system rated individual contributions and was most suited for manufacturing type jobs. Murnane and Cohen also reported the piece-rate compensation system failed with teachers because teachers tend to fixate on certain test subjects, ignore students who do not attend to their academics, and the nature of teacher's work promoted the wrong type of motivation. Even private schools refuse to engage in merit pay because it promotes competition where administrators want collaboration (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). For teachers who were told that their performance was lacking, merit pay sparked one of two responses, either teachers felt it was unfair and were angry or they simply felt defeated and worked less (Murnane & Cohen, 1986; Ravitch, 2014). The act of merit pay for teachers defeated any positive motivational outcomes; therefore, most systems abandoned the idea for teachers because it did not accomplish the goals the organization intended to reach (Ravitch, 2014).

The intended goal of merit pay includes motivating teachers to work harder and to teach students better. Politicians want higher test scores. The National Center on

Performance Incentives at Vanderbilt University (2010) studied the effects of merit pay

for teachers by offering $15,000 for higher math scores for schools. Despite the monetary

incentive, teachers taught the best they could, and there was no difference found with

motivation or test scores. Even though the study found no incentive with merit pay for

teachers, the U.S. Department of Education released $500 million to the Teacher

Incentive Fund to promote school districts to use merit pay systems (Ravitch, 2014). In

New York City, education leaders decided to pay $56 million in bonuses to schools that

would test well. For three years, the city implemented the experiment until the Rand

Corporation determined the bonuses were a waste of money as test scores were not

significantly higher and neither was teacher satisfaction (Sparks, 2011). In New York,

Mayor Bloomberg offered $20,000 to individual teachers who proved to raise test scores

(Chen & Phillips, 2012). Again, the incentive failed to motivate teachers or produce

adequate gains in test scores. Klein (2014) reported, "We wanted to pay more for teachers

whose students were making progress, to pay less for those whose students weren't, and

to terminate those who weren't performing at all" (p. 137). Texas also tried to use merit

pay with a pilot program but failed. The state then attempted to expand the failed system

to $200 million until politicians cut the education budget and the expansion was denied

(Viadero, 2009). Merit pay systems prove ineffective on raising student test scores or

raising teacher motivation across the nation (Ravitch, 2014).

Teachers who competed for merit pay or status left some losers behind. Public-

school systems are not meant to compete against one another because competition

promotes learning in isolation and a system of winners and losers (Goyal, 2016; Ravitch,

2014). Systems imposed upon other professions prove to be too complex to be effective, such as the medical profession, the political profession, and the law enforcement profession. These professions, held to the same accountability and standards as teachers, would prove wasteful and ineffective (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Pink, 2009). Many politicians and corporate reformers believe the public-school system lacks accountability and competitive motivation to improve the system (Klein, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). The American people allow the politicians and business leaders to compromise the integrity and effectiveness of the public-school system.

Business expert W. Edwards Deming condemned the use of merit pay in the workplace as it promotes rivalry, destroys teamwork, destroys employee morale, and undermines long-term goals of the organization (Gabor, 1992). Deming further speculated if management took responsibility to hire appropriate employees, trained and supported employees, and treated them appropriately with dignity and respect, most employees would succeed and, by extension, so would the organization (Gabor, 1992). Deming also stated the job of management was to support and guide employees through a process; and when and if most of the employees fail, then leadership is the bigger failure as it is their job to guide the employees (Gabor, 1992). Goyal (2016) agrees with Deming's assessment of management and continues to report that politicians and corporate reformers prey on the teachers, making them scapegoats for a failing system which the politicians and corporate reformers control. Failure belongs to the politicians and corporate reformers (Goyal, 2016).

Merit pay systems for educators continue to fail despite the numerous attempts or amount of evidence against the use of the system with teachers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Murnane & Cohen, 1986; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers who continue to advocate an inadequate system obviously want to weaken the education system rather than reform it (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers want a profit and not a true reformation of the public education system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers are interested in entrepreneurial opportunities and prove they would forfeit their values and integrity to create them (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers must create an illusion of necessary reformation to gain the public's trust (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Polticians identify the educators as the enemy, allowing the corporate reformers to succeed in transforming the public education organization into a privately managed and operated educational system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Corporate reformers promise more freedom in education. However, they deliver a totalitarian system with much less freedom and more lying than anything else (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Opponents report the quality of public-education is weakening the nation while producing inadequate and unprepared citizens (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). Furthermore, by increasing accountability measures, providing choice in education, and improving innovative efforts the country may then begin to address issues such as childhood poverty (Klein, 2014). Stitzlein (2017) reported that closing public-

schools and opening new charter schools instead replaces democracy with the free market
(Hursh, 2016). Public-schools promote democracy and remain free and open to the
public, while charter schools receive federal funds, are not free and open to the public,
and dwindle away at democracy using a free market model (Hursh, 2016; Stitzlein,
2017).

Jack Whelan from the University of Washington suggested President Obama
misrepresented the teachers when he welcomed teachers' campaign work and then broke
all campaign promises once he was elected (Whelan, 2013). After the election, President
Obama demanded teacher evaluations linked to student performance through merit pay
and adopted Common Core Standards to prove teacher quality measured by standardized
tests (Goyal, 2016; Hursh, 2016). The Obama administration created a "$4.35 billion
sweepstakes contest" which promoted resurrected NCLB policies and created an
atmosphere of a few winners and a majority of losers (Goyal, 2016, p. 75). President
Obama appeared as a humanist and sold out the middle and lower class American citizens
to corporate interests (Whelan, 2013). President Obama fired Darling-Hammond after
winning the election and hired Duncan, an old friend and proclaimed public-school
reformist by corporate reformers (Goyal, 2016). Dillion (2009) from the *New York Times*
reported Duncan's work in Chicago left the state in ruins because the policies weakened
the Chicago School System rather than improving the system, as the politicians claimed.
President Obama spoke as a humanist through speeches, but delivered the opposite
through legislation (Whelan, 2013; Dillon, 2009).

The fourth issue which separated educators and politicians concerned managerial practices (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). A number of economists and business executives began injecting their misplaced ideas into the dilemma of public education. The involvement of corporate reformers is increasing as they believe they can manage the public education system better than the educators themselves because they are successful business leaders (Goyal, 2016; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). According to the politicians and corporate reformers, schools improved test scores, and this became their primary objective (Goyal, 2016; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers continue to regulate the public-school system and micromanage the teachers to a point where educators micromanage students due to unrealistic demands (Gillard et al., 2015). Educators must teach every child to reach an acceptable level of academics; just as it is a policeman's duty to make sure everyone obeys the law (Pink, 2009). According to the punitive accountability measures set forth by the politicians and the corporate reformers, if someone was caught breaking the law, the police officer would be held accountable (Pink, 2009). Is this lawful (Pink, 2009)?

Corporate reformers advocate strongly for merit pay systems for educators as a motivational teaching factor (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers need to produce adequate student test scores, or administration should simply diminish their paychecks or fire those who do not, just like in all other professions (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). The problem with most other professions is that a given salary based on experience and schooling starts with a base

pay (Pink, 2009). The performance pay system acts more as a bonus, raise, or stipend

(Pink, 2009). Corporate reformers advocate a completely different system for educators,

such as with realtors and sales positions where merit pay consumes the entire paychecks

(Pink, 2009). Ripley (2013) examined the major factors in recruiting and keeping talented

teaching professionals and found three main conditions, including a professional salary,

decent benefits, and good working conditions. Politicians and corporate reformers

advocate a competitive system of merit pay, although teaching professionals should not

be in competition with one another.

      The fifth element separating teachers, politicians, and corporate reformers is

imposed laws and sanctions forced upon the education system (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch,

2010). Stitzlein (2017) reported:

> Neoliberals aim to use the market to more efficiently fulfill the desires
>
> of individuals – rather than relying upon government institutions
>
> traditionally thought to serve the common good – thereby placing
>
> greater forms of power in the hands of individual citizens as
>
> consumers. (p. 5)

Politicians and corporate reformers claim the more power exerted over the education

system the more accountability (Hursh, 2016; Stitzlein, 2017). Yet, the opposite proves to

be true as the more power given to individuals or special interest groups the less

accountability and the more consumers instead of citizens begin to dwindle away at

democracy (Hursh, 2016; Stitzlein, 2017). The business sector applauds the forceful

nature of the corporate reformers toward educators (Ravitch, 2010). It seems to be the

consensus of the public that the broken public education system is directly related to the poor quality of our educators (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). This scapegoat theory continues to be advocated by politicians and corporate reformers, but not by educational researchers (Ravitch, 2010). The politicians and corporate reformers led the attack on education by attacking the teachers (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers impose the same kinds of laws, sanctions, and mandates, all focused on teachers as they were imposed upon the service industry (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers manage and control all aspects of the reform movement and theorize and implement their personal theories without substantial evidence (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers displaced and replaced some professionals and still blamed most the teachers for failed reform efforts (Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The major concern most teachers express is under whose authority did the war on education become a personal attack on educators? Since when did politicians and business leaders believe they have the expertise or the right to destroy the very institution that provides them with the means to become the citizens they are today (Pink, 2009)?

Politicians and business leaders have blamed educators for everything for far too long (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Teachers feel deeply connected to their career choice and allow guilty feelings of disappointment to develop. America has taken a consumer role toward politics and

education in response to the 'accountability era' (Stitzlein, 2017, p. 124). Demanding

federal funds to pay for personal choices, such as charter schools and voucher systems,

takes away from the freedom of all to service a few (Stitzlein, 2017). Freedom and choice

require citizen responsibility to promote democracy (Stitzlein, 2017). By demanding

entitlements or acting as consumers, individuals forfeit their civic responsibility and put

democracy in jeopardy (Stitzlein, 2017). Blaming and pointing fingers at the schools

simply puts democracy in jeopardy and hands special interest groups the power and

wealth of the citizens (Stitzlein, 2017). To return to a democratic society, citizens must

relinquish personal choice for the good of the community and collaborate with

compromise for the good of all the people in the form of citizen responsibility (Stitzlein,

2017). Unfortunately, most American citizens have "become less interested in

government and politics," allowing politicians and corporate reformers to benefit from

typical ignorance (Stitzlein, 2017). The American politicians has proven this by allowing

tax breaks to divert jobs overseas, as the people blame the system and not the leaders.

President Clinton created the New Markets Tax Credit Program, which allows investors

to invest in community projects and receive a 39% federal tax credit over seven years

(Goyal, 2016). Gonzalez (2010) of the *New York Daily News* reported investors could

double their earnings with the new tax credit within the seven-year period. Politicians and

corporate reformers treat children like numbers in a business, attaching a dollar value to a

test score (Goyal, 2016, p. 77). When political officials allow the same business leaders

to divert and hide profit money overseas, paying fewer taxes, the American people

remain relatively silent (Berliner & Glass, 2014). The business leaders also blamed the

schools when they found cutting employees' hours, wages, and benefits benefitted the

business, while the actions pushed the employees further into a low class or poverty level

(Berliner & Glass, 2014). The schools are apparently training future workers poorly

(Berliner & Glass, 2014). These businesses refuse to take responsibility for the fact that

they de-motivate their employees by offending them with low-wage jobs without benefits

because of the owner's greed.

Congress, the Department of Education, the President, and the business

community continue their attacks with no experience or expertise in improving our public

education system (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Goyal, 2016; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012;

Kumashiro, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Even the Department of Education

failed to take the time to research the actions of Finland or Singapore, countries that

scored at the top of the world (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Ravitch, 2010). Klein (2014)

reported on Finland's success and attributed the changes to professional development and

training improvements. Yet, the motivational policies and procedures for Finland's

education system remained unnoticed (Sahlberg, 2011). Incentives and sanctions

motivate some individuals in the business sector where the goal is money, and the

product does not involve human beings. However, in the education system, the goal is not

money or test scores or even achievement; it is the development of the human spirit and

the gift of knowledge (Pink, 2009). Test scores take precedence over knowledge and the

human element (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The government's continued focus

and obsession on test scores is demoralizing and degrading to anyone referring to

themselves as an educator (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014,

2010). Other countries testing among the first in the world do not come remotely close in comparison with America's obsession over accountability and standardized assessments (Ravitch, 2014; Sahlberg, 2011). Changing schools and opening new charter schools equates to large budget and investment opportunities, not to success (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Making test scores a priority degrades the American people and is turning the schools into a place no one wants to be, neither educator nor student (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016). Democratic systems refrain from imposing, controlling, and exhibiting power upon any institution until now (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). There is nothing democratic in how the government and corporate reformers'-imposed sanctions, mandates, and laws upon the *public* education system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

The sixth element concerning the war on education between educators, politicians, and corporate reformers concerns the motive of motivation (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers believe educators are not motivated to teach well because they are not held directly accountable for how well their students learn (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Holding educators accountable through a merit-pay system directly linked to student test scores should motivate educators to do their best to acquire more money or lose their money based on those student test scores (Klein, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Politicians also believe teachers are relatively lazy and unmotivated (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Once teachers reach tenure, the teacher unions protect the lazy teachers and the act of due process (Klein, 2014; Hanushek &

Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The theory is that punitive accountability will motivate educators to do their jobs (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Darling-Hammond (2010) reported many states:

> Believe [that] the major problem is a lack of effort and focus on the part of the educators and students, and that standards and tests will motivate change if they are used to target punishments to those who fail to meet them. (p. 73)

The controversy stems from the fact that most managerial styles have changed very little over the past century (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Our society and the skills needed to be productive in the Technological Age have changed, as well as the children, our students, and how we learn to become productive citizens (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010; Sornson, 2016). A manager's main goal reflects compliance, get the job done, while managers obtain compliance through power, control, and extrinsic motivators, rewards, and punishments (Pink, 2009). Managers of this process believe in these methods mainly because they maintain the power and control, and they need compliance (Pink, 2009). If one was an employee in this model of management, one realized firsthand that human nature did not react in such a simplistic manner (Pink, 2009). Power and control are important to the employee also; however, the employee does not possess total power or control over the situation (Pink, 2009). The employees hold power to control their individual degrees of compliance. Compliance became a lever for negotiation and manipulation because managers often misunderstood power and control for motivation (Pink, 2009).

Intrinsic motivation, or The Third Drive, demonstrates that there is another way besides money to motivate individuals to perform creative and innovative tasks (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Yesterday's science tells us power and control create compliance (Pink, 2009). The initial power creates fear; fear creates control, and control creates compliance (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Eventually; however, compliance creates anger and resentment, and anger and resentment create a lack of motivation to perform (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation operates under the theory that to obtain desire, interest or pure enjoyment from the activity itself, intrinsic motivation drives one to accelerated performance; that performance must come from within through autonomy, mastery and competence, plus purpose and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Ryan & Deci (2000) came to many of the same conclusions a decade ago, indicating autonomy, competence, and relatedness as motivating factors. Autonomy creates engagement; engagement creates deliberate practice and mastery, and mastery creates purpose (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). To motivate the educational masses, encouraging purpose and meaning is the goal (Fullan, 2011a). Skipping phases of motivation, avoiding phases of motivation, or inflicting rewards or punishments upon individuals only diminish the individual's ability to be intrinsically motivated (Fullan, 2011a). People work to earn a paycheck for necessities; but beyond the basics, people need more motivation than money. People need and want a good reason to get out of bed and go to work (Pink, 2009). Therefore, money is not the underlying motivating agent most people think it is (Pink, 2009). "Humanize what people say, and you may well

humanize what they do" (Pink, 2009, p. 137). Tap an individual's sense of purpose

through autonomy, engagement, and mastery, and one could motivate the masses (Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009).

Politicians and corporate reformers hypothesize, if teachers are held accountable

for student performance scores through rewards and punishments, then teachers will be

motivated to perform (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Greater teacher accountability means greater teacher motivation. Greater teacher

motivation means greater student performance (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). A non-educator

typically concludes if a child attends school, tries their best, and has a decent teacher, that

child will learn (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). People also assume that a

standardized test is a logical measure of mental capabilities because that is how education

is explained to the public (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Logic also dictates that rewards and

punishments effectively change behavior (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The evidence

provided in the literature review did not support the logical conclusions of the public

when it came to learning education, and motivation (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009).

The variables for this study relate to motivation of the educators to change.

Politicians propose that rewards and punishments be the change agents (Fullan, 2011a;

Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers claim the foundation of the problem lay

solely with the teachers (Ravitch, 2010). Intrinsic motivation of an individual depends on

the individual's level of autonomy, competence or mastery, and relatedness or a sense of

purpose (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Politicians and corporate reformers believe

merit-pay and job security are the only motivating agents necessary to promote student performance (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The literature review, however, presented evidence that refuted the politicians' theories and produced the opposite results than originally intended (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Goals of Education

Knowledgeable citizens provide the key factor of a healthy democracy (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Democracy depends on its educated citizens to be critical thinkers, to create, and to innovate. Our public education institutions strive for one goal, and that is to teach our children to promote democracy (Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). A healthy democracy shies away from easiness. Society reflects the mirror image of our education system (Ravitch, 2010, p. 285). With knowledge comes great power (Ravitch, 2010). However, the mere opportunity for knowledge means a reaction, not necessarily success. Public opinion values monetary compensation and equates money with success (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Money and power strengthens or destroys democracies. Wisdom decides whether there is strength or destruction (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Free education for all children provides an opportunity to learn and obtain the necessary skills to progress (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Diane Ravitch (2010) stated, "To the extent that we strengthen them [students], we strengthen our democracy" (p. 242). The main purpose of a free education is to strengthen our democracy (Ravitch, 2010, p. 241), not to make a profit (Kamenetz, 2013). Several individuals tend to mistake success, money, or the economy for

democracy. Yes, a healthy democracy wants productive citizens. However, a healthy democracy becomes healthier with more well-rounded citizens (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ravitch, 2010). A strong democracy begins with citizen responsibility enacting the will of the people (Stitzlein, 2017).

In the profession of education, teachers deal with the human condition daily (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers attend to behavior problems, ability problems, and motivation problems every single day (Pink, 2009). Obtaining knowledge is work, and not everyone is willing to sacrifice the effort (Ravitch, 2010). The pathway to knowledge takes work, effort, motivation, and the ability to grow from mistakes (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). One makes mistakes on the journey toward knowledge because learning requires mistakes (Pink, 2009). However, the act of learning and obtaining knowledge equates to mess and chaos and is not an exact science (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). According to Ravitch (2010), individuals come to school with unique strengths, weaknesses, and learning styles. The educator is but one of those unique individuals (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians assume that one educator could effectively instruct 20-40 individuals in a given class during the school year, deliver effective instruction to meet the diverse needs of the students in the class, and be held directly accountable as the only factor in their learning (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Also, politicians and corporate reformers assume the students and parents agree to this style of learning. Not one person asked the children what motivated them to learn (Goyal, 2016; Gray, 2013). Students need freedom to learn (Gray, 2013). Schools operate like a 'totalitarian regime' (Goyal, 2016, p. 27). Public officials must support public-

schools without controlling all aspects of the teaching profession, for which all politicians and corporate reformers are not qualified (Hern, 2003).

The problem lay with the differing goals of education for a politician and those of an educator (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). The goals of education for a politician result in a test score and attempting to lower tax dollars in the education budget (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). There is no room for error. In an institution specifically established for learning, politicians do not want, and they will not account for children making mistakes (Fullan, 2011a). Politicians demand all children learn the same material, in the same manner, and in the same time frame (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Kohn (2011) stated:

> What's the purpose of demanding that every kid in every school in every state must be able to do the same thing in the same year, with teachers pressured to "align" their instruction to a master curriculum and a standardized test? (p. 164)

Teacher ability measured by student test scores means perfection is demanded not requested (Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2010). One of the main components which doomed No Child Left Behind legislation was the attempt to measure teacher ability by student test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The Race to the Top legislation contained the same component on a higher scale and was projected to fail as well (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

When asked about the goals of education, most politicians simply answer to educate and prepare citizens for the workforce (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians'

words reflect the opposite of their actions (Kuhn, 2014; Reeves, 2009). Politicians claim students are entering the workforce without the necessary skills (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Klein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014). Educators replied some students are not motivated to do the work; some students have attendance problems, some students have ability problems, and many students enter school unwilling to learn and are behind their peers academically (Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). Klein (2014) reported the school system is a monopoly and fails due to protection from the unions and other political interest groups, shielding the system from "accountability and competitive incentives that breed successful organizations" (p. xiv). Politicians replied by making more demands on the teachers and a tougher curriculum (Ravitch, 2010). The nation wept with discouragement over our placement on national and international standardized testing (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers replied one must gain the knowledge and skills separate from the testing (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians replied by degrading and blaming teachers, threatening unemployment, and attaching student test scores to teacher's paychecks (Kuhn, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and educators disagree on the goals of education which keeps politicians and educators at odds, fighting one another, and creating a serious amount of collateral damage (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010).

Politicians view the education system from a distance, removed from the experience (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Outside managers claim the education system is a monopoly, which schools maintain with no incentive to do a better job (Klein, 2014). Teachers' unions only protect jobs and pensions for bad teachers, while teachers only

serve to better themselves (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). All of these policymakers exhibited a few things in common: 1) they are all removed from the situation and experience; 2) they are all quick to blame someone else instead of sharing the responsibility; 3) not one policymaker conducted research into the effect of differing learning strategies or motivation theories; and 4) not one policymaker made an effort to interview a teacher, student, or parent, or spend any significant time in the schools to view the problem firsthand (Ravitch, 2010). According to Fullan (2011b) when management, or, in this case, the policymakers, failed to force, or even sufficiently influence people to change; they tried again with stronger rewards and punishments. Fullan (2011b) stated managers were hired and fired depending on how effectively the managers could lead the group of employees. Management is not responsible for making anything happen or for doing the work themselves. Management is responsible for the newly created working conditions and environment and for allowing employees to become internally motivated, discovering success naturally (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). In the case of public education, policymakers and politicians appoint themselves as the managers (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). So far, the only thing these education managers manage well is to take a bleak situation and make it worse (Fullan, 2011b; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010).

The new public image in America for an educator paints an ugly picture (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). Politicians blamed educators for so long that many teachers believe themselves to be inferior (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Many

teachers feel they cannot speak up or speak at all as many teachers are fired for doing so (Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Since such management practices incorporate a top-down managerial style, those observed by the corporate reformers play into the theory of blaming the teachers (Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The reformers arrive with their theories and practices and make several unsupportable assumptions along the way (Ravitch, 2010).

First, politicians and corporate reformers assume that teacher accountability will lead to school improvement (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The accountability era is a system of 'rewards and punishments that signify whether accountability as a numerical value has or has not been met' (Stitzlein, 2017, p. 27). Student learning cannot be reduced to a numerical value; and, yet, politicians and corporate reformers continue to sell this theory to the American people (Hursh, 2016; Stitzlein, 2017). They assume student choice will lead to competition among schools and that such competition will lead to improvement (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). They assume teachers are ineffective, unmotivated, self-preserving individuals, lacking the student's best interests at heart (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). They assume rewarding teachers with an adequate paycheck will motivate educators to perform better (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Klein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). They assume measuring a good education with a test is appropriate (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). They assume by punishing, ridiculing, harassing, embarrassing, and threatening teacher employment; teachers will be motivated to perform (Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). They assume student performance is directly related

to teacher quality (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Klein, 2014;

Ravitch, 2010). They assume part of the problem of the public education system is a lack

of control and, through external rewards and punishments, the desired achievements will

be reached (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). They assume teachers do not know how to teach

and that an improved curriculum and instructional practices are of no use unless imposed

and controlled by the reformers (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Several invasive

practices are forced upon educators in a disrespectful manner without the necessary

evidence to predict success (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014;

Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Leaders of dictatorships mirrored the practices

imposed by the politicians and corporate reformers rather than leaders of a democracy

(Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Test preparation centers replace feelings of curiosity and wonder in the school

buildings (Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Most

students and teachers alike take no pleasure in learning at school under these conditions.

Public-schools are becoming test preparation centers (Kohn, 2011). Politicians are

obsessed with competitive test scores (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The curriculum

is standardized to promote higher test scores (Kohn, 2011). Politicians claim the

preparation of future employees affect our nation's economy. Studies indicate that

workplace performance is only minimally connected to individual student achievement

(Kohn, 2011). Curiosity and interest no longer thrive in our public-schools (Gray, 2013;

Ryan & Deci, 2017). The schools prepare for the next test (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

The goals of education are reduced to a series of factors and tasks, devised by distant managers who are inexperienced and unprepared (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Schools are filled with a competitive atmosphere of urgency and winners and losers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Race to the Top encourages an atmosphere of more losers than winners and constant competition (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The nation's education managers need to cease the blame game and name calling tactics. The blame game rarely works; and, when it does, it is short-lived. Education needs a leader, not a dictator (Fullan, 2011a; Gabor, 1992; Ravitch, 2010). As they observe, a leader investigates, observes, and researches while treating employees with respect and dignity. Teachers need to be motivated and supported to change the environment and working conditions (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Ryan & Deci, 2017; Wigfield, Cambria, & Eccles, 2012). Given the appropriate environment and working conditions, teachers are properly motivated (Pink, 2009; Wigfield, Cambria, & Eccles, 2012). The American public-schools wait for the leaders to do the right thing (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010).

History of Education Reform

Since the induction of formal public education in America, political and social groups rallied to have their voices heard (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). Society needs education to be molded as the main purpose of a democracy (Hern, 2003; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The educational necessities of one generation is different from the

next as the technology and workforce change (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Ravitch (2010, p. 284) an educational historian, reported there was an educational crisis for every decade of the twentieth century. As early as the 1890's, the community demanded centralization of our public-schools to turn around low-performing schools (Ravitch, 2010). In 1914, the Smith-Lever Act, and, in 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act were enacted in response to the crisis that students were unprepared for an industrial economy (Ravitch, 2010, p. 284). The schools became too academic (Ravitch, 2010). In the 1930's, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration attempted to address the needs of the youth and the economy (Ravitch, 2010, p. 284). In the 1940's reformists claimed students were unprepared for the postwar and atomic age era (Ravitch, 2010, p. 284). Schools were believed to be underfunded and overcrowded. In the 1950's reformists now believed students had not prepared academically (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). As the Soviets launched Sputnik in 1957, educators were blamed for not preparing our children academically and putting our nation's defense at risk (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). In 1958, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act (Ravitch, 2010).

By the late 1960's, community members blamed the teachers for being unable to adequately educate minority children, demanding the schools be decentralized (Ravitch, 2010, p. 285). Since the World War II era, the American public-school system has survived numerous controversies associated with McCarthyism, women's rights, the civil rights movement, minority education, individuals with disabilities education,

discrimination, the standards movement, whole language, school choice, and

accountability (Ravitch, 2010, p. 285). In the 1960's, amidst the Civil Rights Movement,

schools plagued with poverty and discrimination were publicized (Ravitch, 2010). In

1964, the Civil Rights Act banned the actions of racial discrimination in our public-

schools (Ravitch, 2010). In the 1970's the public blamed the schools for 'dumbing down'

education through practices such as continual routines and useless curriculum (Ravitch,

2010, p. 285). Open classrooms experimented with student freedom through the choice of

the curriculum which became the response and failure (Ravitch, 2010). In the 1980's the

nation was at risk due to the failing nature of the educational institutions and the schools

went back to the basics (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). In the 1990's, politicians debated over

issues such as school choice, charters, merit pay, and accountability, especially the

Republican Party (Ravitch, 2010). Also, during this time, the standards movement

continued until the national history standards controversy (Ravitch, 2010). The

committee could not even collaborate, agree, or compromise; so, it was decided each

state could make its own standards (Ravitch, 2010). After the history standards scandal,

most of the individual states remained vague with the language used in their standards

(Ravitch, 2010). Meanwhile, in the schools, teachers were still being harassed for better

test scores, and the leaders could not even agree on the standards teachers were supposed

to teach (Ravitch, 2010). Not one politician produced a national claim or report about

necessary school reform which showed evidence proving the American public-school

system needed reform. Basically, the politicians lied and created the controversy

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). As stated in *A Nation at*

Risk, politicians blamed the teachers for the loss of the American standard of living; and the rise of corporate leadership began (Ravitch, 2014).

Peterson and West (2003) reported one of the first measuring instruments used to measure the quality of public-schools was the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). The SAT first came about as a measuring tool in the early 1900's as a means to identify the best American soldiers and the tasks for which they were best suited. During the 1950's, the SAT became an admissions tool used by many colleges and universities. Soon, juniors and seniors in high school who wanted to attend college felt pressured to take the exam (Peterson & West, 2003). Policymakers view these standardized tests as a way to manage the schools. Leaders view the tests as valid and reliable evidence that schools need to reform (Peterson & West, 2003).

In 1957, the launching of Sputnik by the Russians provoked many critics of public education to blame further American public-schools for dropping academic standards, especially in the areas of technology, math, and science (Bracey, 2006; DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Kuhn, 2014). In addition to falling academic standards, critics argue that dropping SAT scores provides further evidence of an inadequate school system (Fullan, 2011a). Creators of the test argue that only juniors and seniors who are college-bound were taking the SAT; therefore, the tests could not be considered a comprehensive assessment of overall student performance (Peterson & West, 2003).

By the 1960's and 1970's, all the students in the public-schools took the SAT to measure the quality of the schools (Peterson & West, 2003). Even though the SAT was designed to identify talented individuals, public-school reform advocates now possessed

a standardized tool to justify their accountability proposals (Peterson & West, 2003).

Between 1967 and 1982, SAT scores dropped by at least 0.3 standard deviations

(Peterson & West, 2003).

In the late sixties, the federal government funded a new assessment, the National

Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). The NAEP assessed a random sample of

students in grades three, eight, and eleven (Peterson & West, 2003; Ravitch, 2014). The

NAEP, designed to provide information, was now used to hold schools accountable. The

test was designed to provide information on student achievement, which it did provide;

but, because of its random nature, it did not reflect on the success or failure of any one

school or geographic location (Peterson & West, 2003). Between the years of 1970 and

1982, eleventh-grade student performance dropped 0.4 standard deviations in science,

dropped 0.2 standard deviations in math, and increased minimally in reading (Peterson &

West, 2003).

Before the decline of SAT and NAEP scores, Americans believed their public-

school system to be among the best in the world (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Even after

evidence indicated dropping student performance, Americans in general consistently

believed their schools were improving (Peterson & West, 2003). Amid dropping student

scores, America stayed at the forefront of passing monumental legislation providing

access and equal opportunity to learning and education (Darling-Hammond, 1999). In

1954, the Brown versus the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, legislation

determined access to education could not be limitted by race (Peterson & West, 2003). In

1965, federal legislation passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and

attempted to strengthen and improve the opportunities and quality of education by not

allowing the schools to discriminate against economic class (Peterson & West, 2003).

Federal monies are released to Title 1 schools in the poorest communities (Peterson &

West, 2003). Title 1 funds are dispersed to help balance the scales between the wealthy

and the poor (Peterson & West, 2003). Also, in 1975, the Education for All Handicapped

Children's Act helps to provide adequate services for special needs students (Peterson &

West, 2003). Peterson and West (2003) wrote Americans have been among the first

internationally to create comprehensive schools, providing education for all students

regardless of race, gender, culture, or socioeconomic status. Despite all of America's

efforts to provide access and opportunity to learn, American students continue to fall

behind (Peterson & West, 2003).

In 1983, the reform movement continued with the National Commission for

Excellence in Education (NCEE) and the release of their report, *A Nation at Risk*

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The report outlined more

graduation requirements, a more difficult curriculum, and added time to the school day

and the school year (NCEE, 1983). The report itself gained much attention and was

among the very first initiatives created to increase actual accountability as the public

expected more of teachers and students (Ravitch, 2010). A Nation at Risk reports

American students fell behind other civilized countries, and the accusations are false

(Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). *A Nation at Risk* produced a nationwide scare

that was self-evident, or no evidence was required (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014;

Ravitch, 2014). Politicians provided absolutely no evidence prompting leaders to write

the report; and, when asked to provide evidence since then, the subject was diverted (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Even when teachers produce actual evidence indicating student improvement, the data provided did nothing to help with the attitude expressed by politicians or the media, as the report had already sparked fear with the populace. Kuhn (2014) commented, "Public-schools weren't bad because the data suggested it anymore; they were bad because they were public" (p. 101).

The reform movement continued in 1989 when President George H. Bush called the nation's governors to a summit meeting (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Summit participants agreed to the creation of six goals designed to address student achievement and education standards while giving individual states the flexibility to establish criteria and accountability (Ravitch, 2010). Under the Clinton administration, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act passed and was designed to provide funding for states to develop challenging curriculum standards and establish ways to measure student achievement (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). President Clinton also incorporated the New Markets Tax Credit Program, which allows businesses to invest in community projects such as charter schools and receive 39% federal tax credit over a seven-year period (Goyal, 2016).

Finally, the current reform movement progressed forward as federal legislation No Child Left Behind (NCLB), instigated by President George W. Bush, became law (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The legislation intended to issue a promise that no child would be left behind concerning public education (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). NCLB reportedly was one of the most aggressive attempts to

improve public education (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The politicians promised the American

people that because of the NCLB incentives and punishments outlined in the document,

Americans would have higher quality, more equality, and more accountability in their

public-schools (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Schools are mandated to give evidence of annual

yearly progress through standardized tests, to provide students with highly qualified

teachers, and to assure access and the opportunity for higher learning to students of all

economic backgrounds, colors, races, disabilities, and limited English proficiency

(Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Failed attempts to make annual yearly progress resulted in

withdrawal of federal funds and the possibility of the state taking over the school, while

complying with the regulations will ensure the continuation of federal funds (Meier et al.,

2004). By the year 2014, students were expected to be competent as measured by

standardized testing (Meier et al., 2004).

Unfortunately, many states found the mandates unrealistic and grossly

underfunded (Meier et al., 2004). Wood et al. (2004) reported the funding for NCLB

failed to support the rigorous requirements of the legislation by as much as $12 billion.

Some states, including Utah, Virginia, Hawaii, Arizona, New Mexico, and Vermont,

rejected either all or most of NCLB's provisions (Wood et al., 2004).

Furthermore, some of the sanctions listed in the NCLB legislation moved high-

performing schools into the failing category (Meier et al., 2004). Sanctions included

reports on subgroups of students such as the disabled, the limited English proficient,

those of low socioeconomic stature, and those of a different culture. Linda Darling-

Hammond et al. (2004) wrote, "While well intentioned, it has become clear that the

NCLB Act will, in the next few years, a label most of the nation's public-schools failing, even when they are high performing and improving in achievement" (p. 5). Darling-Hammond et al. (2004) continued, NCLB had good intentions. However, it failed to support or motivate teachers and assumed by measuring the schools, the system would become reformed (Darling-Hammond et al., 2004). Wood et al. (2004) stated surveys indicated parents felt schools should be held accountable; yet, the more they learned about the specifics of NCLB, the more they opposed it (Wood et al., 2004).

Many critics of the NCLB Act opposed a system that assesses annual yearly progress with a single standardized test given at a single point of time (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008). West (2005) observed one problem with NCLB's accountability measures includes the fact that leaders only acknowledged the final score rather than the actual amount of progress students made (West, 2005). For example, disadvantaged students or limited English speaking students came to the school and were marked down as failing for not meeting the statewide standards although they made significant progress as an individual (West, 2005). Also, Bracey (2006) reported that most schools had 37 subgroups – special education students, ethnic groups, English Language Learners, and so forth. If any one of the subgroups failed to achieve annual yearly progress for two consecutive years, the entire school failed (Bracey, 2006). Stover (2007) added many schools failed based on the performance of a single subgroup, absenteeism on the day of the test, or other factors indicated by the NCLB legislation.

Utah was one of the states where most of the state voted not to comply with No Child Left Behind in its current form (Wood et al., 2004). The state of Utah submitted a

consolidated state application on September 1, 2003, outlining a proposal as an

alternative to NCLB. The proposed educational plan was amended and later approved by

the U.S. Department of Education on November 15, 2005 (USOE, 2005).

Utah's state accountability system required all schools and districts in the state to

comply, including charter schools and special population schools (USOE, 2005). The

Utah Performance Assessment System for Students (U-PASS) included grade level

specific criterion-referenced tests (CRTs), norm-referenced tests, performance tasks, and

diagnostic testing to report academic achievement (USOE, 2005). Levels 1 – 4 defined

proficiency levels for all grade level CRTs were minimal, and partial understanding is

equal to the basic federal level, indicated by Levels 1 and 2. Level 3 was sufficient and

equal to the proficient federal level. Finally, Level 4 was substantial and equal to the

advanced federal level. Further descriptors of the level system are found in Table 1

(USOE, 2005, p. 6). All CRTs measured and graded using this level system and provides

data about the current level of student achievement (USOE, 2005).

Furthermore, Utah's accountability system designed goals of expectations to meet

the final goal of 100% proficiency by the year 2014 (USOE, 2005). Given a starting point

in Spring 2002, with the achievement data collected for the areas of language arts and

mathematics, the goal increased the school's annual yearly progress by two percentage

points (USOE, 2005). Below, I show in Table 3 the values of expected annual yearly

progress and their respective dates (USOE, 2005, p. 22). In Table 3 I specifically indicate

the starting point dates and academic goals.

Table 3

Starting Point and Goals

Year	Goals
Spring 2002	Goal 1: Starting point + Annual increase *2)
Spring 2007	Goal 2: Spring 2004 Goal + (Annual increase *2
Spring 2009	Goal 3: Spring 2006 Goal + (Annual increase *2)
Spring 2011	Goal 4: Spring 2008 Goal + (Annual increase *2)
Spring 2013	Goal 5: Spring 2010 Goal + (Annual increase *2)
Spring 2014	Final Goal: 100% proficient

Below, I indicate in Table 4 the starting point and intermediate goals, starting with grade three up through junior high and high school. The goals are in the form of the number of students expected to pass the comprehensive test.

Heading into the 2008-2009 school year, Utah's projected proficiency scores for Grades 3 – 8 in language arts was 83% and in mathematics for Grades 3 – 8 was 78%. Student achievement scores on a Level 3 or 4 were accepted while scores on a Level 1 or 2 were not acceptable or were not considered to be achieving annual yearly progress. By 2014, schools needed to be on Goal 5, working towards the final goal of 100% proficiency (USOE, 2005). Below, I indicate in Table 5 the scoring rubric and gives a description of each score.

Table 4

Starting Point and Intermediate Goals – Grades 3 – 8 and HS

	Starting Point	Goal 1	Goal 2	Goal 3	Goal 4	Goal 5	Final
Language Arts Grades 3-8	65%	71%	77%	83%	89%	95%	100%
Mathematics Grades 3-8	57%	64%	71%	78%	85%	92%	100%
Language HS Grade 10	64%	70%	76%	82%	88%	94%	100%
Mathematics Grades 10-12	35%	47%	59%	72%	84%	96%	100%

Many districts in the state of Utah stopped responding to the guidelines established by NCLB (USOE, 2010). However, Utah politicians pressured local school districts to perform well on standardized tests (USOE, 2010). The Utah State Office of Education and Utah politicians instigated a new level of accountability parallel to the thinking of the federal government and corporate reformers. Educators speculated as early as the 2013-2014 school year, teachers would be held directly accountable for student performance through a merit-pay system (USOE, 2010).

By 2010, most states had declined the NCLB legislation (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Publicly, the legislation received very little attention about its existence, success, or failure (Ravitch, 2010). Researchers wrote papers and books on the

Table 5

Utah Student Achievement Level Matched to Federal Levels

Level	Descriptor	Federal Level
Level 4: Substantial	A student scoring at this level is proficient on measured standards and objectives of the Core Curriculum in this subject. The student's performance indicates substantial understanding and application of key curriculum concepts.	Advanced
Level 3: Sufficient	A student scoring at this level is proficient on the measured standards and objectives of the Core Curriculum in this subject. The student's performance indicates sufficient understanding and application of key curriculum concepts.	Proficient
Level 2: Partial	A student scoring at this level is not yet proficient on measured standards and objectives of the Core Curriculum in this subject. The student's performances indicate partial understanding and application of key curriculum concepts.	Basic
Level 1: Minimal	A student scoring at this level is not yet proficient on measured standards and objectives of the Core Curriculum in this subject. The student's performance indicates minimal understanding and application of key curriculum concepts.	Basic

subject, and most critics agree that NCLB failed (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Peterson & West, 2003; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

One of the main negative consequences of NCLB was that only one state, Massachusetts had a strong independent curriculum (Ravitch, 2010). Without a strong curriculum as a foundation, teachers searched for a common goal (Ravitch, 2010). A strong curriculum provides direction for children to learn and engage in the liberal arts, mathematics, science, and social studies activities (Ravitch, 2010).

The second consequence of NCLB was the legislation contained no clear vision (Fullan, 2010b). NCLB appeared to be lacking in purpose and direction. That politicians wanted high test scores was the only concise point to the legislation. If a school produced low test scores, there were serious consequences. Low performing schools closed, educators were publicly embarrassed, and teachers and principals were fired (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

The third consequence followed as more politicians became fixated on test scores (Goyal, 2016; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Testing trumped curriculum in order of importance when testing should come after the curriculum and not in place of it (Ravitch, 2010). Because curriculum now held no importance, teachers were hired based on their ability to deliver test scores. Teachers became trainers. Instead, they needed to be well-educated teachers. The fourth consequence follows with the message that accountability is worthless when it undermines the purpose of education (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Education now equates to test scores, which has nothing to do with the goals of education (Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

The state of Utah declined the initial legislation of NCLB in its regular form and proposed a similar form, which was approved (USOE, 2005). However, even the revised proposal still had unrealistic goals. Utah quickly adopted a variation of Race to the Top instead of waiting for national political demands. In the last few years, some districts in Utah dropped end of the year testing for first and second grades and the high school exit exam (USOE, 2010). The state found testing for first and second grades to be unhelpful

and the high school exam to be redundant as the high school students already took an end

of the year exam. The state saved millions of dollars (USOE, 2010) with this decision.

Now, with the influx of Race to the Top, the end of the year tests must be administered to

introduce merit pay (USOE, 2010).

The most current legislation proposed by President Obama for the country was

Race to the Top (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The title implies urgency and a

competitive atmosphere of winners and losers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016;

Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). In comparison to NCLB, the legislation reflects

a weak independent curriculum, lacks a clear and specific direction, and emphasizes

standardized tests scores as credible and viable measurements (Fullan, 2011a; Kohn,

2011; Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch (2010) added standardized assessments can be useful to

help drive curriculum. However, when the politicians use tests to measure student

achievement and teacher performance, two separate tasks, of which student performance

on the tests is used to measure teacher performance in the classroom, the tests lose all

credibility and appropriateness (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Berliner and

Glass (2014) suggested politicians took a decade to prove that using a student

performance assessment to rate teacher quality and reduce the achievement gap failed. In

fact, the achievement gap has widened since politicians began pushing merit pay for

teachers, used student assessments to rate educators, and closed low-performing schools

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). President Obama attempted to increase teacher

accountability through merit pay (Cody, 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a;

Goldstein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). President Obama claimed he would

not link teacher pay to student performance (Cody, 2011; Goyal, 2016; Ravitch, 2014).

Fullan (2011a) reported merit pay as another method of politicians attempting to link

teacher performance directly to student achievement through rewards and punishments.

During President Obama's election, he was advised not to hire Linda Darling-Hammond

as Secretary of Education (Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Corporate

reformers reminded President Obama that Darling-Hammond was too friendly with the

teacher unions and would oppose merit pay (Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014,

2010). Advocates of merit pay believe there is a direct correlation between teacher

performance and student achievement and, by measuring student achievement by

standardized assessments, the teacher's ability to perform is also appropriately measured

(Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Therefore, a system of rewards and punishments creates

an attempt to increase teacher motivation and student achievement (Fullan, 2011a;

Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Also, in 2011 President Barack

Obama joined the politicians' movement and misled the public by reporting Denver's

Bruce Randolph School graduated 50 seniors or 97% of the senior class. Unfortunately,

President Obama failed to mention there used to be 100 freshmen three years prior

(Rubinstein, 2011). Jennifer Brown from the Denver Post (2012) reported federal funds

allocated to the lowest schools in America found that 35% of those funds earmarked for

student improvement went towards consultants, not the students, teachers, or even the

school. The initiative proved to be another opportunity for private investors to make a

profit, while the students continue to suffer. Sornson (2016) reported the politicians rotate

the same education reform movements while changing the name and increasing the

unrealistic requirements.

Corporate reformers and politicians continue to believe school choice, charter

schools, and accountability will reform our public-schools (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Brill,

2011; Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch,

2014; Ravitch, 2010). Choice, whether in the form of vouchers or charters, is predicted to

promote naturally occurring competition (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Unfortunately, charter schools are not just about free choice. Closing down public-

schools and opening new charter schools with federal funds allows individuals or special

interest groups to replace democracy with consumer choice (Stitzlein, 2017). It is the

responsibility of the citizens to advocate for the public-schools to be free and open to all

children, despite the choices each citizen makes as a consumer (Stitzlein, 2017). By

allocating tax dollars to return to the consumer, citizens are voting against democracy and

advocating education choices be under the direction of the free market or investors,

leaving citizens with no voice (Stitzlein, 2017). Advocates of school choice also predict

increased competition will provide higher student performance (Hanushek & Lindseth,

2009; Klein, 2014). The market model proves successful in the business sector; it is only

logical the same concept will apply to education (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein,

2014). Most families choose not to take advantage of the opportunity of school choice

(Ravitch, 2010). Also, charter schools typically perform on the same level as regular

public-schools (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Lubienski & Lubienski, 2013; Ravitch,

2010). There are effective and ineffective public-schools, and there are effective and

ineffective charter schools. Evidence of successful charter schools does not support the corporate reformers theory that choice, accountability, or competition are responsible for any educational success (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Therefore, the evidence supports neither public-schools nor charter schools to increase the probability of student success (Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009).

In 2010-2011, the U.S. Department of Education stated 40 states enrolled 1.8 million students in 5,000 charter schools (Aud et al., 2013). Charter schools are considered both privately operated, yet publicly funded institutions, which means these schools operate in an unchartered gray area (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Free-market advocate and economist Milton Friedman led the charter school movement and believes his contribution to the education crisis solved the problem (Forster, 2013). Stanford University (2009) released the first charter school assessment report by the Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO) and found that 80% of charter schools performed the same as the traditional public-schools. In fact, states with the highest mandated charter school laws, choice, and accountability systems (Arizona, Florida, Ohio, and Texas) reported traditional public-school students outranked charter school students (Berliner & Glass, 2014, p. 23). The updated CREDO (2013) report stated traditional public-schools outperformed charter schools. However, the report also reflected charter school's poverty students and English language learners outperformed traditional public-school poverty and English language learner students (Berliner & Glass, 2014).

Charter schools receive government funds and cannot exclude children from applying or charge fees of any kind (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Charter schools across America find ways to discriminate and exclude children with special needs, children with behavior problems, and children with low academic capabilities, through the application process which allows the charter school to pick and choose their student body (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Also, traditional public-schools answer to a local school board and state leaders, while charter schools answer to investors and are not held to the same standards or requirements even though the charters receive government funding (Berliner & Glass, 2014).

Therefore, charter schools operate on a thin line between public and private. Charter schools refuse teacher unions to develop or their teachers to participate in a union (McNeil & Cavanagh, 2012), and the court argues the fact that charters are private, which promotes the IRS to determine whether teachers of charter schools should receive state pensions (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Strauss (2013) reported many charter schools continue to abuse the system and discriminate against students through their application process. Many charter schools also require some action like volunteer hours, which typically eliminate many low-income families, further allowing the schools to select their student body (Simon, 2012; Welner, 2013). Charter school research shows charter school teachers are less experienced, most are not certified, are paid less, and experience a higher turnover rate when compared to traditional school teachers (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2012).

Comparisons between charter and private schools and traditional public-schools prove difficult because charter schools are diverse regarding curriculum, state laws to abide by (none), and management practices (Berliner & Glass, 2014). The compared effectiveness between private schools and traditional public-schools proved, when comparing students with the same demographics, that public-schools outscored private schools (Lubienski & Lubienski, 2013). However, private schools produce higher test scores than public-schools when the demographics did not match, probably because private school children seem to be more privileged (Lubienski & Lubienski, 2013). Again, private schools (Lubienski & Lubienski, 2013) and charter schools (Berliner & Glass, 2014) experience less certified instructors, less experienced instructors with fewer credentials, and engage less in innovative curriculum practices.

In the 1990's, government officials demanded measurable results indicating the benefit of tax dollars on education (Ravitch, 2010). Accountability wedged the first real separation between educators, corporate reformers, and politicians (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). States want high performing schools to attract new business to the area. Business leaders argue the nation is losing its competitive edge (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). The market model seems to be the only logical solution (Kuhn, 2014). Unfortunately, the only standardized measurement proposed in our public-schools is high-stakes testing (Kohn, 2011).

Logically, it seems to make sense to assume that when students take a test to see what they have learned, teachers should be held directly accountable for what students did not learn (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Testing

developed a bad name for itself (Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2010). Testing used for accountability is viewed as both good and evil (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians use the tests as a form of control to issue rewards and punishments, which is the main problem with the politicians' form of testing Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Advocates of accountability proclaim all other professions operate in this fashion, why not education (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014)? Comparisons between business and schools assume that education is exactly like a business (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). For example, researchers and corporate reformers compare college professors to public education teachers, two similar professions (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). College professors are paid according to their schooling, skills, performance, and research abilities and not for student performance (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers advocate that the two situations are the same, while college professors are measured for their teaching performance (Ravitch, 2010). Educational leaders advocate the difference between elementary and secondary teachers who are measured by student achievement on standardized assessments, while college professors are being measured differently left up to the discretion of the institution itself (Ravitch, 2010). Klein (2014) further reported American college institutions are held in high regard, while elementary institutions are viewed as a public disgrace. Students need to be responsible for their learning performance, as well as teachers needing to be responsible for their teaching performance, two different things (Ravitch, 2010). Public-school educators are paid for their schooling with a small emphasis on performance (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians are now demanding public educators be paid

according to student performance only (Fullan, 2011a; Klein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Advocates of accountability claim teachers are lazy and unmotivated (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). By providing external rewards and punishments, teachers need to be motivated to perform at a higher degree like all other professions (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014).

This new demand for teacher accountability emphasizes an inappropriate emphasis on high-stakes testing (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers wonder why teachers, teacher unions, parents and students despise accountability in the form of standardized tests, and educators despise the action because it is simply wrong, due to the inappropriate use of the data (Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Standardized tests used to discredit teachers are a misuse of the measurement (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Standardized tests prove to be a symptom of a larger problem (Ravitch, 2010). The problem involves using the testing scores to make crucial decisions about schools, teachers, and students without the input of the educators (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Standardized tests used to determine whether a school remains open, whether administrators or teachers keep their jobs, and whether the government rewards or harasses public educators is a misuse of power and control (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Most people believe standardized tests are objective, reliable, valid, and based on scientific evidence, when standardized tests do not necessarily have these attributes (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

The second problem with accountability includes the public, and officials assume these tests have scientific reliability and validity (Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). These tests indicate neither. The tests prove to be prone to human error like everything else. Also, the public believe the tests measure what the students had learned in all locales. No evidence supports these tests to be a valid measure of student learning or of teaching competence (Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Testing experts consistently remind public officials that standardized tests are one tool to guide the learning process, not to evaluate (Kohn, 2011). Public officials believe standardized test scores are the only tools that matter in the learning process (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014).

The third problem with high-stakes testing accountability includes by holding a teacher's paycheck hostage, solely dependent on student performance, an enormous amount of pressure influences the entire school (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). Students are required to have absolutely no responsibility or accountability for their own learning effort, leaving the teacher directly accountable for student ability, motivation, and work ethic shown through effort (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Learning proves no longer interesting and fun; it is work filled with anxiety and tension (Hern, 2003; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). All schoolwork revolves around the test. Time spent learning and reviewing for the test is the most important aspect of the school day. Everything revolves around the test. High-stakes testing has replaced curriculum, whether there are standards or not (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). The bottom line became test scores, and the test is not a replacement for learning. Children

have lost focus and motivation (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009).

Teachers try everything they can think of to re-energize the students, but tests and

rewards and punishments are not motivating to anyone (Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009).

Despite the teacher's efforts and hard work, testing proves to be unsuccessful; and, now,

the teacher's paycheck is affected. The job of teaching emphasizes motivation in all the

wrong places (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The Motivational Theories

section discusses this misplaced emphasis.

The fourth problem with high stakes testing includes the truth (Berliner & Glass,

2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers, dating back to the

A Nation at Risk report in 1983, provides absolutely no evidence that American schools

were actually in crisis. Basically they lied (Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; School Leadership

Briefing, 2011). Kuhn (2014) reported the nation is still at risk; however, the nation is at

risk of inequality, especially in our educational system, and not due to lazy teachers (p.

132). There are many theories explaining the motives of policymakers, and they all circle

back to greed and money (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014). Also, corporate

reformers lack empathy in all the wrong places. Corporate reformers who truly advocate

for school reform will actively protest severe budget cuts, childhood poverty, racial

segregation, increased class size, downsized libraries, and the reduced budgets for the arts

(Ravitch, 2014). Most politicians and corporate reformers turn a blind eye when topics

concerning serious societal problems such as childhood poverty and school segregation

appear (Ravitch, 2014). Klein (2014) disagreed and stated, "We'll never fix poverty until

we fix education" (p. xiii).

The term accountability acquired a negative connotation over the years due to political debates between politicians and educators (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Speak about accountability to a politician, and the politician remembers their lack of control over teaching practices and how teachers are noncompliant in their efforts to deliver competitive national and international student test scores (Ravitch, 2010). Say accountability to an educator, and the teacher feels anger and resentment over the politician's quest for power by controlling the profession. The idea of accountability attempting to motivate the teacher with unrealistic expectations, making public threats towards teachers and their continued employment. The idea of accountability allows everyone to disrespect educators and the public-schools by refusing to observe and collaborate with educators in order to understand why student achievement scores are not where they should be (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009).

Politicians have claimed for decades that society needs more accountability from our public-school system (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). However, if accountability happens to promote better schools, then common sense suggests that accountability should make a better society (Kuhn, 2014). Too many politicians claim excuses made on behalf of the educators causes the downfall of society (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The nation is not failing because the schools are failing. Schools are failing because society is failing (Kuhn, 2014, p. 132). Politicians and corporate reformers with society's best interest at heart argue and fight for the injustice of inequality and poverty, rather than looking for

someone to frame for the injustice, while collecting profits (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Accountability can be a useful tool when implemented appropriately and correctly (Fullan, 2010b). Accountability advises everyone about what is going on. Accountability gives us much needed feedback (Hattie, 2009), lets us know what we need to work on, and reassures the public of our progress. Effective accountability appears much like changing a culture of beliefs and behaviors (Fullan, 2010b; Reeves, 2009). Teachers need to be properly motivated through moral purpose to influence effective accountability (Fullan, 2011a, 2011b). Most educators enter the profession to make a difference in children's lives through knowledge (Fullan, 2011b; Leithwood, 2007). As teachers experience new insights, gain knowledge into the learning process, and engage in opportunities to discover and learn about new pathways to knowledge, they re-engage their moral commitment to achieve more than they believe was possible (Fullan, 2011a; Sharratt & Fullan, 2009). The moral purpose proves most effective when intertwined with engagement in learning strategies and actions (Fullan, 2011b). Instead, current accountability measures threatens educator's jobs and paychecks through merit pay, while imposing unproven sanctions and expectations that are unobtainable. The system of teacher accountability disrespects the teaching profession in general by politicians exerting power and control tactics over the teaching profession where politicians have little or no experience, expertise, or desire to research and collaborate (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Teacher's overall morale has reached an all-time low (Ravitch, 2010).

Our political officials and corporate reformers believe accountability would lead to improved student achievement (Fullan, 2011a; Klein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Their belief assumes that teachers need protection by the unions; and, if the politicians took away the teacher's security blanket, teachers would fall victim to the same type of accountability as all the other professions (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). The private sector assumes teachers are provided more job security than any other professional because of the teacher unions (Goldstein, 2014; Klein, 2014). However, studies prove that, even with the union's, teachers are laid off and fired even more so than most other groups of workers (Goldstein, 2014). Goldstein (2014) reported, "In short, teachers are more, not less, likely than many other workers to get fired" (p. 8). Politicians imply that the teacher unions keep politicians and corporate reformers from firing bad teachers and from being held accountable for student test scores (Goldstein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers are fired all the time, but not without due process (Ravitch, 2010). If there is a plausible reason to fire a teacher, it happens (Pink, 2009). Due process simply protects teachers from discrimination or from being fired without sufficiently documented cause (Ravitch, 2010).

In 2012, the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported only 35% of teachers joined a union (Bureau of Labor, 2013). Some states banned teacher unions as collective bargaining tools, collective bargaining, and some states banned contracts for teachers, leaving most teacher unions without power (Winkler et al., 2012). States without contracts for teachers also test among the lowest in student achievement, while states with teacher contracts test higher in student achievement (Strauss, 2010). Countries such

as Finland and Canada also participate in teacher unions, proving statements made by politicians and business leaders were false about teacher unions as the cause hindering school improvement (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Brill (2011) also reported teacher unions are defenseless against corporate reformers such as, Rupert Murdoch (NewsCorp), the Walton Family (Wal-Mart), Fisher (The Gap), Langone (Home Depot), Arnold (Enron), former New York City Mayor Bloomberg (Bloomberg Inc.), and Eli Broad (SunAmerica-AIG) (Berliner & Glass, 2014, p. 81). Politicians and business leaders corrupt the data reported to the American people to mislead the citizens into thinking the teachers are the bad guys (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Soling (2012) believed abolishing the current state of public-schools is the only way to fix the public-school system. However, the politicians and corporate reformers deceive American citizens into thinking they represent educational reform. Soling (2012) wrote, "The key to sustaining an abusive, oppressive system is to convince people that it holds merits for the victims." Far too long politicians and business leaders refuse to produce sufficient evidence or any evidence supporting their claims simply because addressing the real problems means more money and more tax dollars (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Also, all other professions are not held accountable in the same manner as educators (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Holding teachers accountable for the influence they may or may not have on a student, and solely responsible for their learning abilities and motivation to participate in the act of learning, is utterly unrealistic (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Are lawyers held responsible for

their client's ability to comprehend and adhere to the lawyer's advice, since it is their job to serve their client? Could the police department be held responsible for the crime rate? Could the fire department be held responsible for the number of fires produced or the amount of damage caused? Could the economists be held accountable for the downfall of our economy? Could the government be held accountable for their inability to control the budget, control the citizens, and improve living conditions for citizens?

When answering these questions, one may be on the fence a little bit, acknowledging the idea that, yes, to a degree, professionals are responsible (Pink, 2009). However, the human condition comes into play, and one realizes by motivating the lawyers, police officers, firefighters, economists, and the politicians, one cannot and should not force others to do anything the others simply do not want to do (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). There is no amount of motivation or monetary rewards that can justify that sort of expectation (Pink, 2009). Freedom of speech and freedom of choice sparks controversy, on which our founding fathers established this country. In a democratic society, the people control their freedom, and it is not the government's role or right to control the will of the people (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The people hold the right to choose with the knowledge that the people will be responsible for the consequences of that choice. However, students are forced to attend school, which undermines their freedom to choose (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). School forced on minors or students makes school a negative experience, and despite educator's efforts, the school still does not appeal to a portion of the children and the parents (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Students are forced to attend school and are encouraged to learn,

but no one makes the students do anything (Ravitch, 2010). A socialist community or

dictatorship forces behavior of this nature (Pink, 2009). The government demands the

teachers to force students to learn (Ravitch, 2010). Children want power and control also

(Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ravitch, 2010). Forcing students through simple compliance will

never bring individuals to the level of engagement necessary to accomplish the goals the

government and teachers set for the students (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009). When

major corporations faced financial trouble, the government reached out a lending hand,

without a second thought of accountability (Pink, 2009). However, when the public-

schools faced problems, teachers became threatened, professionalism was belittled, and

the teacher's livelihood was in jeopardy (Pink, 2009). There appears to be a double

standard (Pink, 2009).

In Texas, Robert Scott, the Commissioner of Education surprised everyone when

he announced to a group of superintendents that the amount of testing needed to be scaled

back (Kuhn, 2014). Scott received much criticism from politicians and business leaders

including Bill Hammond, head of the Texas Association of Business, who disagreed with

Scott and blamed him for continuing to make 'excuses' for the educators (Smith, 2012).

Robert Scott eventually resigned and spoke with the *Dallas Morning News* about

educational testing and accountability. He spoke of the need to correct the accountability

system in Texas (Weiss, 2012). Scott spoke of the abusive and criticizing words of

politicians and business leaders (Smith, 2012). Scott continued to remark about the

science behind the accountability system reduced to a number that he devised (Kuhn,

2014). Scott alone decided the fate of a failing or passing school in Texas. The

accountability system proved un-objective. Scott commented on the fact that the whole Texas teacher accountability system fails in objectivity, reliability, and became mandates and decisions randomly pulled out of a hat (Kuhn, 2014).

Value-added measures (VAMs) created a numerical formula to systematically calculate the teacher quality impact on student test performance (Goldstein, 2014), which Scott used in Texas (Kuhn, 2014). VAMs created a norm to fire educators or reward them with merit pay. The VAM's algorithms included a wide margin of error (Kuhn, 2014). Di Carlo (2012) reported in the school year 2007-2008 New York City's margin of error average VAMs was 30 points, which means the data was useless at determining teacher quality.

Dwyer (2013) reported the misguided use of standardized assessments to judge teacher quality proves worse than the complete withdrawal of testing. Stanford University researcher Edward Haertel disagrees with the use of standardized tests to measure teacher quality because they are "systematically biased for some teachers and against others" (Haertel, 2013, pp. 23-24). Haertel noted that VAMs fail to reward or punish educators solely on the educator's ability to teach. VAMs judge educators on which students they taught and where they taught (Haertel, 2013, p. 13). VAMs assume one can numerically quantify student learning and teacher performance.

Politicians report the purpose of VAMs is to indicate good teachers from the bad teachers and accurately hold the teachers accountable (Kuhn, 2014). The assumed accuracy of the VAMs only proves to destroy the public perception of the professional educator even further. Perhaps it would be best to hold the politicians, people in business,

and statisticians accountable in the same manner as the teachers (Kuhn, 2014). Even

VAM advocates reported, "No one suggests using value-added analysis as the sole

measure of a teacher" (Strauss, 2011). Reportedly the advocate lied as many states used

the VAM formula to fire or reward teachers, despite the measurement's inaccuracies

(Kuhn, 2014). VAM advocates continually use this inaccurate measure, while publicly

accuses and harasses teachers through the media (Strauss, 2011). *The New York Post*

reporter harassed an educator on the street, labeling the teacher as the "city's worst

teacher" as indicated by VAMs (Roberts, 2012). Casey (2012) posted a rebuttal and

found the teacher in question taught English language learners, and reporters fabricated

the entire story to Joel Klein the Chancellor and to Mayor Bloomberg. Casey (2012)

continued to indicate Joel Klein promised the reports would not be used for evaluations

or published. He lied. Casey (2012) also reported Mayor Bloomberg pledged to New

York City teachers that the public reports were private and non-publishable, and

management lied again. Management also neglected to inform the public the reports have

an average margin of error of 35% for math and 53% for language arts, and the reporters

conveniently overlooked the same facts (Casey, 2012). Again, the formula happens to

include one more way for politicians and corporate reformers to do whatever they want,

and management is not held accountable for protecting, supporting, or even acting

decently towards their employees (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Kuhn (2014) reported, "Teaching doesn't happen in a vacuum, an obvious fact

which bears repeating only because it's so common to hear people go on and on about

teacher quality as the ultimate driver of student learning" (p. 60). The 'no-excuses'

campaign appears to be a get tough on education slogan. The 'no-excuses' campaign held by corporate reformers conveniently allows investors and politicians to ignore the enormous impact poverty holds over education (Goyal, 2016). Further observation speculates the 'no-excuses' campaign on education is the response of every politician and business leader because they do not possess any real evidence to constitute the destruction of the American public-school system (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). "Today, critics use data from international assessments to generate a crisis mentality, not to improve public-schools, but to undermine public confidence in them" (Ravitch, 2014, p. 63). If the politicians and corporate reformers specifically reported their true agendas of investment opportunities through privatization, unregulated charter schools, voucher systems, and the business of high stakes testing, no one would support their efforts (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). However, the politicians and corporate reformers use scare tactics and fear to promote urgency towards a situation that does not exist, and the media seems to be joining forces (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Kuhn (2014) reported political and corporate reformers like Michelle Rhee, Bill Gates, and Arne Duncan, "are building castles out of sand because they are deliberately ignoring the humanity of both student and teacher. What they are calling excuses are really lives" (p. 62). Accountability measured accurately must include context for each school and each teacher (Kuhn, 2014). Differences must be accounted for between schools with funding, socioeconomic differences, student-body selection, student ability,

racial and cultural differences, and gender. All these differences impact an educator's ability to effectively teach and are deliberately and conspicuously left out of educational discussions or complicated algorithms concerning teacher accountability (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Kuhn (2014) stated, "At some point, education reformers stopped asking teachers to be accountable for quality teaching and started asking them to be accountable for miracles. The film *Waiting for Superman* perfectly encapsulated the mythos of all things are possible in education" (p. 70). The film misrepresents the facts of reality by focusing on high student expectations and social supports to aid the students (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goldstein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The film totally ignores the fact that the social supports depicted in the film come at a huge cost, which politicians and corporate reformers ignore, tending to deny their necessity and blaming the educators for the failure (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). In the end, educators find themselves at the bottom of a pyramid scheme with no good choices and very little to show for their efforts (Kuhn, 2014). Kuhn (2014) reported, "They were forced to choose among the improbability of actually performing miracles on a consistent basis, the personal devastation of falling short of expectations, and the great moral failure of cheating" (p. 72). Politicians demand that the teachers meet their expectations, not realizing and not caring that they demand the unobtainable.

Some schools like Union City created a miracle. Unfortunately, miracle schools like Union City made reform changes that were reportedly not newsworthy to the media (Kuhn, 2014). UC Berkeley professor David Kirp wrote a book, *Improbable Scholars,*

about the New Jersey School District's miracle reform (Kirp, 2013). Union City made results slow and methodical without the scare tactics provided by politicians and corporate reformers. The unreported story of success asked the question why the media would not report the story. Miracle schools misrepresented to the public by politicians and to corporate reformers by management only proves the point that the motivation of politicians and business leaders intend something other than true public education reform (Kuhn, 2014).

Steven Brill wrote *Class Warfare* (2011) and believes in the 'no excuses' campaign of educational accountability and reform, especially where charter schools are concerned. Brill reported on a hero in education, teacher, and leader Jessica Reid. Brill spoke against teachers' unions. However, he also confronted management about working conditions within some charter schools. Jessica Reid reported to Brill that she was overwhelmed, underappreciated, and underpaid, even as an assistant principal, and the job consisted of unsustainable elements affecting her personal health, marriage, and family (Brill, 2011). Sadly, Reid resigned, proving even the miracle schools are not sustainable.

School choice proponents argue that providing choice among schools allows low-income and minority students the opportunity to choose their education institution, which also promotes competition between schools (Berliner & Glass, 2014). School choice proves to increase school segregation instead of de-segregate (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Logically, politicians and especially business leaders assume school choice among charter schools will benefit minority students. Unfortunately, school choice

isolates minority students as a race or class of people (Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley, & Wang, 2011; Simpson, 2013). Simpson (2013) reported, "The war against public education is a class war being waged by the wealthy against a growing working-class resistance." The increase of student segregation appears to develop from three origins: 1) Parents tend to enroll their children in a school which reflects their same demographic; 2) charter and private schools choose their students, public-schools must teach everyone; and 3) private schools set their tuition costs (Berliner & Glass, 2014, p. 44). Children of privilege tend to migrate with their kind. Also, the application process of private and charter schools scared away many parents due to requirements demanded of parents, such as volunteer time, homework time, and required parent-teacher conferences. The competitive environment designed by business leaders only cause the private and charter schools to discriminate further with the application process, choosing students who test well and will not deplete too many other resources (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Private schools advertise their requirements openly, while charter schools must exercise more discretion, and public-schools do not have a choice (Berliner & Glass, 2014). For example, Strauss (2012) reported a charter high school in Arizona claimed the highest test scores. Yet when comparing numbers of first year high school students to seniors, investigators found the charter school asked the low testers and behavior issues to leave the school before they reached their senior year (Berliner & Glass, 2014). School choice promotes the will of investors and charter or private school leaders, not the parents, and not the children (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The theory of school choice and

accountability only segregates disadvantaged students, students with disabilities, and minority students even further from their peers.

Challenge of Change

In the history of education reform efforts, policymakers, researchers, education leaders, and teachers have failed to achieve consecutive achievement (Fullan, 2011a, 2010b, 2009, 2008). One of the primary reasons why continuous achievement failed is because the countless number of fads, new methods, new programs, and new rules failed to change the culture of the existing system (Fullan, 2009, 2008). Michael Fullan (2009) contended one of the main reasons education reform failed is the missing component of 'change knowledge' (p. 9). Fullan (2009) described change knowledge as 'understanding and insight about the process of change and the key drivers that make for a successful change in practice' (p. 9).

Michael Fullan, recognized as a worldwide authority on educational reform, debated the American public-school system failed due to the lack of wisdom concerning change (Fullan, 2009; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). Fullan was Professor Emeritus of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. Fullan served as special advisor to the Premier and Minister of Education in Ontario. He authored over 25 books on educational reform and served as an educational consultant and advisor all around the world (Fullan, 2009, 2008; Pink, 2009). Michael Fullan advised over two major organizational transformations in the Canadian education system. Also, Fullan actively advised and promoted other effective education systems worldwide (Pink, 2009). He theorized his work based on policy and practice from both public and private

institutions (Pink, 2009). Fullan offered his consulting services to the politicians of the

United States, yet, the politicians turned Fullan down (Fullan, 2009; Pink, 2009).

In the past 20 years, researchers and policymakers learned much about the process

of change and how to implement successful processes across the three levels of school

and community, district, and state (Barber & Fullan, 2005). Education leaders and

policymakers hurry the process into a state of urgency and refuse to take the time and

energy necessary to acquire the knowledge of change (Fullan, 2009). Fullan, Cuttress,

and Kilcher (2009) described eight factors involved in creating effective and lasting

change.

1. Engaging people's moral purposes

2. Building capacity

3. Understanding the change process

4. Developing cultures for learning

5. Developing cultures of evaluation

6. Focusing on leadership for change

7. Fostering coherence making

8. Cultivating tri-level development (pp. 10-15).

Fullan's first primary principle involves engaging people's moral purposes

(Fullan, 2009). This principle informs individuals about the why of change, which is the

moral purpose (Fullan, 2011b, 2009). For the intent and purpose of educational change,

moral purpose refers to the learning of all individuals by improving the educational

system and society (Fullan, 2009). The focus of educational, moral purpose raises the academic bar and closes the achievement gap (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). The moral purpose appears as more than just a goal or mission statement. The moral purpose involves a process of engaging educators, leaders, and the community in continual learning (Fullan, 2011b).

Fullan's second principle of change involves building capacity within a community (Fullan, 2009). Building capacity refers to the education policies, strategies, resources, and future actions used by educators to increase collective power. Building capacity involves the development of motivation and a new identity through the creation of new skills, knowledge, and abilities (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). Capacity building combines with a group effort which involves the whole system (Fullan, 2009). Building capacity proves to be a difficult process because everyone is working together in ways he or she has never experienced before (Fullan, 2009). Capacity building must be continuous and involve everyone. The number one goal of professional development concentrates on increased student achievement (Richardson, 2008). Research indicates professional learning team influences teacher quality, teacher leadership, and collaboration among colleagues, and student achievement (Raphael, 2005). Collaborative teamwork shares some positive benefits in a learning community, including collective learning, collective responsibility, and improved student achievement (Jolly, 2005).

In a professional learning community or in the process of building capacity, the entire staff commits to the act of learning (Hord, 2004). Individual departments open and are no longer compartmentalized; rather they are focused on the learning of everyone

involved. Louis and Gordon (2006) reported the collective learning and reflection of teaching practices needs to include every member of the school community. All levels of the organization, divisions, and staff assemble to study collegially and work collaboratively. Hord and Sommers (2008) stated that, in a collective learning environment, individuals learn more together than if they are learning individually. Developing a professional learning community or building capacity includes more than just mere collaboration; it is about learning together what a community indicates is important (Hord, 2004; Hord & Sommers, 2008). Such collaboration establishes reflective dialogue or inquiry where members dialogue about students and the act of teaching and learning (Hord, 2004).

Collaboration among colleagues takes place in the form of action research as well (Hord & Sommers, 2008). Members of a school actively engage in collaborative problem-solving techniques and inquiry to help improve student achievement (McTighe, 2008). Vescio & Adams (2006) stated professional learning communities promote collaboration which in turn influences teacher quality and student learning. Collectively, members indicate related issues and problems, and dialoguing on reflection by the participants proves helpful (Hord & Sommers, 2008). Diversity brings to light another factor which brings more experiences and different viewpoints to spark more creativity and innovation to the collective group to help make better decisions (Hord & Sommers, 2008). Sawyer (2007) stated teacher collaboration is the pathway for teachers to give birth to innovation and creativity.

Sather (2009) reported the single most imperative aspect affecting student achievement is teacher quality. Effective teachers not only know their subject material, but they know how students learn and how to teach to different groups of individuals using different instructional strategies (Fullan, 2009). Teachers involved in a professional learning community tend to concentrate more on learning than they do teaching (Hord, 2007). When teachers actively engage in the learning process, they are more likely to learn from other colleagues and pass that achievement onto their students. Little (2005) indicated research suggests when educators collectively reflect on teaching practices and learning methods, everyone's professional growth develops as well as significant gains by students. Lifelong engaged learning proves to be the key to providing professionals the skills necessary to adapt to a constantly changing environment (Katz, Earl, & Jaafar, 2009).

Collaboration among educators must be designed primarily as a process where professionals come together to assist one another to develop new skills, improve teaching practices, and reflect on such practices to improve teacher development as well as student achievement (Dantonio, 2001). Roland Barth (2006) reported teacher relationships had the greatest influence on teacher quality and student achievement. Barth (2006) further stipulated collegial collaboration be about student learning and sharing and observing one another's work. As educators learn more about the process of learning, the teacher's perceptions during classroom observations become enhanced, leading to a greater sense of teacher quality and student achievement (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). The goal of the collaboration creates a supportive network continually engaging in reflective practices

to promote professional growth in teachers as well as in students. Senge (1990) stated, "Leader as a teacher is not about 'teaching' people how to achieve their vision. It is about fostering learning for everyone". (p. 356)

Natural leadership proves to be the key to developing collegial collaboration, professional learning and reflection, and motivating a teacher's natural instinct of the responsibility and ownership of a student's learning experience. Leadership could not be explained or demanded; rather it is observed (Senge, 1990). Senge (1990) conveyed,

It is impossible to reduce natural leadership to a set of skills or competencies.

Ultimately, people follow people who believe in something and have the

abilities to achieve results in the service of those beliefs . . . Who are the

natural leaders of learning organizations? They are the learners. (p. 360)

Teachers who desire to become effective educators must also be effective learners (Senge, 1990). Learning proves to be a slow process, which takes a lifetime of motivation and effort (Senge, 1990). The research indicates that teacher self-efficacy, or the personal belief one has in one's self to help another learn, relates to various factors concerning student achievement and affects student motivation (Bandura, 1997), solidifying the need for teachers to learn and practice collectively.

Organizational purposes prove effective when obtained collectively rather than individually (Fullan, 2009). Donaldson (2001) indicated four methods by which leaders could shape a group's collective actions. First, "Leaders identify the value of interdependent work" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 90). Workers with different skills and talents assemble to merge their strengths and weaknesses and decide how the group's collective

efforts can make the group most productive. This type of group effort allows the members to aid those in need of help through their talents and gain assistance in areas where they are weak (Donaldson, 2001).

Donaldson reported secondly, "Leaders ensure a steady diet of feedback on work and its effects" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 90). Relationships offer a positive feedback source to the group's members and allow them to examine results, share data, brainstorm new methods, and take responsibility for previous actions (Senge, 1990). Chris Argyris and Donald Schon (1974) described the process of collective learning and sharing:

> As individuals come to feel more psychological success . . . they are likely
> to manifest higher self-awareness and acceptance [of others], which leads to
> offering [others] valid information, which again leads to feelings of psychological
> success. As groups manifest higher degrees of openness, experimentation, and
> emphasis on individuality, individuals in them will feel freer to provide valid
> information that will tend, in turn, to enhance these group characteristics. (p. 91)

The leader of these efforts looks not so much at the collection of data as evidence but focus on ways to use the data to learn and act upon it effectively (Donaldson, 2001). As educators participate collectively, they come to see themselves as learners and teachers, increasing their individual self-efficacy and in time the collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Donaldson reported thirdly, leaders build belief in collective actions by "demonstrating values that reinforce the importance of collective responsibility and collaborative work" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 91). In leadership, members work

collaboratively and come to trust in cohorts to resolve issues and produce quality work.

Together the group produces greater than the sum of its individual parts. Leaders

understand the effectiveness of collaborative partnership, enabling the group to benefit

from the group's efforts rather than the assistance and feedback efforts of an individual

(Fullan, 2009).

Donaldson reported finally, leaders "enable people to act on these data to solve

not just their problems but to meet organizational challenges" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 92).

Leaders foster the group's potential to respond to the needs of the school. Leaders

convene others to address the needs and meet the challenges in a collective manner.

According to Heifetz (1994), leaders enable the group to redefine their "beliefs, their

behaviors, and their relationships" to respond to the challenges of the school (p. 26).

Leaders help their organization to face its problems and will not avoid or attempt to

ignore the problems by employing a temporary fix (Fullan & Miles, 1992). The

leadership relationship fosters collective action, collective responsibility, and collective

ownership of all the issues in question (Fullan, 2009).

Fullan's third key principle in the change process involves individuals

understanding the actual change process (Fullan, 2009). The entire process of change

frustrates most individuals because it is difficult to understand, and it is a slow, tedious

journey (Fullan, 2009, 2008). Policymakers feel the urgent nature of the problem and

want to impose sanctions or impose a plan of action to be taken immediately.

Unfortunately, change refuses to work that way (Fullan, 2009, 2008). The change process

forces work participants to take ownership, make a commitment, and exert energy and

ideas towards the comprehensive effort. "The process of change is about establishing the condition for continuous improvement to persist and overcome inevitable barriers to reform" (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009, p. 11).

Fullan's fourth key principle in the change process involves communities developing cultures of learning (Fullan, 2009). Individuals who develop a culture of learning achieve more success than through professional development alone (Fullan, 2009). A culture of learning involves establishing strategies for individuals to learn from one another while the group dedicates themselves to the improvement of the school and the system (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). DuFour, DuFour, and Eaker (2005) contended research indicates the need for professional learning communities. The purpose of professional learning communities is to create and develop a community of learners dedicated to carrying out collaborative and collective action research to improve the achievement of all students (Fullan, 2009). The power of such a community of people creates a powerful force for positive change and a core component of change knowledge. Change knowledge requires action (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). Therefore, a developed environment where people learn from one another and exchange good information for action is imperative. Since exchanging knowledge for action is a social process, creating a culture of learning is crucial (Fullan, 2009).

Developing a professional learning community includes one way to create a culture of learning while sustaining the social nature of the process (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008). Even though professional learning communities contain more than just a forum for learning, they act as a foundation for building capacity, relationships, and

collective learning for everyone when implemented correctly (Hord & Sommers, 2008; Hord, 2004). Also, professional learning communities create opportunities for new experiences necessary to change existing beliefs and to motivate educators to improve their practice (Elmore, 2004a; Fullan, 2007). Educators then begin to build internal accountability as they examine external measures to determine what action may take place next (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). By understanding the process and how so many factors influence our motivation, belief system, and ability to succeed, we increase student's achievement, reduce the learning gap, and learn together (Fullan, 2009).

As with so many fads and gimmicks of the past, professional learning communities failed in the beginning as they were also greatly misunderstood and implemented incorrectly, making them ineffective as a process (Fullan, 2007; Hord, 2004). Educators have learned more through participating in professional learning communities than through professional development. Unfortunately, a specific definition of a professional learning community has not been established, allowing other educators a new learning opportunity of incorporating an original professional learning community. Although many researchers found similarities among some definitions, others are extremely complex, or too general in their description of a professional learning community.

In 1998, Richard DuFour and Robert Eaker defined a professional learning community as, "Educators [who] create an environment that fosters cooperation, emotional support, and personal growth as they work together to achieve what they

cannot accomplish alone." (p. xii). Later, DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2006) listed six

different characteristics of a professional learning community including:

1. Shared mission, vision, values, and goals

2. Collective inquiry

3. Collaborative teams

4. Action orientation and experimentation

5. Continuous improvement

6. Results orientation

Regardless of the complexities associated with the change process, these characteristics

share an important element. Educators learn more together through collaboration than

separately. Educators act together as a united front providing support for one another.

Also, educators continue to make continuous improvement through support and

accountability with one another (DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2006).

Shirley Hord (2004, p. 8-11) described professional learning communities as five

attributes intertwined and in a constant state of change:

1. "Supportive and shared leadership

2. Shared values and vision

3. Collective learning and application of learning

4. Supportive conditions

5. Shared practice"

It was in 1992, when Shirley Hord, with the Southwest Educational Development

Laboratory (SEDL), conducted research in a school in Texas. This school functioned

differently from any other school the researchers had witnessed before and was achieving tremendous success. After years of research at this school and many others in Texas, the SEDL team discovered several similar attributes such as supportive teacher conditions, collective learning, shared leadership, and shared teacher practices (Hord, 2004). In 2008, Hord and Sommers reported several education institutions believed they had a professional learning community in place; yet, they were unable to describe what it was, what it did, and how it did it.

Louis and Kruse (1995) described a professional learning community as a community of learning professionals who continually pay explicit attention to student learning. Teachers who shared norms and values, engaged in reflective dialogue, and continually maintained a collective focus on student learning characterized a learning community (Louis & Kruse, 1995). Later, Louis, Kruse, and Bryk (1997) further described professional learning communities as cultural climates that promoted shared values, reflective dialogue, and DE privatization of practice, and focused on student learning and collaboration. Below, in Table 6, I show a comparison of professional learning communities by top researchers (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Hord, 2004; Louis, Kruse, & Bryk, 1997). Table 6 below outlines a comparison of a few PLC definitions.

Andy Hargreaves (2004) wrote, "A professional learning community is an ethos that infuses every single aspect of a school's operation. When a school becomes a professional learning community, everything in the school looks different than it did before" (p. 5). Sergiovanni (2005) contended:

Common purpose, commitment, and action in community are the secrets

to building communities of responsibility. Central is the presence of an idea

structure and the presence of a common set of commitments that bonds

people together in a relationship of trust and caring and binds them to

important values, purposes, and responsibilities. The genius of communities

of responsibility is their ability to generate distributed leadership as the

source of authority, not hierarchy or personality. When this goal is achieved

a community of responsibility is created. (p. 53)

Furthermore, the National Commission on Teaching (2003) reported:

Quality teaching requires strong professional learning communities.

Collegial interchange, not isolation, must become the norm for

teachers. Communities of learning can no longer be considered

utopian; they must become the building blocks that establish a

new foundation for America's schools. (p. 17)

Table 6

Comparison of PLC descriptions

Louis, Kruse, and Bryk Characteristics	DuFour's Big Ideas	Hord's Dimensions
1. Shared values.	1. Shared mission, vision, values, and goals.	1. Shared beliefs, values, and vision.
2. Reflective dialogue.	2. Collective inquiry.	2. Shared and supportive leadership.
3. Derivatization of practice.	3. Collaborative teams.	3. Collective learning and its application.
4. Focus on student learning.	4. Action orientation and experimentation.	4. Supportive conditions.
5. Collaboration	5. Commitment to continuous improvement.	5. Shared personal practice.
	6. Results orientation.	

Fullan's fifth key principle of change is developing a culture of evaluation

(Fullan, 2009). A culture of learning can only be effective when paired with evaluation.

A culture of evaluation involves:

- accessing/gathering data on student learning,

- disaggregating data for more detailed understanding,

- developing action plans based on the previous two points to make improvements, and

- being able to articulate and discuss performance with parents and external groups (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009, p. 13).

A culture of evaluation allows the participants to sort out the good ideas from the bad

ideas (Fullan, 2009). Next, the development of an action plan based on the understanding

of the data takes data knowledge to a new level (Fullan, 2009). School systems that participate in cultures of learning and evaluation gain higher levels of success (Fullan, 2009).

A culture of evaluation determines what changes are reaping success and what actions come next (Fullan, 2007). The external data drives the decision-making process. The external data builds confidence and support from the community and policymakers (Elmore, 2004b). However, to increase the achievement levels of the external data, internal accountability must be aligned with the external accountability (Elmore, 2004b). The external accountability motivates administrators, the community, and policymakers; however, it is the internal accountability which motivates educators to do more than they ever have before (Fullan, 2007). Internal accountability refers to the teacher's intrinsic motivation to become the best teacher they can be without the use of external rewards or punishments (Fullan, 2009).

Fullan's sixth key principle involves focusing on leadership for change (Fullan, 2009). Fullan, Cuttress, and Kilcher (2009) contended change knowledge is being able to determine what type of leadership is necessary to create positive change. Change knowledge enables leaders with the ability to seek and develop leadership in others on a continuous basis. The mark of a great principal occurres when the principal leaves; yet, progress at the school continues because there are leaders already in place continuing the work (Fullan, 2009).

In the past, principals of public-schools played the role of managers (Fullan, 2009). As managers, principals reacted to problems revolving around the school building,

the faculty, the students, and the community (Donaldson, 2001). "[There is] no longer a hierarchy of who knows more than someone else, but rather the need for everyone to contribute" (Kleine-Kracht, 1993, p. 393). This managerial style of leadership believed to be the norm, skewed everything leaders learned about management; unfortunately, the current role failed to provide the type of leadership schools need today (Barth, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1997). "In short supply are managers who are wise – by which I mean discerning, reflective, and able to judge what's correct and what's wrong" (Rosenzweig, 2007/2014, p. xxi). James Burns (1978), considered the founder of modern leadership theory, stated:

> I define leadership as leaders including followers to act for certain goals
>
> that represent the values and the motivation – the wants and the needs, the
>
> aspirations, and expectations – of both leaders and followers. And the genius
>
> of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own
>
> and their followers' values and motivations. (p. 19)

The role of a leader in today's public-schools operating under the theory of a too tight or too loose style of management will fail (Fullan, 2008). The too tight style of management only creates frustration, distrust, and unmotivated educators who are unable to sustain substantial achievement. The too loose style of management simply unmotivated everyone and keeps everyone unfocused with clouded judgment, which makes results unobtainable (Fullan, 2008).

In this postindustrial age, a new style of leadership needed to move education into the next century (Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Managers contended it is no longer appropriate to show employees who the boss is and

exert power and control over them (Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink,

2009). The teaching staff needs to know they are valued and an important part of a

positive learning environment (Krovetz & Arriaza, 2006). The successful organizations

develop a culture of collegiality. Mutual respect develops to empower the educators and

create a positive learning environment for everyone (Krovetz & Arriaza, 2006). Roland

Barth (2006) described a culture of collegiality as sharing these characteristics.

1. Talking with one another about their practice

2. Sharing their craft knowledge

3. Observing one another while they are engaged in teaching

4. Rooting for one another's success (p. 11).

A culture of collegiality benefited from the group's collective strengths and rallied around

its weaknesses (Barth, 2006). Typically, teachers are not prepared to be collaborative

communicators (Fullan, 2009). Effective leadership acknowledges this deficit and

instigates activities to promote overall effective communication (Marzano, Waters, &

McNulty, 2005). This type of community benefits from the collective capabilities of our

educators and develops them into leaders of learning (Fullan, 2009).

Furthermore, Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, and Hann (2002) contended,

"Educational leadership for the emerging postindustrial world must embrace the

leadership capabilities of teachers" (p. xvii). Additionally, "Teacher leadership, as we

intend it, is about action that transforms teaching and learning in a school, that ties school

and community together on behalf of learning, and that advances social sustainability and

quality of life for a community" (Crowther et al., 2002, p. xvii). The leadership necessary

for today's public-schools requires the act of leadership to be a group effort connected to

a single person (Sergiovanni, 2005). The inclusion of the group effort "liberates

leadership and provides the framework we need for widespread involvement in

improving schools" (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 45). Donaldson (2001) contended the purpose

of leadership is to change the process of school management and learning to a collective

collaborative style of teaching and learning to meet the needs of students and a

demanding society.

     In the process of changing our style of leadership, Sergiovanni (2005) stated there

are two ways to change schools into institutions of learning for students. The first way

forces everyone into action. The second way involves the building of relationships and

commitments to influence others to follow the lead. John Gardner wrote a book called *On

Leadership* in 1990, and stipulated, "People who have not thought much about it are

likely to believe that all influence originates with the leader, that the leader is the shaper,

never the object of shaping by the followers" (p. 31). On the same note, Donaldson

(2001) developed a model featuring a collaborative relationship with participants playing

both roles as the shapers of and shaped by each other. "The model argues that leadership

is a relationship that mobilizes people to fulfill the purposes of education. It has three

integral dimensions: the relational, the purposive, and the mobilizing" (Donaldson, 2001,

p. 41).

     Leadership in the past defined the relationship between leader and follower, with

the leader attempting to influence the follower in the ways that they thought, acted and

believed, based on the relationship they shared (Donaldson, 2001). In a relational form of shared leadership, teachers, administrators, and counselors foster leadership through shared feelings of openness, trust, and affirmation. The shared relationship further influences one another's actions, beliefs, and values (Donaldson, 2001). When participants are forced into such a relationship, the shared relationship no longer exists, leaving merely a bureaucracy or authoritarianism (Donaldson, 2001). Conventional styles of leadership allow very little opportunity for anyone except the leader to cultivate the development of learners, shoulder the responsibility, and mold a degree of authority. Top-down leadership simply promotes shifting the blame from the principal to the teacher to society (Donaldson, 2001). Unfortunately, leaders contribute to the realities faced by the public-schools by implementing an inappropriate leadership style, "we are disempowering and burning out the people who must lead reform" (Evans, 1995, p. 36).

Fullan's seventh key principle involves fostering coherence-making within the community (Fullan, 2009). The drive towards moral purpose and innovation led to teachers being overwhelmed and experiencing feelings of confusion, which is normal to a certain extent (Fullan, 2009). Developing coherence continues the process, involving the alignment of building capacity and developing cultures for learning and evaluation through leadership (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). Change knowledge leaders discover that, when new pathways of coherence develop, the new level of thinking allows individuals to focus on a deeper level about strategies for effective learning (Fullan, 2009).

Fullan's final key principle of change involves cultivating tri-level development within the community (Fullan, 2009). The tri-level model involves changing systems, not just individuals. An example of a tri-level problem in education is looking at what needs to occur at 1) the school and community level; 2) the district level; and 3) the state level (Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009). Through the process, individuals change; however, the contexts in which individuals work also needs to change (Fullan, 2009). For system and individuals to change parallel to one another, opportunities for individuals to learn in context or to learn in the precise situations in need of change must occur.

Research in the past 35 years has demonstrated that, without understanding the concept of change knowledge, even the best change efforts will eventually lead to failure or inability to sustain substantial results (Fullan, 2009). Knowledge without action proves futile (Fullan, 2009). Systems must follow the eight concepts of change and create leaders with the understanding and moral purpose to instigate change within the system and not just within individuals (Fullan, 2009).

Process of Change

The process of change involves a theory being put into action as leaders develop action plans, acknowledge the problems that may arise, while keeping morale high (Fullan, 2009, 2008). Rosenzweig (2007/2014) contended managers need to realize success in business is relative, not absolute. Lasting success comes from those companies and organizations who continually work on the small achievements rather than pursuing everlasting greatness. Rosenzweig (2007/2014) further reported,

Success in business is as elusive as ever. It's probably *more* elusive

than ever, with increasingly global competition and technological

change moving at faster and faster rates – which might explain why

we're tempted by promises of breakthroughs and secrets and quick

fixes in the first place. Desperate circumstances push us to look for

miracle cures. (p. xx)

Fullan (2008) reported good leaders were those who implement their 'theory of

action' as a blueprint while remaining flexible towards new data or unforeseen surprises

(p. 8).

Fullan (2008) developed a theory of action in his book, *The Six Secrets of

Change*. The six secrets acted as a blueprint or theory in action towards changing a whole

organization.

1. "Love your employees

2. Connect peers with purpose

3. Capacity building prevails

4. Learning is the work

5. Transparency rules

6. Systems learn". (pp. 11- 14)

In 1911, Frederick Taylor first introduced the theory of scientific management in

his book, *Principles of Scientific Management* (1911/2007). Taylor's research in the steel

industry reported four principles of scientific management or how jobs may be broken

down and how to teach employees to perform with increased efficiency and productivity.

Taylor was one of the first in the business sector to address the importance of the relationship between managers and employees (1911/2007).

In the field of education, Fullan (2008) contended, secret one in the process of change tells us to love our employees. Many of the mission statements issued by various districts around the civilized world focus totally on the customers or the parents and children (Fullan, 2008). Fullan (2008) reported school districts decide to lead by focusing on the customer or the students without regard for the employees or the teachers might see minimal gains for a short period. However, the longevity of achievement will remain unchanged as the employees will not be motivated, turnover will remain high, and achievement results will be stagnant (Fullan, 2008).

A report by McKinsey and Company (Mourshed, Chinezi, & Barber, 2010) provided data on the top-performing school systems in the world. The data provided evidence for the reason the education system needs to value teachers as much as the children and parents. Barber and Mourshed (2007) contended, "The quality of the education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers" (p. 8). Data from the report offered several examples of employees doing most of the work while management declared sanctions, mandates, and pressure (Fullan, 2008). The positive results remained short lived as employees reported exhaustion, felt unappreciated and were unmotivated to continue the work (Fullan, 2008).

Secret One includes more than just caring for employees (Fullan, 2008). To love the employee means leaders are interested in creating favorable conditions for employees to learn, develop their skills, and achieve their goals. Typically, conditions result in

highly qualified employees motivated to achieve, also resulting in students making achievements (Fullan, 2008).

The evidence found in the book, *Firms of Endearment*, further demonstrated the effectiveness of this theory (Sisodia, Wolfe, & Sheth, 2007). The authors of *Firms of Endearment* claim no stakeholder (customers, employees, investors, partners, or society) is more important than any other. For example, Walmart is not a firm of endearment, while Target is a firm of endearment (Sisodia, Wolfe, & Sheth, 2007). Walmart demonstrates a company that offers low prices and convenience but does not show any evidence that they love their employees (Sisodia, Wolfe, & Sheth, 2007). Customers frequent an establishment to take advantage of low prices, but the customer's attitude remains noncommittal. In the long run, the companies who value quality and treat the customers and employees well will perform better than those who do not. Companies that remain loyal to Secret One will prosper more than companies who do not (Fullan, 2008). In 2007, Sisodia et al. reported Walmart's stock remains relatively unchanged over the last five years while Target's stock rose almost 150 percent.

Michael Fullan (2008) put his theory into action with Ontario's education system. As a special adviser on education, Michael Fullan implemented the six secrets of change theory to help improve Ontario's education system. Ontario's education system's achievement scores remained stagnant from 1998 to 2003. Since the implementation of the six secrets from the years 2004 to 2007, Ontario's education system improved as much as 10 percent in reading, writing, and mathematics (Fullan, 2008). Also, the

percentage of new teachers who left the profession during the same era had declined (Fullan, 2008).

Secret One was embedded deeply in the findings of the comprehensive study, *The Enthusiastic Employee*, by Sirota, Mischkind, and Meltzer (2005). Years of research indicated the influence of three factors in motivating employees – fair treatment, enabling achievement, and camaraderie. Typically, when businesses implement all three motivating factors, employees become deeply involved in their work, service towards the customer increases, and, as a result, profits of the business rise.

Secret Two in the process of change includes connecting peers with purpose (Fullan, 2008). Large systems find difficulty in creating a cohesive culture in a world where division is the norm. Fullan (2008) referred to this problem as the "too tight – too loose dilemma" (p. 41). "Focus the organization on sharp goals and tight accountability, and you get passive or alienated workers. Go for decentralized creativity, and you get drift and inertia" (Fullan, 2008, p. 41). The key to connecting peers with purpose finds a different kind of leadership, not too tight and not too loose (Fullan, 2008).

Key leadership involves creating conditions for individuals and groups to contribute in purposeful collaboration (Fullan, 2008). Alone, peer interaction appears not to be automatically purposeful. According to Fullan (2008), "positive purposeful peer interaction, works effectively under three conditions:

1. when the larger values of the organization and those of individuals and group mesh;

2. when information and knowledge about effective practices are widely and openly shared; and

3. when monitoring mechanisms are in place to detect and address ineffective actions while also identifying and consolidating effective practices" (Fullan, 2008, p. 45).

In other words, purposeful peer interaction involves positive collaboration where colleagues learn from one another and processes are developed to reflect and change ineffective practices (Fullan, 2008). The process develops into a positive experience because, as leaders invest in employees, the employees increase their individual and collective dedication to their work and toward their colleagues (Fullan, 2008).

Secret Three in the process of change involved capacity building (Fullan, 2008). Capacity building involved individuals who engaged in professional development; used time, ideas, expertise, and money wisely; were motivated and dedicated to putting in the work; and participated in continual learning opportunities (Fullan, 2008). Capacity building cultivates the greatest resource any system can acquire, individuals.

Even though individuals prove to be a system's greatest resource, they can also become a system's worst nightmare (Fullan, 2008). Destroyed capacity building within an individual occurs through criticism, punitive consequences, or judgment (Fullan, 2008). The acts of hectoring, teasing, bullying, judging, and gestures or body language signals are not motivating to anyone. Individuals perform poorly under conditions of fear or anger. In other words, despite feelings of justification, it is necessary to uphold a

superior moral position and actions while refraining from the detrimental effects of judgment (Fullan, 2011a, 2008; Pink, 2009).

Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) reported on two direct consequences of fear-induced change. The first consequence resulted from fear causing an individual to focus on the short term. An example of the first consequence set targets and provided rewards, which, in theory, was a technique used to motivate. The problem resulted as the technique motivated individuals to manipulate results, cut corners to reach a short-term goal, and commit fraud as some of the usual consequences (Pink, 2009).

The second negative consequence promoted by fear contained the focus on an individual rather than the group (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). When a situation turned bad, individuals turned to self-preservation (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). Managers and employees alike typically played the victim who received nothing regarding the credit they deserved, and the blame game began, and spiraled judgment spread (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) further reported a climate of fear might influence individuals to cover up rather than face their failure. Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) suggested it is important to simply remember and forgive the individual. Individuals must learn from their failures, or the individual fails to learn at all.

The first step to building capacity includes hiring and attracting qualified people that can help one develop individually and collectively (Fullan, 2008). The McKinsey & Company report, *How the World's Best–Performing School Systems Come out on Top*, (Barber & Mourshed, 2007), researched the top countries in education and their practices. Barber and Mourshed (2007) found that these systems recruited more talented individuals

to become teachers, and helped those teachers develop into better educators and leaders; thereby, ensuring effective instruction.

In the business sector, Toyota reflects companies well known for hiring good people who possess the capability of becoming great (Liker & Meier, 2007). During the hiring process, Toyota looks for individuals who are capable and willing to learn, are flexible, patient, persistent, willing to take responsibility, are confident and possess leadership qualities (Liker & Meier, 2007). Liker & Meier (2007) reported, "The truth is that Toyota does like to start with good people who possess the capacity to become exceptional employees" (p. 18). Pfeffer (2007) warned systems to be wary during the interviewing process. Interviews are about looking good and sounding good. The problem lied with people not being what they seemed (Pfeffer, 2007). Taylor & LaBarre (2006) referred to Mike McCue of Tellme Network, who said, "There's a difference between having great credentials and being a great contributor" (p. 203). An organization must act like a team. Team players work to benefit one another and play for the team. If one talented individual plays only for the benefit of themselves, the whole team suffers (Taylor & LaBarre, 2006).

Top organizations recruit employees and students who are capable of being part of a culture of purposeful collaboration (Fullan, 2008). Building capacity starts with the hiring process, attracting people who contain the potential to learn and develop as a system (Fullan, 2008). Pfeffer & Sutton (2006) warned organizations not to become fixated on hiring individual talent. Capacity building starts with developing talent in

those individuals who possess the potential to become great within the system (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006).

The public education system began to witness the lack of highly qualified educators willing to become teachers (Fullan, 2008). As it stands now, most of the education budget pays for teacher salaries. However, teacher salaries on a professional scale focus on the lower end of the spectrum. Many level-entry positions, not requiring a college education, pay more than a veteran educator (Fullan, 2008). The main problem with hiring talented professionals includes the politician's system that promotes competition and isolation (Fullan, 2008). Few educators truly collaborate and build capacity under a system of competition and isolation (Fullan, 2008). Furthermore, politicians blame educators for just about everything, and now the educator's paychecks may reflect it through merit pay. Not too many individuals want any part of the teaching profession (Fullan, 2008).

Secret Four in the process of change included learning as the work (Fullan, 2008). The concept behind Secret Four found how organizations attempted to achieve their long-term goals. Every day works with consistency, while at the same time engaging in continual learning on the job. Fullan (2008) wrote, "The secret behind 'learning is the work' lies in our integration of the precision needed for consistent performance (using what we already know) with the new learning required for continuous improvement" (p. 76). Innovation and consistency must go hand in hand because these concepts are achieved through organized learning in context (Fullan, 2008).

Learning on the job day after day contributes to the work (Fullan, 2008). Richard Elmore (2004b) wrote, "improvement is more a function of learning to do the right thing in the setting in which you work" (p. 73). Elmore (2004b) continued with the thought that educators receive almost all their training and professional development outside of the classroom out of context. Teachers lack the opportunity to learn, observe, and practice in the setting where they work (Elmore, 2004b).

The most important task of any leader involves teaching their employees how to become more effective (Liker & Meier, 2007). Implementing opportunities of learning in the context provides the continuous learning employees need to reach their potential and effectiveness (Fullan, 2008). Implementation refers to the study of learning in context (Fullan, 2008). Learning must take place in context. Otherwise, the learning will be superficial. Individuals found organizational success achieved through a learning culture rather than the implementation of an appropriate strategy or method was beneficial (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006). To implement fear for not being effective in the workplace only creates an environment of distrust and unhappiness as employees search for a scapegoat or a new job (Liker & Meier, 2007). Taylor & LaBarre (2006) concluded to reach optimal employee effectiveness employers must create an environment of appropriate working conditions and a learning culture, where the employees are learning every day within the context of the work.

Secret Five in the process of change included transparency rules (Fullan, 2008). Transparency refers to the acts of assessment, communication, and the actions of the system following data reflection, which relates to the outcomes of change efforts (Fullan,

2008). Transparency means sharing information and being open about results and practices. Information empowers employees as an effective tool for identifying problem areas (Fullan, 2008).

Most employees fear the concept of transparency because of the inappropriate use of the concept (Fullan, 2008). First, transparency means to assess and report on every single aspect of an organization (Fullan, 2008). Some people believe if one looks for negative aspects they will find them (Fullan, 2008). Shirley & Hargreaves (2006) warned organizations to refrain from the practice of a strict results orientation. The actual process and practice of the system proves to be just as important as the actual data from assessments. "Information overload breeds confusion and clutter, not clarity" (Fullan, 2008, p. 94). Pfeffer & Sutton (2000) contended that measurements were meant to be used as guides to direct behavior. Measurements were never intended as a judgmental tool to assign blame and weakness. Liker & Meier (2007) believed that to find a weakness for the sake of assigning blame was useless. A strong leader finds weakness merely to help correct it and make the system stronger (Liker & Meier, 2007).

As Fullan (2008) maintained, the concept of transparency needs to be embraced by organizations simply because accountability demanded by the public was here to stay. He went on to say that, a changing system welcomes the opportunity to address weaknesses while a punitive system will seek out ways to hide problems (Fullan, 2008). Moreover, he wrote, another reason transparency is deemed necessary is because data has a way of making itself available to the media. Finally, he asserted that, by embracing

transparency and providing the data, an organization can report accurate data rather than misuse the data (Fullan, 2008).

The process of using transparency appropriately for both improvement and accountability is a possibility (Fullan, 2008). Problems and weaknesses develop within an organization all the time and are normal. A changing organization wants to detect and embrace the opportunity to learn from their mistakes and correct the situation. Learning cultures accept the concept of transparency as a normal fragment of their continual process of work and the learning process (Fullan, 2008).

Secret Six contains the final step in the process of change and states that systems learn (Fullan, 2008). When an organization implements the first five secrets, most systems learn, but continual learning is never guaranteed (Fullan, 2008). Most organizations fail to keep on learning because they put too much emphasis on individual leaders. Leaders and managers come and go. The mark of a truly good leader is observed long after the leader is gone, and the work of the organization continues because of all the new leaders that develop over time (Fullan, 2008).

The main idea for Secret Six focuses on many leaders (Fullan, 2008). Pfeffer & Sutton (2006) contended Toyota's continual success results from the organization's culture and practices that go far beyond that of one individual or leader. The complexities of the system develops and nurtures into something much bigger than an individual. The result involves a group of colleagues who became learners (Fullan, 2008).

Currently, our global environment has become more diverse, complex, and uncertain (Fullan, 2008). In a world filled with uncertainty, there are no guarantees of

success (Fullan, 2008). Secret Six reminds us to be humble and remain confident. As a culture of thinkers and learners, the system prepares individuals in many ways to cope with the surprises that would indeed transpire unannounced. Some ideas work, and others will not. However, individuals as well as leaders need to learn to cope with uncertainty (Fullan, 2008). Rosenzweig (2007) reminded us to develop a healthy respect for uncertainty. Regardless of how much an organization prepares for or how much experience an individual possesses, there will be a time when the uncertainties of life are uncontrollable (Rosenzweig, 2007). Every decision, every action contains the capability of failure. Despite the effect of intelligence and hard work, or that of research done, success is never guaranteed (Fullan, 2008).

The process of change affects everything from large corporations to small businesses, from individuals to families and communities, and from organizations, public and private, to our public-schools (Fullan, 2009, 2008). The change becomes a part of life, personal and professional. Reform movements target our public-schools to change, leading corporate reformers and politicians to believe a business model of learning organizations may be suitable for public education (Fullan, 2009, 2008). The research about the process of change and learning organizations comes from both an education and a business standpoint, as both professions interact with one another as organizations, modeling success for one and reform for the other (Fullan, 2009, 2008).

Learning Organizations

One of the most influential individuals who impacted the practice of management was Frederick Winslow Taylor (Senge, 1990, 2006). Taylor developed a theory of

organizations, which later became his contribution to scientific management. Taylor's

independent research contributes to the analysis of how work is designed and helps to

introduce the idea of method study (Senge, 1990, 2006). In Taylor's (1911, 2007) book,

The Principles of Scientific Management, he discussed the struggle between management

and the employees for control of production. Theories in Taylor's (1911, 2007) book also

lent themselves to the concept of the learning organization without defining it.

Donald Schon (1983) became another contributor to the idea of the learning

society. Schon (1983) provided a theoretical framework for living in a world of constant

change with the need for learning. He argued that our society and institutions are in a

constant process of transformation. Because people could not depend on a stable,

comfortable state in which to remain, individuals must be able to adapt through the

learning process (Schon, 1983). One of the greatest contributions made by Schon (1983)

was the exploration into governments, businesses, and social movements, defining them

all as learning systems. He argued failures within these systems are due to a lack of

acknowledgment of the importance of a learning system. Therefore, refusing to learn in a

constant state of change induces failure (Schon, 1983).

Even though there were several contributors to systems management, there were

but a handful of people who contributed to the theory of learning organizations (Fullan,

2008; DuFour & Eaker, 1998). These men included Frederick Taylor, Donald Schon, and

Peter Senge. These gentlemen brought the ideas of learning organizations to the forefront,

arguing that the fight for power or control of production would lead to eventual failure of

the team (DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 2009). Only when leaders and employees work

together for the greater good through trust and motivation will a true 'team' be established (Fullan, 2011a, 2009; Pink, 2009).

Peter Senge's (1990) publication of his book, *The Fifth Discipline*, greatly impacted the way we conduct business today (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Fullan, 2008). "The tools and ideas presented in this book are for destroying the illusion that the world is created of separate, unrelated forces" (Senge, 1990, p. 3). Senge popularized the term 'learning organization' which he described as "organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together" (1990, p. 3). Senge (2006) stated,

> As the world becomes more interconnected and business becomes more
>
> complex and dynamic, work must become more learningful . . . The
>
> organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations
>
> that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at
>
> all levels in an organization. (p. 4)

Senge (2006) further described the five "disciplines of the learning organization. The five disciplines include personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking" (Senge, 1990, 2006, p. 5-9).

Senge's first discipline, personal mastery, seemed to suggest gaining dominance over people or things (Senge, 2006, p. 7). However, the concept of personal mastery develops a certain level of proficiency. "Personal mastery is an essential cornerstone of

the learning organization – the learning organization's spiritual foundation" (Senge, 1990, 2006, p. 7). "Personal mastery is the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively" (Senge, 2006, p. 7).

Senge's second discipline of learning organizations included mental models (Senge, 1990, 2006). "Mental models are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action" (Senge, 2006, p. 8). Often, when individuals construct mental models, they are not consciously aware of their actions (Senge, 1990, 2006). Mental models affect our behavior by how we process information and react to our circumstances. The second discipline of mental models is concerned with looking inside oneself, acknowledging the processes taking place, and being able to expose one's thinking, thereby making it accessible to the influence of others (Senge, 1990, 2006).

Senge's third discipline of learning organizations involved building a shared vision (Senge, 1990, 2006). Organizations who excelled in the past shared a common picture or vision of the future they wished to create (Senge, 1990, 2006). A common vision brings groups together to share a common identity and sense of destiny. Senge (2006) contended that a true vision statement was motivating and gave individuals purpose in developing and learning. The vision speaks to them personally; hence, the vision connects and motivates them to act. Thus, according to Senge (2006), individuals are inspired rather than pressured into action.

Senge's fourth discipline of learning organizations involved team learning (Senge, 1990, 2006). Team learning starts with dialogue or the ability to join in thought (Senge, 1990, 2006). "The discipline of dialogue also involves learning how to recognize the patterns of interaction in teams that undermine learning" (Senge, 2006, p. 10). For instance, patterns of defensiveness within the team influenced how the team operates. Organizations operate efficiently because the individuals are effective. Individuals become effective through team learning (Senge, 2006).

Senge's fifth discipline of learning organizations involved systems thinking (Senge, 1990, 2006). Systems thinking included the fifth discipline because it is the element that combines and correlates all the other disciplines to work together. "Systems thinking is a conceptual framework, a body of knowledge and tools that have been developed over the past fifty years, to make the full patterns clearer, and to help us see how to change them effectively" (Senge, 2006, p. 7). In our society, people typically only focus on and hear what is happening now, right in front of them. Events and occurrences in the past affect what is happening in the here and now; therefore, we cannot live without a thought of their influence (Senge, 2006).

According to Senge (2006), all five disciplines developing together is imperative. Even though the process challenged individuals, focusing on one without the others would not establish a learning organization. The parts must work together, recognizing and building on each other's strengths and weaknesses, in a constant state of learning and change to produce an outcome that cannot be replicated alone (Senge, 2006).

This is why systems thinking is the fifth discipline. It is the discipline that

integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice.

It keeps them from being separate gimmicks or the latest organization change

fads. Without a systemic orientation, there is no motivation to look at how the

disciplines interrelate. By enhancing each of the other disciplines, it continually

reminds us that the whole can exceed the sum of its parts . . . . At the heart of a

learning organization is a shift of mind – from seeing ourselves as separate

from the world to connected to the world, from seeing problems as caused by

someone or something "out there" to seeing how our own actions create the

problems we experience. A learning organization is a place where people are

continually discovering how they create their reality. And how they can change

it. (Senge, 2006, p. 11-12)

Previously, Deal and Kennedy (1982) in their publication, *Corporate Cultures,*

brought attention to the use of cultural elements by management to influence change in

staffs in the business sector. However, it was Peter Senge's (1990) publication of *The*

Fifth Discipline that popularized the idea of the 'learning organization,' which also found

its way into the educational arena. As educational researchers started to study the theory

behind learning organizations, particularly Senge's five disciplines, researchers began to

refer to the concept in schools as a learning community (DuFour & Eaker, 1998).

Researchers from both the business and the educational sectors started to focus on

factors relating to employees and the culture and setting in which they worked (DuFour

& Eaker, 1998). In the late 1980's and 1990's, educational researchers gave special

attention to teacher quality and the elements that influenced teacher performance (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). Educational researchers were now beginning to focus on these elements influencing teacher quality, and ultimately, student achievement (DuFour & Eaker, 1998).

In the educational sector, a study by Susan Rosenholtz in 1989 became one of the first to focus on teacher quality and its relationship to professional development. Rosenholtz (1989) discovered that teachers who believed they were supported in the classroom, as well as in professional development activities, were more committed and effective as classroom teachers. Teachers gained support by participating in some form of a teacher network, or cooperation among colleagues. In 1993, McLaughlin and Talbert confirmed Rosenholtz's findings as they discovered, through collaborative inquiry, that teachers found opportunities to feel supported by their colleagues. Later, McLaughlin and Talbert (2006) commented, "Even the highest quality professional development resources will falter unless teachers can work together on new ideas and reflect on practice and its implications for students' learning" (p. 3).

Shortly after Senge's (1990) publication of *The Fifth Discipline* and the introduction of learning organizations into the education sector, Newman and Wehlage (1995) found, "Organization capacity is enhanced when schools are shaped into professional communities" (p. 30). Specifically, a professional community improves student learning when:

1. Teachers pursue a clear, shared purpose for all students' learning.
2. Teachers engage in collaborative activity to achieve the purpose.

3. Teachers take collective responsibility for student learning (Newmann &

Wehlage, 1995, p. 30).

At the same time, Darling-Hammond (1996) found that shared decision-making was recognized as an important factor concerning teacher collaboration and responsibility for student achievement in some schools.

Several factors which influenced student achievement began to emerge as educators and researchers stepped away from the traditional role of teaching towards a more comprehensive and collective effort to pursue a shared purpose, as indicated by learning organizations and professional learning communities (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). Furthermore, as educators examined student data as a collective group, it helped everyone come to terms with the next actions to take, and the evidence helped to promote change when achievement was targeted (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Again, this provided more data to promote the theory that collective efforts were more effective than individual efforts (DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 2009, 2008).

As the actual concept of a professional learning community became more well-known, the definition of one had not (DuFour, 2004; DuFour & Eaker, 1998). Although many researchers found similarities among some definitions, others were extremely complex, or too general in their description of a professional learning community (DuFour, 2004). One useful commonly stated guideline included that the purpose of a professional learning community was to create an atmosphere of learning and collaboration where it was safe to share and learn from one's mistakes and become motivated to do more of the same (DuFour, 2004; Hord, 2004).

Motivation Theories

Deci and Ryan (1985) reported, "The study of motivation is the exploration of the energization and direction of behavior" (p. 3). All living things seek to engage in exchanges with the environment and to draw from the environment their needs (Jacob, 1973). The idea of living things being drawn to physical needs was accepted, while the psychological ones were typically rejected or ignored (Deci & Ryan, 2002). According to Deci & Ryan (2002), a healthy human psyche gravitates toward situations involving competence, relatedness, and autonomy (p. 7). Situations that provide for these elements drive human needs and motives for behavior. Deci & Ryan (1985) suggested:

An adequate theory of motivation must therefore take into account

Both the needs that are innate to the organism (i.e., those that must be

satisfied for the organism to remain healthy) and those that are acquired

through interactions with the environment. (p. 3)

Extrinsic Motivation

Most motivational researchers attained to a few theories, explaining motives for behavior. Most motivational theories derived from two basic types, intrinsic and extrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Most individuals are familiar with extrinsic motivation and make reference to the idea that behavior is driven and controlled by an external force (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Extrinsic motivation commonly refers to the idea of rewarding the behavior one wants to replicate and punishing the behavior one wants to stop (Pink, 2009). "Extrinsic motivation involves doing an activity because it leads to a separable consequence – the goal is separate from the activity itself" (Deci & Ryan, 2012, p. 88).

"Extrinsic motivation, when driven by such classic contingencies, is often experienced as controlled – that is, people often feel pressured, through the seduction of rewards or the coercion of threats, to do a task" (Deci & Ryan, 2012, p. 88). One's choosing to act to receive money, prizes, fame, or out of fear of punishment are all examples of extrinsic motivation.

The main problem with extrinsic motivation in the Technology Age is that sometimes it works and many times it does not work (Pink, 2009). Pink (2009) researched decades of scientific research on human motivation and concluded that there was a discrepancy between what science knew and what the business industry does. Dinosaurs held onto the business as usual approach and fell victim to the 'sometimes' occurrences believing in the times of the past that good things would happen (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Unfortunately, schools and businesses discovered that these good things that did happen occasionally actually occurred outside of the business or school entirely or because of something else affecting productivity (Pink, 2009). They are not a direct result of extrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009).

Another problem with extrinsic motivation is that it precedes with the notion that humans are like robots. As robots, one must be programmed to function in a repetitive manner with repetitive outcomes. The Technology Age refuses this theory of functionality (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The Technology Age has wiped out the majority of the repetitive type of jobs, such as, assembly lines, factory work, and any repetitive work that does not require thought (Ravitch, 2010). Instead, the Technology Age demands creative solutions to complex problems (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Extrinsic motivation undermines this type of creativity. When work fails to challenge and is routine, extrinsic motivation puts satisfaction into a boring industrial job. However, when the job calls for creative solutions, extrinsic motivation skips the discovery phase, does not allow for mistakes necessary to find the appropriate conclusions, and, in fact, it carries a negative impact (Pink, 2009).

Human motivation researchers have discovered specific circumstances in which extrinsic motivation could be of some benefit (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Although there are some situations in which extrinsic motivators are appropriate, most situations require acknowledgment of intrinsic motivators and respect for the ability of extrinsic ones to undermine intent (Pink, 2009). Sam Glucksberg (1962, 1964) performed a series of quantitative experiments to determine when to use external motivators and when not to use them. What Glucksberg discovered was that if the task-at-hand was routine, external motivators could be useful. Deci, Ryan, & Koestner (2001) concurred through their scientific research that external motivators provide an extra push in situations where the task-at-hand is routine without long-term harm. "Rewards do not undermine people's intrinsic motivation for dull tasks because there is little or no intrinsic motivation to be undermined" (p. 14).

When work felt un-enjoyable, managers bribed employees with external rewards and threatened them with negative punishment (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Remember, extrinsic motivation's goal includes motivating people into doing the approved activities and punishing the unapproved activities (Pink, 2009). So, extrinsic motivation works great for routine behavior, to maintain control, and to make workers

comply (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The problem then is that the behavior employers want to see in the twenty-first century is anything but routine (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Where extrinsic motivation delivers compliance, intrinsic motivation delivers engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Pink, 2009). Engagement creates mastery (Pink, 2009).

Experiences of enjoyment occurred possibly from mental or physical activities (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Enjoyment from physical activities is realized possibly with anyone who possesses control over their physical body. Likewise, enjoyment from mental activities is realized possibly by anyone with control over their own mind and thinking activities (Pink, 2009). As our children enter a life of education at an early age, the intrinsic motivation levels of the children typically disappear as the control over their learning and their engagement activities is far from pleasurable (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Public-schooling has reduced itself to a series of standardized tests, where educators are being held accountable for the scores of such tests (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kohn, 2011). The educators are forced to teach the knowledge and skills required by the tests; and children become disengaged and subjected to learn at a quicker pace with little time to reflect on what was learned and to develop an intrinsic motivation to learn more (Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009). When children enter school, the anxiety and stress experienced by our educators to provide quality education is so intense; the children experience the feelings of anxiety as well (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). To teach the skills necessary requires work, effort, and motivation on behalf of the educator and the children. In the beginning, very few children engage

intrinsically towards their schoolwork. Educators attempt to motivate children to learn; however, the shadow of anxiousness, tests, and assignments that are never-ending provide very little motivation and hinder the children's desire to learn as educators and administrators motivate students with extrinsic motivation (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Intrinsic Motivation

Another type of motivation included intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic behaviors derive from individual satisfaction, interest, and enjoyment from the activity itself, rather than from an external force or reason to behave (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Deci & Ryan (1985) reported:

> Intrinsic motivation is the innate, natural propensity to engage
>
> one's interests and exercise one's capacities, and in so doing, to seek
>
> and conquer optimal challenges. Such motivation emerges spontaneously
>
> from internal tendencies and can motivate behavior even without the
>
> aid of extrinsic rewards or environmental controls. Intrinsic motivation
>
> is also an important motivator of the learning, adaption, and growth in
>
> competencies that characterize human development. (p. 43)

The concept of this Third Drive or intrinsic motivation sparked controversy since its inception (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Despite numerous scientific studies and countless research published about the Third Drive, many people remain skeptical and oblivious to its existence (Pink, 2009). Leaders need to be aware of the Third Drive or intrinsic motivation, as it will become relevant to their cause in some regard (Pink, 2009).

Intrinsic motivation, or The Third Drive, tells us there is another way to motivate individuals into creative and innovative tasks which does not include an external motivator like money (Pink, 2009). Yesterday's science told us power and control created compliance (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The initial power creates fear. Fear creates control. Control creates compliance (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Eventually, however, compliance creates anger and resentment, and anger and resentment create a lack of motivation to perform (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation operates under the theory that to obtain a desire, or pure intrinsic motivation to drive us to accelerated performance, that performance must come from within through autonomy, mastery or competence, and purpose and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2012, 2000; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

A problem with our society is that we only take notice of something when it is failing (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). It is like our personal vehicles (Pink, 2009). People drive them daily. People depend on their cars in the good times and the bad times. When times are good, people tend to put in the supreme gasoline and complete some preventative maintenance. During the bad times, people put in the cheap gasoline and put off repairs. However, people consistently expect the vehicles to perform at high levels, despite how well or poorly the cars are treated. It is only when the vehicles simply break down that people retraced the steps to acknowledge how this disaster occurred (Pink, 2009). The human psyche operates similarly to the intricacies of a working vehicle, but it is much more complex (Pink, 2009). The "business as usual" speech is no longer acceptable to the human condition (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009).

Deci, Ryan, and Koestner (1999) reviewed and conducted 128 quantitative experiments resulting in the same conclusions that rewards tend to impact negatively on intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999). Attempting to control an individual's behavior in the short term causes long term damage (Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999). Attempting to motivate children to do their math or reading homework by offering a reward or incentive, encourages them to do their work only for a short time (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009). However, over time, the reward loses the child's interest. People attempt to use rewards to motivate others only to find that long-term damage occurs to their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012, 2008; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Pink, 2009). Eventually, individuals find no pleasure with the task, and the rewards must increase until the person cannot stand it anymore and quits over the hatred of the task despite the reward offered (Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Pink, 2009). The personal interest in a job or task motivates individuals and provides intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Pink, 2009). If the external rewards and punishments overshadow the internal interest and joy, there is no hope of motivating the individual.

Many businesses, school systems, and governmental agencies continue to lead us according to yesterday's science (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Most management styles cycle around direct supervision, accountability measures, and external rewards and punishments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Ressler & Thompson, 2013). Proponents of extrinsic motivation believe and assume that without control employees will falter (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Intrinsic motivation operates under a different

assumption (Pink, 2009). Most individuals want to be accountable, but they cannot be

forced, threatened, and ordered into a state of accountability (Darling-Hammond, 2010;

Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Controlled management and extrinsic

motivation factors prove problematic (Pink, 2009).

Students reacted uniquely to self-directed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan

& Deci, 2009). Several research studies showed evidence of a positive connection

between intrinsic motivation and student achievement (Law, Elliot, & Murayama, 2012;

Lee, McInerney, Liem, & Ortiga, 2010; Corpus et al., 2009; Wigfield, Cambria & Eccles,

2012). Educators fail when they attempt to engage students intrinsically all day every day

at school (Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). Not all academic tasks require intrinsic motivation.

Some of the tasks educators need students to accomplish lack interest and may require

some form of extrinsic motivation to promote learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Most

researchers argued motivation in the classroom was neither intrinsic or extrinsic

exclusively (Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). A balanced classroom includes both intrinsic and

extrinsic motivation (Williams & Williams, 2011). Also, students reportedly viewed tasks

as intrinsically or extrinsically motivating differently (Areepattamannil, Freeman, &

Klinger, 2011; Butler, 2012; Guay et al., 2010). Furthermore, student achievement linked

to teacher quality or motivation is not something that can be numerically measured or

quantified (Kuhn, 2014).

A-motivation

The third type of motivation proposed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan was a-

motivation (2002; 1985). Individuals display a-motivation when there is an absence of

motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 43). When a situation "is interpreted as unmasterable, that is, when one perceives oneself to be incompetent to attain one's desired outcomes" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 71). When individuals perceive a goal or action to be unrealistic or unobtainable, they withdraw their intrinsic motivation to a state of a-motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Researchers believed the concept of a-motivation derived from the idea of learned helplessness (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978), because such individuals felt helpless with the notion that the task was unachievable, the individual was incompetent to achieve the task, and the individual obtained little or no control over the situation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). In this type of state, individuals perceive themselves to be helpless, without control, forced into behavior and begin to question the purpose of engaging in the activity further. Most individuals react to this state of being by withdrawing from the activity whenever possible (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Examples of this type of behavior include students who do not understand the purpose of completing an assignment and simply refuse to waste their time. Another example includes a teenager who does not see the purpose in attending high school and drops out to seek employment.

Self-determination Theory (SDT)

The basic structure of intrinsic values proposed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan of competence, relatedness, and autonomy further directed individuals to the concept of psychological needs and motives (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2017). "Self-determination theory focuses on the dialectic between the active, growth-oriented human organism and social contexts that either support or undermine people's attempts to master and integrate their experiences into a coherent sense of self" (Deci & Ryan, 2002,

p. 27). Self-determination refers to a concept of will and choice centered around an individual's ability to be competent, to control the situation, and to experience the situation that delivers interest and enjoyment without external forces (Deci & Ryan, 2002, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Many individuals misunderstand the attributes of motivation and the fact that certain actions may undermine the different types of motivation and project undesired outcomes.

Behavioral scientists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (2000) developed the 'self-determination' theory (SDT) that stated humans "have three such needs – the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy – that appear to be essential for facilitating optimal functioning of the natural propensities for growth and integration, as well as for constructive social development and personal well-being" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68). Similarly, Pink (2009) states the psychological needs as autonomy, mastery, and purpose. If these needs are met to some substantial capacity, the individual will be motivated, happy, and productive (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Thomas (2009) reported humans search for four types of intrinsic rewards including sense of choice, sense of competence, sense of progress, and a sense of meaningfulness. The sense of meaningfulness and progress related to purpose and values (p.48-49). A sense of choice referred to autonomy (p. 53) and a sense of competence meant the ability to feel useful (p. 55). By nature, humans are curious and interested in their surroundings (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Our environment either facilitates that interest or destroys it (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). As businesses and schools fail to adequately produce immediate measurable results, managers rush in with their 'get tough' attitudes and start to issue rewards and

punishments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Kuhn (2014, p. 133) reported it is easier for politicians and managers to blame the driver then it is to fix the car. Ressler and Thompson (2013) suggested when management is incapable of managing the work, management resorts to managing or controlling employees (p. 2). The process of change, the tough exterior attitude, and common sense puts worried minds at ease for a while until the people realize this is not producing the right results either (Fullan, 2011a). Old management and new management scramble once again with new rewards and tougher punishments, which only compounded the problem even further (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The real problem is *not* finding the right reward or the right punishment for the situation or holding the appropriate professionals accountable. The problem suggests that management, or society in this case, has not adequately defined the real problem (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation proves not to be the initial problem. Motivation became a symptom of a much bigger problem (Pink, 2009).

Management assumes the bottom line is higher student standardized test scores, which, in the politicians' eyes means students are learning and are competitive with world industry (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers imply that "if a little testing is good, a lot of testing must be better. And if testing is good for finding out what students know, then it follows that it must be equally good for finding out how well teachers teach" (Kuhn, 2014, p. 45). Ryan and Deci (2017) reported:

> We note that this approach is based on two implicit motivational
> assumptions: (1) that such extrinsic outcome-focused motivators
> effectively promote learning and academic success and (2) that

these narrow intellectual goals that are the focus of assessments

are actually the most important products of schooling. An SDT

analysis finds both of these premises questionable. (p. 353)

Also, management assumes teacher quality is the most important and only

influential factor concerning student performance (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). "A test

of student knowledge is precisely that. It isn't a test of teaching quality" (Kuhn, 2014, p.

45). Common sense, then, seems to dictate, if an educator is motivated to teach and

influence a student to achieve adequate performance, then punitive accountability

measures will force teachers to teach better and students to perform better (Ravitch, 2010;

Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Berliner (2012) reported other outside factors to be twice

as influential as teacher quality as an impact on student achievement. Further studies

indicated teacher quality impacts student achievement; however, when classes change

every year, it proves difficult to measure a consistent level of teacher effectiveness

(Baker, 2012; Berliner, 2014). "Judging teachers based on whether all of their students

achieve an absolute minimum score is universally recognized as unfair (Kuhn, 2014, p.

45). However, the new VAMs (value-added measures) is advertised by politicians to do

just that (Kuhn, 2014). Educational managers seemed to acquire ideas and implement

them as facts without gathering evidence to provide credibility or reliability.

Deci and Ryan (2008) continued pursuing their work with the Third Drive or

intrinsic motivation by moving beyond categorizing factors as being intrinsic or extrinsic

to categorizing those factors as autonomous or controlled behavior. Autonomous

motivation means an individual has control and choice in a situation. Controlled

motivation means an individual might be pressured or ordered into behaving in a certain fashion. Autonomy means to control and act with choice and is not synonymous with independence (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Individuals who are motivated are impressed upon through a social context, which supports autonomy or suppresses it through controlling behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 2012, p. 86). Proximal interpersonal contexts consist of family relationships and worker relations and distal contexts, which also consist of cultural practices and general economical practices, and eventually define the two types of social contexts (Deci & Ryan, 2012, p. 86). One social context refers to personal life and the other social context refers to more of a professional or outside of the family dynamic context. Classroom teachers create the student-teacher relationship or atmosphere, which is embedded within the school, where administrators also influence the teacher's motivation (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kaufman, 1982; Pelletier, Seguin-Levesque, & Legault, 2002). Furthermore, schools embedded within school districts influence the motivation of the administrators. Finally, school districts embedded within state governments and national governments influence and motivate the school districts and local governments. Eventually, the distal contexts influence and motivate indirectly every student and teacher across America through government policies and mandates (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Ryan & Weinstein (2009) reported embedded negative effects of governmental policies concerned with standardized testing, such as the fact that mandated high-test scores pressure everyone involved to teach to the test, which automatically withdraws the teachers' and students' ability to motivate, engage, or even enjoy learning at school. The

government's focus on evaluating teachers according to student performance on standardized assessments has teachers scrambling for answers because educators cannot control the forces for which they are being evaluated. For example, when state policies instigate merit pay, the stress associated with student performance on standardized assessments influences educators to spend more time with testing practices, which involves repetitive practice and is boring for students. More time spent on testing practices encourages students to withdraw, which then puts more stress on the educators, who typically return to rewards and punishments. None of these practices improve the quality of education. The policies of the government typically increase stress and make the problem worse (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Government policies force the educators to be responsible for student ability, student socioeconomic status, and student motivation, all aspects that even the parents are not responsible for and none of which cannot explain why educators are not motivated to perform (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). The forceful nature of the government, including unrealistic expectations, allowed motivation experienced by both teacher and student to disappear because of the way the government officials chose to motivate the educators (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009).

Intrinsic motivation inspired through pure interest and enjoyment of the activity finds its own inspiration to continue the activity without the need for outside influences (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). When students find themselves intrinsically motivated to learn, the students learn more, engage themselves more (Wigfield, Cambria,

& Eccles, 2012), and find deeper meanings within the contexts (Grolnick & Ryan, 1987). Early, Rogge, and Deci (2014) discovered positive outcomes occurred in classrooms with more active engagement. Ryan and Deci (2017) reported, "When contexts supported autonomy, competence, and relatedness (e.g., by providing choice, positive feedback, and empathy), intrinsic motivation was enhanced" (p. 354-355).

Extrinsic motivation involves an activity that seems separate from a goal or reward (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Individuals often reported that, when offered an extrinsic reward, they felt coerced or pressured and automatically declined or acted the opposite of what was intended (Deci & Ryan, 2012). The proper type of motivation needed depends upon the context of the situation. The type of motivation required for an activity depends upon the skills needed to perform the activity and whether the type of motivator will undermine the individual's ability to perform the task (Deci & Ryan, 2012).

People pressured to obtain a specific goal or outcome within capitalism explains the use of 'high-stakes bonuses, rewards, and sanctions", which undermine an individual's ability to feel intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012, p. 99). Governments who apply 'high-stakes testing' mandates in the schools intend to increase student achievement and somehow also increase America's economic productivity (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The government assumes by placing the high-stakes testing as a mandated goal it will constitute a proper motivation for all educators by extrinsically motivating the educators with their paychecks (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Government officials and corporate reformers who support the high-stakes testing solution suggest behaviorists such as B.F. Skinner

(1953) supported their claims. Unfortunately, behaviorist B.F. Skinner (1953) reported operant theory rewarded 'behaviors' and not specific outcomes (Ryan & Brown, 2005; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). Typically, high-stakes testing and outcomes undermine teachers' and students' intrinsic motivation, encourage cheating and misrepresentation of the testing scores, and drive away best-teaching practices (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Negative consequences follow the implementation of extrinsic motivation toward a specific outcome. For example, in education, administrators and teachers have been accused of failing to report adequate scores or misrepresenting the data, students have simply dropped out of school at a higher rate, teachers have taught boring lessons directed to the tests instead of teaching to the content more often, and many sub-groups of students have been misrepresented either through curriculum services or testing opportunities while teachers were blamed for all of it. This example serves as negative consequences and a direct result of extrinsic motivation used towards a specific goal or outcome (Nichols & Berliner, 2007; Ryan & Brown, 2005; Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). Politicians refuse to discuss or collaborate on an improved process of educating our children as it would taint the get-tough on education and no excuses campaign already in progress (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Politicians and corporate reformers fail to acknowledge the negative consequences associated with their controlling behavior and ignore the basic needs of humans explained by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Even in business this type of controlling behavior to motivate a specific goal or

outcome from employees generates negative employee behaviors, such as cheating,

misrepresenting the data, bad business practices or shady business practices, and

unlawful practices just to get ahead (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Brown, 2005).

Business leaders assume the motivation tactic works because on the surface it appears the

task is complete and the leaders always win more than the employee could ever imagine

(Deci & Ryan, 2012). Even when employees engage in unlawful practices and are caught,

business leaders serve the employee to the courts as a scapegoat. These types of

motivation tactics appear to be motivational to everyone, which also sparks some

competition. However the business leaders are always in control, always win, and never

suffer the negative consequences of their controlling behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2012).

Obviously, this type of tactic is appealing to whoever is in charge; however, to the

scapegoat, the situation seems unfair and inappropriate.

As self-determination theory explains, a political system affects basic human

needs and individual autonomy in different ways (Deci & Ryan, 2012). A totalitarian

political system requires total control with very little opportunity for the citizens to enjoy

individual autonomy or provide input into the governmental process (Deci & Ryan,

2012). On the other hand, a democracy requires input from the citizens, usually through

voting, and has representatives at all levels to provide checks and balances.

Unfortunately, democracies lay prey to controlling individuals with great wealth (Deci &

Ryan, 2012; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). These controlling individuals obtain wealth and

power and may subtly influence control over individual citizens and political leaders,

taking away the individual's voice within the system (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Several

influential individuals control America's political system by influencing politicians to control the public education system and take away the teacher's right to a voice or even a professional vote (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Through their wealth and power, these business individuals influence the government, the media, and the citizens to dismantle the public-school system, close public-schools and open deregulated charter schools, turning public-school classrooms into test preparation centers immune to curiosity, interest, or motivation (Ravitch, 2010). Due to misplaced controlling behavior, greed, and the politician's control over the media, citizens allow the politicians and corporate reformers to take away their opportunity to educate our children and strengthen our democracy (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

The Third Drive

As the Technology Age arrived, the skills needed for our businesses changed dramatically, which meant the public education system needed to change as well (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Machines replaced many of our employees (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The skills needed and necessary for today were problem solvers or critical thinkers who worked well with a group or team of professionals (Pink, 2009). Unfortunately, the old way of doing business still plagues our schools (Fullan, 2011a). When President Obama accepted the Democratic nomination in 2008, he projected to give teachers more respect and a better wage (Ravitch, 2010). In return, he expected higher standards and more accountability (Education Week, 2009). With performance-pay looming in the background for teachers, educators are now paying the price for the seeming ignorance of policymakers (Pink, 2009). Politicians used extrinsic

motivation in its most simplistic nature, hoping to gain accountability which serves as a

band-aid to a complex issue in a complicated world (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch,

2010).

Daniel Pink is a management and business consultant (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Pink is a researcher and author on what works for organizations (Pink, 2012, 2009).

According to Pink (2009), one of the biggest barriers in business consists of the need for

power and control. Managers assume they are not tough enough if they do not have total

control over their employees (Pink, 2009). Again, Ressler and Thompson (2013) claimed

managers who cannot successfully manage the work end up managing the employees

instead. Pink (2009/2012) did not conduct basic research; however, he researched and

studied those who do conduct basic research. Pink (2009) concluded that the secret to

high performance, success, and satisfaction with both work and the home was intrinsic

motivation, or The Third Drive. When people are truly motivated, they possess

autonomy, mastery and competence, and purpose and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2012,

2000; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The Third Drive refers to the underlying factors motivating us to behave the way

that we choose to without the use of external rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009).

Years of experiences undoubtedly taught us that very little of our motivation connected

us to such rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic

motivation only leads to control and compliance (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation operates on a larger scale, which leads to autonomy, mastery, and

purpose motivating individuals from within (Pink, 2009).

Despite the overwhelming evidence from social science researchers concerning the theory of the Third Drive, people still ignored the discovery and continue to use and abuse principles of extrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivation incentives used to motivate us to think clearer, react quicker, and enhance creativity only result in fogging our minds and dulling our senses and creativity (Pink, 2009). "Rewards, by their very nature, narrow our focus" (Pink, 2009, p. 42). They diminish the joy and satisfaction that comes from the work itself (Pink, 2009).

Daniel Pink (2009) created a list called *The Seven Deadly Flaws* of using external rewards and punishments. The list serves as a reminder of the existence of the third drive and of the consequences if each flaw is not respected.

Carrots and Sticks: The Seven Deadly Flaws

1. "They could extinguish intrinsic motivation.

2. They could diminish performance.

3. They could crush creativity.

4. They could crowd out good behavior.

5. They could encourage cheating, shortcuts, and unethical behavior.

6. They could become addictive.

7. They could foster short-term thinking". (p. 57)

Researchers noted not all extrinsic motivation factors were bad (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivation survived an entire century with some amazing results (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Researchers pointed out extrinsic motivation worked better in some situations, and intrinsic motivation worked better in

other situations. When individuals acknowledge one and ignore the other is where failure sets in (Pink, 2009).

Autonomy

Just as Deci and Ryan (2000) referred to the three elements of the Third Drive as autonomy, competence, and relatedness, Pink (2009) referred to the same elements, naming them autonomy, mastery, and purpose. Autonomy, the first of the three elements that combine to create the Third Drive, refers to a state of engagement (Pink, 2009). Many individuals believe control is a variance of engagement (Pink, 2009). However, many believe autonomy to be the opposite of control (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Control creates compliance, whereas autonomy creates engagement. Only engagement produces mastery and competence (Pink, 2009).

Researchers attributed enhanced student achievement to engagement mixed with motivation (Schlechty, 2001; Woolfolk & Margetts, 2007). Student engagement requires motivation. Some teachers view student engagement as a result; however, the act of student engagement produces positive academic achievement as well (Russell, Ainley, & Frydenberg, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2009). True student engagement leads to the opportunity for academic achievement for the life of the individual student (Zyngier, 2008). Creating an engaged learning environment requires teachers to resolve student issues (Meyer, 2010; Smyth & McInerney, 2007), and teachers need to have time to listen and understand what the students are saying and feeling about school (Mitra & Serriere, 2012; O'Brien & Lai, 2011; Zyngier, 2011).

Schlechty (2011) reported student engagement occurred when the job assigned to the student was connected to a result with immediate value to the student. Properly motivated students are engaged students. Properly engaged students create skills to communicate and solve problems. However, students who receive dull work, forced work, and repetitive work (Bowen, 2003) are lead to ritualistic compliance and possibly rebellion (Schlechty, 2011).

A healthy human psyche strives first toward situations involving autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Autonomy refers to the perceived source of one's behavior (deCharms, 1968; Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 8; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Autonomy stems from human interest and values (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Most individuals attempt to merge autonomy with independence. However, the two concepts remain separate. Independence means not having to rely on external sources of influences, and autonomy focuses more on choice and control (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 8). "People are autonomous to the extent that they fully concur with what they are doing. Independence as used in SDT, means being self-reliant and not relying on or depending on another for guidance or support (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 243).

A sense of autonomy creates a positive motivation factor (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Autonomy disinhibits an individual's performance and attitude (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Deci and Ryan (2008, p. 19) stated that "practices and policies focused on motivating studies through sanctions, rewards, evaluations, and other external manipulations undermine quality engagement, whereas those that foster interest, value, and volition result in both greater persistence and better-quality learning". Ryan

and Deci (2017) reported, "Substantial evidence shows that autonomy-supportive versus controlling teaching strategies foster more autonomous forms of motivation in students and the higher quality engagement performance, and positive experience associated with it. Many schools fail to capitalize on students' intrinsic motivation and instead emphasize extrinsic motivators" (p. 351). Pulfrey, Darnon, and Butera (2013) conducted a study to determine the effect student grades played on individual autonomy and motivation directed towards the job. Both attributes affected interest toward the task, while autonomy played the greater motivational role (Pulfrey, Darnon, & Butera, 2013). Nordgren (2013) proposed mastery could be obtained by students when allowed to work at their pace for the mere pleasure of learning, allowing autonomous self-discovery. Gillard et al. (2015) reported teachers are no longer the resource of information for their students. People access information in a variety of places with resources like the internet, which allows teachers to create the motivation for students to become purposeful learners through autonomy. They need to "become motivators of purpose" (Gillard et al., 2015, p. 4). Under the current legislation, teachers are required to follow curriculum maps, guidelines, and direct instruction programs, thus withdrawing their ability to create individual interest or student autonomy.

In 2004, Deci and Ryan teamed up with Paul Baard of Fordham University and conducted a scientific study with a group of workers at an investment bank (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). Job satisfaction was reported from the workers who had 'autonomy-support' from their employers. These employers provided meaningful feedback, listened to the workers' point of view, allowed workers choice on the next step of a situation, and

gave them encouragement. As a result, employees experienced greater job satisfaction, which in turn led to greater performance (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). According to Baard, Deci, & Ryan (2004), another scientific study conducted at Cornell University examined 320 small businesses in all. Half of the businesses operated under workers' autonomy, while the other half operated under the typical top-down management style which did not involve workers' autonomy. The businesses operating under workers' autonomy reported growth at four times the rate and only had one-third the turnover rate (Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Power and control drive many organizations (Pink, 2009). The problem lies with the control factor. Control creates compliance, and there is no room for independence, autonomy, choice, creativity, or engagement (Pink, 2009). Control elements involve following the rules and doing what one is supposed to do, like a machine or a robot (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Deci and Ryan (2000) discovered the notions of control, creativity, and motivation, do not mix well. Autonomy includes a component of choice; however, autonomy is not just about intrinsic motivation or independence. Autonomy creates a choice with support and trust to work interdependently alongside co-employees (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

With the evolution of the Industrial Age businesses, education institutions, and governments need to adjust their ways of thinking, conducting business and preparing for a new generation (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). With the induction of the Technological Era, businesses, education institutions, and governments must once again adjust their thinking and general practices (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

During the Industrial Age, management was only as strong as the amount of control managers held over their employees (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). This new era calls for more creativity as the jobs require non-repetitive behaviors and innovative thinking (Pink, 2009).

The question then comes to mind, why do some businesses and educational institutions perform better than others (Pink, 2009)? The obvious answer speculates about whether the employees are more motivated or whether management retains more control and power over them (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). In theory, part of that answer proves to be true because the answer lies with management (Pink, 2009). The more one attempts to get a tighter grip and control over employees the more resistance one will experience (Pink, 2009; Ressler & Thompson, 2013). Extrinsic motivators only take a person so far as a motivator to work harder and perform better. Even money as a motivator only takes a person so far. Once the initial motivation wears off, the person will still be stuck with the same job they find displeasure with now. Individuals need to find new ways to motivate themselves to get out of bed and go to work (Pink, 2009).

Management has changed very little in the last hundred years or so (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). A manager's goal was compliance through power, control, and extrinsic motivators (Pink, 2009). Unfortunately, human nature operates in a different way (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Many individuals confuse the human condition and cannot explain why they behave the way they do (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). However, the question remains why businesses, education institutions, and governments still manage in the same fashion and expect different results (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009)?

Albert Einstein once indicated the definition of insanity was to repeat the same behaviors and expect different results (Pink, 2009). Changing a goal, program, method, or title affects nothing and does not change the cultural core of a business, school, or government (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Working conditions ranked one of the highest reasons why motivation was low or non-existent (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). As reported before by Deci, & Ryan (2000), and by Pink (2009), the three essentials to the third drive include autonomy, mastery or competence, and purpose or relatedness. Autonomy creates engagement. Engagement creates mastery or skill. The positive experience creates purpose and motivation or the Third Drive which is intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Management needs to begin with autonomy (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Pink (2009) reported on four essential factors that created the concept of autonomy, including task, time, technique, and team.

Task. During the Industrial Age, workers learned to do a specific task in a specific way (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Now, workers are handed a list of task requirements; however, there are no handbooks on how to accomplish these tasks (Pink, 2009). Many tasks simply require a result or outcome, with some specific routine entities along the way (Pink, 2009). However, if the employee plans their interpretation of the work, this type of work internally motivates employees through autonomy (Pink, 2009). Through autonomy, management needs to embrace the wisdom and creative exploration of the employee to be innovative (Pink, 2009). Exploration can only be

appreciated through experience. Opportunities can only be experienced through autonomy (Pink, 2009).

Time. Another non-negotiable issue considered with autonomy is time (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Some professions are tied to specific hours, like teaching hours in school supervising children, or billable hours, like lawyers or plumbers (Pink, 2009). Some organizations redesigned how they did business (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Time clocks were removed, and accountability came into play through performance and getting the work done (Pink, 2009). Performance referred to shifts being covered, and work being completed without having someone look over your shoulder (Pink, 2009). The bottom line was, when employees were granted the autonomy of time, it proved beneficial for both employee and employer. The end result did not dictate the negative expectation. The journey experienced along the way is what makes the work motivating by itself (Pink, 2009).

Technique. The technique became the third aspect relating to autonomy (Pink, 2009). A technique refers to the how of the job. Many organizations include strict guidelines and scripts relating to the intricacies of a task. These jobs have become mundane, boring, routine, and unsatisfying. Even in the education profession, many teachers become tied down with an academic program or method or test review that is often scripted with no room for creativity (Pink, 2009). Progressive businesses found, by training their employees to be creative thinkers and problem solvers, they allowed their employees the chance to do their jobs without time limits and other restrictions (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Team. The team became the final aspect relating to autonomy (Pink, 2009). The opportunity to choose the people with whom one will work empowers employees. In most cases the opportunity rarely becomes available. How well a team of individuals work together is related directly to the quality of the finished product or results (Pink, 2009). The concept of team relates to the product of collective efforts and individual talent shared with other team members. Individual talent only benefits the work when the individual shares the experience and teaches with expertise (Pink, 2009).

Autonomy in any profession is expanded widely (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Every individual needs some degree of autonomy (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). A greater level of autonomy was largely why the earliest immigrants to today's immigrants migrated to this great land, to fulfill their dreams of pursuing happiness and making it on their own without being controlled by governments (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivation expects autonomy to lead to irresponsibility; whereas, intrinsic motivation expects autonomy to lead to more accountability (Pink, 2009). Management becomes the cornerstone for motivated employees. Treated fairly, with dignity and respect, employees will perform (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ressler & Thompson, 2013). However, performance decreases proportionately when employees are treated poorly and pounced on when they make mistakes (Pink, 2009; Ressler & Thompson, 2013).

Competence, Engagement, and Mastery

One of the second elements a healthy human psyche strives toward is situations of competence (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Humans need to feel capable, useful, and effective within their environments (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Harter, 1983; White, 1959).

This basic need for competence drives individuals to seek situations that enhance their skills and capabilities. "Competence is not, then, an attained skill or capability, but rather a felt sense of confidence that affects action (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7).

True happiness motivates individuals to work harder, work longer, and be truly engaged (Pink, 2009). Engagement paves the pathway to mastery (Pink, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Management needed to take on a new role in the Technological Era (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Management needed to create an environment conducive to creative thinking. Through autonomy, mastery, and purpose, management creates the working environment to produce creative leaders who are accountable and responsible for their work practices because they are motivated to succeed from within (Pink, 2009).

According to the scientifically mixed studies of Csikszentmihalyi (1990), "The quality of life depends on two factors: how individuals experience work, and the relationships they experience with others" (p. 164). Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008) stated experiences of a personal nature and work-related ones determine the quality of one's life. Aristotle once commented that man's search for happiness was often misguided as men sought out the goals they thought would make them happy (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Despite the ease with which we live our every-day lives in the Technological Age, people still typically report feelings of wasted time with too many periods of time in which they feel anxious and bored (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Happiness is not something that happens. It is not the result of good fortune or random chance. It is not something that money can buy or power command.

It does not depend on outside events, but, rather, on how we interpret them.

Happiness, in fact, is a condition that must be prepared for, cultivated, and

defended privately by each person. People who learn to control inner experience

will be able to determine the quality of their lives, which is as close as any of

us can come to being happy. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 2)

Happiness results in positive experiences; individuals need to stop aiming for an end goal

(Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Individuals who aim for an end result,

become further off course. The experience itself is what generates happiness

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) was a founding scientific researcher of what he

described as an optimal experience or 'the flow'. Many times, optimal experiences

described were not enjoyable or even remarkable until after the experience was over. An

optimal experience means hard work and many times becomes frustrating and boring.

The old saying that hard work pays off was what often led to mastery, a place in life that

only few could experience and understand. "The best moments usually occur when a

person's body or mind is stretched to its limits in a voluntary effort to accomplish

something difficult and worthwhile. Optimal experience is thus something we make

happen" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 3).

The quality of life holds a different meaning for everyone (Csikszentmihalyi,

1990, 2008). All of us imagine an idea or mental image of experiences we want to have

or things we wish to accomplish before our lives are through. These goals, or rather

wishes, become the measuring stick to rate the quality of one's life. This was about the

time that Csikszentmihalyi (1990) observed a commonality among these differing

individuals from all over the world in as many different pathways of life. These people all

experienced what was referred to as 'the flow'. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) described the

flow as, "The state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems

to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for

the sheer sake of doing it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 4). Scientific studies conducted all

over the world, with a variety of individuals, with a variety of professionals, cultures, and

backgrounds held similar conclusions (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). These individuals

all described their personal flow experience in the same manner (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990,

2008).

  As soon as we meet our basic needs of food, shelter, and clothing, our humanistic

thoughts turn to those experiences and feelings of contentment and happiness

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Pink, 2009). Individuals able to experience contentment

with their lives are not necessarily rich and powerful. The quality of life equates with

feelings of contentment and happiness and not with materialistic endeavors. The quality

of life many times equates with control over one's life, a lifetime of learning, and being

open to a variety of experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

  The natural illusion perceived is to believe that money, power, social status, and

possessions create one's quality of life (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Pink, 2009). In

reality, these aspects allow comfort in one's life; however, the actual quality remains

unaffected. To overcome the norm of materialistic illusions leading to a quality of life,

one must take control of life and not let the influences of others dictate what quality of

life is like (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). As parents, we teach our children to develop

good habits to ensure the quality of life for us as adults (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Teachers and college professors convince students that boring classes and test

preparations will benefit us in the long run. Business executives convince employees to

devote their entire lives to the company in hopes that one day the promotion will be

everything they ever dreamed. The problem with these perceptions is that they belong to

someone else. Success equates to a quality life, which means something different for

everyone (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Many people spend their whole lives chasing these dreams, working hard, making

a good living, only to find their quality of life is not what they thought it would be

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Most individuals in America fixate on monetary riches,

social prestige, and power. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) suggested two main strategies to aid

in the pursuit of a quality life. The first suggested strategy is to match external conditions

with goals. The environment is vast with a variety of settings. If a person feels

uncomfortable or unsafe living inside the city, then, move to the suburbs, or a town. The

second suggested strategy is to adapt the experience of external conditions so that it

aligns with goals. So, when people take precautions to move to a smaller town, then they

should not allow themselves to fear the unknown. One must allow peace of mind to enter

one's thoughts when it is appropriate (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

When individuals succeed in becoming wealthy or powerful in some capacity,

they need to be wary of these deceptive symbols of proposed happiness

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Wealth, power, and pleasure by themselves equate to

feelings of comfort and not to the quality of life. These attributes are often made into the

goals for happiness when, in reality, they are only capable of making us feel comfortable

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). True happiness contains something much more, and

everyone can achieve it (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Pleasure or enjoyment equals comfort and not the quality of life

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). The experience of enjoyment fills a need or desire or

helps maintain a level of comfort. Pleasure or enjoyment produces an experience that will

not maintain psychological growth. The experiences produce unchallenging situations

and will not create new learning situations lending to the development of one's self. In

those situations an individual develops a short period of joy. However the experience is

not a direct result of those pleasurable experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Young children and toddlers show a great example of this type of growth

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Every day young children create a new experience as

they discover new concepts, learn new words, and challenge themselves with new

experiences. This natural progression between development and pleasure tends to fade

with age. The introduction of schooling seems to be the time when the excitement of

learning disappears, as mastering new skills becomes a tedious exercise (Ryan & Deci,

2017). The only motivation happens when extrinsic measures came into play

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Unfortunately, the motivation and effort lessen, because

the motivation is not coming from within. In education, the deceptive goal for happiness

seems to be test scores (Kohn, 2011). The only pleasure derived from those experiences

is that the student, parents, and teachers can rest for a while until the next testing situation

(Kohn, 2011). Children are not motivated to work for their learning (Pink, 2009). Many school experiences are filled with tests, assignments, and direct instruction. These experiences are not motivating to the masses by themselves (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Educators are pressured to teach a demanding curriculum filled with assessments, and direct instruction is not motivating to anyone (Fullan, 2011a). Merit pay systems continue to apply pressure to the learning experience as teacher paychecks are directly linked to the performance of their students on comprehensive yearly tests (Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009). Policymakers and politicians create the confines due to public pressure to compete over worldwide test scores (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Accountability means something new as the concept almost single-handedly has taken all the pleasure and enjoyment out of the learning experience (Pink, 2009). The only motivation left seemed to be, how fast can students and teachers remove themselves from this experience (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). To counteract public education's dilemma, Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008) reported on eight major components of enjoyment.

1. "The experience usually occurs when we confront tasks we have a chance of completing.

2. We must be able to concentrate on what we are doing.

3. The concentration is usually possible because the task undertaken has clear goals.

4. Immediate feedback.

5. One acts with a deep but effortless involvement that removes from awareness the worries and frustrations of every-day life.

6. Enjoyable experiences allow people to exercise a sense of control over their actions.

7. Concern for the self-disappears, yet paradoxically the sense of self emerges stronger after the flow experience is over.

8. The sense of the duration of time is altered; hours pass by in minutes, and minutes can stretch out to seem like hours". (p. 49)

These eight major components of enjoyment are what individuals spend evenings, weekends, holidays, and vacations attempting to duplicate in the pursuit of happiness. "The combination of all these elements causes a sense of deep enjoyment that is so rewarding people feel that expending a great deal of energy is worthwhile simply to be able to feel it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 49). Experiences of enjoyment can become flow experiences; however, not all flow experiences can be described as enjoyable, at least in the beginning because of all the hard work involved (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

In many situations, a sense of enjoyment comes from leisure activities because when bad things occur, and they will, one does not need to worry about the consequences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). When bad things occur at work, the consequences may be devastating. Losing control over a situation is what usually prevents one from experiencing a flow situation. The possibility of negative consequences prevents individuals from entering the state of mind necessary to achieve such an experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). However, failure is a part of learning (Pink, 2009; Ressler & Thompson, 2013). In our society, failure is unacceptable and shunned. So, in

response, individuals play it safe as they approach life, allowing negative thoughts to invade their consciousness and impact their ability to reach a state of mind where a flow situation may be experienced (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Another component of a flow experience is the activity needs to be challenging (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Challenging means different things to different people. In this instance, challenging means not too easy and not so difficult that it becomes frustrating. For an activity to become challenging, one must possess the skills necessary to complete the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). This is where all the hard, boring work comes in. If the necessary skills are absent, the activity becomes meaningless. Entering a competition is a good way to challenge oneself. However, when the competition turns into a beating, it is no longer challenging, or a way to enhance one's skills. The competition turns into a disaster, and the effects are no longer positive (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Although a flow experience appears to be effortless, nothing could be further from the truth (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Flow experiences require a great deal of skilled performance. The skilled performance is a combination of mental and physical applications working together as a cohesive unit (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). A lack of concentration ends the experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). In life, we keep interrupting the flow with doubting questions. However, flow requires something besides reflection. The reflection causes us to stop the flow, to stop the action. Flow requires action, not reflection (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Goals are also necessary to achieve flow experiences (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Flow experiences include immediate feedback and are clear and concise. Trivial goals are not conducive to flow experiences. The goal needs to contain meaning and a realistic challenge (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Goals need to be clear, concise, and specific (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). In some creative situations, goals may not be specific; however, the individual needs to develop a strong sense of what needs to be done to enter a flow experience situation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

The type of immediate feedback required for a flow experience depends on the activity itself (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Some situations seem conducive to any feedback. Many times, the feedback itself is unimportant. What is important is the symbolism of the flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Did the person hit the golf ball where they intended? Did the children learn what was taught? The point is the feedback communicated whether the goal was achieved (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

In flow experiences, concentration is one of the most common and important factors (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Another reported factor during a flow experience was that the concentration was so great on the task at hand, that the memory of unpleasant or unimportant issues was undetectable. Our regular states of mind allow anxieties and outside thoughts to invade our state of consciousness. During a flow experience, the demands of the activity do not allow unimportant thoughts to impede the experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

During a flow experience, most individuals describe a sense of control, or rather, a situation without worry or sense of losing control (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). This sense of control is reported during high-risk situations, such as with policemen, firemen, and military personnel (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Pink, 2009). Many people speculated these professionals might be thrill seekers. However, for many of these individuals, that observation proved inaccurate (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Pink, 2009). During a flow experience, the individual enjoyed the ability to control dangerous situations and not the risky behavior itself. The main factor addressed was that situations that produce flow experiences, especially the high-risk ones, provide the individual with the opportunities to develop skills reducing the risk and elevate the level of control the individual has over the situation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). The goal obtained is a sense of control, minimizing doubt and anxiety (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

In regular life, the focus concentrates on consciousness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008) stressed that such a focus invited doubt and anxiety into the mind, with clouded thoughts, perceptions, and judgments. Many participants of flow experiences reported a sense of losing oneself. Losing oneself developed a sense of being separate, and yet, a sense of being as one with the environment. The sense lost was a sense of self-awareness and did not refer to a state of consciousness. No worries, no anxiety, and no doubts (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Another common description of a flow experience contains the time element (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). So much concentration on activity was present that time seemed to float away without memory. Hours seemed like minutes; minutes seemed like seconds, and the time just

disappeared. It was also important to note that the exception to the rule may also be true (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Certain professionals, such as surgeons or sports figures, found enjoyment in their work, yet, the timing must be exact. So, in these instances, a sense of losing time may not be the best description (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

The focus of a flow experience included that it was an end in itself (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). The reward of such an experience was found within the activity itself. There cannot be a future reward or benefit derived from the activity, or it cannot be considered to be a truly optimal experience. One who engages in the activity itself is supposed to benefit from the engagement itself (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Many enjoyable activities occur not by chance (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). These enjoyable activities, different from pleasurable activities, required effort that most individuals were unwilling to exert in the beginning. However, once the activity began to unfold and positive feedback was given, the individual may begin to experience intrinsic motivation to continue the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Situations of flow allowed individuals to experience a different level of life (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Individuals experience enjoyment rather than boredom, a feeling of control, rather than helplessness, psychic energy to promote one's self, rather than working towards external goals (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Individuals feel imprisoned, anxiously awaiting the supposed rewards of the future, rather than experiencing the benefits now when experiencing an intrinsically rewarding life. The flow experience manipulates the individual to be good or evil like anything else

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). A good flow experience extends the potential to

contribute meaning and complexity to one's self (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Relatedness or Purpose

The third element a healthy human psyche strives toward is situations of

relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Relatedness refers to a human connection to other

individuals, and, perhaps, a sense of belonging to a group or community (Baumeister &

Leary, 1995; Bowlby, 1979; Harlow, 1958; Ryan, 1995). Relatedness refers not to an

outcome (i.e. sex) or social status (i.e. spouse or group member). Instead the relationship

consists of the strong bond itself or secure unity (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7).

The third factor relating to intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive, included

relatedness as indicated by Deci and Ryan (2000), or purpose as indicated by Pink

(2009). Both terms relate to the same concept of why. Purpose operates on a grand scale

much larger than ourselves. As we discussed earlier, individuals with autonomy

performed at high levels as they worked towards mastery and competence and many

times enjoyed optimal experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008; Pink, 2009). Purpose

takes us a step further (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivation eludes the notion of purpose as

a motivating factor (Pink, 2009). Intrinsic motivation acknowledges this aspect of the

human condition to be one of the most important and powerful tools concerning human

motivation (Pink, 2009). According to Pink (2009), purpose, as a motivational factor, is

organized into three categories: goals, words, and policies.

Extrinsic motivation operates under the assumption that employees work for

profit alone (Pink, 2009). Intrinsic motivation suggests employees work for profit as a

biological need; however, many individuals are in search of a larger purpose. Many

employees want to work for a cause rather than profit (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Several businesses moved from a strict profit maximization model to a purpose

maximization model or rather a combination of the two models. The result gave back to

the community while making a fair living (Pink, 2009).

The purpose of an endeavor begged the question why (Pink, 2009). The questions

that came to mind required individuals to reflect on the things people do and who

benefited from those actions (Pink, 2009). People want to be a part of a greater purpose.

People typically settled for the old way of doing things and felt uneasy with the situation

(Pink, 2009). People want to know why, and words can be a powerful tool to deliver the

message (Pink, 2009).

Management listed goals they needed to achieve (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Management's job includes motivating employees to do the best job they can with

realistic expectations. Words make a difference (Pink, 2009). Realistic goals concerned

with humanistic traits fire an individual's soul with ideals like honor, truth, respect, love,

and justice to motivate the masses (Pink, 2009). "Humanize what people say and you

may well humanize what they do" (Pink, 2009, p. 137).

Brief History of Motivational Research

Two scientists from the twentieth century observed behaviors that should have

changed our world, the way we do business, the way we teach our students, and the way

we interact with other people (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The science was dismissed and

continues to be ignored by many individuals today (Pink, 2009). Harry F. Harlow from

the University of Wisconsin began his work in the 1940's with quantitative research, uncovering the power of the Third Drive or intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). In the 1960's, Edward Deci continued the experiment from Carnegie Mellon University (Pink, 2009). Basic human behavior operated under the extrinsic motivation model of rewards and punishments or extrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivators are motivations that are necessary to motivate individuals to behave positively or negatively towards a situation. Extrinsic motivation researchers believe good behavior must be rewarded, while unacceptable behavior must be punished (Pink, 2009). Harry Harlow's work in the 1940's, Edward Deci's work in the 1970's, and Deci and Richard Ryan's continued work in the 1980's and 1990's, paved a new way of perceiving how motivation really works, beyond the general notion of rewards and punishments, referred to as the Third Drive or intrinsic motivation (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Harry F. Harlow worked as a professor of psychology at the University of Wisconsin in the 1940's and was known worldwide for establishing a laboratory to study primate behavior (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). In 1949, Harlow and colleagues studied the effects of motivational theories and achievement with monkeys. During this time, people accepted two theories of motivation by psychologists, the biological drive and extrinsic motivation, or rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009). The biological drive referred to the need to satisfy a human's or other animal's desire to eat when hungry, to drink when thirsty, and to copulate to satisfy any carnal urges (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivators, more commonly referred to as rewards and punishments, were simplistic in nature (Pink, 2009). Reward good behavior and punish bad behavior (Pink, 2009).

Harlow and associates in the early 1950's designed some puzzles for the primates with the intent to motivate them further through rewards and to discourage others through punishment (Pink, 2009). What they discovered was that the monkey's acquired focus, determination, and some fulfillment in solving the puzzles without the use of rewards and punishments. The monkeys enjoyed solving the puzzles simply because they wanted to (Pink, 2009). Harlow eventually labeled this new concept of motivation intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009).

Later, Harlow (1953) predicted that if the primates found pleasure with the puzzles, then, by rewarding the primates, the rewards would increase the monkeys' performance. When Harlow (1953) tested his hypothesis, he found the monkeys made more mistakes when given a reward. The monkeys also focused less, with less determination, and less enjoyment when offered a reward. Harlow reported, if our society desires to comprehend the human condition, we must acknowledge and study the attributes of this third drive (Harlow, 1953).

Unfortunately, Harlow pursued other interests and dropped the idea of the Third Drive any further (Pink, 2009). In 1969 a graduate student, Edward Deci, (1969) theorized the current ideas shared on the topic of motivation as incomplete and sought out Dr. Harlow's earlier findings. Deci (1969) conducted a three-day quantitative study like Harlow's (1953) study. However, Deci (1969) used humans as participants with games instead of primates. One group played for pay based on performance and the other group simply played the games when they felt like it. In the beginning, the paid group earned quite a bit. The second group played a bit, but not as much as the paid group. By the third

day, Deci told the participants of the paid group that the money was gone, and they would

not be paid for this session, but the group could continue to play if they desired. The

results were amazing. The paid group played significantly less time. Deci (1971) reported

using money as an external reward caused the group to lose intrinsic interest in the

games. Deci (1971) further concluded humans tend to seek out unique experiences and

challenges and have an innate curiosity to learn and grow.

Frederick Winslow Taylor, an engineer in the early 1900's, acknowledged the

flaw in the business as the usual style of management (Taylor, 1911, 2007). In 1911,

Frederick Taylor first introduced the theory of scientific management in his book,

Principles of Scientific Management (1911, 2007). Taylor's research in the steel industry

reported four principles of scientific management. The book described how jobs might be

broken down, and employees could be taught how to perform with increased efficiency

and productivity. During the Industrial Age, the art of perfecting an assembly line or team

of workers meant success. The jobs themselves became boring and repetitive, meaning a

new form of motivation needed to be implemented (Pink, 2009; Taylor, 1911, 2007).

Taylor used extrinsic motivation or rewarded the correct behavior and punished the

incorrect behavior and found great success (Pink, 2009). Taylor also took the strategy a

step further as he was one of the first leaders in the business sector to address the

importance of the relationship between managers and employees (Taylor, 1911, 2007).

As the twentieth century continued, and as the economy developed and became

more complex, employers came to recognize that the extrinsic motivation system needed

to grow and develop as well (Pink, 2009). Abraham Maslow, a former student of Harry

Maslow, helped to develop the field of humanistic psychology through scientific research (Pink, 2009). In the 1950's, Maslow (Pink, 2009) discovered discrepancies in the belief that humans and animals alike would not adhere to the theory of seeking out positive stimuli, while avoiding negative stimuli. Likewise, in the 1960's, Douglas McGregor, an MIT management professor, incorporated these theories of Maslow's into the business world (Pink, 2009). McGregor disagreed with the idea that humans must be driven by rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009). McGregor believed, if managers and leaders could respect the idea of a higher drive of behavior, businesses and employees could benefit and profit together (Pink, 2009).

Also, in the 1960's, a psychologist named Frederick Herzberg introduced two new concepts to the world of psychology (Pink, 2009). The first concept introduced what Herzberg called hygiene factors or extrinsic rewards in the business world such as a salary, the working conditions, and job satisfaction (Pink, 2009). The second concept introduced what Herzberg referred to as motivators or the joy one gets from the job itself, and personal achievement (Pink, 2009). Herzberg determined the hygiene factors were nice to receive but unnecessary in providing motivation and, in reality, did nothing to promote motivation and/or productivity (Pink, 2009). However, Herzberg concluded there was a significant difference with the motivating factors (Pink, 2009). Herzberg noticed as employees benefited from the motivating factors, productivity increased (Pink, 2009).

Unfortunately, many businesses in the United States refuse to embrace or even acknowledge such concepts and continue to offer only extrinsic motivators such as raises,

bonuses, incentive plans, and opportunities for advancement as reasons to be motivated and increase productivity (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). This general approach to productivity is still used today throughout the United States (Pink, 2009). The process itself is easy to comprehend, easy to monitor, and easy to enforce for the managers. It seemed to make sense (Pink, 2009).

In the summer of 1969, when Edward Deci, a graduate student, picked up where Harlow left off, intrinsic motivation began to make sense (Pink, 2009). Deci (1971) conducted quantitative scientific experiments using puzzles and rewards and punishments to examine the effects of positive and negative stimuli. Deci (1971) concluded that human behavior was not simply motivated by rewards and punishments. Intrinsic motivation contradicted outcomes and reversed intended behaviors (Deci, 1971; Pink, 2009). Deci's (1971) work was considered controversial simply because no one could conceive rewards having a negative effect (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Deci (Deci & Ryan, 2008) continued this research on intrinsic motivation or the Third Drive with consistent results (Pink, 2009). According to Deci, human beings are not as simple-minded as they might seem. They are complex creatures who seek out challenges and new experiences to enrich their lives (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Elliot & Dweck, 2005).

Since graduate school in the 1960's, Edward Deci researched and studied the elements and conditions of human behavior and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008, 2002; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000). What drives living things to do the things that they do? For 40 years Deci researched human motivation, which led to his co-authored Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Deci was

a professor of psychology and Gowen Professor in the social sciences at the University of

Rochester. Edward Deci and Richard Ryan developed this theory at the University of

Rochester, where they directed pre- and post-doctoral programs elaborating on

motivation and self-determination theory (Pink, 2009).

Money as a Motivator

      Money was always the great motivator of the twentieth century, so if we offer

incentives to teach better and take away money when students do not perform,

educational reform will be successful (Pink, 2009). Sandel (2012) reported that New

York City districts attempted to pay students for good test scores. The districts found the

incentive proved useless. Chicago tried the same thing and found the cash incentive

improved attendance, but not test scores (Sandel, 2012). Goldstein (2014) reported cities

across the United States attempted to offer teacher bonuses for higher student test scores

in the 1920's, the 1960's, the 1980's, and currently, just to discover the act was

unsuccessful (p.6). Edward Deci (1971) reported using money as an external reward puts

a negative impact on the individual's ability to focus, concentrate, be creative, innovate,

and perform at high levels of higher order thinking. In many ways, money is being used

as a reward and punishment, all control and power is relinquished due to the individual's

influencing feelings of anger and resentment due to the situation (Deci, 1971; Pink,

2009). Money is a biological need as it represents the food and shelter all humans need.

However, money used as an external reward creates a situation in which the benefactor is

no longer in control, developing feelings of anger and resentment towards the situation,

resulting in the individual not being able to focus and perform at the levels intended. The results expected were the opposite of what was intended (Deci, 1971; Pink, 2009).

Such incentives used to encourage creativity, innovation, and quicker and clearer minds, only diminish our ability to think and dull our senses, leaving us unable to create or discover effectively (Pink, 2009). "Rewards, by their very nature, narrow our focus" (Pink, 2009, p. 42). Actions required for teaching involve higher order thinking, creativity, discovery, innovation, the ability to make mistakes and learn from them, as well as focus. These abilities operate best under intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivators, rewards and punishments, for such actions will only diminish the individual's ability to focus on the task at hand (Pink, 2009).

Most people believe people will do anything for money (Pink, 2009). To an extent, money is a motivator, but it is a biological or extrinsic motivator (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). Every job carries with it an acceptable baseline wage, or one can expect a certain baseline pay depending on the task. The jobs themselves, once the job was learned, often became tedious and boring, and never changed (Pink, 2009). Money became a great incentive to keep up the pace (Pink, 2009). However, in today's job market the job changes daily (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Businesses want no part in acknowledging that the learning process means making mistakes (Ravitch, 2010). Any task that requires creative thought, innovation, discovery, or new learning will be substantially diminished in their capacity with the offer of a reward of any kind (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The problem lies in the brain (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Once an offer of a reward is made, the mind cannot make

allowances or shift the focus to the main task-at-hand (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The focus remains on the reward or the punishment. Ironically, when it is the motivator,

the body's self-defense mechanisms that ultimately overwhelm the individual activate;

and the task will end in failure or, at least, be diminished to some capacity (Pink, 2009;

Ryan & Deci, 2000). So, managers operate with yesterday's science, arrive in our schools

with rewards and punishments, and end up sabotaging the entire process (Pink, 2009).

Top-down management practices allow no room for error (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Time allotted for learning, or time to create, discover, reflect, or innovate is discouraged

or outlawed (Pink, 2009). Making mistakes means punishment (Pink, 2009; Ravitch,

2010). However, the learning process includes making mistakes (Pink, 2009). It seems

that politicians and corporate reformers allotted no room for mistakes (Pink, 2009). The

train of thought of business leaders is that, by the end of the year, students should not be

making mistakes on the comprehensive end of the year standardized tests (Pink, 2009;

Ravitch, 2010).

When one talks about money as a motivational factor, there are just a few things

one must consider (Pink, 2009). First, everyone needs to make a living (Pink, 2009).

Therefore, money is needed by everyone (Pink, 2009). In this century, money is

considered as a biological need (Pink, 2009). When employers use money as a sole

motivator, they invite different aspects into the equation (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci,

2000). For instance, offer an unfair baseline salary, and employees react poorly towards

the offer. Despite any offerings of stipends or bonuses, the reaction remains negative

(Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). People fixate on the negative

connotation rendering them unable to focus on the main task at hand, or to negotiate an

acceptable salary (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The optimal way to use money as a

motivating agent consists of offering a fair baseline (Pink, 2009). By doing this,

employees understand and acknowledge the gesture and turn their focus elsewhere.

Bonuses and stipends used to motivate employees afterward to perform above and

beyond the minimal requirements are successful because their basic biological needs are

met (Pink, 2009). Now that the focus fixated on the gesture and not the baseline, the

employees relaxed and turned their focus towards high performance (Pink, 2009).

Rewards consist of more than just money (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Rewards

can be used in all kinds of situations (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). However, beware how

and where one introduces a reward as it may not bring about the desired result (Pink,

2009). In today's technological world, acknowledging and respecting intrinsic

motivational factors, or the Third Drive, will bring success in matters of motivation while

ignoring them will bring failure (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 2001;

Pink, 2009).

Consider the third drive theory with children (Pink, 2009). Mark Lepper, David

Greene, and Robert Nisbett (1973) conducted studies with children using art activities

during free time by observing three separate groups. All the children chosen for the study

had enjoyed art before the study began. The groups were assembled by the expected-

award group, unexpected-award group, and no-award group. Over time, researchers

found that the expected-award group lost interest, despite given the reward, while the

other two groups continued to find enjoyment in the activity. Not expecting a reward did

not diminish the children's third drive. By expecting a reward, the children experienced a negative impact on their intrinsic motivation (Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973). Researchers reflected that by offering a reward, the children's autonomy forfeited, and they were no longer in control. The issue changed from rewards to power and control (Pink, 2009).

Why Teach?

Many teachers join the field of education because they hold a sense of moral purpose (Day, 2004; Fullan, 2011b; Leithwood, 2007). Most teachers reported through interviews and surveys, the reason they became teachers was to nurture some psychological need or intrinsic motivation (Dornyei, 2001; Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Teachers taught because they wanted to make a difference in children's lives (Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012; Ashiedu &Scott-Ladd, 2012;). Education seemed to be a profession where individuals were willing to surrender professional salaries and appropriate social recognition to satisfy their psychological needs or teaching efficacy (Dornyei, 2001; Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006).

A survey issued by the nonprofit organization, Public Agenda, in 2000, was given to 802 college students under the age of 30 who chose professions other than teaching (Public Agenda, 2006). Half of the students reported teaching was one of many jobs they would consider, 18% said they would very seriously consider teaching, and 32% said they could never imagine teaching (Public Agenda, 2006). Respondents also made continual responses towards teachers being underpaid (78 percent), teachers did not have

reasonable opportunities for advancement (69 percent), and teachers were not respected or appreciated (66 percent) (Public Agenda, 2006).

Despite the reasons why most individuals joined the teaching profession, there were several negative aspects of teaching (Fullan, 2009). In a study administered by Provasnik and Dorfman (2005) they discovered a significant relationship between the reasons why some teachers transferred, and others left the profession entirely. Reasons for dissatisfaction included: a lack of planning time, no appropriate break times, heavy workloads, low salaries, and behavior students. Dornyei (2001) indicated five general demotivating factors, which accounted for job dissatisfaction.

1. The particularly stressful nature of most teaching jobs.

2. The inhibition of teacher autonomy by set curricula, standardized tests, imposed teaching methods, government mandated policies, and other institutional constraints.

3. Insufficient self-efficacy on most teachers' part due to inappropriate training.

4. Content repetitiveness and limited potential for intellectual development.

5. Inadequate career structure. (p. 165)

"I am certain that several other jobs also share some of these features, but I cannot think of any other qualified profession where almost every aspect of the motivational power base is being challenged" (Dornyei, 2001, p. 165). In a research study by Lindsey Smethem (2007), positive early experiences of success increased the motivation of the educator. However, negative experiences including stress, heavy workload, the behavior

of students, and relationships with colleagues or the culture of the school were found to impact the educator regarding job dissatisfaction and teacher burnout (Smethem, 2007).

Researchers continued to report one of the most significant factors affecting student achievement is access to a skillful teacher (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Kuhn, 2014; Thornton, Perreault, & Jennings, 2008). Despite the student achievement research and the fact many educators became teachers to satisfy their intrinsic motivation to fulfill a moral purpose, education continues to be a profession of high turnover rates (Planty et al., 2008; Thornton, Perreault, & Jennings, 2008; Yarrow, 2009). Linda Darling-Hammond produced a survey in 1999 which stated at least 30% of beginning teachers leave the profession entirely in the first five years. The *Project on the Next Generation of Teachers* (Johnson et al., 2004) reported that, in the United States, 50% of beginning teachers leave the profession in the first five years, and 22% leave in the first two years. The *National Center for Education Statistics* reported in the 2003-04 school year that 17% of the K – 12 private and public-school teachers or 621,000 teachers left their schools. The interesting statistic from the same report (2003-2004) was that the turnover rate for high-poverty schools was significantly higher than low-poverty schools or 21% versus 14%.

Many teachers reported the constant negative feedback from policymakers, administrators, and the community as the significant reason why they left the profession (Brill, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers are indirectly responsible for the academic, physical, and moral learning of every student, while policymakers determine the how, why, and what's of the curriculum. The hours are

unbelievable, and there is no advancement or recognition of any kind (Moulthrop, Calegari, Eggers, 2006). Policymakers attempting to reform public education, seemed to attack many teacher's abilities to teach and negatively isolated subject areas in need of improvement indicated by standardized testing (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). A longitudinal study administered by Day et al., (2006) indicated a teacher's dedication, identity, and ability to cope with day to day dilemmas were closely associated with the levels of student achievement. Pollard (2005) further contended that student performance on standardized testing remains the only acceptable indicator of teacher effectiveness and now serves as a DE motivator to educators in the profession. Teachers denied access to intrinsic motivation experiences in the classroom tend to burnout quicker and possibly leave the profession altogether (Tomic & Tomic, 2008).

Regardless of the rewarding emotional experiences many teachers enjoy, several teachers experience 'a crisis of faith' or disappointments with the profession of teaching (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006, p. 157). As a profession, teachers make numerous sacrifices in order to make a difference in the lives of their students (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Of course, every profession experiences some degree of doubt; however, when teachers begin to doubt their profession, the teachers feel as though they are letting down their students, their community, and themselves (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). As teachers become worn down or even burned out because of their weary faith, other disappointments with the profession begin to overshadow their moral purpose (Fullan, 2011b; Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006).

Other teachers who left the profession claim demotivating factors such as low salaries, time spent, no recognition, no advancement opportunities, and mountains of stress added by the negative feedback teachers receive almost daily (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Once an educator's moral purpose is constantly badgered and called into question, that educator's faith typically waivers (Fullan, 2009). Many educators begin to question themselves, wondering whether the sacrifices they are making are too much to ask (Fullan, 2011b).

In today's economy, Teachers find an educator's salary keeps them at a poverty level bracket (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). The teaching profession has, therefore, left the middle-class society (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Teachers find they are required to continue their education, they often find paying their bills difficult, and typically turn to a second job (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Many educators struggle to make ends meet and still decide to put more of their own money back into their classrooms (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006).

Teachers are also criticized for having a shortened work day with the summers off (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Unfortunately, this is a huge misconception on the part of the community (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). First, teachers are only compensated for the shortened work day (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). The time spent preparing for the classroom is phenomenal as well as that spent evaluating students, for which teachers are not paid (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). For instance, summer hours are typically spent working on lesson plans and taking professional development classes. Also, teachers are only paid for the time they spend at

school teaching (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Teachers are not paid for their preparation time or their grading time or any time spent out of school working (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006). Furthermore, teachers are also only paid for their nine-month contract time, so many teachers chose to stretch that pay over twelve months rather than nine months. Not to mention many teachers secure a second job; so, they do not take time off in the summer when they are not being paid for their teaching positions (Moulthrop, Calegari, & Eggers, 2006).

Also, most teachers agree with policymakers that accountability measures are a necessity (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010). Where educators disagree with policymakers is with using a single measure in the form of a standardized test given on a single school day (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Kohn, 2011). Elementary teachers are responsible for teaching an overwhelming curriculum to anywhere from 20 to 35 students in an elementary classroom, while other factors that affect student achievement out of the educator's realm go unnamed (Wadsworth, 2005). Teachers become frustrated when they are held solely and directly responsible for a student's learning, motivation, moral stability, and behavior (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Parents and the students themselves are not even acknowledged as being responsible parties, let alone held accountable (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Some teachers remark that it would really be nice if teachers could just be recognized for everything done in the classrooms and not just blamed for everything that is wrong with society in general (Ravitch, 2010). Many educators become teachers because of their high degree of moral purpose (Fullan, 2011b). Most teachers believe every child can learn and welcome a fair sense of

accountability (Fullan, 2011a). The media helps policymakers elaborate a sense of

urgency and sole responsibility of many society's woes (Ravitch, 2010). Many

demotivating factors are now being scientifically researched as reasons why the

profession of educators is witnessing high levels of turnover rates, leaving the schools

absent of the very professionals needed to make necessary reforms (DuFour, DuFour, &

Eaker, 2008).

Insights into intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive, gives a more detailed

account of how the human condition affects motivation (Pink, 2009). Scientists who

studied the human condition proved the inconsistencies with the extrinsic motivation

operating system, while simultaneously reaffirming the concepts discussed concerning

the Third Drive (Pink, 2009). Businesses, schools, and governments have been operating

under the extrinsic motivation model for too long (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch,

2010). Success in the twenty-first century relies on the ability to implement the intrinsic

motivation model within all businesses, schools, and governments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009). Failure to implement intrinsic motivation could introduce the beginning of

America's democratic demise (Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

War on Education

To change the culture of education, one must comprehend the inner-workings of

the profession and appreciate the nature of the culture (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).

Change in education means one must respect and comprehend the role of the teacher and

the politician (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). What truly motivates teachers to do what they

do and behave the way that they do? Influencing another human being means one can

understand and appreciate the individual's actions (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Simpson (2013) reported, "Corporate America has declared war on public education by closing schools, privatizing schools, gaining control over curriculum, imposing a barrage of hi-stakes testing, limiting citizen involvement and attacking teachers' unions. The worst attacks are against working class education" (p. 1).

In many countries, outside of the United States, politicians work alongside educators in a collaborative manner, instead of against them in an aggressive manner (Fullan, 2011a; Sahlberg, 2011). In countries such as Finland and even in cities such as Singapore, policies, innovative practices, and expectations develop in a collaborative manner with respect and dignity (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012). In Finland, rated as one of the most successful education systems in the world, leaders recruit highly trained teachers with graduate level degrees; teachers research, promote, and design curriculum and standards through autonomy; teachers receive full support and respect from the government and community; and working conditions are supportive and professional (Sahlberg, 2011). Klein (2014) reported reference to Finland's education program in terms of teacher selection. The competition of becoming an educator in Finland is ranked as high as doctors and lawyers. No other aspects of other countries successes were discussed by Klein.

In the United States, politicians and corporate reformers started the war on education as politicians and corporate reformers seemed to be turning the attack into a personal vendetta against teachers (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Simpson, 2013). Politicians blame teachers for a number of issues

including: low test scores on national and international standardized tests, creating non-competitive and low-performing schools, teaching an unchallenging curriculum, being unqualified to teach children a basic curriculum; being unmotivated and lazy in their efforts to teach children, and being undeserving of a professional paycheck (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers spent decades making accusations and blaming failed reform attempts on the educators to no avail (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Many elements concerning the process of change have been conveniently overlooked or ignored by politicians with respect to educational issues (Fullan, 2009). Ryan and Deci (2017) reported:

In some nations, leaders have amplified the controlling atmosphere

of schools by applying high-stakes testing. Policy makers, coupled with

assessment partners, decide in a top-down fashion what the contents

for learning should be, and these contents are those for which teachers

and students are held accountable. (p. 353)

Politicians and corporate reformers take a 'no-excuses' policy which allows them to ignore the real issues influencing public education such as childhood poverty and segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Simpson, 2013; Whelan, 2013). Klein (2014) argued poverty cannot be fixed "until we fix education" (p. xiii). Politicians and corporate reformers impose sanctions and mandates and tap into the educator's fear of non-compliance (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Politicians demand unrealistic and unobtainable goals and expectations. Such goals and expectations lacked clarity on intended results and perseverance (Fullan, 2007; Ravitch, 2010). Mandates imposed on educators focus on inappropriate methods and processes, rather than results (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Managements misplace their focus, using control tactics, such as fear (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Educators are held hostage professionally, where autonomy and paychecks are dispersed through a series of rewards and punishments, and the obstacles are unrealistic and the demands unobtainable (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Past education reform efforts failed as the movements violated one or more of the necessary components relating to the change process or motivation theories of human behavior (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Inappropriate Use of Standardized Test Scores

The first unresolved issue between politicians and the educators included the inappropriate use of standardized test scores directly linked to teacher paychecks and employment (Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Ryan & Brown, 2005). Politicians and corporate reformers tend to be obsessed with testing scores (Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014; Sahlberg, 2011). The United States competes with other countries in all aspects and expects to be competitive in education as well (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011). The only measurable tool used to compare countries' success in education happens to be standardized tests (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians assume just as they do in the business world, when one invests more money and makes more demands,

one's expectations should be met, or at least one should be able to fire the old employees

so that new employees may be hired (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Ravitch,

2010). Politicians demand teachers meet their expectations, however just because

politicians demand more and expect more cannot equate to higher performance (Kuhn,

2014; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians require all teachers to be miracle workers, or cheaters,

or failures simply because the task is impossible (Kuhn, 2014). "If we asked all our

soldiers to be Green Berets, we wouldn't have enough enlisted to fight a war. The same is

true of teachers" (Kuhn, 2014, p. 80). Politicians could require doctors to cure all their

patients and then motivate them to participate in a sporting event and base the patient's

performance on the quality of the doctor (Kuhn, 2014). Task matched with evaluation

equals success. Student performance matched with teacher evaluation compares apples to

broccoli.

Politicians and corporate reformers assume standardized testing to be an accurate

and reliable method to hold teachers directly accountable for student performance (Kuhn,

2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians claim teachers are hired to teach and should be

held accountable for their job (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). Logically, this

process appears to make sense. However, such assumed perceptions are not as logical as

they seem (Ravitch, 2010). "This approach to school reform is based on the view that

pressuring teachers and school administrators with accountability demands based on test

scores will motivate them to provide better education for their students" (Ryan & Deci,

2017, p. 375).

The first logical assumption made about student test scores assumed they were valid and reliable measures of teacher performance (Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Test makers and educators argue that standardized tests are not to be considered valid and reliable measures of student learning let alone teaching ability (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, 2008; Kohn, 2011). Hanushek & Lindseth (2009) claimed all other professions are rated in this manner and paid accordingly. Hanushek & Lindseth presented an enormous misrepresentation of the data because teachers are judged upon the performance of their students, while other professionals are judged upon their own performance (Pink, 2009). Ryan and Deci (2017) contend:

> For tests to be usefully informational, they must be administered within an autonomy-supportive learning climate, and the feedback needs to be informationally useful and formative for the process of learning, rather than being experienced as pressuring, judgmental, or focused on social comparisons. (p. 372)

Politicians and corporate reformers are attempting to use statistical data to lure society to view the situation in their light (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Unfortunately, there is very little data supporting the politicians and corporate reformers perceptions (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Teacher quality and instructional ability carries with it approximately forty to fifty percent indirect influence on student achievement (Pink, 2009). Berliner & Glass (2014) reported most researchers attribute student achievement to only 30% of school factors, including the teacher. Goldhaber (2002) found approximately 8.5 percent influence on

student achievement came from teacher characteristics, while 60% resulted from socioeconomic factors. Politicians assume teacher quality, less than one-third indirect influence, to account for one hundred percent accountability concerning student achievement (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians consider student achievement is the direct result of teacher instructional ability (Pink, 2009). Teacher and school reputations are being judged, while the power and control is completely out of the educator's hands (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Influence equates to a lack of teacher control. Teachers and the government lack the power to directly control the outcome of student performance (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Goyal, 2016; Gray, 2013; Harris, 2015; Her, 2003; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Furthermore, standardized testing lacked evidence to show that it was credible in measuring student competence (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Testing experts continually express the fact that standardized tests are not valid in measuring student ability or teacher performance (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Standardized tests simply provide another tool of data to help guide further instruction (Goyal, 2016; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Merit Pay Linked Directly to Pay Checks

Politicians and corporate reformers continue to believe that educators are simply not motivated enough to perform (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). The current reform movement agenda promotes merit pay directly linked with teacher paychecks (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Goyal, 2016; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). In

President Obama's 2012 State of the Union speech, the former president suggested

teachers not teach to the test and, instead, teach with passion and creativity; yet the

president's policies directly linked student performance on standardized tests to teacher's

paychecks which left the public to decipher should the people believe the president's

policies or words (Cody, 2011; Goyal, 2016)? Hanushek & Lindseth (2009) claimed there

was growing research to prove that monetarily rewarding teachers was the only way to

improve student performance. Pink (2009) advocated the research that Hanushek &

Lindseth (2009) referred to was invalid and unreliable, and missing from corporate

reformers' evidence. This type of misrepresentation has only further complicated the

issues at hand (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Pfeffer & Sutton (2006) reported the research

was unfounded on any scale to find a direct link between performance-pay of teachers

and increased student achievement long-term (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Politicians

and corporate reformers claimed that all other professions use this type of performance-

pay system, and the people find it is another misrepresentation (Berliner & Glass, 2014;

Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pfeffer & Sutton,

2006; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Very few professions use this type of pay system

with numerical measures, or quantitative data, especially in the field of human services

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Pink, 2009; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006; Ravitch, 2014).

Murnane and Cohen (1986) researched merit pay programs in the 1980s for

teachers. The researchers found merit pay systems to be ineffective for educators because

measurements of learning were all subjective, merit pay programs influenced competition

in the classroom, reducing the level of teacher and student collaboration, and rated and

ranked educators instead of motivating educators. Politicians and corporate reformers

continue to suggest merit pay systems for educators will motivate educators to produce

higher student test scores or individual teachers should be fired (Berliner & Glass, 2014;

Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The National Center on Performance Incentives at

Vanderbilt University (2010) found monetary rewards were useless at motivating

educators to produce higher student test scores because there is no direct relationship.

Also, the U.S. Department of Education encouraged individual states to promote school

districts to link merit pay systems to teacher's paychecks despite the negative effects

(Ravitch, 2014). The states of New York (Sparks, 2011) and Texas (Viadero, 2009)

continued to promote merit pay systems and spent millions of dollars only to blame the

teachers for the failure of the program. Even New York City Mayor Bloomberg tried

using monetary incentives to raise student test scores only to watch the program fail and

to this day continues to preach merit pay's worth (Chen & Phillips, 2012).

Business professor Pedro Martins (2009) reported on a scientific study conducted

in Portugal concerning merit pay for individual teachers and found that "Our results

consistently indicate that the increased emphasis on individual teacher performance

caused a significant decline in student achievement particularly in national exams" (p. 1).

Darling-Hammond (2010) stated performance pay for teachers, "Creates temporary

rewards that do little for long-term salaries or retention and has been found to be de-

motivating to most teachers" (p. 318). Pfeffer & Sutton (2006) reported merit pay or

compensation systems for teachers created a concept that was almost 100 years old with

much research indicating that it is ineffective for numerous reasons (Goldstein, 2014;

Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). The reform efforts led by politicians and corporate reformers in New York, San Diego, Atlanta, and Chicago demonstrated that merit pay was ineffective for educators long-term (Ravitch, 2010).

Business expert W. Edwards Deming reported management's job or, in this case, the politicians, entailed supporting the interests of the teachers to promote motivation and high expectations (Gabor, 1992). Effective business leaders design their organizations with responsibility, respect, and professional development (Gabor, 1992). A true leader needs only to develop an employee's skills through training, respect an employee with an appropriate paycheck, and support an employee with appropriate leadership. Merit pay systems for educators' place emphasis on the rivalry between co-workers, destroys employee morale and teamwork, and undermines the organization's true goals by attempting to deceive employees for employer gains (Gabor, 1992).

Deci (1971) discovered using money as an external reward caused individuals to lose intrinsic interest. Individuals can no longer focus, move forward with determination, and the initial enjoyment found performing the act diminishes (Deci, 1971). Deci further concluded humans tend to seek out unique experiences and challenges and have an innate curiosity to learn and grow without incentives (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2008, 2002; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Elliot & Dweck, 2005).

Money is now considered a biological need, as most families do not live on a farm, and they need money to provide food (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Pink, 2009). The offered reward, such as money, with a low baseline dependent on a measurement of action, puts a negative expectation on the individual's intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan,

2008; Pink, 2009). The offered reward in the first place rejects the individual's autonomy, and the individual is no longer in control (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The issue revolves around power and control rather than a proposed paycheck (Pink, 2009). Managers who use an individual's baseline paycheck as a reward and expect a high level of motivation will grow confused when eventually the employee will feel the paycheck will never be enough (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Pink, 2009). Initially, individuals accept the reward only to build feelings of anger and resentment toward the very act supposed to motivate their actions (Pink, 2009). In the end, an unmotivated employee dissatisfied with life and work is willing to do just about anything to get out of the current situation (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Many business leaders argued from personal experience that money was the great motivator (Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009). In the beginning, it appeared to be true. However, consider the individual who grew up poor and became intrinsically motivated to be monetarily successful (Deci, 1971; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The individual believed it was the money itself that was the driving force (Deci, 1971; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The issue of motivation revolves around autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009). Some individuals grew up in situations where they were powerless to control many situations (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009). Money appeared to be the answer, but money was simply a bridge (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009). Money appeared to be what the individual wanted; however, money was not what the individual needed at all. If money were the answer or the great motivator, the motivation that drove the individual would have ended once enough money was earned to

remove oneself from an unfortunate situation (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009).

Typically, all the money in the world lacked the need of power and control to which the

individual was drawn in the first place (Pink, 2009). Money seemed to provide the bridge

to power and control over all situations. But money alone lacked the motivation for the

individual to regain power and control over life.

Power and control drove these individuals, and these ends cannot be achieved

with moderate earnings (Pink, 2009). This situation often appears with millionaires (Pink,

2009). Millionaires drive themselves to make more and more money, despite the millions

they already possess. The reason money lacks the motivation for the millionaire to

continue is that money is not the true motivator. Power and control appear to be the

motivator and the reason the millionaire continued to strive for monetary success (Pink,

2009). Most politicians and business leaders fall into this category (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009). Unfortunately, many times an obsessive addiction derives from the motivation

towards power and control (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Since these leaders' land in a

position of power, they can also inflict pain and suffering on others to relieve their own

addiction (Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers seem to compare to an

individual's drive for power and control.

Consider a child motivated to do their homework (Pink, 2009). Many individuals

chose from two different methods, one a reward and the other a punishment (Pink, 2009).

One rewarded the child with a toy, an allowance, or some other form of payment. One

also punished the child by grounding them, taking away privileges, or not giving them an

allowance (Pink, 2009). The problem instigated extrinsic motivators, causing the long-

term damage by undermining intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). The child found short term enjoyment with extrinsic motivators which would constantly need to be increased. However, the child's intrinsic motivation was undermined, which meant the child focused attention on rewards and punishments rather than finding interest or enjoyment from the activity itself (Pink, 2009). Created interest in the job or action was how one promoted intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001; Pink, 2009). The act was boring. However, it may not be routine and may require thought, creativity, or innovation. If the interest were overshadowed in any form by extrinsic motivators, intrinsic motivation would be compromised (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001; Pink, 2009).

Incentives used to encourage creativity and innovation only diminish our ability to think and dull our senses, leaving us unable to create or discover very well (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001; Deci, Ryan, & Koestner, 1999; Pink, 2009). "Rewards, by their very nature, narrow our focus" (Pink, 2009, p. 42). Actions that require knowledge, creativity, discovery, innovation, and focus will operate effectively under an intrinsic motivation model (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009). Actions that require a boring, routine job will operate effectively under an extrinsic motivation model (Deci & Ryan, 2012, 2008; Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivators diminish the individual's ability to focus on the task at hand. Financial incentives, or using money as a motivator, typically result in a generally negative connotation on the job, task, or activity (Pink, 2009, p. 39).

Research aside, one must use logic and common sense to decide if merit pay, or an external reward based on numerical results is the answer to motivating educators (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

First attribute: teacher motivation. First, if individuals believe that merit pay for teachers was the answer, then one must also believe that the only blockade to student learning was the teacher's motivation to teach (Pink, 2009). Merit pay focuses on teachers and administrators only, not on students. So, if one believes teacher skill, parental involvement, student motivation, student skill and ability, school culture, the quality of the community and school resources are of no significant influence on student learning and performance, then merit pay could work effectively (Pink, 2009). No produced evidence supports the theory that teacher motivation is the only significant factor to influence student achievement (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Second attribute: measurement tool. The second attribute considered when using teacher merit pay was the measurement tool used to determine what had been learned by students (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). In most cases, student learning is measured by a standardized assessment given in one comprehensive test at the end of the year, or several quarterly tests given throughout the year (Kohn, 2011). To calculate merit-pay, one needs reliable quantitative data to insert into a formula (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Teaching and the learning process is not a strict quantitative process (Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). In fact, the only real quantitative measure of our schools is the standardized tests (Kohn, 2011). Even the

testing developers claim that the standardized assessments are only to be used as one measure to guide the curriculum not to evaluate students and teachers (Ravitch, 2014; Kohn, 2011). Even common sense explains that all individuals, despite their motivation levels, backgrounds, and life experiences, cannot be judged fairly by a standardized test (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Third attribute: teaching solo. The third factor considered if using teacher merit pay was to think of the act of teaching as a solo activity (Pink, 2009). Merit pay is designed to reward individuals, which creates competition among educators, rather than capacity building (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Teaching is not a race. Teachers should not be placed in competitive situations as it will diminish their ability to collaborate and learn from the other teachers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Teachers feel isolated in their endeavor to make money. Merit pay also encourages individuals to cheat and be dishonest in any profession (Kuhn, 2014; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014).

Podgursky & Springer (2007) suggested switching from a traditional salary scale to merit-based pay, calculated by numerical measures, such as student test scores, to attract quality teachers as a motivating agent (Staiger, Gordon, & Kane, 2006). Proponents of the teacher merit-pay system applauded their efforts and continued to refer to the private sector as a model (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Philanthropist Eli Broad speculated that he could not think of a profession that did not

have a system of rewards for performance (Hoff, 2008). Obviously, politicians and especially corporate reformers refer to generalizations rather than specifics when commenting to the public (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Despite the feelings of the public, the standard performance-pay system is not as widespread as one might think (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). The incidence of such a system is used in the sales profession, with executives, and financial workers (Pink, 2009). For this study, the factors of performance-based pay are confined to three general categories: formulaic individual performance pay, judgmental individual performance pay, and group-level performance pay (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009).

Formulaic individual performance pay is a system of pay based solely on a calculated numerical formula (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). There is an assessment or numerical score that is calculated by a specific formula to derive a payment amount (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). The judgmental individual and group performance pay are calculated not by a formula, but through a system of discrete measurement, usually conducted by a member of management (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). Usually, the measurement is a performance evaluation filled out by the discretion of management, and it could be an individual evaluation or group evaluation (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). It is important to note that many employees received a bonus or stipend in conjunction with a salary; however, this type of pay system

does not fit the criteria for a true performance-pay system (Adams, Heywood, &

Rothstein, 2009).

The formulaic individual performance pay system was the one most of the public

assumed was being used to pay teachers (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink,

2009). In situations where individual output, units sold, or where there exists a clear

measure of profit, this type of incentive proved possible (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein,

2009; Pink, 2009). Usually, this dynamic was only found in the private sector (Adams,

Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). Governments were not usually involved in sales, and the

goal was not profit maximization (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). It was one of

the least used performance pay systems simply because, by itself, it was ineffective in

motivating employees long-term (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009).

One of the main reasons this pay system was ineffective was because of the complex

nature of the job (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). If there were

outside influences affecting the outcome of one's performance, the employee's pay

would be affected, even though the employee may or may not be performing well

(Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009). If the employer

added differentials to compensate for the unfair nature, the system became more inviting

(Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009).

Judgmental performance pay, for individuals or groups, referred to a member of

management who made a judgment on an employee's performance (Adams, Heywood, &

Rothstein, 2009). This system evaluates employees with a formal or informal evaluation

of that employee's ability to reach chosen goals, customer service rates, and overall

attitude toward their work (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). An employer

assembles these attributes to fit the needs of the company (Adams, Heywood, &

Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). Again, these systems, groups or individuals, are not widely

used. Many companies use a base-pay as a foundation and then use a judgmental

performance evaluation as an incentive to increase pay above the agreed base pay

(Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). The effectiveness of this system is

based on the complexity of the job and the agreed upon baseline pay (Adams, Heywood,

& Rothstein, 2009). If there are many factors influencing the employee's ability to

perform, then the employer will experience more effectiveness with the use of

differentials or compensation to maximize the employees' ability to reach their goals and

continue to motivate themselves (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009).

Performance-pay is strictly an extrinsic motivator (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009)

Many researchers debate the use of rewards and punishments, arguing that offering such

rewards will diminish intrinsic motivating factors (Deci & Ryan, 2012, 2000; Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009). Also, offering rewards and punishments with a complex set of tasks,

will produce more harm than good (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Deci & Ryan,

2012; Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivators used for simplistic, repetitive, boring tasks,

which require no creative thinking skills is appropriate (Deci & Ryan, 2012, 2002; Pink,

2009).

The private sector became accustomed to this type of performance-pay system

much faster than government workers had for a couple of reasons (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009). First, work goals differed. Many private sector positions required a product output

or the need to generate sales of some kind (Pink, 2009). In general, the work itself would become repetitive, boring, requiring no creative thinking. Such tasks lent themselves to extrinsic motivators, like rewards and punishments (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009). Also, a parallel effect happened more common in the private sector where performance-pay systems were used, which was a higher turnover rate, in general (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). Possibly the whole reason the performance-pay system introduced itself was to influence workers away from government positions (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). For whatever reason, the private sector needed incentives to attract qualified workers (Pink, 2009). However, society's perception of merit-based pay systems and what was most commonly used in today's workforce differed greatly (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Most businesses employ a base-pay of some kind with a combination of incentives to reward outstanding performances (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009).

Merit-pay systems, in conjunction with accountability measures, made many educators question their career choice (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Autonomy in issues regarding the teaching profession is left to the non-professionals (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Teachers are not even close to making a professional salary, and now merit-pay systems will question whether teachers can make their base salary (Pink, 2009). Teachers are already aware that student performance scores are out of their direct control (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Pink, 2009). Politicians and corporate reformers then proclaim teachers are not even motivated to do a good job of teaching (Darling-

Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Sahlberg (2011) held many conversations with young adults aspiring to become teachers, or young teachers themselves, comparing the Finland system of education to that of other countries.

> If an outside inspector were to judge the quality of their work or a merit-based compensation policy influenced by external measures were imposed, many would change their jobs. Finnish teachers are particularly skeptical of using frequent standardized tests to determine students' progress in school. Many Finnish teachers have told me that if they encountered similar external pressure regarding standardized testing and high-stakes accountability as do their peers in England or the United States, they would seek other jobs. (p. 76)

Accountability in American education seems to be a last-ditch effort for politicians to instill fear into educators for non-compliance (Sahlberg, 2011). The accountability movement appears deceptive as politicians and corporate reformers replace democracy with individual consumerism (Stitzlein, 2017). The federal and state governments ramble out of control with their obsessive desire to exert power over the education system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Sahlberg, 2011). American politicians needed to dominate competitively others which only weakens our democracy and will end in the same manner that most addictions end, with extensive damage and possible death (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Reform Failure Elements

   First and second reform failure elements. The first cause of reform failure assumed by politicians that educators were not properly motivated, the second cause of reform failure was unrealistic and unobtainable expectations (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The federal government attempted to mandate the change process, demand expectations, and impose sanctions, which only motivated educators to rebel rather than embrace judgment (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2007; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). In response, educators were not motivated to improve their teaching; they were motivated to leave, which many believe to be the true inspiration of the politicians (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Meier et al., 2004; Ravitch, 2014). The only type of accountability mandated was external accountability, which resulted in reluctance toward any internal accountability, making data measures, in general, useless for accountability (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Elmore, 2004b).

   According to politicians, the definition of success directly related to standardized test scores, which were unrealistic and unobtainable under this system of public education (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Only 15% of American educators believed that No Child Left Behind improved public education (Public Agenda, 2006). Even public education critic Diane Ravitch (2007) argued NCLB seemed to be a ploy against public education. A system created to guarantee the failure of every school and destroy confidence in the public-school system would favor those in agreement with the privatization of education in America (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Third reform failure element. The third cause of reform failure focused on methods and processes, rather than results (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians' and policy-makers' inability to articulate the desired results led to mandates that focused on methods and processes rather than results (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians claimed they wanted to improve education. However, the bottom line is they wanted high test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers fixate on standardized test scores and holding teachers directly accountable for student performance (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The debate over the public-schools seems to be: Did the teachers teach the programs they were forced to teach, for the time prescribed, and did the teachers review for the test (Ravitch, 2010)? No one asks whether the children learned. The public simply wants to know how well the students did on the test, not whether the test revealed real learning (Fullan, 2011a; Hern, 2003; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). In fact, high scores on standardized tests means nothing in the real world (Baker, 2007). Not one document contains evidence that a country scoring high on standardized educational tests equates to a better economy, a better political structure, or even a better education system (Baker, 2007; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Tienken, 2008). Politicians who focus on test scores appear to do so as a diversion for their true intentions (Kuhn, 2014).

Once again, schools are susceptible to the latest education fads and gimmicks to make the schools appear successful (Fullan, 2011a). Overwhelmed by disconnected sanctions and reform movements, educators reluctantly responded to their professional

duty with displaced emotions (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008). Phil Schechty (2005) argued the primary cause of demolition to the public-school system seems to be the inability to remain focused on clear intentions. Reform efforts will continue to fail until the system, and management itself, is ready to change and sustain the efforts of change through support and consistency over time (Fullan, 2011a; Schechty, 2005).

Fourth reform failure element. The misplaced focus was the fourth cause of education reform failure (Fullan, 2011a). The Excellence Movement relied on top-down management strategies to reform public-schools (Ravitch, 2010). The NCLB system-imposed sanctions to produce and use the emotion of fear to carry out reform efforts (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The current legislation, Race to the Top, also incorporated top-down management strategies, used fear to encourage compliance, focused on test scores rather than learning, and threatened and belittled the teachers as a form of motivation by linking merit pay systems to student performance (Goyal, 2016; Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Fullan (2006) wrote, reform systems based on sanctions, pressure, control, and fear may have the ability to improve a school minimally. The process failed because the solution only addressed a small part of the problem, and nothing about the process of change was acknowledged by the proposed solution, condemning the entire system to fail (Fullan, 2011a, 2009, 2008, 2007; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

The Restructuring Movement used the laissez-faire approach to reform the public-school system (Ravitch, 2010). The public-school system designed around the belief that,

if educators were encouraged to discover new strategies leading to student improvement, the schools would see higher levels of student achievement (Ravitch, 2010). The laissez-faire theory held no evidence to support the idea that unsupervised teachers without goals or a guideline simply needed nothing more than encouragement to outperform their supervised counterparts and continually engage in meaningful dialogue and activities to enhance teaching and learning (Elmore, 2003; Schlechty, 2005). Once again, focus on changing the American public-school system replaced by the meaningless attention to minute details unrelated to the process of change lacked the attributes necessary to produce effective and appropriate change (Fullan, 2011a, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

   Fifth reform failure element. The fifth element related to failed reform efforts was the disregard for strong and independent curriculum standards (Ravitch, 2010). Education is the cornerstone of a strong democracy (Ravitch, 2010). The United States debated the need to support teachers and their professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Hord & Sommers, 2008; Ravitch, 2010). In the mid-1980's there was a strong push towards teacher development through the report of the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, the Holmes Group (1986), and the development of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1989) (Darling-Hammond, 2012, p. 130). As Darling-Hammond (2012) pointed out, these professional organizations worked to develop a professional force of teacher leaders dedicated to increasing knowledge and effective practices.

   The quality of our educators has been debated almost as long as the reform movements (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Quality educators needed to be placed in the low

performing schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Kanter (2004) and Minthrop (2004) reported, when situations go bad in our schools, and support and guidance from the district are absent, many of the good experienced teachers leave the school where they are most needed. Levin, Mulhern, & Schunk (2005) also reported the teachers with more expertise have more opportunities and choose not to work in a problem school. The problem schools need more teacher experts to handle and maintain the greater challenges found at such schools (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Ravitch, 2014). Incentives needed to attract expert teachers to the problem schools are not found. It is more challenging, difficult, and frustrating to teach at a low-performing school. It is the low-performing schools that need experienced and highly qualified teachers (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008; Ravitch, 2014). When the pay is the same for working in a high-performing versus low-performing school, most teachers avoid the frustration and chose the high-performing school (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2008). Incentives are found in the form of a bonus, resources, training, and a collaborative atmosphere (Pink, 2009).

Advocates in the early twenty-first century claimed teacher knowledge was unrelated to student performance, and the profession was a skill that individuals may acquire on the job (Walsh, 2001). The U.S. Secretary of Education, Rod Paige, called for changes to be made in teacher qualifications in the Annual Report on Teacher Quality (USDOE, 2002). Paige (2002) argued the current licensure program was ineffective with "burdensome requirements" (p. 8).

The United States seemed to be contradicting itself, as policymakers currently agreed with researchers, advocating for fewer teacher qualifications (Ravitch, 2010). The

same policymakers claimed close to all the public educators were ineffective teachers and unqualified (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Common sense dictated the best plans and foundations for our public-schools begin with a strong independent curriculum and strong educator professional standards (Ravitch, 2010).

Internationally, most societies agreed, "the quality of the teaching is a critical element in 21st-Century learning, but there is a wide range of views about how to develop it" (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012, p. 151). As international standings go, as indicated by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), the highest rankings are Finland, Singapore, Canada, Netherlands, and Australia (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012). The United States ranked towards the end. In the past, the United States addressed the issue of teacher quality by reducing standards, as opposed to developing systems to strengthen curriculum and improve teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Ravitch, 2010).

Sixth reform failure element. The sixth element related to reform movement failure included the teaching profession's working conditions (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Susan Moore Johnson's (2004) research focused on the teaching profession's working conditions and how to find and retain quality professionals. In her tenure, Johnson's (2004) research concluded, in general, educators were not motivated by mentors, income, or programs and policies, "whereas working in a school with an integrated, professional culture is strongly related to job satisfaction" (p. 12). The point concluded the culture of the school is the main factor in hiring and retaining quality professionals (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a).

Finland. Director General at the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture, Pasi

Sahlberg, questioned Finnish teachers about working conditions (2011).

> Teachers in Finland expect that they will experience professional autonomy,
>
> prestige, respect, and trust in their work. First and foremost, the working
>
> conditions and moral professional environment are what count, as
>
> young Finns decide whether they will pursue a teaching career or seek
>
> work in another field. (pp. 76-77)

Teachers in Finland are recruited, trained, and educated to become professionals (Ryan &

Deci, 2017; Sahlberg, 2011). The government gives educators complete autonomy to

research, develop, innovate, and educate future generations (Sahlberg, 2011). Top

performing countries recruit high numbers of highly qualified educators because those

countries reformed the whole system of education to reflect what educators, in general,

thrive on, a culture of collaboration, cohesiveness, capacity-building, respect, and job

satisfaction (Fullan, 2010b). Ken Leithwood (2007) reported many educators flocked to

the profession because they loved to learn, and they loved to teach. The field of education

was conducive to an environment of collaboration and collective capacity (Fullan, 2011a,

2007). Education is at its best when teachers, school employees, parents, and the students

all work together in a collaborative nature (Fullan, 2011a). Highly qualified professionals

went searching for schools with job satisfaction due to a collaborative atmosphere

(Fullan, 2011a).

Most change initiatives fail as politicians incorporate rewards and punishments,

forcing behavior and change (Fullan, 2011a). Rewards and punishment change the

dynamic of the working conditions, usually for the worse (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). To change the system, most managers only change the working conditions (Fullan, 2011a). Jacobs (2010) stated managers need to stop trying to control employees. Tap into an employee's intrinsic motivation and the desired type of results will emerge (Fullan, 2011a; Jacobs, 2010; Pink, 2009). Schwartz & Sharpe (2010) reported one could not teach the learning one needed from today's employees. Managers need to create an environment to allow employees the autonomy to learn and discover.

In the country of Finland, ranked number one in the world in education, the nation has dedicated its financial and professional support to the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). All educators must go through a selection process and must obtain a master's degree before they become classroom teachers (Sahlberg, 2011). The graduate degrees instill more learning and research because educators in Finland possess full professional autonomy over curriculum and standards (Sahlberg, 2011). Finland educators train as skilled professionals to plan, teach, diagnose, execute, and evaluate educational topics (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 76). Finland educators are intrinsically motivated to learn continually and develop new learning strategies, which drives the changing curriculum standards to remain current with technology (Sahlberg, 2011). All tuition is paid for by the government, and salaries are competitive with all other professions (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Sahlberg, 2011). Most teachers in Finland decide to become a teacher because of the interest in the learning process and teaching children, not monetary compensation. Many educators feel intrinsic motivation

gravitating from the profession (Sahlberg, 2011). "Practically nobody cites salary as a reason for leaving teaching. Instead, many point out that if they were to lose their professional autonomy in schools and their classrooms, their career choice would be called into question" (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 76).

In the United States, teacher recruitment became almost non-existent (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Teacher requirement programs are reduced to training on the job, bachelor's degree, or maybe a master's degree (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). The low salary, low social prestige, and no support system drive many young adults into different career opportunities (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). The government claims the education system needs highly qualified teachers; however, the American government is unwilling to pay for what they claim they want (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Ravitch, 2010). Due to slim teacher standards and vague curriculum standards, the government defined highly qualified teachers poorly with their actions (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012). Darling-Hammond & Lieberman (2012) reported:

> Conservative governments over the past thirty years have challenged
> the idea that there is a knowledge base for teaching, have questioned
> the role of universities in the preparation of teachers, and have characterized
> the individuals entering teaching as less intelligent and capable than
> individuals who have entered other occupations (often in the face of
> contradictory evidence). These governments have promoted pathways

into teaching that avoid the "barriers" of preparation and have supported the

lowering of standards for teachers entering communities that offer fewer

incentives to teach – those with needier students, lower salaries, and poorer

working conditions. (p. 154)

The federal government claimed teachers were lazy, unmotivated, and unqualified

to teach in American public-schools (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Since

America's policymakers established a place of learning where no one wanted to be, the

only motivation is to move to another career choice (Fullan, 2011a; Hargreaves & Fullan,

2012; Pink, 2009). According to Pink (2009), politicians were the teacher's managers.

Therefore, it was the job of the politicians to create motivation for teachers (Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Countries focused on creating a strong foundation of

professional teaching, promoting independent curriculum standards, teacher standards,

and providing supports found success (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012).

New York City's unmotivating government control. During education reform,

Anthony Alvarado began his eleven-year tenure as superintendent of District 2, New

York City (Ravitch, 2010). Over the next decade, the media pronounced District 2 as a

national symbol of success (Ravitch, 2010, p. 33). District 2 became a model for

corporate reformers to incorporate a 'get tough' attitude and achieve higher tests scores

(Ravitch, 2010). In 1990, District 2 measured atypical of surrounding areas. Half the

population in surrounding areas was African American or Hispanic. District 2 was very

wealthy and 72 percent white (Ravitch, 2010). During Alvarado's tenure, the district

grew dramatically with 90 percent new enrollment consisting of white or Asian students (Ravitch, 2010).

In the 1990's, Alvarado introduced school choice and the Balanced Literacy reading program (Ravitch, 2010). The program focused on reading strategies. Professional development for teachers centered on incorporating the Balanced Literacy program, and later a constructivist style of mathematics (Ravitch, 2010). Teachers and administrators who refused to teach the programs in isolation were either transferred or fired (Ravitch, 2010).

Prominent educational researchers Lauren Resnick and Richard Elmore requested federal funding to research the education success story (Ravitch, 2010). Based on the information available at the time through quantitative studies, the researchers attributed the improved test scores to professional development and the emphasis on teacher and administrator determination to affect student achievement (Ravitch, 2010). Also, it was later determined Alvarado met with a secret committee and lowered the student achievement levels so that researchers would attribute success to their efforts rather than failure (Ravitch, 2010). After the researchers had reported success, other researchers discovered the high school dropout rate increased and parent and student supporters were nonexistent (Ravitch, 2010). Other researchers found different conclusions, proposing higher scores be attributed to a higher influx of white and Asian students within the district boundaries (Harwell et al., 2000). Other researchers attributed success for District 2 to demographics, rather than improved professional development and teacher support

(Ravitch, 2010). Critics published articles against the advocates of Balanced Literacy, yet, the media and corporate reformers already rallied around District 2 (Ravitch, 2010).

San Diego's unmotivating government control. In 1998, Anthony Alvarado accepted the position of chancellor of instruction in San Diego (Ravitch, 2010). To 'get tough' on education, the San Diego school board hired Alan Bersin, a former federal prosecutor, as superintendent (Ravitch, 2010). The reforms for San Diego were to model the work of Alvarado in District 2. Corporate reformers contributed to campaigns for the school board, for leaders who had a 'get tough' attitude toward educators. The school board hired Bersin and Alvarado as tough adversaries against educators (Ravitch, 2010).

From 1998 to 2005, Bersin and Alvarado began reform efforts by mandating the Balanced Literacy method be used in District 2. The program required three hours of instruction daily and was strictly observed (Ravitch, 2010). Bersin and Alvarado quickly laid off several leaders and area superintendents. The laid off employees were replaced by Balance Literacy coaches, who acted more like spies (Ravitch, 2010). Teacher unions objected; however, Bersin and Alvarado made it clear they had no interest in collaborating or negotiating with educators, and not with the teacher unions (Ravitch, 2010).

Bersin and Alvarado presented their "Blueprint for Student Success in a Standards-Based System" in the spring of 2000 (Ravitch, 2010). Everyone in the district was forced to participate in the Balanced Literacy and constructivist mathematical programs. The Blueprint cost the district $70 million per year. In the previous year, professional development was at $1 million (Ravitch, 2010). Bersin and Alvarado fired

more than 600 classroom aides, diverted individual school Title 1 funds, and received

private donations made by private corporate reformers (Ravitch, 2010). Private corporate

reformers who donated based on the contingency that Bersin and Alvarado remained in

charge included the Gates Foundation, the Hewlett Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation

of New York, and the Broad Foundation (Ravitch, 2010).

Micah Sachs (2003) interviewed Terry Pesta, the president of the SDEA, about

the imposed sanctions. During the interview in 2003, Pesta reported teachers feeling like

they were in a dictatorship or even a prison (Ravitch, 2010). Things must be done the

Bersin and Alvarado way or no way at all. Teacher reassignments doubled, and 90

percent of the district's principals were fired (Ravitch, 2010). More than one-third of the

teachers found new jobs, and many opted for early retirement, anything to get out of

teaching in San Diego (Ravitch, 2010). Shortly after the election in 2002, Alvarado was

fired to appease angered educators and parents (Ravitch, 2010). Later in 2004, the school

board voted against Bersin, and he resigned in January 2005 (Ravitch, 2010).

Reviews of the Bersin and Alvarado years are mixed (Ravitch, 2010). Many

researchers reported higher student achievement and extreme teacher frustration (Ravitch,

2010). Teachers complained about programs replacing curriculum content (Ravitch,

2010). Time revealed San Diego was in the process of writing a curriculum; however, the

San Diego district was not operating with a written curriculum (Ravitch, 2010).

During the Bersin and Alvarado leadership, teachers began to speak out about

being harassed, degraded and made into program trainers rather than educators (Ravitch,

2010). Principals and teachers were often fired to send a message of comply or be fired

(Ravitch, 2010). New principals were inexperienced and led through fear and control

tactics (Ravitch, 2010). In the end, Bersin felt school boards and teacher unions were

blocking true 'get tough' reform (Ravitch, 2010). Bersin's reform efforts fired teachers

and principals, demanded higher test scores, spent millions of dollars, promoted choice

through charter schools, and stood up against bureaucracy (Ravitch, 2010). The corporate

reformers applauded all Bersin's efforts, believing all public agencies to be ineffective,

incompetent, and inefficient (Ravitch, 2010).

Carl Cohn was hired to replace Bersin (Ravitch, 2010). Cohn (2007) published an

essay shortly after being hired.

> I inherited a district in which the driving philosophy over the previous six years
>
> had, similarly, been to attack the credibility of any educator who spoke out
>
> against a top-down education reform model. These attacks allowed those in
>
> charge to portray themselves as the defenders of children, to justify any means to
>
> promote their model of our national debates.

Cohn (2007) continued to say true reform of any institution begins by empowering those

on the bottom, not punishing them or treating them like criminals. The best reform efforts

work better when all participants work together in a professional manner with trust,

dignity, and respect (Ravitch, 2010).

New York City's unmotivating government control again. Late in 2001,

Michael Bloomberg was elected mayor of New York City (Ravitch, 2010). Bloomberg

campaigned to reform education management; instigated merit-pay, testing, and

accountability; promoted choice; and provided education rewards (Ravitch, 2010).

Bloomberg began with the school board. He was not interested in having anyone, including the school board, second guess his decisions or take away the power to 'get tough' on New York City's educators (Ravitch, 2010). Shortly after taking office, the state gave the power to Bloomberg over the schools, which he quickly reorganized into the New York City Department of Education (DOE). The school board still existed; however, Bloomberg exerted the power to make critical decisions concerning education without the school board interfering (Ravitch, 2010).

Joel Klein, a lawyer with very little education experience, became the chancellor of education (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Klein collaborated with Bersin and won the admiration of the business community as he stood for school choice, teacher accountability, and a 'get tough' attitude on teachers (Ravitch, 2010). *Business Week* reported how Bloomberg had "terrorized New York's educational establishment" by incorporating business methods into New York City's education system (France, 2003).

Bloomberg began his Children First reform program in 2003 (Ravitch, 2010). Children First involved several components. First, every school adopted a universal reading and math program (Ravitch, 2010). Some schools were exempt because of their high performance (Ravitch, 2010). The reading program implemented was Balanced Literacy and the math program was Everyday Mathematics. Each school assigned a coach and a model to follow the school's progress (Ravitch, 2010).

The second aspect of the Children First model eliminated New York City's thirty-two individual districts and replaced them with ten regions (Ravitch, 2010). Each region would be led by a superintendent. The instructional superintendents referred to as LISes,

administered over ten to twelve schools and report to a regional instructional

superintendent (Ravitch, 2010).

The third element of the Children First model designed a training academy for

new principals called the Leadership Academy, funded by private donors (Ravitch,

2010). For the first three years, the central board took charge of the academy; and, then,

the DOE took over control. The academy led by business professional Jack Welch trained

ninety administrators each year (Ravitch, 2010).

The fourth element of the Children First model leaders promised to promote more

parental involvement (Ravitch, 2010). When the school board and central board

disbanded, parents became frustrated when they needed to contact someone with their

concerns (Ravitch, 2010). Klein eventually told the principals to hire a parent contact.

However, the employee worked for the principal and was unhelpful (Ravitch, 2010). The

model that was promised to increase parental involvement decreased parental

involvement (Ravitch, 2010).

The consensus of the Children First model was to have Mayor Bloomberg operate

the school system as a business (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Klein hired top executives,

with no education experience and some of them right out of college, to earn six figure

salaries. Management consisted of a top-down style. Motivation was promoted through

fear (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

The Children First model provided no curriculum, just standards (Ravitch, 2010).

Only the math program came with a curriculum to guide learning. Teachers were advised

on how to teach, what to teach, and when to teach it by trained administrators (Ravitch,

2010). Even many of the layouts of the classrooms were dictated (Ravitch, 2010). There was very little teaching time devoted to science, history, literature, geography, or any of the arts (Ravitch, 2010). Later, Bloomberg and Klein announced that all schools would be autonomous (Ravitch, 2010). Principals were supposed to organize a support organization. Klein (2014) emphasized the need for principals to become leaders and hold the power of choice with the educators working for those principals. However, the organization did not carry any amount of power or autonomy and became a waste of time (Ravitch, 2010).

One of the few instances when the media criticized the DOE was over the transportation disaster (Ravitch, 2010). The DOE contracted with Alvarez and Marsal to manage funds and devise methods to cut down costs (Ravitch, 2010). Thousands of children were left without transportation to school and advised to take public transportation (Ravitch, 2010).

Through micromanagement, the DOE devised a plan to issue each school a letter grade based on test scores (Ravitch, 2010). The Bloomberg-Klein reform efforts followed the NCLB legislation on the assumption that vigorous focus placed on testing and accountability would improve the education system (Ravitch, 2010). This new system of reform shoved the community out of the process, while the implied system of checks and balances for leadership positions also disappeared (Ravitch, 2010). Non-educators held executive authority and were making decisions for a profession without expertise opinion or knowledge (Ravitch, 2010). Klein defended the withdrawal of checks and balances as an opportunity to make the hard decisions in the name of school reform (Ravitch, 2010).

In March 2004, Bloomberg approached the panel about social promotion (Ravitch, 2010). Bloomberg wanted to retain students scoring a one on the state tests. In disagreement, the mayor fired two-panel members and arranged for a third member to be fired later (Ravitch, 2010). The media named the event the "Monday Night Massacre" in honor of the mayor taking control (Ravitch, 2010). Meanwhile, the number of students retained did not increase and this warranted speculation (Ravitch, 2010). Secretly, the state lowered the bar, which allowed more students to graduate to the next level (Ravitch, 2010).

In 2009, parent groups were organized to voice several concerns about charter schools, school programs, overcrowded classrooms, and time spent on testing (Ravitch, 2010). In a poll taken in June 2008, more than 80 percent of the community members wanted power taken away from Bloomberg and Klein. Unfortunately, Bloomberg maintained political and financial control with funding provided by the Gates Foundation and the Broad Foundation. Bloomberg maintained control and power (Ravitch, 2010).

Charter schools were education institutions that were managed privately but received federal and state funds (Ravitch, 2010). The previous leaders were opposed to charter schools because funding for the public-schools would decrease. When Klein took office, he gave charter schools top priority by placing them in public buildings and taking away space and resources from public-schools (Ravitch, 2010). In 2009, Klein consistently approved and applauded the efforts of charter schools, claiming superiority (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). Charter school enrollment was decided by a lottery.

However, parents claimed only the best and brightest students were chosen (Ravitch, 2010).

As a low performing school was closed, four or five smaller schools took its place (Ravitch, 2010). Enrollment for the new smaller schools was difficult. The low performing students found it difficult to be accepted and usually ended up being bused across town to another low-performing large school (Ravitch, 2010). There seemed to be no plan in place to address low-performing schools, except to threaten their existence (Ravitch, 2010). In 2009, Klein addressed the media to say that closing schools created a supply and demand situation that would benefit school choice and school competition. No evidence supported the suggestion that closing and opening new schools encouraged success (Ravitch, 2010).

Bloomberg and Klein suggested they made significant progress as state tests indicated (Ravitch, 2010). The media called the spectacle the Bloomberg miracle with articles found in *Forbes*, *The Economist*, *Time*, *Newsweek*, *U.S. News & World Report*, and *USA Today (*Ravitch, 2010*)*. New York City won the Broad Prize in 2007 for the efforts of the Bloomberg-Klein administration (Ravitch, 2010).

In November 2007, the New York City Department of Education reported the students made significant gains on the NAEP (Ravitch, 2010). Unfortunately, the New York City students made no significant gains on the NAEP, except for a small gain in fourth-grade mathematics (Ravitch, 2010). The skills obtained reviewing for the state assessments were non-transferrable for the international NAEP exam (Ravitch, 2010). Graduation rate statistics were skewed, depending on who was asked and which students

were included in the rates (Ravitch, 2010). Colleges also complained of an influx of

students from New York City who were not prepared for college courses and who were

detained in remedial college courses (Ravitch, 2010). The skills obtained from the state

exams were non-transferrable to college courses as well (Ravitch, 2010).

High scores on tests could be a wonderful and positive thing (Ravitch, 2010).

However, when test scores were achieved through threats, punishments, superficial

rewards of money and students could not perform to the same level on comparable tests,

those scores only meant a poor education (Ravitch, 2010). Bloomberg and Klein claimed

teacher accountability for student achievement (Klein, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). The checks

and balances for Bloomberg or Klein refrained from any accountability for their roles in

management (Ravitch, 2010). Other large cities like Chicago and Cleveland possessed

mayoral control, and that fact did not amount to educational success (Ravitch, 2010).

Incorporating business methods into an education system with choice and accountability

appeared to be a failure that the corporate reformers refused to acknowledge or admit

(Ravitch, 2010). Management control and accountability were put to the test, and the

reform efforts failed (Ravitch, 2010).

Atlanta's unmotivating government control. The city of Atlanta served as an

example of holding educators directly accountable for unrealistic test scores which was

inappropriate and became a failure in the long-term (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2010). As

Diane Ravitch (2010) pointed out, in the period 2003 – 2007, Atlanta had significantly

raised their test scores on state exams, as well as the NAEP assessment. However, in

2011 an investigation indicated several educators and principals were involved in a

cheating scandal provoked by fear, intimidation, humiliation, and retaliation tactics issued by the district and state (Ravitch, 2010). Many employees were in fear of their jobs as non-performing school employees would be unemployed (Ravitch, 2010). This type of punitive accountability promoted fear and no long-term results (Fullan, 2011a; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). These actions only promoted cheating and lying, as the results were unobtainable, despite how many punishments were sanctioned (Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009).

Chicago's unmotivating government control. Similarly, in Chicago, officials retracted earlier claims to improved student performance scores (Ravitch, 2010). In the period 2004 – 2008, Arne Duncan, the Chicago Superintendent of Schools, proclaimed significant growth in reading and math scores (Ravitch, 2010). Later, the celebration was retracted as the test developers made it clear changes in tests and the test procedures accounted for the significant increase (Ravitch, 2010). Arne Duncan was currently serving as the U.S. Secretary of Education and was nominated for his success as superintendent in Chicago (Ravitch, 2010).

Daniel Koretz, a psychometrician for Harvard University, criticized the act of test preparation (Koretz, 2008). As Koretz (2008) contended, the purpose of the test was to evaluate what the student has learned and the knowledge they possessed. The classroom teacher's participating in test preparation inflated the scores of an exam given in that classroom because direct participation in test-based accountability corrupted the test as a measure of student performance. (Koretz, 2008; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010, p. 160).

The more any quantitative social indicator is used for social decision –

making, the more subject it will be to corruption pressures and the more

apt it will be to distort and corrupt the social processes it is intended to

monitor. (Campbell, 1979, p. 85)

This quote was written by Donald Campbell, a sociologist in 1979, to describe

how behavior changes to meet external measures, despite the occupation (Campbell,

1979). As Ravitch (2010) stated, the law summarized the necessity to use quantitative

measures with discretion in seemingly simplistic situations. To abuse the warning was to

corrupt the very process one intended to promote (Ravitch, 2010).

Motivating the Masses

The change process requires the collective effort and motivation of all the

participants involved (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). Force proves an inappropriate

motivating factor (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Jacobs, 2010; Kuhn, 2014;

Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Rewards and punishments have proven inappropriate

motivating agents in a situation as complex as reforming public-schools (Fullan, 2011a;

Jacobs, 2010; Pink, 2009). Campaign promises were ignored and faltered as the practice

was older than most of us (Fullan, 2011a; Goyal, 2016; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014).

Words of inspiration from our aspiring leaders also went unnoticed by many (Darling-

Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a). Motivating the masses of educators in something as

complex as the public-school system is nothing short of a miracle (Fullan, 2011a).

Motivating the masses requires deliberate practice, management practices conducive to

the process of change, and appropriate motivational strategies (Fullan, 2011a).

Politicians and corporate reformers frustrated with the reform efforts with public education seem to be acting without thought (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Crawford (2009) reported the act of practice was not always a positive action. Crawford (2009) also pointed out answers do not appear to spectators. Mintzberg (2009) stated management is not a profession. Effective managers learn how to make changes through experience, not from a distance (Mintzberg, 2009; Reeves, 2009). A wise man continuously searches for new ideas, reflects on how he might implement them in his situation and possibly even improve upon them as well (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). A true reformer will behave as a responsible citizen rather than a consumer at the cost of all taxpayers where improving public education is concerned (Stitzlein, 2017).

Jon Haidt (2006) reported individuals contain two sides to the human condition, an emotional side, and a rational side. Haidt (2006) referred to the scenario using an elephant, as the emotional side, and the rider, as the rational side. As the story played out, there were many instances when the emotional side simply overpowered the rational side with action and drama, while the rational side considered situations and acted from a safe distance (Haidt, 2006). The point to this scenario addresses the theory that practice trumps theory (Haidt, 2006). Chip and Dan Heath (2010) addressed the same idea of finding a way to harness the willingness to act and get things done with the emotional side while benefiting from the logic and the thinking abilities of the logical side. The change was not a perfect process (Fullan, 2011a). The art of teaching and learning was not a perfect and logical process (Fullan, 2011a). What worked for some students and

teachers did not work for others; therefore, the logical response would be to put theory into practice, communicate and collaborate with others, reflect, make changes, and engage in more deliberate practice (Fullan, 2011a).

In Colvin's (2008) book *Talent is Overrated*, Colvin used a term "deliberate practice" to describe the effort exerted to train, learn, develop, and practice towards greatness. Colvin (2008) argued most people were not born with talent, but deliberately create and develop it. He also believed that deliberate practice was characterized with numerous key elements.

It is activity designed specifically to improve performance, often with a teacher's help; it can be repeated a lot; feedback on results is continuously available; it's highly demanding mentally, whether the activity is purely intellectual, such as chess or business-related activities, or heavily physical, such as sports; and it isn't much fun. (Colvin, 2008, p. 66)

As Colvin (2008) pointed out, the practice was deliberate, demanding, often boring, and, in many cases, painful. As a change leader, the challenge is to experience deliberate practice, while continually learning how to successfully change the organization (Fullan, 2011a).

Kluger (2008) referred to successful change as both simple and complex. The simple aspect included focusing on a few things at a time, while the complex aspect involved fusing focus and action together, not only with a few individuals but entire organizations (Fullan, 2011a; Kluger, 2008). Mourshed, Chinezi, and Barber (2010) of McKinsey & Company conducted a study concerning twenty of the world's most

improved school organizations and the fact that they were continually getting better. Over the years, as they contended, the word change came to mean many things; and one synonym it meant was inconsistent. Mourshed, Chinezi, and Barber (2010) continued to research the concept of simplicity as they observed the practices of these twenty successful institutions. One of the most important factors they observed was a healthy balance between capacity building and accountability interventions.

Businesses and organizations experimented with a more hands-off approach to management (Fullan, 2011; Mintzberg, 2009; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). The hands-off approach dictated one's authority, while the hands-on approach worked together in a collaborative manner (Fullan, 2011a; Mourshed, Chinezi, & Barber, 2010). Hopper & Hopper (2009) argued we undermine the quality and value of hands-on work and leadership. Over the last few years, American management strategies molded the hands-off leadership concept into an all-encompassing leadership style, while devaluing the quality of the hands-on leadership toward intelligence learned through reflective practice (Hopper & Hopper, 2009).

Management styles across all fields of study or professions possessed one thing in common, the human factor (Fullan, 2011a; Mintzberg, 2009; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). In the field of education, the management styles have tried to replicate a business model to bypass the human element and turn schools into an assembly line (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The field of education in the United States lost the ability to collaborate, build capacity, and engage in effective practice (Fullan, 2011a). Politicians became the ultimate management source with education consultants who lack effective leadership qualities

(Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). The best instructional practices crumble

under these types of management practices (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Since the politicians executed management control over the field of education, the

United States moved from among the top competitors internationally in education

attainment to approximately 24th, even though America tripled its per-pupil expenditures

over the same period (Cohen & Moffitt, 2009; Goldin & Katz, 2008). The top countries

with education systems support education with more tax dollars, and the citizens and

businesses tend to pay more in taxes each year (Sahlberg, 2011). During this same period

of decline, management practices successfully dismantled the educator's capacity to

engage in effective practice continuously, while increasingly disregarded and

disrespected the profession of education everywhere (Fullan, 2011a). Matthew Crawford

(2009), a PhD. in political philosophy, reflected on the benefits of engaging in hands-on

practices, "The truth does not reveal itself to idle spectators" (p. 98). Mintzberg (2009)

agreed when he advised leaders to use reflection as a foundation for action.

Good management requires action, not perfection (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

People are not perfect, and they never will be, so such expectations are incorrect (Fullan,

2011a). Pfeffer (2010) stated to "beware of the leadership literature" (p. 11). According

to him, much of what we read is misguided and deceiving. Freedman (2010) reported, "A

large percentage of expert advice is flawed" (p. 11). "Research and theory can be useful,

but only insofar as they help leaders move forward" (Fullan, 2011a, p. 3). Sutton (2010)

discussed the fact that all problems lead back to the boss and commented "because

treating people with dignity is something that skilled bosses do – but not the only thing"

(Sutton, 2010, p. 5). Management is about people (Fullan, 2011a; Freedman, 2010;

Sutton, 2010; Stewart, 2009).

> A good manager is someone … with a wide knowledge of the world
>
> and an even better knowledge of the way people work; someone
>
> who knows how to treat people with respect; someone with honesty, integrity,
>
> trustworthiness, and other things that make up character; someone in short who
>
> understands oneself and the world around us well enough to make it better.
>
> (Stewart, 2009, p. 303)

The former U.S. First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt once said, "Learn from the

mistakes of others. You can't live long enough to make them all yourself" (Sutton, 2010,

p.8). Effective managers refrain from dictation, they refrain from threats and harassing

employees, and they do not humiliate workers (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Yes,

managers need to discipline, counsel, and guide employees; however, the methods good

managers use are positive and not condescending (Sutton, 2010). Good managers learn

along with others, and they make mistakes too (Deutschman, 2009; Heath & Heath, 2010;

Johnson, 2010).

Researcher Robert Hogan (2006) reported approximately 75 percent of employees

stated that their boss was responsible for the stress they felt and were considered the

source of the stress they experienced most in their lives. Hogan (2006) continued to state,

"people do not quit organizations, they quit bad bosses" (p. 106). Robert Sutton (2010)

reported, "In businesses where a higher proportion of employees' report that their

immediate bosses care about them, employee satisfaction, retention, and productivity are higher, and so is profitability" (p. 18).

Even though the immediate boss or supervisor works closely day to day with employees, the leader of the organization plays a vital role in the management process as well (Fullan, 2011a; Sutton, 2010). Sutton (2010) took part in an experiment with a large corporate company. During this experiment, Sutton noticed that the CEO was abrasive and disrespectful. However, Sutton also realized when the CEO was out of the room, the managers and supervisors took over the unwanted behaviors. Sutton (2010) concluded, "The ways that senior leaders treat direct reports creates numerous other ripple effects that travel down and across the hierarchy, shaping a company's culture and performance" (p. 18). Management molded employee experiences of happiness or frustration, motivated good or bad performances, and influenced whether one was healthy or sick (Sutton, 2010).

The influx of corporate reformers joined politicians in the war on education and made it exceedingly difficult to find good bosses in public education (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Reeves, 2009). The corporate reformers were exceptionally successful in business; however, that did not make them effective educational bosses (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). Ryan and Deci (2017) stated, "With all the pressures on educators to foster academic achievement, it is too often forgotten that schools are more than learning factories – they are contexts for child and adolescent development" (p. 353). Klein (2014) agreed that public-schools must move away from the factory style of

learning and move towards innovative practices. Corporate reformers know how to make money; they are typically aggressive and motivated, and they take charge (Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). Employees of these types of leaders in business settings only follow their lead to be successful themselves (Pink, 2009). However, although success in business may equal successful business leaders, it does not necessarily equal successful educational leaders (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). At some point, many successful business leaders surrender the human element, to become even more successful (Sutton, 2010). At what point, did selling one's soul become profitable (Pink, 2009)? Organizations operate under negative pretenses and create a toxic environment (Sutton, 2010). Businesses also operate under the notion that their practices must be cut-throat, competitive, urgent, and deceptive (Sutton, 2010). The goals of business are to make money for the boss (Pink, 2009; Sutton, 2010). Ethical behavior and keeping your soul intact means less control and, in some cases, less money (Pink, 2009; Sutton, 2010). Good bosses protect their employees and genuinely care for them (Sutton, 2010). Business as usual, preceding the human spirit, only creates employees like their bosses, selfish, greedy, and controlling (Pink, 2009).

Good managers constantly work on two main components: performance and humanity (Sutton, 2010). One task of a manager is to motivate employees to perform (Pink, 2009). There are two methods of gaining compliance: 1) extrinsic motivation; or 2) intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Extrinsic motivation demands compliance through force and control (Pink, 2009). Townsend (2007/1970) believed that managers needed to dispose of employee's excuses for failure. According to Townsend (2007), managers

drove motivation by greed for money. Some economic theorists believed one could make people change through rewards and punishments (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000); however, according to Michael Fullan (2011a), Douglas Reeves (2009), and Daniel Pink (2009), the changes were superficial and typically short-term. Townsend's (2007) study demonstrated that by incorporating a punishment, the participants did not stop the unwanted behavior; and, now, some of the acceptable behavior participants turned to choosing unacceptable behaviors instead. The study demonstrated that, by incorporating a punishment, one ended up with more of the behavior that the individual did not want in the first place (Townsend, 2007). By contrast, the only method for achieving intrinsic motivation in the workplace is to work with the employee through mutual respect and engagement (Pink, 2009; Sutton, 2010).

The second component that good managers incorporate is humanity (Sutton, 2010). When employees are treated with sincere dignity and respect, employees give loyalty to the company (Fullan, 2011a; Sutton, 2010; Pink, 2009). Dignity and respect promotes employee performance (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009; Sutton, 2010). The withdrawal of dignity and respect creates anger and resentment in employees (Pink, 2009).

The federal government and corporate reformers argue that teachers are being protected by the unions, when the teachers need to be held directly accountable and take direct responsibility for student performance (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The politicians projected by mandating rewards and punishments, teachers will be properly motivated to perform

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The purpose of this study, Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation, is to take an academic look at motivational theories and discern whether extrinsic rewards and punishments are an appropriate motivational factor for educators. Politicians and corporate reformers started the war on education when they refused to listen, collaborate, or compromise on reform movement actions (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

Many of the proposed sanctions appeared to be more of the same demands, just elevated to a higher degree (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Thus, the proposed outcome for this imposed reform effort was a continual failure; however, the higher degree of mandates and consequences speculated the occurrence of much collateral damage in the name of accountability (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). According to Ravitch (2010, p. 2), skepticism and doubt were symbols of remaining open-minded and rational. Doubt was an indicator of the ability to think and process new information and evidence objectively (Ravitch, 2010). An over-certainty of one's theories and actions lead to arrogance and power or control (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). The fact that politicians and corporate reformers support theories that contain no evidence to support their success suggests there are ulterior motives at work (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kohn, 2011; Kuhn, 2014; Kumashiro, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Kumashiro (2012) reported that by creating a nationwide panic and urgency over failing education institutions, new business opportunities appeared. Kumashiro (2012)

contended that the push towards choice, accountability, and charter schools created a new

business venture for anyone who could recognize the potential, such as corporate,

business, and political leaders. *News Corp.*'s Rupert Murdoch stated public education

was a $500 billion market, and investors anxiously awaited the opportunity to make a

profit from its existence (Kamenetz, 2013). The public education system drains our

country's tax dollars more than any other institution (Kumashiro, 2012). Other countries

proudly take on paying high tax dollars toward developing a worldwide successful

education system (Sahlberg, 2011). Businesses in the United States frown upon paying

any amount of tax dollars, especially for education (Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a;

Ravitch, 2010). The majority of a state's budget is marked for education; teacher salaries,

health care benefits, retirement packages, building maintenance, administration costs,

largely due to the hard-working efforts of the unions (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). What most of

the public does not know is that private schools and charter schools many times do not

offer retirement, healthcare benefits, or a competitive salary for their employees (Ravitch,

2014, 2010). Private schools and charter schools create a financial burden on the

employee in exchange for well-behaved students (Ravitch, 2010).

Therefore, charter schools are one-way that business and political leaders prosper

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Charter schools were created to promote

choice and competition and perhaps specialize in a subject area (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009; Ravitch, 2010). Charter schools require an application process and possess the

ability to impose requirements of the parents and students that public-schools do not

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). For this reason, one speculates charter

schools are superior with their international testing scores; yet, research shows they are

on an average with their public-school counterparts (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014;

Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Unfortunately, like all other endeavors, criminals find their way

into these business ventures (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Anyone with a plea applied to open a

charter school (Ravitch, 2010). Millions of dollars across the nation were embezzled by

leaders of charter schools (Ravitch, 2010). It was also important to note, just like public-

schools, some prove effective and some prove ineffective (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Every

school continues to be unique (Ravitch, 2010). Fear also created a window of opportunity

for many businesses (Kumashiro, 2012). As corporate reformers and political leaders

preached accountability for failing schools, the demand for uniform textbooks and testing

supplies increased (Kumashiro, 2012). Scripted direct instruction curriculum, published

textbooks, teacher manuals, worksheets, assessments, and other materials prove to be a

billion-dollar industry (Kumashiro, 2012; Ravitch, 2010). High-stakes testing requires

expensive testing and recording supplies, possible tutoring services, and test preparation

materials (Kumashiro, 2012).

Unclear learning standards can also be profitable, not financially, but socially and

politically, much like charter schools (Kumashiro, 2012). Discrimination issues, as well

as subjective biases affecting race, gender, ability, and class, offer privileges to certain

groups (Kumashiro, 2012). Political leaders have regulated for years what can be taught

and how it will be taught in our public-schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a;

Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Through knowledge and perspective, certain social groups

profit from this type of schooling (Kumashiro, 2012).

Policymakers and politicians encourage the idea of accountability through quantitative measurement systems designed to maximize public service efficiency (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). In the past, economists, sociologists, and management theorists, such as Ridley, Simon, and Campbell, and many others all counseled against accountability systems relying solely or primarily on numerical outcome measures (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). Researchers caution policymakers against holding employees directly accountable using numerical measures simply because the use of numerical measures only improves conditions short-term at best and the improvements are purely subjective (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goldstein, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Furthermore, since employee focus concentrates on a single measure, all other aspects of the job are neglected in the preparation of students to take the numerical measure (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). By focusing on a numerical measure, the problem simply shifts from one issue to another (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). When politicians fixate on testing, they create new problems on top of the old problems (Pink, 2009). Concentrating efforts on the main issue causes accountability to follow naturally (Rothstein, Jacobsen, & Wilder, 2008).

Relying on a standardized test to provide numerical data that indicates student achievement is unreliable (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Kohn, 2011; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). First, a standardized test is not capable of reliably indicating student knowledge (Kohn, 2011). Student knowledge may be measured in a variety of ways, and the data should only be used to drive instruction (Kohn, 2011;

Koretz, 2008; Pink, 2009). Tests are inadequate as a single measure to identify learning

abilities and overall curriculum achievement (Kohn, 2011; Koretz, 2008; Nichols &

Berliner, 2007; Ravitch, 2014). Education policymakers were advised to carefully

analyze these apparent challenges before rushing into a new piece of education legislation

(Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009). Too much reliance on quantitative measures and

a 'get tough' attitude against educators contributes to the destruction of the very resource

that is most important to the field of education and student achievement (Berliner &

Glass, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Tommy Lasorda, a famous baseball

player and manager, compared the art of management to that of holding a dove (Sutton,

2010, p.21). If one held the dove too tight, one prevented the dove from moving, living,

and being happy (Sutton, 2010). If one held the dove too loosely, the dove flew away

(Sutton, 2010). Managers need to find a balance between too tight and too loose, not a

'get tough' attitude (Sutton, 2010).

Politicians tried promoting family values due to failing public-schools and were

setting the stage for nationwide panic in defense of our children against the big bad

teacher (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Nationwide fear

keeps the public from questioning the actions of our corporate reformers and political

leaders (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The people need to feel reassured that their children's best

interests are protected (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Political leaders

no longer tolerate ineffective teachers plaguing our nation (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009;

Ravitch, 2010). Misrepresentations, such as the film, *Waiting for Superman*, and massive

school closures and firing of teachers for being ineffective in New York and San Diego,

sent a clear message to the public (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goldstein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Kumashiro (2012) urged the public to decide for themselves who was being deceptive and who was honorable. A journalist noted it was difficult to believe education reformers acted in the best interest of the students, while reformers collected earnings and the teachers poured their heart and soul into teaching and walked away with nothing but the experience (Sirota, 2013). Motivated teachers remained and improved their skills and career (Ravitch, 2010). Constantly belittled and harassed teachers would leave (Ravitch, 2010). Consider what occurred in New York and San Diego (Ravitch, 2010). The managers sat back and collected a six-figure salary, while they accepted none of the responsibility (Ravitch, 2010). The teachers were judged by student performance, after teaching a program prescribed by the managers (Ravitch, 2010). The teaching job chosen would be picked depending upon working conditions and other motivational factors (Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers chased and ridiculed teachers for decades for not working miracles and putting up with the filthy mess they created (Kuhn, 2014). Teachers need to revolt and stand against the uninformed politicians and corporate reformers to create a new and effective public-school system that benefits everyone involved (Kuhn, 2014).

This study, entitled Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation, was a transformative-emancipatory mixed methods case study designed to analyze what would motivate teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change. The study took place at a single-site location using research designs that collected both qualitative and quantitative data. School reform failure occurred simply because of superficial changes that did not address

the real problem (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2014; Reeves, 2009). Politicians and corporate

reformers forced change practices and created an educational situation where no one

wants to associate with anything attributing to education. The ideas and policies proposed

and instigated by politicians and corporate reformers actually destroys the ability of the

public-school system to nurture our children to become informed citizens (Fullan, 2011a;

Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

Change of Heart

Diane Ravitch, employed as an educational historian, is passionate about

American public-schools and the role an education plays in a democracy. In the spring of

1991, President George H. W. Bush asked Diane to work for the U.S. Department of

Education. Both the Clinton and Bush administrations worked to reinvent government,

including the public education system. Ravitch supported the theory that government-run

schools were a monopoly of unmotivated teachers (Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch also

supported the suggestion that schools needed to run like a business with accountability,

merit pay systems, and school choice such as charter schools. Ravitch looked upon

public-schooling from a distance removed from teachers, from students, and from

society. In April 2009, Ravitch resigned as thoughts of the choice and accountability

movements were becoming unappealing (Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch argued that

"curriculum and instruction are far more important than choice and accountability,"

which drew a crowd of corporate reformers as an audience (Ravitch, 2010, p. 12). Testing

was considered more of a result than just another measurement. Accountability measures

became more of a process of a checklist rather than inspiration (Ravitch, 2010). In time,

the negative consequences of the politicians and corporate reformers reformation destroyed the hope of renewing the public-school system and began destroying the very essence of America's democracy (Ravitch, 2010). Corporate reformers and politicians referred to accountability as structural changes such as merit pay systems, student test performance, and teacher's job descriptions. "Accountability makes no sense when it undermines the larger goals of education" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 16). Standardized tests and data replaced a strong curriculum and reflective learning in the American public-schools.

Public-school reform spiraled down when George W. Bush took office and made education a priority. The NCLB movement caused much damage as it focused on testing, choice, and teacher accountability, which had nothing to do with actual learning (Ravitch, 2010). Advocates of teachers and public-schools thought President Obama would refresh the corporate reformers, thinking Linda Darling-Hammond from Stanford University, a teacher advocate, would be appointed to the U.S. Department of Education from President Obama's personal education staff. However, corporate reformers convinced President Obama that Darling-Hammond was an advocate of teachers' unions, and President Obama elected Arne Duncan from Chicago instead (Ravitch, 2010). Race to the Top legislation corrupted even more of the public education system than did NCLB (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Race to the Top instigated competition among schools, directly linked merit pay with student performance not teacher performance and turned management over to private business leaders (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Corporate reformers developed a false sense of crisis and theorized public-schools would degrade the

American way of life (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

The truth lay in the evidence (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). *A Nation at Risk, "*warned that the nation would be harmed economically and socially unless education was dramatically improved for all children" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 25).

Politicians and corporate reformers sought the privatization of the public-schools so that investors could profit from children (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Evidence clearly benefitted the educators, yet politicians and corporate reformers continued to push the privatization agenda, ignoring the actual crisis of childhood poverty in America and worsening desegregation within the schools through the development of charter schools, school choice, merit pay and accountability systems (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley, & Wang, 2011; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Diane Ravitch advocated on the side of public education and teachers as the politicians, and corporate reformers developed school reformation into a civil war between socioeconomic classes and childhood poverty in America (Ravitch, 2014).

Jamie Vollmer began his career as an attorney and then turned his attention to the private sector as he developed a successful ice cream company. Dr. William Lepley, Iowa's Secretary of Education, approached Vollmer in the fall of 1988 to sit on the Iowa Business and Education Roundtable (Vollmer, 2010). The Roundtable served as a forum for both public and private sectors, which joined forces to reform and make recommendations for Iowa's public-schools. Jamie attended meetings but had nothing to contribute to the public-school crisis in the beginning (Vollmer, 2010). Vollmer shared

only what was produced through the media. Not one individual from the Roundtable ever

discussed the crisis with the public-schools, with an actual teacher, students, or parents

(Vollmer, 2010). Business leaders argued teachers were protected by the unions and

served as a monopoly (Vollmer, 2010). Business leaders of the Roundtable continued to

interject that public-schools needed to be managed like a business (Vollmer, 2010).

Vollmer continued to volunteer with the Roundtable for the next two years and

became the organization's first executive director (Vollmer, 2010). Most education

groups want nothing to do with the Roundtable, as the members appear arrogant and

ignorant of teaching or managing a school (Vollmer, 2010). Within one year of traveling

on the road, an education group called Vollmer to speak. Vollmer spoke at a local high

school to teachers, secretaries, paraprofessionals, lunch attendants, bus drivers, and

administrators. Vollmer proceeded with the speech focused on change. When Vollmer

finished his speech, the superintendent asked Vollmer to address questions from the

audience. What happened next became known as the Blueberry Story.

An English teacher asked Vollmer about his ice cream business. Vollmer talked

about using Triple-A ingredients, advertising, and business expenses (Vollmer, 2010).

The English teacher proceeded to ask, when "those blueberries do not meet your Triple-A

standards, what do you do?" (Vollmer, 2010, p. 21). Vollmer replied in so many words

the blueberries must be sent back to the vendor. The English teacher replied:

That's right! You send them back. We can never send back the blueberries

our suppliers send us. We take them big, small, rich, poor, hungry, abused,

confident, curious, homeless, frightened, rude, creative, violent, and brilliant. We take them of every race, religion, and ethnic background. We take them with head lice, ADHD, and advanced asthma. We take them with juvenile rheumatoid arthritis, English as their second language, and who knows how much lead in their veins. We take them all, Mr. Vollmer! Every one! And *that's* why it's not a business. It's school! (Vollmer, 2010, p.21)

All the teachers sprang to their feet and cheered "Blueberries, Blueberries, Blueberries!" (Vollmer, 2010, p. 21). Over the next several months which led to years, Vollmer researched the idea that schools would not function as a business. Even the idea of customer service took on a whole new meaning because everything was subjective, who was the customer and who decided what was what? There are no concrete answers; and, because politicians and corporate reformers cut the actual teachers out of the conversations, the message remains in a bottle lost at sea. Vollmer's message states individuals make assumptions about the world around them until it makes sense to them (Vollmer, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers recruit business leaders because business practices make sense to them. To fix the public-school systems, one must become involved with all aspects of the school, neither lead from afar nor micromanaged (Vollmer, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers held the power, control, and the money concerning public education. However there are three million teachers in America and billions of students and parents who make up the majority vote (Goldstein, 2014). Americans must stand up and be heard and make sure everyone hears the real message (Vollmer, 2010).

Summary

The war on education began because politicians and corporate reformers disagreed with each other's views on education (Ravitch, 2010). Educators wanted to develop an institution of learning, creativity, and innovation, while politicians only wanted to see competitive test scores (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kohn, 2011; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). For whatever reason, politicians, and corporate reformers have banded together in a war against teachers (Goyal, 2016; Ravitch, 2010). Some believe politicians and reformers are building the business of test preparation centers and supplies (Kumashiro, 2012). Others believe the politicians and corporate reformers want to encourage privatization of our public-schools (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Others believe there is a conspiracy of some sort to avoid paying numerous tax dollars (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kumashiro, 2012; Ravitch, 2014). The bottom line projects that politicians and corporate reformers are making professional educational decisions without the expertise required to make such decisions appropriately (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Kumashiro, 2012; Ravitch, 2014, 2010).

The change process requires all participants to work together in harmony towards a universal goal (Fullan, 2011a, 2009, 2008). The fact that the politicians' goal wants to elevate test scores, and the educators' goal wants to promote learning and innovation creates a problem (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Reform efforts need to reflect on results (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Reeves, 2009). The 'get tough' procedure produces results, and what kind of

results are produced? Do the students learn, and at what cost? Is it possible for teachers to

teach students to become critical thinkers when they have no autonomy and are not

treated with respect (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009)? Proponents of teacher motivation have

started the movement towards unlocking student potential; and, currently, the process is

through extrinsic rewards and punishments for teachers through merit pay, fear, and

control (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). Policies, programs, and methods that

are effective long-term and that are motivating and dignified for all participants to be

successful are unfulfilled (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Imposing anything upon a group or

upon individuals will not be successful long-term (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Section 3: Research Methods

Research Method

My purpose in this study was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation (rewards and punishments) that motivate teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to learn about and use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability and, thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to study and learn. Currently, teachers are managed through rewards and punishments, or extrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). I asserted that there was another way to motivate educators intrinsically through The Third Drive. The sequential process of data collection was intended to shed light on which motivation structures and components teachers believed were the most motivating to improve their teaching. The desired long-term result of using intrinsic motivation management methods was that teachers would choose to use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability, and thus, their *indirect* influence on their students' choice to study and learn.

A transformative-emancipatory design demonstrated an educator's theoretical lens would provide an overarching framework for the study. Specifically, the teachers in the study were asked to consider management components from intrinsic motivation. The transformative-emancipatory design described many negative outcomes that had transpired; politicians and corporate reformers treated teachers as scapegoats for the instructional practices, accountability measures, and motivation tactics instigated through an inexperienced management force (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). Through the transformative-emancipatory design,

using an educator theoretical lens, society may be empowered by the knowledge that politicians and corporate reformers were managing and taking control over a profession for which they were ill-suited to make professional decisions (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010).

The study included both quantitative and qualitative data gathered sequentially (Table 7). The quantitative data were used to evaluate the question of whether the politicians' extrinsic motivation tactics had positively influenced teachers at XYZ Elementary School. I used the qualitative interview data to explore in greater depth the question of whether the politicians' extrinsic motivation tactics of rewards and punishments had positively influenced teachers at XYZ Elementary School and what tenets of the intrinsic motivation quantitative data collection tools they believed were worthwhile for inciting change in schools.

Quantitative Data Collection and Analyses

Quantitative researchers emphasize control and quantified measurements to discover and analyze data scientifically (Hoy, 2010). Quantitative researchers concentrate on developing and testing hypotheses to explain behavior (Hoy, 2010, p. 1). They also focus on building models from which to generalize across borders (Hoy, 2010). Hoy (2010) stated, "Measurement and statistics are central to quantitative research because they are the connections between empirical observation and mathematical expressions of relations" (p .1).

Quantitative researchers are interested in labeling, generalizing, and experimenting with previously researched and observed behavior (Hoy, 2010).

Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding and discovering unexamined patterns of behavior and the underlying thought or emotions that go with them. In this study, quantitative tools were used to gather data on previously researched basic behaviors and opinions, but qualitative interviews were then used to more deeply understand teachers' responses to the quantitative instruments.

Thus, I sought to build on prior research used to develop the two quantitative measures the study used. The quantitative descriptive statistics (rankings) served to inform the qualitative research interviews. The interviews probed teachers for their thoughts, emotions, and experiences that underlay the patterns appearing in the quantitative results. For example, planning, sense of urgency, personal support, personal focus, and effect on results are the categories for ranking life changes from one to 10 on the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment. Therefore, if Mrs. Smith entered in really low quantitative data in one of the categories, this would be a good theme to follow up with her during the interview. Why did Mrs. Smith indicate this repeatedly? If two out of 17 teachers were found to be reluctant to change because of the lack of time during the school day, then this would be a pattern to follow up with these two participants during the interview process. In contrast, patterns that emerged across teachers in the data indicated a theme that was followed up with all teachers during their interviews. For example, if twelve out of seventeen teachers were found to be reluctant to change because of the team approach in a professional learning community, then this was a pattern to follow up with all participants during the interview process.

Quantitative research is logical and systematic, and the experiments and assessments control the statistics stemming from numerically based measurements (Hoy, 2010). Most experimental research using the actual random assignment of subjects to groups is rare in education, as it is difficult to obtain parental permission (Hoy, 2010). This study focused on adults rather than students. It is impossible to assign teachers randomly to schools that operate under extrinsic or intrinsic motivation management structures and compare the results on the items in the quantitative tools used in this study. Therefore, the quantitative scientific method of collecting quantitative data and looking for correlations or significant differences between and within populations was not feasible.

Instead, this study's quantitative data was used to generate descriptive statistics of the entire group of teachers' responses in an extrinsic motivation sense regarding the intrinsic motivation data collection tools. This procedure served two purposes. First, the data was used to gain a sense of the overall groups' perceptions and report those findings. Second, the quantitative data analyses informed the qualitative interview questions about the intrinsic motivation tenets in comparison to extrinsic motivation. Table 7 provides a list of the sequence in which the quantitative instruments were used to answer each research question. The data analyses that occurred during each sequential step of the research are listed. Finally, the qualitative interview was last and was used to follow up on the quantitative findings in greater depth and explanation.

Quantitative Instruments

  Organizational change readiness assessment. Politicians and corporate reformers accuse educators of being stubborn, lazy, unmotivated, and unwilling to change (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment is a quantitatively based measurement designed to indicate a phase of the change readiness process for an individual (Reeves, 2009). The purpose of the assessment is to pinpoint a phase or category of concepts to address and promote long-term change reforms. The assessment indicates four phases of change readiness: Ready for Learning, Ready for Change, Ready for Resistance, and Ready for Frustration (p. 33). The assessment also takes into consideration the personal lives of the participants and the influences those characteristics may have upon changes in the workplace (Reeves, 2009). This assessment addressed the research question: To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change.

  Intrinsic Motivation background. Throughout the twentieth century, it was common knowledge and practice to view life through the lens of extrinsic motivation, more commonly known as rewards and punishments, in our personal and professional relationships and practices (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Despite the early studies of Harry F. Harlow in the 1940's and Edward Deci's work for the 1960's, the notion of another driving motivational force, or The Third Drive, had never really been acknowledged in a personal or professional public view (Pink, 2009). Movement from the Industrial Age to the Technological Age forced many organizations to alter their methods of doing

Table 7

List of Research Questions and Measurement Tools

Research Questions	Type of Analysis	Research Instrument
Question 1: What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?	Qualitative	Interview
Question 2: To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?	Quantitative (Rankings)	Organizational Change Readiness Assessment: Four categories of readiness, Ready for Change, Ready for Learning, Ready for Frustration, and Ready for Resistance
Question 3: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting changes?	Quantitative (Rankings)	Autonomy Audit: Four categories of Autonomy: Time, Team, Task, and Technique
Question 4: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in their mastery levels to make lasting changes?	Quantitative (Rankings) and Qualitative	Flow Test experiment
Question 5: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?	Qualitative	What's Your Sentence Exercise

business (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers operate under the assumption of extrinsic motivation, or rewards and punishments, as a means of motivating individuals in a professional capacity (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Educational researchers and teachers operate under a different assumption known as intrinsic motivation, The Third Drive, or the belief in motivating factors coming from within, driving individuals to do their best without the use of rewards and punishments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Pink (2009) separated intrinsic motivation into three main categories: autonomy, mastery, and purpose.

Intrinsic motivation autonomy: autonomy audit. Autonomy is one of the attributes of intrinsic motivation or The Third Drive (Pink, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2008). Motivating autonomy is the degree of control and choice an individual experiences in each situation (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Pink, 2009). Autonomy is broken down into four categories: task, time, technique, and team (Pink, 2009). Many business and educational leaders proclaimed that their employees had autonomy in the workplace (Pink, 2009). However, employees typically felt there was very little autonomy in the workplace (Pink, 2009). By administering the quantitative-based Autonomy Audit created by Pink (2009, p. 166-167) one can determine and measure to what degree employees perceive themselves having the gift of autonomy in the workplace. The audit, from Pink (2009), is separated into the four categories of autonomy. The employee rates the categories on a scale from zero to ten. Zero is related to a prison atmosphere with relatively no autonomy, while a score of ten is related to Woodstock (Pink, 2009). The researcher then adds all the anonymous scores and take an average score. Usually, open-minded leaders

became humble at the site of the scores on an Autonomy Audit (Pink, 2009). The audit

may indicate a problem area that did not appear before (Pink, 2009). The Autonomy

Audit simply offers further data to validate a strength or weakness of the organization

(Pink, 2009). In this study, the Autonomy Audit was used in response to the research

question, "To what degree, do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the

autonomy to promote lasting change?"

Quantitative and Qualitative Instrument

   Intrinsic Motivation Mastery: The flow test. The second attribute of intrinsic

motivation is mastery (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). People experience true intrinsic

motivation through engagement (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy leads to

engagement. Engagement leads to mastery (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The

mystery behind fulfillment experienced from mental or physical activities without the use

of extrinsic rewards and punishments still eludes the majority of individuals today

(Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008) is the founding

researcher into the concept known as "the flow" or an optimal experience. A flow

experience is described as, "The state in which people are so involved in an activity that

nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it

even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 4). Flow

experiences requires a positive, challenging component, skilled performance; specific

goals met with immediate feedback, and concentration so deep that doubt, negativity, and

feelings of anxiety are unheard of and time seems to fly away (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990,

2008).

In one of his earlier experiments, Csikszentmihalyi (1990) created a flow test. The experiment may be used with an individual or in a group setting (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). For this study, the participants were the individual teachers in a classroom setting. Each participant received a pager or timer that was programmed to go off at random times during the work week. At the time the pager went off, the participant was asked to rate the level of flow and jot down what they were doing in a word or phrase. At the end of the day or during a break, the participant was asked to elaborate on the days' activities and provide a short reflection on flow experiences versus non-flow experiences. Further speculative questions were asked of participants to reflect on times of day, type of activities, distractions, and how an individual could reorganize activities to optimize the number of flow experiences. The Flow Test is a quantitative and qualitative based experiment and was in response to the research question, "To what degree, do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?"

Qualitative Instruments

Qualitative research: Interview. The intent of qualitative research is to acquire knowledge and improve upon a task, situation, practice, or experiences within a profession or organization (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research allows the researcher to learn more about human behavior and social interactions in the natural setting (Merriam, 2009). A qualitative method provides an opportunity to discover more about the human nature of an organization or situation in a social context (Merriam, 2009). Social sciences, such as education, health, social work, and management all belong to the field

of social science simply because acknowledgment of the human condition is a critical and complex element for success (Merriam, 2009).

Merriam (2009) stated, "Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences" (p. 5). Qualitative research requires innovative thinking to connect meaningful scenarios to subjective data collection and analysis. Therefore, qualitative researchers many times engage in a study due to an inadequate or non-existing theory to explain a phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). Such inductive research allows the researcher to obtain data to build ideas, concepts, or theories (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research is about addressing the aspects of the human element and applying what is learned to our daily lives and experiences. "I believe that research focused on the discovery, insight, and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making a difference in people's lives" (Merriam, 2009, p. 1).

The main research question of this mixed study, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" was addressed using qualitative methods. Individual teacher interviews analyzed this research question. The researcher chose to complete individual interviews towards the end of the study because the topic of professional motivation is controversial and personal. In an individual interview, the researcher had the opportunity to observe an in-depth personal view of each participant's perceptions (Merriam, 2009).

Intrinsic motivation of purpose: what's your sentence. The third attribute of intrinsic motivation is the purpose (Pink, 2009). The sense of purpose was the second attribute analyzed in a qualitative manner, addressing the research question, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?" With a sense of mastery, purpose begins to emerge (Pink, 2009). Purpose engages both work and personal life (Pink, 2009). In extrinsic motivation, purpose did not and could not exist as a motivating factor, since it was not a reward or punishment (Pink, 2009). Purpose pertains to the concept of "why" and was organized into three factors: goals, words, and policies (Pink, 2009).

Daniel Pink (2009) devised the test called *What's Your Sentence* derived from Clare Boothe Luce. Luce, who was one of the first women to serve in the U.S. Congress in 1962 (Pink, 2009), gave advice to President John F. Kennedy, saying, "A great man," she told him, "is a sentence" (Pink, 2009, p. 154). The What's your Sentence test was used to ask each individual to summarize purpose in a single sentence (Pink, 2009). The researcher then collected and analyzed the purpose assessment as perceived by the educators at XYZ Elementary School. The data itself was subjective and could be of a personal or professional nature. Since the data for this test was individual written verbal responses, it was considered subjective, non-numerical or verbal, and open to interpretation. The exercise was, therefore, qualitative in nature.

Mixed methods studies have gained popularity over the past few decades and are now considered the third choice in design research methodology (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The mixed methods research paradigm utilizes both qualitative and

quantitative data and methodology in one inclusive research project (Creswell & Plano

Clark, 2011).

> Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as
> well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical
> assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture
> of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process.
> As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and
> qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the
> use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better
> understanding of research problems than either approach alone. (Creswell &
> Plano Clark, 2007, p. 5)

Further speculation indicates that the strengths and weaknesses of both types of research

design help to validate the results of the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). By adding

a second research method, the researcher enhances the study, whereas one method may

be insufficient in providing complete results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Quantitative measures may indicate a trend or possible scenario, but do not tell the whole

story. Qualitative measures may support or refute the quantitative results through an

interview or personal story (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The researcher's intent on mixing methods in this study was to gain access to the

entire story or perspective. From a quantitative perspective, the researcher can compare a

null hypothesis to a directional hypothesis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The null

hypothesis may read, there is no significant difference in the effects of external rewards

and punishments on the motivation of teachers to influence student performance when compared to other motivational methods. The directional hypothesis may read, teachers are more motivated to teach and influence student performance when the teachers are under a system of external rewards and punishments than when they are under other systems. The quantitative data provided information on the teacher's readiness to change, the teacher's perceptions of autonomy at work, and numerical data on the teacher's opportunities to engage in optimal experiences. The data was still incomplete as to the question, Why? What was missing for the teachers? How do teachers feel about the situation and the motivation tactics? Qualitative measures have the ability to gain some insights into the feelings and behaviors of the teachers and why they were or were not ready to change.

Research Design and Approach

Creswell (2009) proposed three factors which help to build the structure of the overall design method, including the philosophical view, strategies of inquiry, and the specific research method. The philosophical view, or worldview, is a set of beliefs and theories that support and guide the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). "Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods designs or models that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design" (Creswell, 2009, p. 11). The research method refers to the framework which influences the types of data collection, analysis, and interpretation of the data (Creswell, 2009, p. 15). The three types of acceptable research methods include: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods.

Philosophical views, or worldviews, influence how a research study is constructed and conducted depending on the researcher's basic set of beliefs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The two paradigms that fit best with this study are pragmatism and transformativism. In some instances, paradigms may be used as a general philosophical orientation and even combined with some mixed studies.

Pragmatism is most generally associated with mixed studies, as opposed to strictly qualitative or quantitative studies (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatists focus on the research questions, instead of the research method (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The pragmatist view is also associated with multiple forms of data, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). As the pragmatist view embraces both qualitative and quantitative data, the researcher may also combine inductive and deductive thinking throughout the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The pragmatist view takes a 'whatever works attitude', using diverse methods, and objective and subjective thinking (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Also, the idea of truth and reality are discarded (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Hoy and Miskel (2008) indicated that theories are concepts, definitions, assumptions, and generalizations. Hoy (2010) reported, "Theories are by nature general and abstract; they are not strictly true or false, but rather they are either useful or not useful" (p. 10). The post-positivist philosophical view held to the idea that absolute truth remains lost (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Post-positivist philosophical researchers with this view seek evidence to prove a hypothesis only in the present because examining human behavior proves ever changing (Hoy, 2010). Research

with this type of philosophical viewpoint continues to explore theories and possible

hypotheses until newer and stronger claims are made (Hoy, 2010).

Less commonly known was the emancipatory paradigm. The Emancipatory

Theory takes a stance for the underrepresented or marginalized groups and calls for

change (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The Emancipatory Theory is one of two theories

to form the theoretical foundation of this study. The theoretical foundation is the beliefs

and ideals chosen by the researcher to provide direction throughout many phases of a

mixed study. The transformative based theoretical framework exists to identify a social

injustice or power imbalance within an organization or marginalized group (Creswell &

Plano Clark, 2011). The researcher is interested in change and improving social justice in

the field of public education. Mertens (2003) researched the transformative design and

shared some recommendations.

> Transformative . . . scholars recommend the adoption of an explicit
>
> goal for research to serve the ends of creating a more just and democratic society
>
> that permeates the entire research process, from the problem formulation to the
>
> drawing of conclusions and the use of results. (p. 159)

Mertens (2009) provided the framework for using the Emancipatory Theory with mixed

methods research. The name for this framework is transformative and includes the

researcher's assumptions and philosophical views. "These assumptions are that

knowledge is not neutral and is influenced by human interests. Knowledge reflects the

power and social relationships within society, and the purpose of knowledge construction

is to aid people in improving society" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 44). Most

marginalized groups or underrepresented groups or people fall into typical categories,

such as feminists, racial groups, and people with disabilities (Creswell & Plano Clark,

2011). For all intents of this study, the researcher proposes that classroom teachers are

underrepresented. Classroom teachers have had mandates and sanctions imposed upon

them without a voice, as the politicians shut out the teachers from all discussions about

education (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers have replaced

the balance of power concerning topics of educational importance (Ravitch, 2010; Pink,

2009). The social injustice is that politicians and corporate reformers are in direct control

over educators, without the knowledge, understanding, or expertise to make executive

educational decisions (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). Educators are at the

mercy of the politicians who withdraw the profession's autonomy and right to teach in an

appropriate manner (Pink, 2009). Politicians claim they are acting in the best interest of

the children, while teachers are selfish and unmotivated (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009;

Ravitch, 2010).

  As with any research design, the transformative-emancipatory design has some

strengths and some weaknesses (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The transformative

framework allows the emancipatory theoretical perspective to provide advocacy for the

marginalized group (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The researcher is then able to collect

useful and reliable qualitative and quantitative data. The participants often play an active

role in the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Furthermore, the researcher is now

able to empower the group or individuals to bring about the possibility of action and change (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

One of the biggest challenges in using a transformative-emancipatory design is the lack of support and guidance through literature (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Also, in a study such as this, the researcher needs to develop a trusting relationship with the participants to conduct research in a sensitive and meaningful way (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Currently, there are three strategies of inquiry, including quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Creswell, 2009). Research designs are plans, followed by procedures for research (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research is a plan to research a social or human problem. It usually uses an inductive style to derive meaning from a complex issue (Creswell, 2009). Researchers typically develop emerging questions and use procedures in the form of focus groups, interviews, and other types of non-numerical measures, while the research usually takes place in the participants' setting (Creswell, 2009).

A qualitative study is conducted to learn more about human behavior and social interactions in the natural setting (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative researchers are intrigued with the individual interpretation of life experiences (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009). Human behavior is at the core of qualitative research, and many times it is difficult to generalize findings due to the complex nature of the human condition (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009).

Data derived from personal perception appears weaker than data collected numerically (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Many times, the researcher's biases and interpretations significantly influence the results of the research study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The positive side to a qualitative study is that it is personal, and it gives the participants a voice (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009). Qualitative measures have the opportunity to support or refute quantitative results through an interview or personal story (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Quantitative research is a method used to test theories objectively by observing and studying the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2009). The relationship between variables, measured by numerical means and statistical procedures, emulates validity. Quantitative researchers like to explain behaviors and generalize their findings (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative research is a scientific investigation that followed logical and systematic procedures (Hoy, 2010). Quantitative researchers arrive at conclusions through deductive reasoning and a strict sense of objectivity (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) reported, "Quantitative research is weak in understanding the context or setting in which people talk. Also, the voices of participants are not directly heard in quantitative research" (p. 12). The participants do not have a direct voice concerning the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Many times, the researchers are removed from the situation or somewhere in the background; and the researcher's views, biases, and interpretations are rarely discussed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative measures may indicate a trend or possible scenario; however,

without a voice, the deeper story remains to be told (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009).

Again, a mixed methods research design is an approach in which the researcher may employ both qualitative and quantitative measures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The strength of the study becomes greater for mixed methods since the collection of data and analysis involves both quantitative and qualitative measures, thus, strengthening the overall study by addressing the weaknesses of both types of measures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Bryman (2006) further reported on six reasons why a mixed methods design is reliable and valid. The first reason is a triangulation of measurement or greater validity. By triangulating the findings from at least three different measures, the researcher brings greater validity to the study. Second, by offsetting the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative measures, the researcher draws off the strengths of both kinds of measures. Third, completeness refers to more comprehensive conclusions based on using both qualitative and quantitative measures. Fourth, a process refers to having the general framework of quantitative research and adding social interactions through qualitative research, which provides the sense of process. Fifth, credibility is heightened by enhancing the integrity of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Sixth, context refers to the quantitative research ability to generalize findings, while qualitative research has the ability to contextualize meaning through the generalization (Bryman, 2006).

This mixed methods transformative-emancipatory design aims at conducting research focused on change, promoting advocacy for classroom teachers involved in the

social injustice caused by the imbalance of power and control between educators and the politicians with matters concerning public education. The transformative-based theoretical framework informs and enhances change-oriented policies and procedures to improve social justice for classroom teachers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2009). The reasons for implementing the study and addressing the research questions are more important than the reasons for using a mixed methods research design (Greene, 2007). The purpose is to select the methods choice that is conducive to advancing the transformative-emancipatory goals (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The main component of this research study for the researcher was to give a voice to the underrepresented group, in this case, classroom teachers. In the beginning, I gravitated toward a qualitative study with a pragmatist view with an emphasis on human behavior. I was determined to research and explore teacher motivation from the perspective of the classroom teachers. The missing link for me was the scientific investigation into the components of motivation and change, which derive from quantitative research. Also, the pragmatist view did not adequately represent the social injustice of the classroom teacher or properly represent the marginalized group. Therefore, I chose to combine the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative designs into a mixed methods design and compliment the study with a transformative-emancipatory philosophical view.

The transformative-emancipatory design framework begins with the collection and analysis of measures collecting quantitative data. The plan starts with quantitative measures to create a generalization or indicate a trend (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Afterward, the researcher collects and analyzes the measures designed to use qualitative

data. Once all the data is collected and analyzed, the interpretation phase begins. All

other decisions about the study transpire within the confines of the transformative-

emancipatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

At the beginning of the study, the researcher believed the mixed methods design

to be fixed, or predetermined. However, during the study, some components, such as

teacher interviews, became emergent, as revealing data appeared. The approach a

researcher adopts falls into two categories: typology-based and dynamic (Creswell &

Plano Clark, 2011). This research study took a mixed methods-based approach to the

transformative-emancipatory design. This approach emphasizes the design and procedure

to match the study's purpose and research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) indicated four components in selecting an

appropriate mixed methods design, including 1) the level of interaction between the

strands; 2) the relative priority of the strands; 3) the timing of the strands; and 4) the

procedures for mixing the strands (p. 64). Greene (2007) indicated determining the level

of interaction between strands was most critical for a mixed methods study. The level of

interaction for this study is interactive. There was direct interaction between the

qualitative and quantitative strands before the final interpretation. The relative priority of

the strands refers to the amount of importance allotted to the qualitative and quantitative

measures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). For this study, there was equal priority given

to all measures. The timing of the strands was sequential or completed in two separate

phases with the collection and analysis of one type of data to follow another (Creswell &

Plano Clark, 2011).

Table 8

Components of a Mixed Methods Design

Study Phase	Beginning	Middle	End	Interaction
Phase 1	The Flow Test begins	Autonomy Audit	Organizational Readiness to Change Survey	None
Quantitative Data	(quantitative portion)		(ORCS)	
Phase 2	What's Your Sentence	The Flow Test completion	Individual Teacher Interviews	The data from ALL data sources will be used to design questions for the individual interviews.
Qualitative Data		(qualitative portion)		

In this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design, there were three

strands of quantitative data collected and three strands of qualitative data. The Flow Test

experiment was considered both a quantitative and qualitative measure. The sequential

gathering of data began with the quantitative measures, followed by an interpretation of

the data collected. The second phase began after the interpretation of the quantitative

research. The researcher was searching for a theme, pattern, or trend in the quantitative

data. In the second phase of the study, the qualitative measures were instigated.

The three strands of quantitative data were the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment, the Autonomy Audit, and the Flow Test experiment. During the first phase of the study, the researcher administered all three of these strands. The Flow Test experiment was both quantitative and qualitative as sections of the experiment are both numerical and verbal in nature. During the second phase of the study, there were two strands of qualitative data, including, What's Your Sentence, individual teacher interviews, and the Flow Test experiment. Data interpretation between these two strands and phases became critical as the qualitative measures were interactive and influenced by the results of the quantitative measures. Individual teacher interviews proceeded in an open discussion based on the results of the quantitative measures and interpretations.

The research stems from a philosophical foundation, or a worldview stance, assumed to shape the research process and inquiries of conduct (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 38). The foundation of how a philosophy formed a mixed methodology followed Crotty's (1998) conceptualization, centering around four major factors. The first factor involves the worldview, or how researchers educate themselves about their subjects. The worldview then leads to the theoretical lens, originating from social science theory or emancipatory theory. From the theoretical lens, a methodological approach is devised as qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods. The actual methods used to collect data, analyze the data, and interpret the data emerge in the final phase of developing a research study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Through this selection process, the researcher builds a foundation to guide her through the research process.

Setting and Sample

In a transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design, research is focused more on the research questions and answers than on the actual study or procedure (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The transformative theoretical perspective is change oriented and focused on addressing social injustice imposed upon a group or organization. Data collected with a marginalized group needs to be sensitive to the needs of the participants (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Further demoralization of the marginalized group skews the results and is ethically inappropriate (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The process of data collection is involved: sampling, gaining permissions, collecting data, recording the data, and administering the data collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 171).

In both qualitative and quantitative research, sampling procedures determine the location of the research, the participants of the study, the number of participants necessary to address the research questions, and how the participants are selected and/or recruited (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The location of this mixed methods study was a single-site location at an elementary school in Utah. The state of Utah has been progressively following the recommendations set in motion by the politicians and corporate reformers (USOE, 2010; USOE, 2005). Many of the individuals in education supervisory positions experience only business situations rather than classroom situations; rather, they are business executives making education decisions for which they are ill-suited (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). The single-site location proved beneficial because the elementary school is a Title 1 school in one of the

larger districts in Utah and was accessible to the researcher. The participants of this study consisted of the actual classroom teachers of XYZ Elementary School.

There was a total of seventeen full-time classroom teachers, two special educators, one administrator, and two teacher coaches at XYZ Elementary School, equaling twenty-one teachers and one administrator. All twenty-one teachers were asked to participate in this study. All protocols removed names or any specific information that indicated an individual. No one had access to the raw data except the researcher. All documents emanating from the study, including but not limited to, the published dissertation, were written with a significant purposeful effort to summarize groups of data to mask individual contributions. Also, direct quotes from interviews were included only when they were necessary and were generically stated so that no phrases typical of that participant could be identified, such as by the administration.

In qualitative research, the purpose of the study is to collect and analyze data in-depth, meaning less participants than quantitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009). One strategy I used was maximum variation sampling. The maximum variation sampling strategy selects diverse individuals to participate due to their differing perspectives and experiences (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The number of participants selected for the qualitative strand ranged from nine to seventeen individuals for the case study. The qualitative portion was considerably more involved, and I expected less willing participants than with the quantitative portion of the study, resulting in fewer participants for the activity. The role of the researcher was to recruit individuals willing and available to participate in the qualitative research portion of the

study. I had a good working relationship with all the employees at XYZ Elementary School, which increased the possibility of engaging all twenty-one teachers to participate in the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment, the Autonomy Audit, and What's Your Sentence. The Flow Test Experiment was more involved, and I expected to engage a few of the twenty-one employees. Again, all the employees at XYZ Elementary School were eligible to participate. For the qualitative strand, there were seventeen participants for What's Your Sentence, nine participants for the Individual Teacher Interviews, and nine participants for the qualitative part of the Flow Test Experiment.

The quantitative strand of this study included: The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment, the Autonomy Audit, and the quantitative part of the Flow Test Experiment. The Flow Test Experiment is considerably more involved than the other quantitative and qualitative measures. For this reason, the Flow Test Experiment began during the quantitative phase and continued through the qualitative phase so that the researcher had access to the numerical data for the qualitative phase.

The purpose of probabilistic sampling with quantitative research is to choose a large sampling of individuals to represent the larger population, or to represent a portion of the population (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The quantitative strands of this study selected any of the possible participants currently working at XYZ Elementary School. Each participant had the freedom to choose whether they wanted to participate. I was prepared to include every single teacher at XYZ Elementary School in the study for the quantitative strands.

The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment and the Autonomy Audit were the most informative with almost the participation of every classroom teacher at XYZ Elementary School. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment had sixteen participants and the Autonomy Audit had seventeen participants. I was responsible for motivating all twenty-one teachers to participate in these two assessments by calling upon their intrinsic motivation and desire to promote change in the educational system. The Flow Test Experiment required a non-probabilistic sampling procedure to select participants who were readily available and willing to be studied. The Flow Test Experiment is more involved, and it was unrealistic to expect the entire faculty to participate. The Flow Test Experiment had nine total participants.

The Flow Test Experiment is an in-depth analysis of mastery and engagement in the classroom. The recruitment process sought out those classroom teachers who were willing to participate and fulfill the requirements of the experiment. The requirements of the experiment were to fill out a form about the classroom activities of the day, eight random times per day, for one week. The participant also included a reflection at the end of each school day indicating flow or engagement, with personal speculation into why or why not flow was or was not achieved. Many classroom teachers are opposed to interrupting their classroom instruction for any reason. So, recruitment for this experiment was most likely to include lower participation numbers and require justification from the researcher as to why this experiment was necessary. I was on-site to address any problems, concerns, or questions. Nine out of the available twenty-one people were willing to participate in this experiment.

The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment (Reeves, 2009) and the Autonomy Audit (Pink, 2009) both have the same eligibility and recruitment factors. Both assessments are designed to represent an organization or collective group of people (Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). For this study, the organization was the collective group of teachers at XYZ Elementary School. Recruitment of all twenty-one participants was vital to validate the results of the surveys. The role of the researcher was to administer the assessments in an ethical and professional manner while maintaining the anonymous identity of each participant. I was also one of the full-time classroom teachers and needed to be a participant as well. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment had sixteen participants and the Autonomy Audit had seventeen participants.

Altogether, the transformative-emancipatory mixed research study had a total of five segments. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment had 16 participants. The Autonomy Audit had seventeen participants. The Flow Test Experiment had nine participants. The What's Your Sentence activity had seventeen participants, and nine volunteers participated in the individual interviews. The data collected and processed by the researcher helped to develop open-ended questions for an in-depth look at why the school was ready for change or what kinds of things leaders could engage in to promote change.

Researchers require permission from individual participants and site locations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study required permission from the principal of XYZ Elementary School for the site location,

from the individual classroom teachers at XYZ Elementary School, the local

Superintendent, and the institutional review board (IRB).

Below, I showed in Table 9 a research summary of the two sequential phases. I

also showed when the measurement tool was implemented and to which research

question the tool corresponded to address the study.

Contextual Sequential Strategies

True change in one's motivation and behavior goes beyond the motivational

theories of external rewards and punishments (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Deci & Ryan,

2008). Observations and social science studies conducted as early as the 1950's observed

intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive (Pink, 2009). The Third Drive taps into our inner

being and drives individuals to behave the way that they do (Pink, 2009). Pink (2009)

suggests the Third Drive consists of three categories: autonomy, mastery, and purpose.

True change readiness indicates a willingness to change behaviors and beliefs

(Fullan, 2011; Reeves, 2009). The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment, a

quantitative instrument, was designed by Douglas Reeves (2009) to identify the

participant's readiness to make meaningful changes. According to Reeves (2009), there

are four stages of readiness to change: Ready for Learning; Ready for Change; Ready for

Resistance; and Ready for Frustration (p. 33). The Organizational Change Readiness

Assessment addresses the research question: To what degree are the educators at XYZ

Elementary School ready to change.

Table 9

Research Summary

Phase of Research	Research Questions	Types of Analysis	Instrument	Important Specific Details
Phase 1 Quantitative	Question 2: To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?	Quantitative	Instrument #1: Organizational Readiness to Change Survey 16 Participants	Participants write and rate changes from last five years. Ratings identify participant into one of four categories: (1) Ready for Learning, (2) Ready for Change, (3) Ready for Resistance, (4) Ready for Frustration.
	Question 3: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?	Quantitative	Instrument #2: Autonomy Audit 17 Participants	Autonomy Four Categories: time, team, task, and technique. Teachers rate each category on a scale of 1-10 1: being in prison to 10: being at Woodstock.
	Question 4: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess a belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?	Quantitative And Qualitative	Instrument #3: The Flow Test Experiment 9 Participants	Teachers rate the level of flow. Five days, eight random intervals a day End of day: teacher records are written reflections
Phase 2 Qualitative	Question 5: To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?	Qualitative	Instrument 4 What's Your Sentence Exercise 17 Participants	What's Your Sentence? writing exercise focus an individual's perceived life purpose into a single sentence.
	Question #1: What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?	Qualitative	Instrument 5 Semi-structured interview 9 Participants	First: general questions about motivation. Second: quantitative data follow-up questions

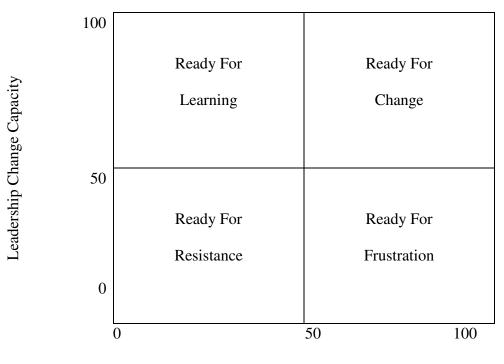**Instrument 1: Organizational change readiness assessment**

The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment comes in two phases, personal and professional (Reeves, 2009). The reason for completing both phases was to obtain some data regarding change as an organizational problem and as an individual personal problem. The format for the assessment runs the same way with the same parameters for both parts. By addressing a personal and professional component of the process of change, a sense of validity is added to the assessment (Reeves, 2009). Many times, the emotional factor is deemed responsible when change outcomes are disagreeable (Reeves, 2009). By including a personal and professional component, patterns begin to emerge. The patterns indicate a certain aspect of the change process continually being ignored and determine the factors involved in the failed attempt to successful change efforts.

The Personal Change Readiness Assessment began by asking participants to write down five changes they had made in the last five years (behavioral, personal, relational, physical, or other changes). Next, they were asked to a) briefly describe the changes for which they had the greatest degree of *planning; b)* briefly describe the changes for which they had the greatest *sense of urgency; c)* describe the changes for which they had the greatest *personal support; d)* describe the changes for which they had the greatest *personal focus; and e)* describe the changes that had the greatest *effect on results* for them individually or for their organization (Reeves, 2009, pp. 18-25).

The purpose in writing the words of the change or process of change brings reliability to the data provided (Reeves, 2009). So many times, the process of change is accompanied by emotion which, in many instances, alters the information reported,

making the data invalid. By stating the independent elements or actions of the change

process in words, the rating system is validated by the written data provided because the

participant is now rating the action rather than the emotion attached to the action (Reeves,

2009). In turn, the reliability of the information is accepted because the emotional factor

is eliminated by the academic writing process (Reeves, 2009). The written process still

includes emotions; however, it is the actual actions of the change process that are rated by

the participants. I collected only the numerical data. The responses were to aid the

participants in deriving a numerical rating about change readiness.

On the next page, the participant indicated the three most important changes in the

left-hand column. The participant then rated the three changes separately on a scale of

one to ten in five categories. The five categories included: Planning; Sense of Urgency;

Personal Support; Personal Focus; and Effect on Results. I gathered the forms and

calculated a total for each of the three personal changes within the parameters of the five

categories (Reeves, 2009, p. 18 – 25). Only the numerical data was gathered and

processed.

Next, the participant followed the same protocols for organizational or

professional changes. After the participant had rated their three most important

organizational or professional changes in the left-hand column and rated the five

categories using a scale of one to ten, the researcher collected and calculated, using the

same methods as were used for the Personal Change Assessment. The total for the two

highest changes in the Personal Change Assessment represented one's vertical score,

while the total for the two highest changes in the Organizational Change Assessment

represented one's horizontal score. The matrix was designed to cross reference each

participant's personal change score against each participant's professional change score

to establish a pattern of change in that participant's life (Reeves, 2009, p. 26 – 35). Cross

referencing one's vertical and horizontal scores established into which category the

participant fell and what actions that participant needed to take to become ready for

change (Reeves, 2009).

Figure 1. Change readiness matrix. From "*Leading Change in Your School: How to*

Conquer Myths, Build Commitment, and Get Results," by D. B. Reeves (2009, p. 33).

Reprinted with permission (Appendix G).

Levels of Readiness. The Ready for Learning phase demonstrates a leader with

the ability and desire to instigate the planning and execution of change (Reeves, 2009).

However, there were some problems with learning and development within the individual

or organization concerning planning, communicating, or executing change (Reeves,

2009, p. 34). The leader of the organization already had a history of successful change

and could instigate change. However, the participants of the organization itself were

lacking in adequate and appropriate professional development, or were inadequately

identifying or acknowledging areas of weakness, or perhaps communication methods

between employee and employer were skewed. This phase indicated a breakdown in the

process between the leader and the organization (Reeves, 2009).

The Ready for Resistance phase indicates the degree to which the leader or

participants have a successful history of change (Reeves, 2009). In this case, participants

in these situations typically resist, ignore, undermine, or express anger towards change

initiatives (Reeves, 2009, p. 34). In such situations, participants attempt to wait for the

change initiatives to change again before making any efforts. The Ready for Resistance

phase included many of the educators from XYZ Elementary School, due to the

enormous amount of change initiatives imposed upon education. For example, when test

scores do not measure up, many administrators begin looking for the magic teaching

program or method to implement (Reeves, 2009). Classroom teachers typically remain

calm about a new program or method because the programs disappear in a few years with

the next exciting new program or method (Fullan, 2011a; Reeves, 2009). Changing

curriculum programs and methods is a popular initiative proposed by administrators to promote change.

The Ready for Frustration phase occurs when someone leading the organization is reluctant to engage in change or lacks the capacity to do so (Reeves, 2009, p. 35). The leader of the organization causes the change to become less safe each time the change initiatives fail, resulting in frustration. The next change leader needs to develop trust to renew faith in leadership and change initiatives (Reeves, 2009).

The Ready for Change phase involves both leader and participants having a history and capacity for effective change initiatives (Reeves, 2009). The organization has the potential to adapt to new situations and progress forward (Reeves, 2009, p. 35).

Participants. Every professional employee at XYZ Elementary School was asked to participate in the assessment to help obtain accurate results for the organization. If every professional at the school did not participate in a particular assessment, I documented that in the study. XYZ Elementary School had seventeen full-time, professional classroom teachers, two special educators, two teacher coaches, and one administrator. All of the twenty-one teachers counted in the group asked to participate in the assessments. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment had sixteen participants from this group.

Douglas Reeves is the creator of the Organizational Change Readiness Assessment and has been an educational researcher for more than twenty years (Reeves, 2009). In that time Reeves (2009) found that people, in general, find all types of excuses limiting the amount of change an organization may expect to see. For example, people

are typically better at trying to manipulate others into the behavior they want to see, rather than engaging in meaningful dialogue and support. Reeves (2009) designed the Organizational Change Readiness Assessment for those people who needed data to prove that maybe some change would be a good thing. Reeves used the assessment to pinpoint focus points on which an organization could work, or on which to provide continuing support. People view perceptions differently with a verbal dialogue (Reeves, 2009). When one breaks larger concepts into smaller direct concepts, an organization begins to view the effectiveness of each portion of the change readiness process (Reeves, 2009). Reeves (2009) used this assessment as a starting point to show participants where to begin the work.

Intrinsic Motivation Instruments

Deci and Ryan's (2000) research identified three categories of intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Later, Daniel Pink (2009) identified three similar categories of intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive: autonomy, mastery, and purpose. For this research study, the researcher refers to the more recent work of Daniel Pink (2009)

Autonomy instrument: Autonomy Audit. The first category of the Third Drive is autonomy (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research Question #3 asked, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?" Autonomy refers to more control and choice. True autonomy is about control and choice with support and trust to work interdependently alongside colleagues (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Daniel Pink (2009) devised an Autonomy Audit to determine the

amount of perceived employee autonomy existing in the workplace. Pink (2009) devised four categories of workplace autonomy: task, time, team, and technique. The audit consists of four questions relating to each of the four categories. Each participant answered the questions anonymously, rating the category of time, task, team, and technique from zero to ten. A rating of zero is equal to autonomy in a prison, and a rating of ten is like the autonomy felt at a gathering such as Woodstock. The audit is calculated on a 40-point scale (Pink, 2009, p. 166 – 167). There are no levels, just categories of autonomy used to rate the organization or workplace.

The Autonomy Audit is very direct without room for discussion. The rating scale is devised to show the perception of autonomy the participant believed to possess in each of the four categories of autonomy. The directness of the questions provides reliability for the information gained (Pink, 2009). The participants either perceived themselves to have autonomy or they did not. The audit provided a platform for interview questions. The audit provided data concerning the autonomy of high, medium, low, or no, and in what category. Next, I took the data from the audit and formulated interview questions to discover why the participants felt the way they did about the autonomy they did or did not perceive themselves possessing. The consistency of the data demonstrated validity (Pink, 2009). In other words, typically, there were a few data points outside the general range of the population or pool of participants. If most of the audit findings are inconsistent, then the test is invalid. It was imperative for me to emphasize that participant response needed to be individualized, and that no participant should attempt to perceive another participant's views.

Participation. Participation in the Autonomy Audit was much like the Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment. I requested 100% participation of all twenty-one qualified employees to obtain a completely accurate measure of autonomy at XYZ Elementary School. The Autonomy Audit had seventeen participants. If a person refused or could not participate, I documented the situation and assessed the remaining results. The reliability of the results presented is dependent upon the participant's ability to focus and provide meaningful data based on the participant's perception of the situation or assessment.

Pink is the creator of the Autonomy Audit and is a management consultant who researches and advises on best business and management practices (Pink, 2009). Most businesses that thrive and have happy employees offer greater autonomy than companies that experience higher turnover rates and employee dissatisfaction (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The Technological Age requires more creativity and collaborative work, which requires employee motivation (Pink, 2009). Most leaders believe money is the best motivator, allowing management to remain in control (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Employees are curious humans who want to be respected and appreciated for what they offer (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Money takes care of a basic human need; however, riches are not on everyone's wish list. Researching and advising the top-performing companies all around the nation reveals that these companies share at least one attribute among them, autonomy (Pink, 2009). Experiences inspire individuals, not the money they put in the bank. When individuals are relaxed and have the time, the skill, the resources, and the collaborative support, motivation and creativity tend to flourish (Pink, 2009).

Daniel Pink derived from his research several ways to promote motivation in the workplace (Pink, 2009). One way to easily indicate the amount of autonomy within an organization is to take an Autonomy Audit. The audit itself is easy, direct, and does not take much time. The audit asks four direct questions concerning task, time, team, and technique. The participants were asked to answer each question with a rating of zero to ten, with zero meaning none, and ten meaning a large amount (Pink, 2009). By adding all four ratings, one can rate an autonomy level based on a 40-point scale, with zero being autonomy in a prison and forty being autonomy at Woodstock (Pink, 2009).

Mastery instrument: Flow Test. The second category of the Third Drive is mastery (Pink, 2009). Research Question #4 asks, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess enough belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?" Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and his team of researchers from the University of Chicago developed a "Flow Test" originating from his original experiment in the early 1970's. A 'flow' experience is described as optimal and often not enjoyable at the time of the experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). The experience itself requires hard work and a deep level of concentration. Many times, the notion of time is inconceivable. A flow experience is not ordinary. Flow experiences tend to motivate individuals to experience more of the same as they are rewarding in themselves without the need of external reward or punishment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) Flow Test consists of a week-long experiment where participants are alerted with a pager or an alarm at 40 random times during the work week. Each time the alarm went off the participant answered in one and two-word

phrases: a) what you are doing; b) how you are feeling about it; and c) state of flow, high, medium, low, or no. I gave the participant a worksheet to write down the participant's answers. The worksheet is divided to write down the time quickly, what the participant is doing, how the participant feels about it, and the perceived state of flow, high, medium, low, or no. At the time of the alarm, the participants either circled the answer or jotted down the information in small phrases. The point of this exercise was to preserve the memory of the actions going on until the end of the school day when the participant took more time to reflect on the day's events. I was not in the room to evaluate. Only the participant's answers and reflections were analyzed. The role of the researcher was to see how the level of flow or engagement correlated with the written reflection statements provided by the participant. The participant's ability to determine in an instant whether he or she engaged and participated in a flow-like experience demonstrated reliability. The comparison of the participant's written reflections substantiated validity. I was called upon to determine whether the participant's reflections matched the worksheet data per instance measured. At the end of each day, the participant had space provided to reflect on the day's events. Some of the questions for teachers to ponder are listed below (Pink, 2009, p. 154).

- Which moments produced feelings of "flow"? Where were you? What were you working on? Who were you with?

- Are certain times of the day more flow-friendly than others? How could you restructure your day based on your findings?

- How might you increase the number of optimal experiences and reduce the number of moments when you felt disengaged or distracted?

This quantitative measure cross referenced how many 'flow' experiences the average teacher at XYZ Elementary School experienced in each week while offering the journal entry references as reasons why certain activities qualified as 'flow' experiences and other activities did not. The average rating assessed calculated a 40-point scale, or 40 opportunities to experience a 'flow' experience. The average was calculated based on the high, medium, low, or no response to being in a flow-like experience at the time the alarm went off. The 40-point scale calculated the 40 times an alarm would go off during the five-day work week.

Participants. Participants for this experience required recruiting as many employees at the XYZ Elementary School as possible who were available to participate. There were nine participants for the Flow Test Experiment. I made raw data available upon request for the individual participant. I published results showing any patterns of non-flow-like experiences, as well as patterns of flow-like experiences. The purpose of the Flow Test is to show teachers, personally and professionally, an accurate view of an average day of teaching and how many kinds of distractions may affect the number and extent of flow-like experiences.

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) discovered the idea of flow while engaging in other experiments and found, despite the task or occupation of the participant, flow-like experiences contained similar attributes. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) conducted the Flow Test Experiment many times in many different organizations and countries. He also

developed the Flow Test to measure such an experience in a meaningful way. I recruited

participants with differing views for this experiment, as indicated by hallway discussions,

lunchroom chats, and comments made in faculty meetings.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) was truly a pioneer with the Flow Test since he devised

a plan to gather real-time data on a mental state proving more accurate and reliable than

in previous studies. The experiment calls for participants to respond immediately to an

alarm 40 times a week, recording one and two-word responses showing whether they

were in a flow-like state, making it easier for them to recall the data and reflect on it in a

meaningful written reflection at the end of the day. The quick response was also

necessary due to the nature of many occupations (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008).

Purpose instrument: What's your sentence? The third category of the Third

Drive is the purpose (Pink, 2009). Research Question #5 asks, "To what degree did the

teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting

change?" Extrinsic motivation has no conceivable notion of purpose (Pink, 2009; Ryan &

Deci, 2000). The ironic idea was that America's founding fathers founded this nation on

principles of a higher purpose (Pink, 2009). The founding fathers were not rewarded or

punished based on their efforts of founding a new nation. The highlight of this new nation

was to promote autonomy; and, now, the politicians and corporate reformers want to take

it away (Pink, 2009). Many describe a sense of purpose as coming from the human spirit

or as a motivation that cannot be bought or threatened (Pink, 2009).

There is a simple test called, What's Your Sentence. Clare Boothe Luce originally

developed the test in 1962 (Pink, 2009). The intent of the test is to state one's sentence,

meaning to state one's purpose in life in one specific sentence. One sentence helps to keep individuals focused and away from minute details (Pink, 2009). When an individual is truly driven by a given purpose and has achieved mastery, a single precise sentence will come easily. Participants received a sheet with directions to write a sentence about themselves indicating their purpose in life. Participants required time and space to ponder the task. They could take the sheet with them and finish in their own time span. Once the task was complete, the participant contacted me to pick it up, or I checked in with the participant to view that participant's progress.

This qualitative strand was assessed by the researcher looking for patterns. The type of patterns the researcher was looking for were patterns concerning purpose in teaching and learning. Participants were purposefully selected and recruited regarding their diverse perceptions and views (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) concerning teacher motivation. There were seventeen volunteers to participate with the What's Your Sentence activity. True motivation crosses boundary lines between personal and professional lives (Reeves, 2009). Many teachers became educators because of a higher sense of purpose (Leithwood, 2007; Elmore, 2004b). Patterns of this type sparked further investigation during the individual teacher interviews. I could also request the raw data from the individual participants to verify information. The purpose of this test was to redirect a teacher's focus back onto the main purpose of education as opposed to collecting test scores (Pink, 2009). I found reliability and validity of this exercise in the results. One specific detailed sentence was not easily composed. The participants were their toughest critics. The test individualized purpose in such a way that an individual

familiar with the participants would be able to indicate the participant by reading the sentence. Many individuals found it difficult to forge the details of their existence, deeming the exercise meaningless (Pink, 2009). I recruited seventeen individuals willing to participate who showed differing points of view as demonstrated by conversations held in the hallway, in the lunchroom, and during faculty meetings. The role of the researcher for this aspect of the study was to analyze the validity of the data provided. If necessary, I could also choose to question this aspect of testing further through the individual interviews.

Final instrument: Interview. The primary research question of this study was, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" Corporate reformers accuse educators of being stubborn, lazy, unmotivated, and unwilling to change (Ravitch, 2010). Everyone agrees the public-school system needs change (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). The debate was over what needed to change and how do individuals go about the process of change (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). So many changes were forced upon educators making them weary and skeptical of the entire change process (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). Utah politicians and corporate reformers were on the fast track to implement external rewards and punishments to promote motivation (USOE, 2010; USOE, 2005). The politicians and educational administration had failed to collaborate with classroom teachers as to what constituted motivation to a classroom teacher (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The purpose of the

individual teacher interviews was to give the teachers a voice. Teachers have had to take a submissive role for so many years that many educators had forgotten their role as an autonomous teacher and learner (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009).

Therefore, the final phase of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods research was individual teacher interviews. The purpose of placing teacher interviews at the tail end of this study was to use the quantitative data to project patterns or topics for discussion. I purposefully sampled interview participants by recruiting those teachers with contrasting or diverse views upon teacher motivation and the change process. I was employed at XYZ Elementary School for seven years and had developed a working relationship with most of the classroom teachers. Daily hallway discussions and participation in faculty meetings and training provided the platform for differing views within the faculty. Working side by side with twenty other educators, one develops a working relationship, in which perceptions and attitudes and general feelings are shared and respected. I digitally recorded the interviews, so the flow of discussion went undisturbed. The individual participants could request transcripts from the researcher. Participants were asked to review the transcripts for accuracy and asked if they wanted to clarify further or validate any previously made statements.

Participants. Quantitative measures for this mixed study had a purpose of indicating trends or patterns of behavior. Presenting numerical *descriptive* statistical data on the motivation and behavior practices of teachers was validated or refuted using qualitative measures, such as the teacher interviews. The three quantitative strands were

administered in the first phase sequentially followed by the three qualitative strands. The

Flow Test Experiment counted as both a qualitative and quantitative strand.

The researcher for this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods research was

a professional teacher. The fact that I was a fellow teacher helped to gain the trust of the

other nine classroom teachers who volunteered to be interviewed. I had a connection with

the teachers at XYZ Elementary School, which provided opportunities to acquire useful

data. Administering the quantitative measures remained objective as the protocols did not

acquire identities in any manner. I included only educational material concerning change

and motivation that did not contain data about gender, socioeconomic status, years of

service, or grade levels taught. The qualitative data was subjective because the data

collection required a more in-depth and personal look at the life of each teacher. The

implementation of both qualitative and quantitative measures served to strengthen the

validity of the study results.

Data Analysis

Researchers analyze and interpret data in a similar process for both quantitative

and qualitative methods. Data analysis for both quantitative and qualitative methods

includes: preparing the data for analysis, exploring the data, analyzing the data,

representing the analysis, interpreting the analysis, and validating the data and

interpretations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 204).

General Activities

Quantitative research is primarily concerned with systematic methods and

experiments designed to test hypotheses that explain behavior (Hoy, 2010). Preparing

quantitative data for analysis consists of converting raw data, coding the data, cleaning

the database, recording or computing new variables, and establishing a codebook

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Qualitative research is primarily concerned with

understanding how individuals perceive their experiences and build their lives (Merriam,

2009). Preparing qualitative data for analysis means organizing verbal material,

transcribing observations or interviews for analysis, and checking the documentation for

errors (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Merriam, 2009). The researcher needs to

methodically and carefully organize and check the data for processing.

Exploring the data is a process in which the researcher begins to examine the data

to generalize or theorize possible trends and develop a general understanding of the

database (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative data analysis exploration includes

examining the data and generating some preliminary descriptive data including, the

mean, the standard deviation, and the variance of responses on checklists or assessments.

I became familiar with the data and began forming general trends. While examining the

data for this study, I explored the distribution of the data to choose proper statistics to

represent the data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Qualitative data exploration involves

reading and studying the data to develop an understanding of the data (Creswell & Plano

Clark, 2011). Qualitative researchers take notes and begin coding themes with transcripts,

observations, journals, or visual representations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Coding

for this study was done by the researcher, searching for themes and categories pertinent

to the study.

I analyzed the data by learning teacher perception through the research and applied it to the research questions or hypotheses (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Data analysis for quantitative measures involves selecting the appropriate statistical test to address the hypotheses or research questions. The choice of a statistical test is based on the type of questions asked, such as a description of trends, a comparison of groups, or the relationship among variables (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 207). Data analysis for qualitative measures involves coding the data, assigning labels to the codes, and grouping the codes into themes or categories (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 205). The process of coding is what brings the data together to address the research questions.

Representing the data analysis means to present a summary of statements, tables, or figures. Quantitative researchers may summarize the results using statistical statements. Tables are another form of representing data answering descriptive questions or inferential questions. Visual forms were used in this study to represent statistical data, using graphs, charts, or figures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Qualitative researchers may also use a discussion of the evidence, visuals, figures, maps, or tables to represent their findings. For this study, a discussion of the data was used to provide written evidence so that the reader can discover the emerging themes for themselves (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 209).

Interpreting the results means to take an overarching view of the data and detailed results and transfer that examination into an interpreted conclusion. Interpretation involves a further examination of the hypotheses, research questions, the literature review, and personal experience (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative

researchers address the hypotheses or research questions and determine the appropriateness of the data collected. They may also compare results with past studies and provide explanations. Qualitative research interpretations are like quantitative interpretations; however, qualitative research brings the personal experiences of the researcher to the interpretation. The role of the researcher with qualitative measures such as perceived personal views and characteristics is inevitable, so I included the perceptions within the confines of the research data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Good research involves checking on the quality of the data, the results, and the interpretation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 210). Quantitative research validity examines two aspects: the quality of the scores from the instruments used, and the quality of the interpretations produced by the results. Researchers check the content validity or the instruments used for quality and the appropriateness of using those instruments to answer the research questions. In this transformative-emancipatory study, the scores developed by the instruments used were examined for construct validity, asking whether the instrument measured what it was supposed to measure (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Researchers are concerned with internal validity and external validity. In experiments, internal validity, or the extent to which the researcher controlls extraneous variables, allows attributtion of any observed effects to the treatment variable (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). External validity is the point at which the researcher can determine that the results generalize to a larger population. Reliability measures also affect test results and interpretations. Test scores and survey responses need to be consistent and,

therefore, reliable over time, as well as the instruments used (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Qualitative researchers are primarily concerned with credibility. For instance, they are constantly checking the accuracy of the participants' detailed accounts, and the trustworthiness of the participants' responses. Researchers check that the data obtained was accurate (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Member-checking is a common approach for the validity of qualitative data. The researchers check with the participants to assure that the data obtained was accurate. The triangulation of data is another common practice. Many times, data transpires from several sources, such as transcripts, pictures, or even individuals. Another approach is to ask others to review the data. Many times, colleagues or other professionals are asked to check the findings.

Phases of Data Collection

The collection of data for this study was in two phases, quantitative and qualitative, gathered sequentially. The quantitative data for this mixed methods study collected data from closed-ended questions that were pre-determined and based on numerical data. The qualitative data instruments collected information from open-ended questions, which were not pre-determined, or which did not restrict the participants' responses.

Recording the data took a systematic approach to gathering information and provided results in a meaningful way. I used qualitative strands protocols designed to make notes and decipher connections. The individual teacher interviews were recorded

and transcribed, using the recording as a back-up. The quantitative strands followed the protocols designed by the makers of the assessments.

In a mixed methods study, the focus of data collection is to obtain answers to the research questions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The main role of the researcher is to reflect consistently and continually on the appropriateness of the data to address the research questions. Data collection for mixed methods designs is in its infancy and lacks experienced advice for young researchers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design, I was responsible for being sensitive to the situation of the marginalized group, while collecting and analyzing all data. The sampling methods used signified that the appropriateness of the strategies to produce results represented the population indicated in the study. Whenever possible, I included participants as co-researchers, and advisory councils were used to validate the truthfulness of the interpretation and results. The final results were shared by the researcher and referred to the community to participate in promoting change-oriented actions.

Research Instruments and Data Analyses

Readiness for change survey analysis. Researchers in the field of education and the field of psychology developed the quantitative measures used in this study (Pink, 2009; Reeves, 2009). Douglas Reeves is a well-known and respected educational researcher. Reeves (2009) developed the Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment as a beginning starting point for organizations based on his years of educational research and experience. The assessment gives participants a visual of the

data, where verbal accounts and discussions open participant perception and discussion.

Reeves' (2009) applies the Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment in

individual schools across the nation with managers who are ready and willing to manage

schools with collaboration and respect (Reeves, 2009). The Organizational Readiness for

Change Assessment is broken down into stages or subcategories: Planning; Sense of

Urgency; Personal Support; Personal Focus; and Effect on Results. McKee, Boyatzis, and

Johnston (2008) encouraged individuals to become active readers and writers, proposing

that the writing process promotes critical thinking on a deeper level. Reeves (2009)

suggested, by implementing the writing process with personal and professional processes

of change, the ability to transfer the focus from emotions to the actual events adds

validity to the study. The validity of the assessment subjected the focus of the

participant's ability to fill out the survey honestly (Reeves, 2009). Scores for an

organization under a common set of goals and leadership are relatively consistent, with a

few indicators out of range. The writing component helps to keep the assessment reliable

(Reeves, 2009). Participants may need encouragement to focus on their experiences while

filling out the survey. I removed identification marks, so participants could feel at ease to

answer honestly.

Participants in the Organizational Change Readiness Assessment were filling out

two versions of the same assessment regarding topics of inquiry: Planning, Sense of

Urgency, Personal Support, Personal Focus, and Effect on Results. The two versions

included a personal change category and an organizational change category. Before rating

each category, participants were asked to provide written responses to reflect on recent

change experiences. The written responses were not collected or analyzed by the researcher. The written responses were solely for the benefit of the participants (Reeves, 2009).

Participants were asked to rate three separate personal changes, as well as three separate organizational changes. The rating scale describes the categories listed above. A score of one represents no evidence of the characteristic described in the assessment, and a score of ten represents an exceptional reflection of that characteristic (Reeves, 2009, p. 24, 32). After rating all three personal changes and all three organizational changes, the researcher calculated totals for the individual changes by adding the ratings going across the page, or for individual changes within each category.

After calculating the totals, I gathered the papers and checked the math. I took a total of the two highest personal changes and the two highest organizational changes. Using the Change Readiness Matrix (Figure 3.1), the vertical score was the sum of the two highest personal change scores, while the horizontal score was the sum of the two highest organizational change scores. According to the matrix, each participant's scores placed that participant in a quadrant indicating their change readiness level. I calculated the individual scores and an overall group average.

The flow test analysis. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi was a practicing and experienced psychologist and researcher for several decades (Pink, 2009; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008) captured the ability accurately to describe one's mental state and experience of flow multiple times during an average work day. The Flow Test is an experiment to measure the number of flow-like

experiences had on a given day and means to reflect on those experiences within an eight- hour period. The design of the Flow Test worksheet was combined with the reflection portion of the experiment to determine reliability and validity. I designed a simple worksheet to help the participants quickly write down key elements of the experiment without its becoming a huge distraction to the classroom. The purpose was to retain accurate memories of the period until the end of the day when the participant could take the time to write and reflect in detail. The worksheet helped to keep the participant honest and reliable, in recalling the events of the day. The validity of the experiment found the comparison between the worksheet and the reflection of the events of the day to coincide.

I had devised a daily worksheet including space to answer the following questions every time the alarm went off during the day: a) In the Flow, high, medium, low, or no; b) What are you doing; c) Who are you with?; and d) Circumstances/Distractions. I designed the first set of questions for quick one and two-word responses. The alarm alerted the participant approximately eight times a day for five consecutive days. I asked the participants to select time frames during the day, where the teacher would actually be in contact with the students. Then, I selected random silent alarms to alert the participant through cell phones set to vibrate. This way of setting up random alarm times allowed the class to continue on with teaching and learning and not explaining the use of an alarm. The point Csikszentmihalyi (1990) made was that jotting down information about a flow experience aided the participant with daily reflection. A few simple notes helped the

participants accurately detail the events of the day in a daily written reflection at the end of the work day.

During the experiment, I handed out the daily worksheets and the alarm or cell phone at the beginning of the day and collected them at the end of each day. At the end of the week, I simply calculated a possibility of 40 flow experiences and indicated how many actual flow experiences were observed by the participant. Then, I cross-referenced and coded any similarities between the quick response section with the written reflections, such as times of day being prone to distractions or to flow experiences.

The purpose of the Flow Test experiment was to research characteristics which lend themselves to an increase in such experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990/2008; Pink, 2009). Educators experiencing flow often in the classroom also experience intrinsic motivation to teach and learn. An intrinsically motivated educator models the cycle for students and other teachers, promoting even more motivation to continue searching new teaching and learning experiences.

Autonomy audit analysis. Daniel Pink is another researcher who recently made a name for himself primarily as a management consultant (Pink, 2012, 2009). Pink has consulted on the economic transformation and the new workplace for corporations, associations, businesses, institutions, and organizations, both public and private. Pink is well-known and has established that the old way of doing business was ineffective and that to continue with the old styles and strategies would only damage the nation's economy (Pink, 2009). Pink has used the Autonomy Audit, the Flow Test experiment, and the What's Your Sentence Assessment to support his hypotheses concerning intrinsic

motivation or The Third Drive (Pink, 2009). Pink also arrived at his conclusions by researching the works of Harry Harlow, Edward Deci, Richard Ryan, Michael Fullan, and Douglas Reeves (Pink, 2009).

Pink (2009) devised the Autonomy Audit to be a simple, yet effective, method to rate the perceived autonomy level of an organization. The audit consists of four specific and direct questions concerning the four elements of autonomy: time, task, team, and technique (Pink, 2009). Many businesses and organizations were led by managers and administrators believing their organization to be autonomous. After reading the results of an Autonomy Audit, leaders often became humbled (Pink, 2009). The Autonomy Audit is quite straightforward and is reliable if the participants answer honestly and relate the answers to their experiences. Most of the scores for a single organization led by a common leader should be consistent with only a few scores outside the parameter.

The classroom teachers of XYZ Elementary School were asked to convene together to take this quick, yet effective, Autonomy Audit devised by Daniel Pink (Pink, 2009). They answered four questions asking how much autonomy an individual did have over one's time, tasks, team, and technique at work. Each category was rated from zero to ten, with zero being autonomy held in prison to ten being autonomy held at Woodstock (Pink, 2009).

Then, I gathered the papers and calculated the totals. The totals consisted of the entire group rather than for each individual. The sums of autonomy were calculated concerning time, task, team, and technique. Within each category, I began to decipher which categories were strengths and which categories were weaknesses. There was a 40-

point scale for each paper. Multiplying that number by the number of participants yielded the grand scale total. The closer the numerator was to the denominator, or grand scale total, the more autonomy the organization was experiencing. One can isolate the categories by calculating individual categories for the numerator and multiplying ten points by the number of participants for the denominator. Again, one may calculate and analyze individual strengths and weaknesses or complete autonomy for the organization (Pink, 2009).

What's your sentence and the individual interviews analyses. The qualitative measures included were the What's Your Sentence test and the individual teacher interviews. The qualitative data was collected towards the end of the study to incorporate the quantitative data gathered towards the beginning. What's Your Sentence was an exercise to indicate purpose. Most educators became teachers to fulfill an individual desire (Elmore, 2004b; Fullan, 2011a; Leithwood, 2007; Pink, 2009). What's Your Sentence was used to explore how many educators at XYZ Elementary School felt that teaching fulfills a purpose in life, rather than simply a job to be done.

The What's Your Sentence exercise was popularized by Daniel Pink (2009). Originally, the exercise was first initiated by Clare Boothe Luce, directed towards President John F. Kennedy (Pink, 2009). The purpose of the exercise is to keep in mind the bigger picture of one's goals. It is easy to get lost in the day-to-day activities and details and lose focus. Constructing a sentence defining oneself, allows one to become refocused or directed again. Some examples for Abraham Lincoln were, "He preserved

the union and freed the slaves," or "He lifted us out of a Great Depression and helped us win a world war," for Franklin Roosevelt (Pink, 2009, p. 154).

I handed a paper to each participant, explained the directions, and then gave the participant time to ponder their sentence. Participants needed time and space to finish the task. Each day, I checked in with the participants to answer questions or accept the finished paper. Responses did not need to be about work. Sentences needed to be a true reflection of what was important to the individual (Pink, 2009).

Then, I coded the responses into categories including education, the learning process, or children in general. Many times, when individuals had been under an enormous amount of stress for a long period, they simply gave up and went into survival mode (Pink, 2009). Part of the survival mode may include prioritizing life experiences over which one exerts a certain amount of control (Pink, 2009).

The individual interviews provided an opportunity for me to explore the answer to the question of why. Why do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School perceive that they possess autonomy or not? Why do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School feel ready or frustrated to change? The interviews had the potential to validate the quantitative results and provide in-depth, reliable data for future studies.

Individual interviews provided the participants a platform from which to tell and explain their story or experiences (Merriam, 2009). I listed the opening interview questions in Appendix B. Interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed by the researcher. I then provided a written copy for the participant to review. After, I asked the participants if the transcription was an accurate detail of their perceptions, also asking

each of them to elaborate if necessary. I coded the data by category, such as motivation, accountability, autonomy, purpose, mastery, and others. Afterwards, I categorized the data by themes and told the individual stories of the educators through a case study format.

The Role of the Researcher and Protecting Participants' Rights

The role of the researcher for this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design was to create a theoretical educational perspective indicating the social injustices forced upon educators (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) in the name of education. This study was designed to instigate a voice for professional classroom teachers. According to Daniel Pink (2009) teachers were already victimized by the politicians and corporate reformers, so the teachers needed to be guaranteed complete privacy. I was familiar with the teaching profession and had developed a relationship with the educators and administrator at XYZ Elementary School. The study refrained from naming participants in the study, grade level taught, or location. I referred to all the participants in this study as a teacher. The fact that the researcher was part of the teaching profession means that the researcher was biased. However, the idea that the researcher is a teacher who understands and has experienced what other teachers were going through developed a level of trust and willingness to cooperate.

One of the issues about this study involved gaining the confidence of the participants. Building a relationship of trust and integrity enabled the researcher to collect useful data. I had been working at XYZ Elementary School for seven years. During that time, I made relationships with every educator and employee in the school. I participated

in social activities and has been an active participant in professional development activities at the school site as well. Also, I serve on many committees at the school and attends several professional development classes with colleagues from XYZ Elementary School. The educators at XYZ Elementary School knows me to be honest and a fellow teacher who wants the best for the students and teachers of XYZ Elementary School. I protected the identity of the participants by assigning the participants random numbers, with which I referenced the participants in the study. The measuring instruments did not include spaces for names or any other identifying information from the participants. The withdrawal of personal information helped to keep the teachers' identity anonymous. Only the researcher collected and analyzed the raw data. No one else had access or opportunity to witness the actual identity of any participant as connected to that participant's data. I discussed no part of the study with any other individual at the school using any identifying marker. I asked the participants to review their data to check for accuracy; however, the participants never reviewed another participant's data.

Another issue to address was how to adequately and quantitatively measure motivation. Quantitative measures do not produce a voice, yet, they do produce a pattern or trend, which, in some cases, can be generalized to the whole population involved. Many researchers tend to view qualitative data as deficient due to the personal interpretations made by the researcher (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The topic of motivation was of a personal nature in a professional setting. It then became necessary to produce quantitative measures and qualitative measures to adequately adhere to the topic of motivation.

Observing and quantifying human behavior is a unique and complex issue (Hoy, 2010). Attempting to reduce a profession or series of learning processes into a standardized norm is harmful and unethical (Kohn, 2011). The human psyche is a powerful, yet delicate tool (Pink, 2009). The more one attempts to control and overpower the human spirit, the greater the anarchy (Pink, 2009). I had the difficult task of engaging in meaningful professional relationships with the educators while remaining objective through data collection, analysis, and interpretation. I was aware that the human condition is quite complex and that a single test is unreliable as the sole measurement. I contended that the single measurement combined with other single measurements began to form a comprehensive view of the larger picture and offered more meaningful solutions to a complex problem.

The researcher for this study is a dually certified special education and regular classroom teacher who has been teaching school for seventeen years, with the last ten at XYZ Elementary School. I had been, and am currently, serving on several committees and is an active member of the faculty. I am also a believer in collaboration. Through regular faculty meetings, training, and hallway discussions, I had come to know most of the colleagues at XYZ Elementary School as professional colleagues. I have also experienced many of the situations that plague the education system today (USOE, 2010; USOE, 2005). I know what it feels like to be judged unfairly and measured by the performance of others not directly under one's control (Fullan, 2009). I also understand how it feels to be degraded, belittled, and disrespected as a teacher (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). I have walked the path of an educator and understands the tremendous pressure

teachers experience daily (Ravitch, 2010). I understand the concerns and frustrations of

the profession and have a strong desire to change the status quo of social injustice and

work towards promoting an institution of which the people can be proud (Fullan, 2011a).

I handled data collection and analysis during this transformative-emancipatory

mixed methods study with anonymity and confidentiality. Names and other

distinguishing factors were never attached to the surveys, assessments, experiments, or

interviews. Before the data collection began, teachers were given a written version of the

consent form to consider in private. After a few days had passed, I followed up to answer

any questions and collect signed participation consent forms.

For the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment, the Autonomy Audit,

and the What's Your Sentence portion of the study, I invited all formally consenting

participants into a room, with the option of using privacy dividers, to give directions. The

participants filled out their portion of the study and left it with me or took the papers to be

filled out in private. There were no names or other identifying information. For the Flow

Test and individual interviews, I assigned the participants a random number to use for the

study as an identifying marker. Participants were asked to please not discuss their flow

test or individual interviews with anyone to first, collect the most truthful information,

and second, to protect everyone's anonymity. I allowed no one the access or opportunity

to learn anything about the participants from the data collected.

The administrator was not allowed access to any information before or during the

study. The administrator signed a form stating that he or she was not allowed access to

the data beyond the published dissertation and that the data would not be used to make

decisions about the participating teachers' jobs. The administrator only read what was in the final report of the study and did not have access to any information that could identify any participant. If the information for the study indicated the identity of the participant, I did not publish the information to protect the identity of the participant. I asked participants during member checks about whether they chose to have any of their quotes or other specific information published. I tried everything possible to protect the identity of the participants. The administration or anyone else was not given access before or after the study that could target the identity of any of the participants.

The role of the researcher during the analysis phase was to invite participants to review the data for accuracy and promote the participants' right to voice their opinion in a respectful and unthreatening manner. The purpose of this research was to promote change and action against the social injustices imposed upon the profession of classroom teachers (Fullan, 2011a). The general significance of this study was to reveal that another type of motivation was available to increase the effort of classroom teachers to do their best to reach each child (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). This war on education between politicians and the educators only produces collateral damage to our nation and the children that schools are intended to educate (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). This social injustice must cease before the actions of a few damage the existence of the very institution intended to promote the progression of our democratic nation (Ravitch, 2010). Below, I show in Table 10 how I protected the rights of the participants in terms of the specific measurements used in the study.

Table 10

Participants' Protection of Privacy

Measurement	Process and Duration	Protection of Privacy	Reimbursement
Organizational Readiness To Change Assessment	Participants were asked to write down some changes they had experienced in the last five years, both personally and professionally. The writing was for the benefit of the participant only and was not gathered or analyzed. The participant then rated those changes through a series of proposed questions. The whole process took one thirty-minute session to complete.	I asked all of the faculty members to participate, to achieve accurate results. I gave instructions and answered any questions. I gathered only the rated information. I collected no verbal or written responses. The ratings did not include any identifying markers or information.	There was no reimbursement for this exercise.
Autonomy Audit	Teachers were asked to rate the four categories of autonomy: time, task, team, and technique on a scale of 1-10. A score of 1 being a prison and a score of 10 being Woodstock. The participants rated their perception of professional autonomy. The whole process took approximately 15 minutes.	I personally asked all of the faculty members to participate, to achieve accurate results. I gave instructions to participants and collected the audit. The audit did not include any personal, written, or identifying markers. I presented all collected data as a group average in the dissertation.	There was no reimbursement for this exercise.
The Flow Test Experiment	The Flow Test Experiment rated the teachers' level of flow across five days, eight random intervals a day. A teacher reflection at the end of each school day was required. The experiment ran for one week. The researcher collected both numerical and verbal data. The participant received a random number to use in the study as an identifying marker.	I needed approximately 4-10 participants for this experiment. If willing volunteers did not present themselves, I would be recruiting volunteers through flyers and email. Participants received a random number to use as an identifying marker. I published member-checked material and no other personal or identifying information.	Experiment participants received a $20 gift card.

(table continues)

Measurement	Process and Duration	Protection of Privacy	Reimbursement
What's Your Sentence	What's Your Sentence is a writing exercise designed to focus an individual's perceived purpose of their lives into a single sentence. This exercise does not divide personal from professional. I published member-checked material only. Depending on the participant, the exercise took anywhere from 15 minutes to 1 week.	I personally invited all faculty members to participate in this activity. There was no identifying names or markers included on the paper. If I felt a sentence gave too much information or if a participant chose not to have their sentence published, I did not publish that specific data. If participants did not want their sentences published, they were asked to mark it as such on the paper, as I would have no identifying markers to ask the participants individually.	Participants received a $5 gift card.
Individual Teacher Interviews	Individual interviews began with some general questions about teacher motivation. Later questions were inspired by the quantitative data collected. Participants received a random number to be used in the study. The whole process took 1-2 hours.	If volunteers did not come forward, I would attempt to recruit 4-10 participants through email and flyers. The participant received a random number to be used in the study. I asked where the participant felt most comfortable to meet; either off-site like a public library conference room or in their classroom. Member checking was used with the participants' manuscripts and asked whether or not they were comfortable publishing the information. No other individuals had access to the data. I published only member-checked material. Participants were asked to check their transcripts for coding and theme accuracy.	Participants received a $20 gift card.

Section 4: Results

Introduction

My purpose in this this research was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation that motivate teachers to change, specifically intrinsically motivating factors and strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability, and, thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to study and learn. I used a transformative-emancipatory design in which an educator's theoretical lens provided an overarching framework for the study. Specifically, the participants in the study were asked to consider management components from an intrinsically motivated standpoint.

I was interested in change and in improving social justice in the field of public education. Therefore, I used the transformative-based theoretical framework that exists to identify a social injustice or power imbalance within an organization or marginalized group (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). For purposes of this mixed-methods study, I contended that classroom teachers are underrepresented in the reform movement. For instance, classroom teachers have had mandates and sanctions imposed upon them without a voice, as the teacher unions are shut out of all discussions about education (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Politicians and corporate reformers have replaced the balance of power concerning topics of educational importance (Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Some contend that it is socially unjust that politicians and corporate reformers were in direct control over educators, without the knowledge, understanding, or expertise to make educational executive decisions (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010).

The philosophical view for this research study mixed a pragmatist view with a transformative-emancipatory paradigm. The pragmatist view is taking a 'whatever' type of attitude while truth and reality are discarded (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In other words, "Theories are by nature general and abstract; they are not strictly true or false, but rather they are either useful or not useful. They are useful to the extent that they generate explanations that help us understand more easily" (Hoy, 2010, p. 10). The transformative theory is used to identify a social injustice or power imbalance within an organization or marginalized group (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The emancipatory theory takes the side of an underrepresented or marginal group and calls for change (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

A mixed-methods research design is an approach in which the researcher may employ both qualitative and quantitative measures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The collection of data and analysis involves both quantitative and qualitative measures, and this strengthens the overall study by addressing the weaknesses of both types of measures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). I conducted this mixed-methods research study in two phases. The sequential process of data collection was intended to shed light on which motivation structures and components teachers believed would be the most motivating to improve their teaching practices. The transformative mixed methods design included three strands of quantitative data and three strands of qualitative data (See Table 9 on Page 299). Phase 1 of the mixed-methods gathering of data began with quantitative measures, followed by an interpretation of the data collected. Phase 1 measurements included The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment, The Autonomy Audit,

and the quantitative portion of The Flow Test. Note that the Flow Test experiment is considered both a quantitative and qualitative measure. The Qualitative Phase 2 measurements included the What's Your Sentence activity, Individual Teacher Interviews, and the qualitative portion of The Flow Test experiment. I conducted this study in two phases in search of a theme, pattern, or trend in the quantitative data, to drive the results produced by the qualitative data.

I used a numerical system to confidentially track the qualitative data gathered, and a color coding system for analysis. When the Flow Experiments were handed in, I marked them with an unrelated number (the same number was assigned to the participant for all data collection) to keep track of the voluntary participants without using any associating words, only numbers. Once the papers were numerically marked, I used colored highlighters to indicate common themes or ideas made throughout the experiment. Then, I tracked the colors to produce a common theme or pattern. The What's Your Sentence activity and Individual Interviews used the same process as the Flow Experiment to track the data. Color-coded data helped me to analyze and develop emerging themes or patterns within the individual measurements, as well as, the entire study.

The mixed-methods approach emphasized the design and procedure aligned to the study's purpose and research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The mixed-methods design combined qualitative and quantitative data with the transformative-emancipatory theory to address the social injustice or balance of power within the field of education. Meanwhile, the qualitative and quantitative measures were directly and

indirectly aligned to the purpose of the study and research questions. The phases of the study allowed the types of research to support or refute findings within a separate measurement, providing validity and reliability.

The setting of this study is XYZ Elementary School, a Title 1 elementary school located in Utah. At the time of the study, XYZ Elementary School employed 17 full-time classroom teachers, two special educators, and two teacher coaches. Everyone at XYZ Elementary School was allowed to participate. There was a possibility of 21 participants per measurement.

Findings

Organizational Change Readiness Assessment

The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment was used to assess the readiness to change of the participants. I asked Research Question 2, "To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?" Douglas Reeves is the creator of the assessment and has developed a matrix of four phases of change including Ready for Learning, Ready for Change, Ready for Resistance, and Ready for Frustration (see Figure 2 below). The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment comes in two phases, personal and professional (Reeves, 2009).

During a faculty meeting, I introduced the study to the faculty. At the end of the meeting, I handed each potential participant a copy of the Consent to Participate, which contained more information on the proposed study. If participants chose to participate, they signed the consent form and checked off the measurements in which they wanted to participate. Then, either the participant hand delivered the form to the researcher or put

the form in the researcher's faculty mailbox. Once I received permission to participate, I then delivered by hand the materials necessary to complete the Change Readiness task. Each measurement included brief directions, which I was able to clarify, answering any questions the participants encountered.

Organizational change readiness assessment directions. When each participant picked up, or I delivered the assessment, I explained the directions of the task including how to write down a total of ten change experiences within the last five years and the process of narrowing them down to three organizational and three personal change experiences. This written portion of the assessment was not collected or analyzed by the researcher at any time. Participants included only written material necessary for the study without names, pronouns, or any other personal identifying information. I did not include any tracking system of any kind with the preliminary task. I simply put the same number on the personal and organizational survey portions from each participant at the time the participant handed in the assessment to keep participant findings organized. The method prevented the scores of the assessment from being traced back to a specific participant, as the researcher did not report the number to the participant. I used the surveys to determine which category of the Change Readiness Matrix the participant belongs to.

The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment began by asking participants to write down five personal and five professional changes they had made in the last five years (behavioral, personal, relational, physical, or other changes). Later, the participant was asked to pick the top three personal changes to rate from 1 to 10 based on the following categories: (a) planning, (b) sense of urgency, (c) personal support, (d)

personal focus and (e) effect on results. Writing down in words how the change process affected them, allowed the participants to rate accurately their experience from 1 to 10 without emotion driving the results. By stating the independent elements or actions of the change process in words, the rating system is validated by the written data provided because the participant is now rating the action rather than the emotion attached to the action (Reeves, 2009). Likewise, the process of academic writing depleted the emotional scoring factor which added reliability to the measurement (Reeves, 2009). I did not collect or analyze the written responses. The responses were to aid the participants in deriving a numerical rating about change readiness category.

Organizational change readiness assessment matrix. The written portion of both the professional and personal portions of the assessment were not collected or analyzed by the researcher. Instead, I took the sum of the highest two personal change scores and the highest two organizational scores. In the matrix (Figure 2), the total for the two highest changes in the personal Change Assessment represents one's vertical score while the total for the two highest changes in the professional Change Assessments represents one's horizontal score. The matrix is designed to cross reference each participant's personal change score against each participant's professional change score to establish a pattern of change in that participant's life (Reeves, 2009).

100	Ready For Learning (professional score under 50, personal score over 50)	Ready For Change (professional score over 50, personal score over 50)
50	Ready For Resistance (professional score under 50, personal score under 50)	Ready For Frustration (professional score over 50, personal score under 50)

Leadership Change Capacity

0   50   100

Organization Change Capacity

Figure 2. Change readiness matrix. From "*Leading Change in Your School: How to Conquer Myths, Build Commitment, and Get Results*," by D. B. Reeves, (2009, p. 33). Reprinted with permission (Appendix G).

Personal change results. Below, I reported in Table 11, the data collected for the personal change results from the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment. There was a total of 21 teachers requested to participate from XYZ Elementary School. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment had a total of 16 participants. The personal category portion of the assessment has participants rate their experiences using five categories: 1) Planning; 2) Sense of Urgency; 3) Personal Support; 4) Personal Focus, and 5) Effect on Results. Each participant wrote down five personal changes experienced within the last five years. Then the participant picked the top three experiences to rate using the five categories, each on a scale of zero to ten. Each category

had the potential to rate a total of thirty points, as they were rated on a 10-point scale for all three change experiences. Each change experience was totaled, with the highest two totals making up the vertical score for the Change Readiness Matrix.

In addition, the mean scores for each category of rating scale were calculated by taking the sum of all three change ratings for all 16 participants and then taking the mean and dividing that number by a possible score of 480 to present a percentage score (16 participants X 30 possible points per participant). Below, in Figure 3, I have shown both the means and also a comparison between personal change readiness percentages and professional change readiness percentages.

Personal change analysis. As indicated in Table 11 most participants maintain consistent scores across the five categories of personal change. Within each participant's ratings, either the majority of ratings are high, or the majority of ratings are low. This indicates reliability. There were a few exceptions, for example participant 10 and 11 had some fairly high and fairly low scores listed.

In terms of the ratings in each category, the numbers were similar across all categories with the means (327) and percentages (68%) being lowest for Planning, which means that planning was the least challenging part of the participants' personal change experiences. The next highest mean was at (375) for Leadership Focus at (78%). The Sense of Urgency category had a mean of (346) and a percentage of (72%). The Stakeholder Support category had a mean of (373) with a percentage of (78%). The Effect on Results category had a mean of (371) and a percentage of (77%). In terms of the ratings for each participant, it seems that participant 6 rated their experiences with

lower scores indicating that their personal change readiness is low because of three or more low scores. In contrast, participants 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, and 16 all had higher scores indicating that their personal change readiness is high because of consistently high scores. Overall, the mean scores are in the high average and percentages are in the 70th percentile except for the Planning category, scoring an average of 68%. According to Reeves (2009), higher scores, or scores above 20 in each category suggest participants do not have problems with personal change.

       Professional change results. In Table 12, I reported on the data collected for the professional readiness to change results from the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment. Sixteen participants out of a possible 21 participants generated results from XYZ Elementary School. The organizational change experiences are rated on a 10-point scale for each of five categories: 1) Planning; 2) Sense of Urgency; 3) Stakeholder Support; 4) Leadership Focus; and 5) Effect on Results. Each participant wrote down five organizational changes they had experienced in the last five years. The participants then picked the top three changes to rate on a scale of zero to ten within the five categories. Using the five categories, each participant rated each experience. Each category was rated on a 10-point scale with the potential to rate thirty points for all three change experiences. The mean score was calculated by taking the sum of all three change ratings for all 16 participants and dividing that number by a possible score of 480 (16 participants X 30 possible points per participant). I also included the percent equivalent for each mean to aid in comparison across the multiple data collection formats.

Table 11

Personal Change Results

Participant	Planning	Sense of urgency	Personal support	Personal focus	Effect on results
1	23	25	23	23	23
2	28	23	26	30	28
3	8	19	18	21	26
4	21	10	30	25	24
5	22	21	30	27	24
6	11	9	14	10	7
7	30	30	30	29	30
8	27	25	30	29	29
9	22	23	27	25	24
10	10	25	24	16	16
11	16	19	22	21	9
12	26	25	29	29	30
13	21	19	22	25	25
14	20	20	12	22	25
15	18	23	14	17	21
16	24	30	22	26	30
Percentage	68%	72%	78%	78%	77%
Mean	327	346	373	375	371

Note: Percentages in the table are for each of the means to give a sense of the relative quantities across the multiple forms of data collection.

In terms of the ratings in each category, the numbers were sporadic across all categories with the mean of 248 and percentages of 52% being lowest for Leadership Focus, which means that the perception of the participants concerning the focus of the leaders was the most challenging concept of the participants' professional change capacity. The next lowest mean was at 295 for Stakeholder Support at 61%. The Planning category had a mean of 319 and a percentage of 66%. The Effect on Results category had a mean of 335 and a percentage of 70%. The Sense of Urgency category had a mean of 380 with a percentage of 79%.

In terms of the ratings for each participant, it seems that participants 2, 5, 7, and 12 rated their experiences with higher scores indicating that their professional change readiness is high because of consistently high scores. In contrast, participants 1, 3, 6, 8, 9, 14, 15, and 16 all had lower scores indicating that their professional change readiness is low because of consistently low scores. Overall, the highest mean score is the Sense of Urgency category and the lowest mean score is the Leadership Focus. According to Reeves (2009), lower scores, or scores below 20 in each category suggest participants have problems with professional change and the leaders of those changes.

Below, in Table 12, I have shown the professional change readiness means and percentage figures.

Table 12

Professional Change Results

	Planning	Sense of urgency	Stakeholder support	Leadership focus	Effect on results
1	17	25	18	18	18
2	26	26	26	21	23
3	8	26	0	1	22
4	10	30	30	9	30
5	29	21	22	26	28
6	17	24	15	18	12
7	26	28	22	21	30
8	28	27	16	7	11
9	13	12	15	13	14
10	22	30	28	10	28
11	21	22	13	27	14
12	29	29	27	29	30
13	21	22	20	17	24
14	25	28	16	19	19
15	16	20	17	7	23
16	11	10	10	5	9
Percentage	66%	79%	61%	52%	70%
Mean	319	380	295	248	335

Organizational change analysis. As I indicated in Table 12, participants had

lower scores and percentages with organizational change compared to personal change.

Lower scores mean that the participant is less ready for change. The lowest category was

Leadership Focus at 52% and a mean of 248. The highest category indicating the readiest

for change was Sense of Urgency at 79% and a mean of 380. The range of organizational

scores seemed to be spread out more with 27 percentage points, as opposed to personal

scores having a ten-percentage point spread. This indicates greater variability in

participants' readiness for change in the professional arena. Therefore, the data suggested

the 16 participants of XYZ Elementary School seemed to struggle more with professional

change rather than personal change. For example, the Planning category for personal

change had a mean of 327 and percentage of 68%, while the professional change had a

mean of 319 and a percentage of 66%. The Sense of Urgency category for personal

change had a mean of 346 and a percentage of 72%, while the professional change had a

mean of 380 and a percentage of 79%. The Stakeholder Support category for personal

change had a mean of 373 and a percentage of 78%, while the professional change had a

mean of 295 and a percentage of 61%. The Leadership Focus category for personal

change had a mean of 375 and a percentage of 78%, while the professional change had a

mean of 248 and a percentage of 52%. The Effect on Results category for personal

change had a mean of 371 and a percentage of 77%, while the professional change had a

mean of 335 and a percentage of 70%. All of the categories are within ten percentage

points between personal and professional change, with the exceptions of Stakeholder

Support and Leadership Focus. These two are the categories where participants perceive problems with change in the workplace.

Below, in Figure 3, I illustrated the comparison between the personal change readiness scores and the organizational change readiness scores. To create these tables, I used the percentages from Tables 11 and 12 above. Below, in Figure 3, I indicated with the bar graphs that personal change readiness percentages are higher than the organizational change readiness percentages in every category, except the Sense of Urgency and Planning categories. Also, the percentages are all within ten percentage points of one another, except for the category of Focus, which was a difference of 26 percentage points. A visual representation of this discrepancy is revealed in the following bar graph.

Organizational Readiness for Change Matrices

Ready for learning phase. This and the following sections are definitions of each phase which will be followed by the results. The four phases of change readiness include Ready for Learning, Ready for Change, Ready for Resistance, and Ready for Frustration (Reeves, 2009). The Ready for Learning phase demonstrates a leader with the ability and desire to instigate the planning and execution of change (Reeves, 2009). However, there are some problems with learning and development within the individual or organization concerning planning, communicating, or executing change (Reeves, 2009). The leader of the organization has a history of successful change. However, the participants of the organization itself lack in adequate and appropriate professional development, or are inadequately identifying or acknowledging areas of weakness, or perhaps communication

methods between employee and employer are skewed. The phase indicates a breakdown

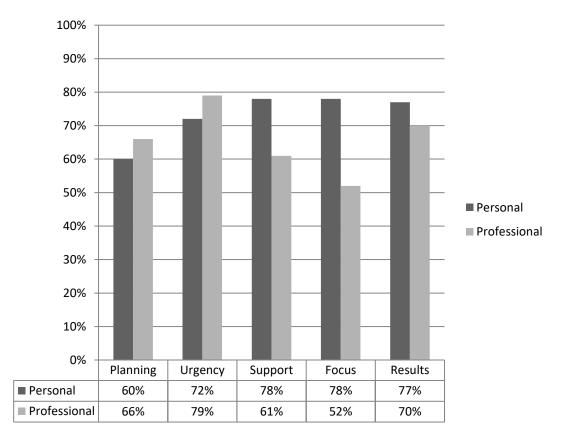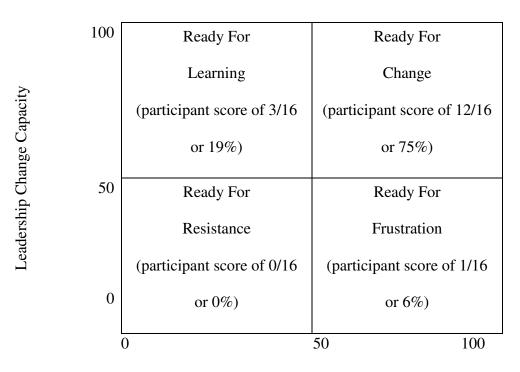in the process between the leader and the organization (Reeves, 2009).

	Planning	Urgency	Support	Focus	Results
Personal	60%	72%	78%	78%	77%
Professional	66%	79%	61%	52%	70%

Figure 3. Bar graph showing comparison between personal and organizational readiness

to change factors

Ready for resistance phase. The Ready for Resistance phase indicates the degree

to which the leader or participants have a successful history of change (Reeves, 2009). In

this case, participants in these situations typically resist, ignore, undermine, or express

anger towards change initiatives (Reeves, 2009, p. 34). In these situations, participants

attempt to wait for the change initiatives to change again. By waiting, the participants

have refused to change and believe the change initiative will change again before the participant needs to take some action.

Ready for frustration phase. The Ready for Frustration phase occurs when someone leading the organization is "reluctant to engage in systematic change or lacks the personal capacity to do so, then the potential for frustration is strong" (Reeves, 2009, p. 35). Change becomes less safe each time a change initiative fails, such as NCLB, resulting in frustration. A change leader would need to develop trust to renew faith in leadership and change initiatives (Reeves, 2009).

Ready for change phase. The Ready for Change phase exists when both leader and participants have a history and capacity for effective change initiatives (Reeves, 2009). The organization can adapt to new situations and progress forward (Reeves, 2009, p. 35).

A visual representation of the data derived from the Matrix of Readiness to Change is shown in Figure 4. The Matrix of Readiness to Change included four phases: 1) Ready for Learning; 2) Ready for Resistance; 3) Ready for Change, and 4) Ready for Frustration. The highest percentage of participants belonged to the Ready for Change category. The Ready for Change category described an individual and the organization ready to accept change, behaviors, and their culture. The Ready for Learning phase included 19% of the participants. The Ready for Learning category indicates an individual with leadership qualities, capable of planning and executing successful personal change; however, the organization itself "may need work on planning, communicating, and executing change" (Reeves 2009, p. 34). The Ready for Frustration

category contained 1/16 or 6% of the participants. If an organization is led by an

individual with personal change issues or lacks the ability to depend on senior leadership

to guide the organization through change, participants become frustrated and less eager to

follow the leader through the change process (Reeves 2009, p. 35). The Ready for

Resistance category had 0% of participant scores. The Ready for Resistance category

indicated neither the individual nor the organization has success with effective change. In

these situations, the organization and participants attempt to ignore or wait for new

change initiatives to occur (Reeves 2009, p. 34).

100	Ready For Learning (participant score of 3/16 or 19%)	Ready For Change (participant score of 12/16 or 75%)
50	Ready For Resistance (participant score of 0/16 or 0%)	Ready For Frustration (participant score of 1/16 or 6%)
0		
	0 50 100	

Leadership Change Capacity

Organization Change Capacity

Figure 4. Change readiness matrix. From "*Leading Change in Your School: How to*

Conquer Myths, Build Commitment, and Get Results," by D. B. Reeves, (2009, p. 33).

Reprinted with permission (Appendix G).

The personal change readiness scores regarding the range of scores or highest and lowest scores, the mode or scores that appeared most often, and the mean or the average of all participant scores is shown in Table 13. The range of scores was quite extensive, showing very low scores all the way to the highest score of 30. A score of ten in any category was supposed to be seen only on rare occasions (Reeves, 2009). Douglas Reeves (2009, p.19) reported honest 10's should be considered a rare occurrence. The mode scores showed a very high occurrence of scores; and, in many cases, more than one high score was repeated. The average scores of all the participant's personal change ratings were in the range of 70-80% except for the Planning category at 68%. The personal readiness to change scores were high and, therefore, accepting of significant change.

Table 13

Personal Change Readiness Scores

	Planning	Sense of Urgency	Personal support	Personal focus	Effect on results
Range	8 - 30	9 – 30	12 – 30	10 - 30	7 - 30
Mode	21, 22	25	30	25, 29	24, 30
Percent	68%	72%	78%	78%	77%
Mean	327	346	373	375	371

Note: Percentages are the percent form for the means.

In Table 14, below, I have shown the organizational or professional change readiness scores regarding the range of scores or highest to lowest, the mode or scores that appeared most often, and the mean or the average of all participant scores. The range

of scores was more extensive with the organizational ratings, compared to the personal ratings. The categories of Support and Focus shared the widest span of ratings. The mode of the organization's readiness to change shared three separate scores in the category of Planning and Sense of Urgency. In the category of Support and Focus, there were two repeated scores, and the Effect on Results had only one repeated score of 30 which is the highest score possible. The average scores across all five categories had a wider range for the organizational portion compared with the personal scores, with a range of 52% - 79%.

Table 14

Professional Change Readiness Scores

	Planning	Sense of Urgency	Stakeholder support	Leadership focus	Effect on results
Range	8 – 29	10 – 30	0 – 30	1 - 29	9 – 30
Mode	21, 26, 29	22, 26, 30	15, 22	7, 21	30
Mean	66%	79%	61%	52%	70%

In conclusion, using the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment the participants of XYZ Elementary School are perceived the organization to be capable of effective change because their individual scores were over 50 for personal and over 50 for professional for twelve of the sixteen participants. The organization did rate lower than personal individuals; however, the overall scores were compatible. Also, Reeves (2009, p. 19) reported 'Honest 10's' to be rare; yet, the participants' scores for both personal and professional were high. I found the lowest category for personal scores in

the Planning category. Meanwhile, Leadership Focus was the lowest category for the professional scores. The highest category for personal change readiness was a tie between Support and Focus. The highest category for the professional readiness to change was the Sense of Urgency category. I incorporated these findings into the interview questions by asking participants about the five categories of readiness to change and how it affects their professional careers and teacher motivation.

Meaning of the readiness to change assessment results. Above, in Table 11, I have shown 16 participants with the personal change scores to be consistent across all five categories, meaning if one participant scored high within a category, then the majority of the participants did as well. The consistency of the scores were all high except for the planning category, which means the majority of the participants did not plan ahead for change experiences. The scores also indicated the participants at XYZ Elementary School do not appear to have a problem with personal change as measured by the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment.

Above, in Table 12, I reported lower scores for the organizational portion versus personal change scores. The lowest category was Leadership Focus at 52%, meaning leaders made the changes needed clear and then became inconsistent as time passed. The Leadership Focus category states, "senior leadership made the change their clear and consistent focus long after initiation" (Reeves 2009, p. 32). Several interview participants stated that many leaders said one thing and then acted differently. Interview participants commented that actions did not match with the words of our leaders. However, even though the professional scores were lower than the personal scores, the overall scores

were evenly matched with professional scores on the lower end, and Leadership Focus had the largest discrepancy between categories.

The overall perception of the participants of the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment was 75% of the participants are in the Ready for Change category. The results of this assessment states for the participants of XYZ Elementary School the teachers and the leaders are ready and willing for change. Both teachers and leaders are capable in a personal and professional manner of change.

Autonomy Audit

The Autonomy Audit is a simple instrument designed by Daniel Pink (2009) to indicate the level of autonomy perceived by the participant in the workplace. Autonomy is one of the three components included with intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive (Pink, 2009). Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's (2000) research identified three categories of intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Later, Daniel Pink (2009) identified three similar categories about intrinsic motivation, or the Third Drive: autonomy, mastery, and purpose. For this research study, I referred more to the work of Daniel Pink (2009) to coincide with the Autonomy Audit.

In Research Question 3, I asked, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?" Autonomy refers to more control and choice over situations. True autonomy is about control and choice with support and trust to work interdependently alongside colleagues (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The four categories of autonomy in the workplace are a task, time, team, and technique (Pink, 2009). I asked participants to answer questions on The Autonomy Audit using a rating

system, from 1 to 10, how much autonomy the participants possessed in the four categories of task, time, team, and technique in the workplace. A rating of zero was equal to autonomy in a prison, and a rating of ten was similar to the autonomy felt at Woodstock. I calculated scores on a 40-point scale (Pink, 2009, P. 166-167).

The Autonomy Audit is very simple and direct. The directness of the questions creates validity for the information provided (Pink, 2009). The participants either perceived themselves to have autonomy or they did not. The audit provided a platform for interview questions. The audit yielded data concerning the autonomy of high, medium, low, or none, and in what category: time, team, task, or technique. Now, I used the data from the audit to formulate interview questions to discover why the participants felt the way they did about the autonomy they did or did not perceive themselves possessing. The consistency of the data provided reliability (Pink, 2009). Reliability is present if the majority of the data points are consistent, with only a few data points outside the general range. If the data points are scattered all over the place, then the survey would be considered unreliable.

Autonomy audit directions. I introduced the study to 21 potential participants during a faculty meeting at XYZ Elementary School. At the end of the meeting, each potential participant was handed a Consent to Participate, which included more information about the study, as well as, a signature page to indicate the different assessments for which each wanted to volunteer. The consenting participant had three different ways of turning in the consent form: 1) online fax; 2) hand deliver to the researcher, or 3) deliver to an in-person mailbox located at XYZ Elementary School. Once I received consent, the materials were delivered to the participants so that they could begin when they were ready and could

have any questions answered and clarified first. There were no identifying markers on this form, no names, or even words. The only marks on this measurement were the zero to ten rating for the team, task, time, and technique, written directions, and a one to seventeen numbering system to track how many participants, to aid the researcher in counting every audit accurately. The participants did not need to include any more information.

      Autonomy audit results. Below, in Table 15, I show the results of the Autonomy Audit. I divided the results into category percentages of team, task, time, and technique. The first row of the table indicates the overall group percentages separated into the categories: team, task, time, and technique. There were 17 participants for the Autonomy Audit. Every participant received the audit with four questions and rated the questions on a scale of zero to ten. So, there was a possible score of ten points per category per participant. I wrote down on a separate piece of paper each of the four categories of autonomy. By doing this, I could divide the total autonomy score by category, as well as, indicate how much autonomy is perceived by the group at XYZ Elementary School. Once each score was written down by category, I calculated the mean by dividing the sum of scores by 170 (17 participants multiplied by an individual 10 point possible score). I also calculated a group percentage of the mean for each category. Then I tallied the percentage categories by percentage ranges and divided by a total of 17 participants. I also calculated separate scores by a higher percentage range of an individual score of 6-10 points and a lower percentage range of 0-5 points. The tallies were then broken down into fractions with a denominator or total of 17, representing the 17 participants.

Autonomy audit analysis. Below, in Table 15, I indicated only one category of autonomy, technique, was perceived to be above 50% by the participants of XYZ Elementary School, meaning the participants perceived only the category of technique, which refers to the teaching techniques teachers can use, as the only area that teachers feel a sense of autonomy. The High Autonomy Percentage Points compared to the Low Autonomy Percentage Points clearly favored on the low side of perceived autonomy, meaning overall the participants felt very little autonomy in the workplace. The category of the team seemed to be the most unbalanced out of the four categories of autonomy, meaning the perceived scores were very high and very low with little consistency. Also, the category of technique was the only category to outscore the high percentage points of 65% versus the low percentage points of 35%. The category of team and time had a higher percentage in the Low Autonomy Percentage Points, meaning both categories scored low. I indicated in the table, the participants of XYZ Elementary School clearly did not perceive themselves having much autonomy in the categories of the team, task, and time.

Table 15

Autonomy Results in High/Low Percentages

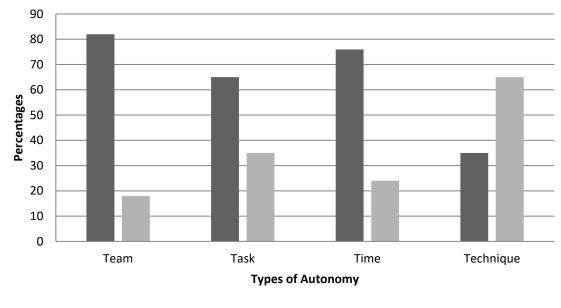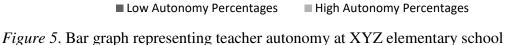| Autonomy	Team	Task	Time	Technique
Group	35%	45%	45%	65%
6 – 10 Points	18%	35%	24%	65%
0 – 5 Points	82%	65%	76%	35%

Below, in Table 16, I divided the individual participant ratings and categorized the group of the time, team, task, and technique into an overall percentage range. I also show in the table how each participant perceived their total autonomy score. Next, I made tallies within each percentage group and divided the total by 17, representing the 17 participants. Also, I viewed the autonomy percentages on a group basis as well as an individual basis.

Below, in Table 16, I indicated on average the participants of XYZ Elementary School did not perceive themselves as having an abundant amount of autonomy in the workplace, meaning the majority of the participants did not score high on the Autonomy Audit. It was clear that some categories outscored others, with the category of technique having much higher scores and a range of three to ten. The category of the task had a range of zero to eight. The category of time had a range of zero to ten. The category of the team had a range of zero to ten. The widespread ranges indicated a difference in perceived perceptions of autonomy in the workplace as measured by the Autonomy Audit.

In Figure 5, I represented 17 participants and their teacher perceived autonomy using a bar graph. When participants handed in their results, I put a number at the top of the paper to keep track of the recorded data. Then, I divided the ratings into the categories of autonomy of time, team, task, and technique. Within each category, I took the sum of scores and divided by 170 (17 participants multiplied by a possible score of 10) for the category percentages. Next, I took an individual percentage score based on a possible score of 40 points and divided by the participant's sum of scores for each of the four categories of autonomy. The light bar represents high autonomy percentages or anything over 51%. The dark bar represents the low autonomy percentages or anything below 50%. As I

indicated by the graph, the low autonomy percentages far outnumber the high autonomy percentages except those for the category of technique.

Figure 5. Bar graph representing teacher autonomy at XYZ elementary school

The low autonomy percentages outweighed the high autonomy percentages, except for the technique category. There was a significant number of low autonomy teacher scores at XYZ Elementary School, meaning teacher participants did not feel autonomy in the workplace. Administrators of XYZ Elementary School need to understand most teacher participants felt very little autonomy in the workplace. Therefore, supportive administrators need to analyze how teachers are allowed to do their jobs, and if this is the type of message the administrators would like to convey. The topic of autonomy and low percentage scores became a topic of conversation for the individual teacher interviews.

Table 16

Individual and Group Autonomy Results

	Team	Task	Time	Technique	Range
1	5	6	7	8	5-8
2	5	8	5	10	5-10
3	0	4	1	4	0-4
4	4	6	4	4	4-6
5	2	5	7	8	2-8
6	1	2	2	3	1-3
7	2	4	5	4	2-5
8	10	3	4	8	3-10
9	5	1	5	5	1-5
10	5	5	4	8	4-8
11	5	3	2	8	2-8
12	3	6	5	6	3-6
13	6	4	5	5	4-6
14	0	5	3	6	0-6
15	7	8	10	8	7-10
16	0	6	8	8	0-8
17	0	0	0	8	0-8
Mean	60	76	77	111	

Flow Test Experiment

The second category of the Third Drive is mastery (Pink, 2009), or competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000). I asked Research Question 4, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess enough belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?" Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and his team of researchers from the University of Chicago developed a "Flow Test" originating from his original experiment in the early 1970's. A 'flow' experience is described as optimal and often not enjoyable at the time of experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). The experience itself requires hard work and a deep level of concentration. Many times, the notion of time is inconceivable. A flow experience is not ordinary. Flow experiences tend to motivate individuals to experience more of the same as they are rewarding in themselves without the need for external reward or punishment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). Extrinsic motivation is motivating action or behavior through external forces (Deci & Ryan, 1985). External forces can be rewards (i.e., money, prize, or food) or punishments (i.e., threats, or fear). External forces cannot promote intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Self-interest, enjoyment of the activity itself, and individual satisfaction drives intrinsic motivation. An attempt to incorporate external forces in intrinsic activities only diminishes intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) original Flow Test consisted of a week-long experiment in which the researcher alerted participants with a pager at 40 random times during the work week. Each time the pager went off, the participants would take a brief moment to write down whether they, as teachers, were in the flow or not, what they were

doing, and a quick word or phrase about how they felt at the time. I only had this brief description of the original Flow Test performance. However, Daniel Pink (2009) has revised a version of the original Flow Test, and the researcher has made revisions and protocols based on the description made by Daniel Pink with his permission (Appendix F).

The teachers who participated in the Flow Test experiment were asked to pick eight times during the work day to circle their level of flow, time of day, and activity. I developed two sheets to be used by the participant each day of the experiment. I was not allowed to set off an alarm during the school day. Therefore, I allowed the participants to pick eight random times each day for five days to set an alarm, most instances on their cell phones set to vibrate. Each time the alarm went off, the participants would circle their level of flow as high, low, medium, or no. Next, the participants wrote down the time, and in what activity they were engaged in their classes. The point of this portion of the activity was to preserve the memory of the actions going on until the end of the school day. At the end of each day, the participants were asked to fill in a journal entry. The verbal data was the point of the experiment which gave the numerical data some reasoning or voice. The participants indicated at the top of the journal page which day it was and were asked to reflect as to why or why not they perceived high or low levels or no level of flow for themselves. Also, participants were asked to reflect on times of day, or types of lessons, or any outside influences that may have affected their recorded levels of flow.

The reliability of the test coincided with each participant's ability to determine in an instant whether or not he or she, as a classroom teacher, was engaged and participating in a flow-like experience. I substantiated validity through the comparison of the participant's written reflections. I also determined whether the participant's reflection matched the worksheet data per instance measured. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) discovered the idea of flow while engaging in other experiments and found, despite the task or occupation of the participant, a flow-like experience contained similar attributes.

Flow test results. Below, beginning with Table 17, I listed daily scores for each participant by the day of the week. I took an average sum by the days of the week and then divided by nine participants to find the average daily score. For each timing, the participant would circle a state of flow between high, medium, low, or no. I attached a numerical value to each category to represent the scores in the tables below. High score was three points, medium scores was two points, a low score was one point, and a no score was zero points. The mean score was calculated by these numerical ratings added together with eight timings a day for five consecutive days. The percentages were calculated by taking the mean score (mean number of points) and dividing it by a score of 120, or the highest possible score. The percentages represent a numerical value of flow, where a higher percentage means higher levels of flow and a lower percentage means lower heights of flow.

I showed the average scores (number of points a day) below in Table 17 and the scores that surprised me the most were the midday scores. The higher scores appeared midday rather than morning block versus afternoon block. I was also interested to

discover the different scores throughout the week. Mondays and Fridays scored higher percentages than I expected. Overall, I felt like different teachers faced different challenges in the classroom, and those challenges affected the amount of flow in the classroom at different times of the day.

Table 17

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant in points

Participant	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Week
Time 1	16	14	16	11	10	67/120 55.83%
Time 2	13	16	22	15	18	84/120 70%
Time 3	15	16	21	18	19	89/120 74.17%
Time 4	19	17	15	13	15	79/120 65.83%
Time 5	21	21	18	20	19	99/120 82.50%
Time 6	8	14	9	4	9	44/120 36.67%
Time 7	14	14	11	19	9	67/120 55.83%
Time 8	17	17	17	14	15	80/120 66.67%
Time 9	11	10	16	12	13	62/120 51.67%
Average	15	15	16	14	14	

Flow test rating directions. Each participant who participated in the Flow

Experiment was assigned a random number from 1 – 9. On the Daily Recording Sheet,

each participant measured the rate of flow in their classrooms eight random times during

the day as high, medium, low, or no flow. Then, I assigned a numerical value to each

rating: High = 3; Medium = 2; Low = 1; and No = 0. I posted each rating and the

numerical value in a table for each participant. Next, I calculated the range for a daily

rating by taking a high score of three multiplied by eight possible times equaling twenty-

four daily points possible. The possible daily points of twenty-four were then multiplied

by five for the five days of the experiment, equaling 120 total possible points per

participant per week. Below, in Table 18, I show the daily Flow Test ratings for

Participant number one.

Flow test participant 1 results. Participant 1 had Monday and Wednesday listed

as the highest scoring days and Friday as the lowest. Participant 1 indicated on both

Monday and Wednesday lessons and centers went well because of being prepared, and

there was a routine in place. On Tuesday and Thursday, Participant 1 indicated there were

a couple of disruptions, and some of the routines were not as standard as they could have

been on another day. Friday inclued many assessments, which were indicated by

Participant 1 as a disruption on its own. Participant 1 reported most of the students were

tired and were having a difficult time focusing, which made teaching difficult. When the

classroom students are struggling to focus and maintain good behavior, the students tend

to look to the teacher for relief or sympathy. The students, in this case, caused a

disruption with the teacher's intrinsic motivation by upsetting the routine and going off

topic. These actions caused the teacher to lose the flow of intrinsic motivation.

Table 18

Daily Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 1

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 2	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	No 0 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 3	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Time 4	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 5	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 6	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts
Time 7	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	No 0 pts
Time 8	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts
Mean	16/24pts.	14/24pts.	16/24pts.	11/24pts.	10/24pts.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days,

totaling a possibility of rating High, Medium, Low, or No forty times. Participant #1 had

ten High ratings out of forty or 25%, ten Medium ratings out of forty or 25%, seventeen

Low ratings out of forty or 43%, and three No ratings out of forty or 8%. Each participant wrote down eight daily ratings for five days for a total of forty ratings. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the week was 120, and Participant #1 had 67/120, which averaged 56%. Participant 1 experienced the intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 56% of the time as measured by the Flow Experiment. An average percentage score over 50% was encouraging to the classroom teacher because when the teacher is intrinsically motivated to teach, then the students have a greater opportunity to be intrinsically motivated with their learning.

   Flow Test participant 2 results. Participant 2 had the highest scoring day on Wednesday. The next highest scoring day was Friday. The lowest scoring day was Monday. Participant 2 reported Monday as being filled with distractions. The teacher felt prepared and in the process of giving directions to students, other students started to engage in inappropriate behavior by talking to other students about issues other than academics. The teacher still reported being engaged with other students on a Low Level because the teacher's level of intrinsic behavior was affected. Also, the movement of a teacher moving from center to center did not move smoothly. During times of reported High flow, the teacher said they were interested and completely engaged in the activities of the day. When involved in high levels of flow, the teacher observed that the number of students engaged also increased.

Below, in Table 19, I reported the Daily Flow Test Ratings for Participant 2.

Table 19

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 2

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Low	Low	High	Medium	High
	1 pts	1 pts	3 pts	2 pts	3 pts
Time 2	Low	Low	High	Medium	Medium
	1 pts	1 pts	3 pts	2 pts	2 pts
Time 3	Low	High	High	Medium	High
	1 pts	3 pts	3 pts	2 pts	3 pts
Time 4	High	High	High	No	High
	3 pts	3 pts	3 pts	0 pts	3 pts
Time 5	Low	Low	Low	Medium	High
	1 pts	1 pts	1 pts	2 pts	3 pts
Time 6	Low	Low	High	Medium	Low
	1 pts	1 pts	3 pts	2 pts	1 pts
Time 7	Medium	High	High	High	Low
	2 pts	3 pts	3 pts	3 pts	1 pts
Time 8	High	High	High	Medium	Medium
	3 pts	3 pts	3 pts	2 pts	2 pts
Mean	13/24pts.	16/24pts.	22/24pts.	15/24pts.	18/24pts.

Each participant rated a potential flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling 40 ratings of High, Medium, Low, or No. Participant 2 had eighteen out of forty High ratings or 45%, nine out of forty Medium ratings or 23%, twelve out of forty Low ratings or 30%, and one out of forty No ratings or 3%. As a reminder, each participant

wrote down eight daily ratings for five days for a total of forty ratings. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the week was 120, and Participant 2 had 84/120, which when averaged is 70% of the time. Participant 2 experienced intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 70% of the time as measured by the Flow Experiment. Having measured 70% of a week's time as intrinsically motivated means this teacher might have encouraged her students to be intrinsically motivated as well.

Flow Test participant 3 results. Participant 3 had the highest ratings of flow on Wednesday and the second highest level on Friday. Monday was the lowest level of flow reported. On Wednesday Participant 3 reported moving math lessons to the morning period, which proved to be very beneficial because the teacher felt higher levels of intrinsic motivation teaching math in the morning hours. On Friday Participant 3 indicated a minor disruption with a student who took a time out successfully, allowing the teacher's sense of flow to continue at a Medium Level. Participant 3 also reported flow for the teacher to move smoothly when the class took short breaks and the subject of math was taught for part of the time in the morning. The teacher felt the arrangement was academically stimulating.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling a possibility of rating High, Medium, Low, or No forty times. Participant 3 had seventeen High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 43%, fifteen Medium ratings out of 40, or 38%, eight Low ratings out of 40, or 20%, and zero No ratings out of 40, or 0%.

Below, in Table 20, I reported on Participant 3's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 20

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 3

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 2	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 3	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 4	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 5	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 6	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts
Time 7	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 8	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Mean	15/24pts.	16/24pts.	21/24pts.	18/24pts.	19/24pts.

Each participant wrote down eight daily ratings for five days for a total of forty ratings altogether. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the week was 120 if all of the possible forty ratings were High

at a value of 3 points each. Participant 3's scores totaled 89/120, which, averaged, is 70% of the time. Therefore, it could be said that Participant 3 experienced intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 74% value or amount as measured by the Flow Experiment. This participant reported an increased level of intrinsic motivation when the teacher witnessed students engaged in academic activities.

Flow Test participant 4 results. Participant 4's highest-scoring days were Monday and Tuesday. The lowest scoring day was on Thursday. Participant 4 indicated her intrinsic motivation rose when witnessing students engaged in setting academic goals and schedules. Participant 4 also reported an increase in intrinsic motivation noticing a difference in student engagement when whole group activities were placed before small group activities. One day, however, in the middle of small groups, several students were called to the office, disrupting the flow of this teacher's intrinsic motivation. The disruption halted the teacher's flow or sense of intrinsic motivation, which may also have interrupted the possible flow for others in the classroom.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling a possibility of High, Medium, Low, or No forty times. Participant 4 had nine High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 23%, twenty-two Medium ratings out of 40, or 55%, eight Low ratings out of 40, or 20%, and one No rating out of 40, or 3%. Each participant wrote down eight daily ratings for five days for a total of forty ratings. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating

Below, in Table 21, I showed Participant 4's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 21

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 4

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Time 2	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 3	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 4	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 5	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 6	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 7	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 8	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	No 0 pts	Low 1 pts
Mean	19/24pts.	17/24pts.	15/24pts.	13/24pts.	15/24pts.

had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the

week was 120 if all of the possible forty ratings were High at a value of 3 points each,

and Participant 4 had 79/120, which averaged 66%. Participant 4 experienced the

intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom

teaching processes 66% value or amount as measured by the Flow Experiment. The

teacher found the measurement of 66% encouraging because of the early time of the year,

representing more than half of the teaching time reportedly in the flow as a success story

for the individual teacher.

Below, in Table 22, I reported on Participant 5's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 22

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 5

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 2	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 3	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 4	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts
Time 5	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 6	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 7	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts
Time 8	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts
Mean	21/24pts.	21/24pts.	18/24pts.	20/24pts.	19/24pts.

Flow Test participant 5 results. Participant 5 had the highest scoring days on Monday and Tuesday. The lowest scoring day was Thursday. Participant 5 indicated that using rhythm and repetition kept a faster pace and was intrinsically motivating to her. She found active participation with games and activities to be the most important for maintaining the sense of flow. Friday, involving much repetition and review, proved to be the most difficult day for maintaining flow or intrinsic motivation for this teacher.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling a possibility of High, Medium, Low, or No forty times. Participant 5 had twenty-three High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 58%, thirteen Medium ratings out of 40, or 33%, four Low ratings out of 40, or 10%, and zero No ratings out of 40, or 0%. Each participant had written down eight daily ratings for five days for a total of forty ratings. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the week was 120 if all of the possible forty ratings were High at a value of 3 points each, and Participant 5 had 99/120, which averaged 83%, or value of time. Participant 5 experienced the intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 83% of the time as measured by the Flow Experiment. She found the 83% motivated her to continue similar activities, increasing her perceived percentage of intrinsic motivation even more.

Below, in Table 23, I reported on Participant 6's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 23

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 6

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts	No 0 pts
Time 2	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	No 0 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 3	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 4	No 0 pts	No 0 pts	No 0 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 5	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	No 0 pts
Time 6	No 0 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 7	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	No 0 pts	High 3 pts
Time 8	No 0 pts	Medium 2 pts	No 0 pts	No 0 pts	Low 1 pts
Mean	8/24pts.	14/24pts.	9/24pts.	4/24pts.	9/24pts.

Flow Test participant 6 results. Participant 6 had the highest levels of flow on Tuesday. Participant 6 reported the lowest levels of flow on Thursday. On Tuesday Participant 6 indicated a higher level of flow since she felt in her element with science activities and the increased social interaction with the students. She said she felt intrinsically motivated to teach. According to Participant 6's words, she felt it was her

intrinsic motivation that motivated her students to be more engaged in their learning. The other days of the week, Participant 6 reported lower levels of flow, as numerous distractions occurred, infringing on the level of perceived teacher flow. One such distraction included a high number of students who needed to make several transitions to other classrooms in a small amount of time. Most of her class was reported as leaving the classroom for at least one block period a day, which increased the number of students socializing about nonacademic topics and ultimately affected the teacher's sense of flow or intrinsic motivation to teach.

Participant 6 had four High ratings out of 40 possible points, or 10%, eight Medium points out of 40, or 20%, sixteen Low points out of 40, or 40%, and twelve No points out of 40, or 30%. Therefore, she had 44/120, which averaged 37%. Participant 6 experienced intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 37% of possible flow as measured by the Flow Experiment. Participant 6 repeatedly reported numerous distractions impeding on her ability to maintain intrinsically motivating teaching.

Flow Test participant 7 results. Participant 7 had thirteen High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 33%, eleven Medium ratings out of 40, or 28%, six Low ratings out of 40, or 15%, and ten No ratings out of 40, or 25%. In summary, Participant 7's ratings out of possible ratings were High 33%, Medium 28%, Low 15%, and No 25%. Overall, Participant 7 ratings were 67/120, which when averaged is 59% of potential Flow ratings.

Participant 7 had the highest levels of flow on Thursday and the lowest levels of flow on Friday. Participant 7 reported afternoons to be more difficult than the mornings,

Below, in Table 24, I reported on Participant 7's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 24

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 7

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 2	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 3	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Time 4	High 3 pts	No 0 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Time 5	No 0 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	No 0 pts
Time 6	No 0 pts	Low 1 pts	No 0 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts
Time 7	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts
Time 8	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts	High 3 pts	No 0 pts
Mean	14/24pts.	14/24pts.	11/24pts.	19/24pts.	9/24pts.

in part due to scheduling conflicts, over which Participant 7 had no control due to the

schedule. Unfortunately, I cannot compare the afternoon to the morning times between

participants because the daily times of each participant were not the same. I can only

report what the participant wrote in the journal section. The scheduling conflict consisted

of math taught in the afternoons for a shorter period. There are specific time frames within the school to teach math and reading, and the educators are not allowed to rearrange the small group math and reading times. Participant 7 related Low ratings to situations when she was not in the flow, or intrinsically motivated, because of time constraints and other interruptions, such as late students talking and moving around the room. Participant 7 also related High ratings to situations where she was prepared with a variety of lesson structures and in which routines were followed which influenced her to be in the flow or intrinsically motivated to teach.

Flow Test participant 8 results. Participant 8 had fifteen High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 38%, ten Medium ratings out of 40, or 25%, fifteen Low ratings out of 40, or 38%, and zero No ratings out of 40, or 0%. In summary, of the potential Flow ratings, 38% were High, 25% were Medium, 38% were Low, and 0% were No. Participant 8 had 80/120, which is an average of 67%.

Participant 8 had a three-way tie for the highest score of flow on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday. Participant 8 found the lowest score of flow on Thursday. Participant 8 indicated one of the interruptions to flow was trying something new in class and realizing technology did not function as planned. Trying something new also left the teacher feeling less confident. Participant 8 reported small group time as the highest point of teacher flow or intrinsic motivation experienced. She found the variety with activities to be motivating. Another observation was that the morning blocks seemed more inviting to flow experiences than did the afternoon blocks. Participant 8 reported being most engaged and intrinsically motivated when teaching with hands-on activities.

Below, in Table 25, I reported Participant 8's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 25

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 8

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts
Time 2	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 3	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 4	Medium 2 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 5	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts	Low 1 pts
Time 6	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	High 3 pts	Medium 2 pts
Time 7	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	High 3 pts
Time 8	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts	Medium 2 pts	High 3 pts	Low 1 pts
Mean	17/24pts.	17/24pts.	17/24pts.	14/24pts.	15/24pts.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling a possibility of High for three points, Medium for two points, Low for one point, or No for zero points, with the possibility of 40 total scoring points. The results

experienced by Participant 8 inspired her to engage in more social activities, which promoted more teacher flow or intrinsic motivation in her classroom.

Flow Test participant 9 results. Participant 9 had the highest score of flow on Wednesday and the lowest score of flow on Tuesday. In general, Participant 9 reported the afternoons difficult in maintaining any motivation to teach. The teacher found lunch recess a time of fighting and arguing students, which transferred to the classroom impeding on the teacher's ability to be in the flow or be intrinsically motivated. Also, she observed that the more she became motivated, the more the students became engaged with the academic activities. Participant 9 reported formal assessment time as the most difficult time for herself to maintain flow or intrinsic motivation. She noted the assessment was demotivating to her, therefore making the situation a difficult one in which to motivate others.

Each participant could rate a flow experience eight times a day for five days, totaling a possibility of High, Medium, Low, or No forty times. Participant 9 had four High ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 10%, sixteen Medium ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 40%, eighteen Low ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 45%, and two No ratings out of 40 possible ratings, or 5%. A High rating had a numerical value of three, a Medium rating had a value of two, a Low rating had a value of one, and a No rating had a value of zero. The highest score possible for the week was 120 if all of the possible forty ratings were High at a value of 3 points each, and Participant 9 had 62/120, which averaged 52%. She experienced intrinsic motivation of a sense of mastery to promote lasting change through classroom teaching processes 52% of the time as

Below, in Table 26, I reported on Participant 9's Daily Flow Test Ratings.

Table 26

Daily Average Flow Test Ratings Per Participant 9

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Time 1	Low	Low	Low	No	Low
	1 pts	1 pts	1 pts	0 pts	1 pts
Time 2	Low	No	High	Low	Medium
	1 pts	0 pts	3 pts	1 pts	2 pts
Time 3	Medium	Low	High	High	Low
	2 pts	1 pts	3 pts	3 pts	1 pts
Time 4	Low	Low	Medium	High	Medium
	1 pts	1 pts	2 pts	3 pts	2 pts
Time 5	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium
	2 pts	2 pts	1 pts	2 pts	2 pts
Time 6	Low	Medium	Medium	Low	Low
	1 pts	2 pts	2 pts	1 pts	1 pts
Time 7	Low	Low	Medium	Low	Medium
	1 pts	1 pts	2 pts	1 pts	2 pts
Time 8	Medium	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium
	2 pts	2 pts	2 pts	1 pts	2 pts
Mean	11/24pts.	10/24pts.	16/24pts.	12/24pts.	13/24pts.

measured by the Flow Experiment. The percentage score of flow appealed to the teacher.

The score meant at least half of the time she was in the flow or intrinsically motivated.

Flow test analysis. According to the Flow Experiment data, the highest

percentages averaged between Medium and Low levels of flow. There are similar

remarks made by participants about the levels of flow. Many participants reported high levels of flow or intrinsic motivation when they shared autonomy to teach what they wanted, when they wanted, and how they wanted. Holding small groups at the same time every day was reported 'as a necessary evil'. However, several participants expressed that when they were allowed the freedom to teach and create lessons, they found themselves in the flow or intrinsically motivated. As one participant expressed, "I don't think any teacher will find herself motivated to teach a prescribed program. The routine of the program can be academically beneficial; however, it bores everyone involved at some point." Overall, participants averaged levels of flow in the Low to Medium range, which suggested participants of the Flow Experiment from XYZ Elementary School felt an adequate amount of flow or intrinsic motivation throughout the work week. The researcher asked interview questions about mastery teaching and motivating students to learn. Flow Test participants were also asked to member check the data results and analysis for accuracy.

What's Your Sentence Exercise

The third category of the Third Drive is the purpose (Pink, 2009) or relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). I asked Research Question 5, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?" The change would be about doing something different from what is currently not working. Extrinsic motivation, or Motivation 2, has no conceivable notion of purpose (Pink, 2009; & Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation, or Motivation 2, only operates under the notion of rewards and punishments (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The United States

of America has always preached a higher sense of purpose, based on the idea that a high

number of immigrants came to pursue their sense of happiness in America (Ravitch,

2010). It is ironic to think that America's founding fathers went in search of a higher

sense of purpose, only to have our current leaders attempt to initiate extrinsic rewards and

punishments designed to destroy classroom teachers' autonomy, mastery, and purpose

(Pink, 2009), all sources of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Many describe a

sense of purpose as coming from the human spirit or as a motivation that cannot be

bought or threatened (Pink, 2009).

There is a simple test called *What's Your Sentence*. Clare Boothe Luce originally

developed it in 1962 (Pink, 2009). The intent of the test is to focus one's thoughts on the

purpose of one's life in a single sentence. One sentence helps keep individuals focused

and away from minute details (Pink, 2009). When an individual is truly driven by a given

purpose and has achieved mastery, in this case as a classroom teacher, a single precise

sentence would come easily. I handed participants a sheet with directions to write a single

sentence about themselves indicating their purpose in life as they perceived it to be. They

required time, space, and privacy to complete this task. Therefore, participants were

given directions and then took the materials with them so that they would have the

opportunity to complete the task in private. Participants completed the activity and picked

one of the ways to deliver the materials back to the researcher, by district mail,

electronically, or in person. No names or gender specific details were included.

What's your sentence results. Analyzing the participants' purpose statements

started out general and became specific. I made the act of teaching, learning, and a

community of students one general topic. The other topics could be related to the act of

teaching and learning; however, the content related to other topics specifically. The

highest category of purpose for XYZ Elementary School was Teaching and Learning

with ten out of seventeen participants, or 59% of the group, who wrote a purpose

statement relating directly to the topic of Teaching and Learning.

The second highest topic was Inspiration and Service to Others. The category of

Inspiration and Service to Others pertained to living life as an example, teachers working

to influence the lives of their students, and motivating and serving others. This topic

related to the idea of teaching and learning indirectly. However, the general topic of

service and inspiration to others was considered similar to the act of teaching and

learning, and these purpose statements were more specific to the topic of Inspiration and

Service to Others. The Inspiration and Service to Others category scored four out of

seventeen, or 24% of the group, who wrote a purpose statement directly related to the

topic of Inspiration and Service to Others.

There were three purpose statements left which pertained to their single category

of Happiness, Truth, and Balance in Life. Each of these statements could be indirectly

related to the two previous categories. However, these three purpose statements were

specific enough to be contained in their solitary category. Each category had one out of

seventeen, or 6% of the group, who wrote a specific purpose statement related to the

topics of Happiness, Truth, and Balance in Life.

What's your sentence analysis. I felt that all of the purpose statements were

positive reflections of individuals motivated to teach, learn, inspire, serve others, and

Below, in Table 27, I reported a simple chart, indicating the general purpose as stated by each participant.

Table 27

Purpose Statements

	Purpose Sentence
Participant 1	I believe that all students should be able to learn in a loving, non-judgmental, classroom environment, with teachers helping each student learn and feel successful. Topic**:** Teaching and Learning
Participant 2	My purpose in life is to motivate those around me to be lifelong learners. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 3	I inspire children to want to learn more about the world around them. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 4	I create a safe place for people, especially kids, to express themselves and learn continually. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 5	Building a community with safety in learning and sharing. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 6	Nurturing families to see that hard work breeds success and brings one closer to reaching one's potential as a life-long learner. Topic**:** Teaching and Learning
Participant 7	I grew and changed every day to ensure the happiness of others, and myself. Topic: Happiness

Purpose Statements continued

	Purpose Sentence
Participant 8	Living a life devoted to truth. Topic: Truth
Participant 9	I teach children to learn through music and joyful learning. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 10	Gave of myself so I could serve and help others. Topic: Inspiration and Service to Others
Participant 11	Working at keeping balance. Topic: Balance in Life
Participant 12	My purpose is to live my life as an example of good, help lift and inspire others, learn from mistakes and try hard every day to be a little better. Topic: Inspiration and Service to Others
Participant 13	Caring to make a difference but sometimes questioning what difference is being made. Topic: Inspiration and Service to Others
Participant 14	Denied Permission to Use Actual Sentence Topic: Inspiration and Service to Others
Participant 15	I keep control of class behavior so that more learning can be done. When behavior is allowed to dominate the class, there is little or no learning. When inappropriate behavior is controlled or curtailed even the instigator can learn. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 16	The one who loved each student for who they were or are. Topic: Teaching and Learning
Participant 17	Teaching is my calling – not just school and life experience give empathy for others. Topic: Teaching and Learning

make a difference in the lives of others. Not one comment referred to being motivated by curriculum, money, job titles, prestige, or wealth of any kind. Not one participant complained about their circumstances or situation, which the researcher addressed during the individual interviews.

In Figure 6, I showed the life purpose of educators at XYZ Elementary School represented in a circle graph. There were five general topics represented by the participants of XYZ Elementary School. There were seventeen participants out of a possible twenty-one participants, or 81% of XYZ Elementary School, in the study. The highest category was Teaching and Learning with ten out of seventeen participants or 59%. The second category was Inspiration and Service to Others with four out of seventeen participants or 24%. The last three categories each had one out of seventeen participants, or 6%, and were labeled Happiness, Truth, and Balance in Life.

The qualitative strand of written data was analyzed by the researcher in search of patterns as it related to teaching, learning and children. True motivation crosses boundary lines between personal and professional lives (Reeves, 2009). Many teachers became educators because of a higher sense of purpose (Leithwood, 2007; Elmore, 2004b). Patterns emerging from this exercise may spark further investigation through individual teacher interviews. The purpose of this test was to redirect a teacher's focus back onto the main purpose of education as opposed to testing scores (Pink, 2009). I found reliability and validity of this exercise in the results. One specific detailed sentence was not easily composed. The participant was given privacy to complete this task, and the participant would be their toughest critic. The individualization of the task made identification by the
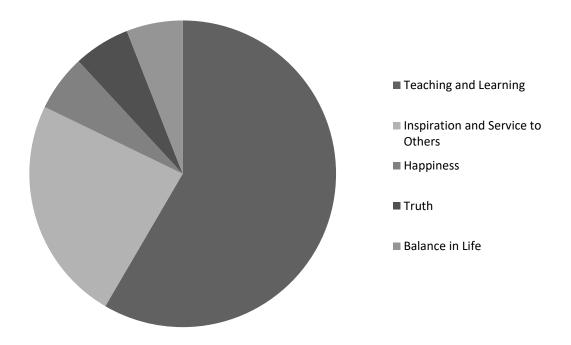
- Teaching and Learning
- Inspiration and Service to Others
- Happiness
- Truth
- Balance in Life

Figure 6. The Life Purpose of Educators from XYZ Elementary School.

researcher impossible. Participants returned the paper to the researcher and the researcher

assigned the paper a number to keep track of the data. Participants did not receive the

number.

Individual Teacher Interviews

The primary research question of this study was, "What motivates teachers at

XYZ Elementary School to change?" Corporate reformers and politicians accused

teachers of being stubborn, lazy, unmotivated, and unwilling to change (Ravitch, 2010).

Everyone agrees the public-school system is in need of change (Darling-Hammond,

2010; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Hanushek & Lindseth,

2009; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). The debate

is what needs to change and how do we go about the process of change (Fullan, 2011a;

Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Teachers at XYZ Elementary School have become skeptical

of the change process as several change initiatives were forced upon the profession

(Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009).

Utah politicians and corporate reformers are on the fast track to implement extrinsic

rewards and punishments to promote motivation (USOE, 2010; USOE 2005). The

politicians and the educational administration have failed to collaborate with classroom

teachers as to what constitutes motivation to a classroom teacher (Fullan, 2011a; Pink,

2009).

The purpose of the individual teacher interviews was to give the teachers a voice.

Most communities are unaware that people who are not classroom teachers make most of

the protocols and decisions made on behalf of the public-schools. Classroom teachers

have been forced to take such a submissive role in the field of education that many

educators have forgotten their main role as an educator (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The

final phase of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods research study was

individual teacher interviews. Teacher interviews were placed near the end of this study

to take advantage of emerging patterns and themes that might arise during the study. By

placing interviews at the end, the researcher could insert questions about any possible

emerging patterns or themes.

Motivation results of teacher interviews. The following questions pertain to

intrinsic motivation or the Third Drive. The questions asked about the participating

classroom teachers' thoughts concerning autonomy, mastery, and purpose (Pink, 2009).

Participants were asked these general questions about this kind of motivation, and the

participants were also asked about specifics concerning their sense of teacher autonomy,

how do distractions and scheduling conflicts affect teaching, and why are politicians

projecting teacher motivation originating elsewhere as in extrinsic sources?

1) What do you think motivates you to be an effective teacher?

2) Do you feel you have autonomy with regards to time, task, team, and technique?

3) Do you feel like you are a master teacher? What attributes contribute to shaping a master teacher?

4) What is your purpose as an educator?

5) Do you feel you, as the classroom teacher, have or are capable of having flow-like experiences at school?

Teacher motivation analysis. There are nine individuals who participated in the

individual teacher interviews. During the interviews, each participant was asked, "What

motivates you as a classroom teacher?" All nine participants expressed motivation

through the art of teaching, learning, and working with children while watching them

grow into independent thinkers. During the interview, Participant 6 always referred to the

children as an inspiration, while Participant 6 was enjoying the creative process of

teaching. Most teachers referred to a type of 'ah-hah' moment when a student begins to

understand a difficult concept. The 'ah-hah' concept is discussed throughout all nine

interviews extensively.

The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment suggested participants of XYZ

Elementary School were ready to change with an overall personal mean of 1,792 or 75%

Below, in Table 28, I showed participant quotations of what motivates a public-school teacher to teach.

Table 28

Motivation Results of Teacher Interviews

Participant	Quotation
1	"Personally, I care about the students and what happens to them. To me watching them grow and become independent thinkers is what drives me to be better."
2	"I enjoy learning; that is why I became a teacher. I want to share the learning with my students so that we can all succeed."
3	"I am most motivated by my students. I love to see their eyes light up when they understand something better."
4	"I feel it is important to care about the individual students and find ways to help each succeed. I love to see the look on their faces when they finally understand a previously difficult concept. That is what motivates me."
5	"The kids, I mean that is what it boils down to. That is what I'm in it for. I feel like their motivational techniques are invalid because I am not motivated by competition."
6	"The creative process is my motivator. So, that is why I love the job."
7	"To help kids grow and become a better person."
8	"Motivation for me comes from the kids, the look they give when they finally understand something."
9	"I believe motivation needs to come from within. The motivation is the relationship between learning, teaching, and helping one another grow."

and an overall professional mean of 1,577 or 66%. The media and politicians suggested

teachers were not doing what they should in the classroom. Participants were asked to

reflect on the politicians and business people's analysis that teachers are lazy and

unmotivated. Several participants remarked on how the politicians or businesspeople

could know anything about teachers when the politicians and businesspeople

refuse to talk or even observe classroom teachers? Participants observed that the only

time politicians and businesspeople attended a school was for some public relations,

which was completely different from a discussion or observation. Participant 9 stated,

"Speculation without conversation or even observation is simply unprofessional,

arrogant, and extremely ignorant."

Some interview participants discussed continually working on their skills as a

teacher. Participants expressed the need to be flexible and open to change, ready and

willing to learn and explore new ideas. By learning themselves, participants indicated

they, in turn, became better educators. Interview participants also discussed the

relationship between teacher and student and the act of teaching and learning to be the

only pure motivator for becoming an educator. A few participants sighed in disgust and

commented most people want to believe teachers want their summers off. However, most

teachers work on their curriculum for the upcoming year. People typically do not believe

it, however, in the majority of situations it is a true statement. The common theme

throughout the individual interviews reflects working with children, learning, and

teaching with creativity.

The second theme to emerge on the topic of motivation was negativity and mistrust. Participants believed most people think a shortened work day and summers off would be enough to be motivated. Participants said that most people could not be more wrong. Surrounded by negativity and mistrust for a long period has had some consequences for teachers. Participants stated that teachers tend to become paranoid, and they do not know whom to trust. Some participants said they work in isolation to avoid the negativity. Most participants found the term 'motivation' to be a trap or something the politicians or the media used to twist words around. Two participants talked about how businesspeople are shoving their way into the world of education; men like Bill Gates and Eli Broad. Participants said that somehow, because these individuals are successful in business, they are considered experts in the field of education and are deemed so good that they do not need a college certification or to even talk with another educator to have all the answers. These participants felt like the businesspeople were arrogant, ignorant, and disrespectful.

The third theme to arise was competition. According to participants, the induction of businesspeople into the world of education turned a learning environment into a competitive environment because businesspeople and politicians have attempted to take what they know about business and incorporate it into the public-school system. Participant 5 stated businesspeople and politicians have no business inflicting what they think they know about schools, teachers, and the act of learning into the public-school system. Participant 2 reported competition forced into the schools has made it difficult to trust colleagues and administrators. Participant 9 stated the competition factors lead

teachers to believe there are other motives in play. They continued stating that it is a fact that most politicians and businesspeople could care less about educators and public-schools and their day-to-day functions makes educators curious about their true intentions. Participant 9 wanted to know, why are the politicians and several successful businesspeople attempting to fix the education system by degrading educators, refusing to dialogue with educators, and incorporating a test-driven curriculum into the public-schools? The politicians and businesspeople began this conversation by stating what they thought they knew. One would think they would want to clarify or finish the conversation altogether, according to participant 9.

Overall, the themes produced by the nine interview participants on the topic of current motivation at school are negative. Participants were disheartened to discover the politicians and businesspeople did not even attempt to play fair. According to participants, politicians and businesspeople made decisions in secret and without conversation with the educators regarding education. The fact that politicians and businesspeople are dictating policies and incorporating theories into a profession, where they have no expertise or experience, and refusing to dialogue with the education professionals was disturbing to the interview participants.

Participants were also discouraged to see politicians and corporate reformers take credit for the good work being done in films such as *Waiting for Superman*. A few participants commented on the idea that politicians and corporate reformers are lower than low by preying on children to get ahead in life. In addition, participants said that these individuals already have wealth and now it seems they want more money and more

power and are willing to do just about anything to get it. However, taking credit for helping a problem situation they created in the first place, such as childhood poverty, was disgusting to the participants.

Autonomy results. Participants speculated about the subject of autonomy with mixed feelings. The Autonomy Audit results suggested that the faculty of XYZ Elementary School felt very little autonomy overall. The interview participants reported, with regards to time, there is very little autonomy. The school has a master schedule, and so much of an educator's time must be planned to allow teachers access to the master schedule. A couple of participants claimed administrators from the state dictate time constraints on professional training days, so educators have a very little voice concerning time.

The concept of the task seemed dictated as well by the interview participants. The common core dictated curriculum; however, interview participants did not view the common core in a negative way. Most participants referred to the common core as a necessity to allow all educators to be on the same page. Teachers viewed the assigned programs to be of little autonomy. Participants tended to be grateful for the programs. However, participants resented the forceful nature and dictation of every single entity of the program forced upon educators.

The team is a concept that most participants viewed as a family member. Just as an individual cannot pick a family member, one cannot pick one's team members. Most participants had a general understanding of being unable to pick other team members in a school setting.

Below, in Table 29, I showed the interview participant quotations concerning

educational autonomy which is discussed in the next section.

Table 29

Autonomy Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"There are many parts of this job that are imposed. Knowing my limitations, now I am the one who chooses to react the way that I do."
2	"In years past I felt I had had some degree of autonomy, but as time goes by I feel less and less."
3	"In some regards yes, but in others no. Over the years as I have come to know these district programs better, I have adopted them to meet what I think is best for my students."
4	"I do not think that I have much autonomy with regards to my teaching. I have to adjust my schedule around everyone else."
5	"No. Curriculum wise I feel like I do have more autonomy. However, as far as time, it is no."
6	"I do in my particular scheme."
7	"Yeah, as long as my kids do well. I mean I'm pretty unique with how I teach. If my kids do well on the test, they do not seem to bother me as much."
8	"Some of it yes and some of it no. We do feel more autonomy with time and technique, but not so much with team or task."
9	"No, I do not feel like teachers have much autonomy in education. These days everyone feels like he or she can do a better job than the teachers. Perhaps this misconception is the reason educators are micromanaged so much."

However, most participants found their colleagues or team to be helpful. Even though participants did not pick their team, most participants worked to improve the situation. Participants admitted to scoring the Autonomy Audit high when they enjoyed working with their team.

The technique was the attribute rated to have the highest autonomy on the Autonomy Audit among the interviewees. Most participants agreed they were left alone to decide how to teach the majority of the core curriculum. Math and reading programs must follow protocol. However, educators were allowed to contribute additional strategies as they proved beneficial through test scores. For example, if classes scored well on the standardized tests, then, the administration would leave those teachers alone to choose their own teaching strategies. However, if classes did not score well on the tests, then, the administration would observe those teachers more often and suggest that they follow the program more closely as to both what is taught and how it is taught.

A couple of participants felt like teachers had more autonomy now than in the days of NCLB. In the days of NCLB, teachers were on a tighter leash with regards to what lesson each teacher was on and what day the teacher taught the lesson. Teachers would get into trouble for not being on the right lesson. One participant argued against the consensus of public opinion that is that anyone can teach. Participant 9 also compared being a teacher to an employee at Walmart, declaring, "The government wants teachers to work for the least amount of money, with demanding schedules and tasks, and be treated like second-class citizens by the company and the public; meanwhile, the company itself prospers and doesn't need to or want to treat the employees with any

dignity and respect. No wonder Walmart has such a high turnover rate!" Other participants shared an invitation with politicians to come to the schools and see what the teachers are dealing with on a daily basis. According to the participants, most politicians only visit the schools as a media stunt and do not observe any of the problems facing the public-schools. Also, all of the interview participants reported they had never been asked questions by a politician concerning the conditions at the public-schools. Participants said no one asked the teachers.

Purpose results. All nine interview participants reported their purpose as an educator was to teach kids how to reach their potential and enjoy doing it. The purpose was not to ace the test or to teach only the core material. The purpose indicated more about teaching the foundational skills, and the ability to think, and to become lifelong learners. Most teachers become educators because they enjoy helping students learn and achieve success. No one mentioned how well or not so well his or her students tested or brought up the competitive side to teaching. In fact, all nine participants spoke negatively about the topic of high-stakes testing. According to participants, the politicians viewed educators as the preparers for testing, while educators tended to view themselves as preparers for life.

Flow results. Every one of the nine interview participants felt capable of having flow experiences in their classrooms. Just like the Flow Test Experiment results when the majority of flow reported was Medium or Low, no one felt like it would happen every day. Participants felt as though one could not plan an actual flow experience. Teachers could only plan for the potential of a flow experience and hope the experience developed

from there. Of course, the days were filled with everyday distractions, possible student

behaviors, and scheduling issues that would interfere with a flow event. A few

participants reported it is unrealistic to assume that every teacher will have a flow

Below, in Table 30, I showed quotations from Participants 1-9 about the topic of

purpose in education.

Table 30

Purpose Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"My purpose is to show kids their potential and teach them the tools to start reaching their potential."
2	"My purpose is to teach children and have fun doing it. This is not a competition."
3	"My purpose is to inspire students to want to learn, to teach them responsibility, and to teach academic content. I hope to help shape lives into something better."
4	My purpose as an educator is to teach and to get the students excited about learning."
5	Ultimately, to advocate for my students and to teach them independent skills that will help them advocate for themselves."
6	"To inspire, to motivate, to give skills."
7	"To have kids grow academically and emotionally."
8	"My purpose is to help students learn the things that will help them in the long run."
9	"My purpose as an educator is to instill the desire to become a lifelong learner with my students. Right now the government has me preparing my students for a test. My ultimate purpose as an educator now is to leave education in a better place than where it is now."

It takes time and practice to set the stage to create a flow teaching experience in the classroom. A couple of participants made an interesting point about the enormous amount of testing in which the state required the schools to participate. Testing does not allow flow characteristics to develop in the classroom, not even during the review process (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990/2008). One would assume in an institution of learning to see numerous occurrences of flow experiences. However, most of the interview participants felt like flow experiences did not occur very often, and the Flow Experiment participants experienced flow experiences only around 50% of the time.

Accountability results from teacher interviews. Next, came three questions that pertained to change and accountability and how these topics affected education and educators today. The term accountability sounded a negative connotation during individual interviews. Teachers equated the term accountability to mean failed reform efforts. Teachers played no part in how accountability was measured or how accountability affected teaching and learning in the classroom. However, countless failed reform efforts left teachers skeptical of change in the public-school system. Every day seemed to produce a new, yet, still unrealistic, obstacle to master in the classroom.

6) What is accountability to you?

7) Why do you think reform efforts have failed up to this point?

8) Are you skeptical of change with regards to education?

Accountability analysis. According to the nine individual interview participants, accountability was the current buzz word. Accountability meant different things to

different people. The nine participants held themselves accountable. Below, in Table 31, I reported quotations made by Participants 1-9 about flow experiences in the classroom.

Table 31

Flow Experience Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"I think the more I can create those situations that have the ability to lead to flow-like experiences is what I can do to contribute to the learning experiences of my students."
2	"Yes, I learn to teach new things or get new ideas every year, and that is what motivates my students and me to learn."
3	"I once heard that when you think you know everything about teaching, it is time to quit."
4	"I wish I had more flow-like experiences at school. When you are teaching a concept, and the whole class is with you, and you can see the excitement on their faces, and they do not want to stop, is the greatest feeling in the world."
5	"Yes, now that we have got the routines down."
6	"Yes, it happened quite a bit."
7	"I mean, it could be better."
8	"I do not feel like I have flow-like experiences this year. I would like to say yes, and I do feel like I am capable of having flow-like experiences in the future."
9	"I feel like I am capable of having flow-like experiences at school. I do not feel like they happen as often as we would like."

In fact, most of the interview participants grew angry and disappointed about the micromanagement that has grown from the politicians' and businesspeoples' idea of educational accountability. All of the participants felt the politicians and businesspeople used the failing past reform movements to jump on the bandwagon and used the media to appear as superheroes of public education, turning teachers into lazy and incompetent professionals.

All the interview participants also grew angry and disappointed because the politicians and businesspeople claimed to have the answers about a profession they know nothing about and in which they have zero expertise. Participant 9 said the politicians and businesspeople did not even take the time to do their homework and research the problem before opening their mouths. Participant 5 said the term accountability had been served by the media as a negative connotation, meaning discipline and inadequacy. Several participants claimed everyone outside of the education profession seemed to think that the profession was something that anyone can do, which is probably why the politicians and businesspeople assumed they know how to educate. Also, comments were voiced by the politicians, in particular, politicians were being very disrespectful to the teaching profession, specifically without just cause. According to the interview participants, just because an individual attended school as a student does not mean the student becomes qualified to teach. The state of Utah's public officials made some very arrogant comments to the teachers.

Below, in Table 32, I showed quotations made by the nine interview participants concerning accountability measures in the public-schools.

Table 32

Accountability Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"Accountability is having a relationship with someone who knows you well enough to ask the hard questions. Accountability in education is difficult from a distance. You cannot hold someone accountable when you do not know what their limitations and challenges are."
2	"Accountability is that I do my best and so do my students. Education involves everyone doing their part."
3	"Accountability is someone (sometimes it is ourselves!) to answer to – a way to check effectiveness."
4	"Accountability is being able to back up teaching skills."
5	"I feel like it is a ridiculous term. We do not hold public attorneys accountable. We do not hold state hospitals accountable as visually and as publicly as we do teachers."
6	"It is micromanaging in their mind is the way they are going to make this happen and these kids are going to do, and the teachers are going to be accountable."
7	"It is almost like overkill with testing but, I think if everyone in your class has made zero growth then there's probably something that you are not doing."
8	"Accountability means to take responsibility and to accomplish the things or tasks that were assigned to me."
9	"Accountability means responsibility to me. However, I can only be in control of my teaching. Students will always be in control of their behavior and attitude toward learning."

Several interview participants also discussed the need for relationships to impose accountability, meaning imposed accountability made only by others who have shared the experience. Participant 1 talked about the inability to inflict accountability measures upon educators from a distance, and the inability to hold individuals accountable when the managers are unaware of the specific challenges and limitations the individual faced. Imposed accountability measures can only be effective and impartial when instigated by an individual with common ground, in this case, teachers. Participant 2 discussed the need to have everyone working together in education, including the parents, the students, the administration, all the teachers, the community, and the politicians. Education emulates a unique profession, and outsiders treat education like something it is not.

Participant 3 discussed the need for accountability as a way for educators working towards becoming master teachers. No one in the world has all the answers when it comes to an effective public-school system. What may work for some individuals may not always work for others. All nine of the interview participants reported the need for all the teachers to work together while learning and improving their individual technique.

Participant 7 talked about the world of testing at the elementary level. The administration made it clear in the state of Utah that politicians demanded higher test scores from the teachers. Merit pay standards placed teacher's and principal's paychecks in a threatening hostage situation. The individual districts issued these demands straight from the state politicians, according to the district administration. Participant 7 pointed out, as long as a teacher has adequate test scores, then the teacher was considered to be accountable. The amount of testing was a bit much, as well as the amount of pressure to

perform for both students and teachers, according to all nine of the interview participants. Educators transferred the amount of time and stress to the students, and the whole learning atmosphere became toxic.

Participant 8 stated what accountability meant to one individual or group of individuals seemed to mean something entirely different to another individual or group. Participant 9 pointed out the government had attempted to hold the profession of educators solely responsible for the foundation of future citizens. The politicians do not control the individual parents, or the students themselves, so the politicians threatened compliance out of the teachers, according to Participant 9. Also, Participant 9 suggested the government seemed to react like the parents of a wild teenager; and the government has no idea what to do because what works for one teenager does not work for another. So, the government became a strict parent and attempted to micromanage their minor. Meanwhile, the teenager became even more rebellious because the parents attempted such control. Overall, the relationship between the government and the teaching profession seemed like the teenager scenario, with the government micromanaging educators and turning the relationship into an abusive and dominating toxic one, according to Participants 5 and 9.

According to all nine participants, the micromanaged process of the education profession was built upon a foundation of strict and dominating cultures, all in the name of accountability. The public education system is a complex and unique system. According to all nine interview participants, the accountability system is demoralizing, degrading, unrealistic, and unfair. The government, the politicians, the community, and

even the administration constructed no idea what limitations and challenges each teacher

faced. Students controlled their behavior and attitude toward learning, according to

Participant 9. Therefore, teachers influenced indirectly the issues that directly control

student learning; teachers never controlled any of these issues directly. Ultimately, the

students controlled their decisions about the effort it takes to learn in school. So, most of

the participants questioned how is it the teaching profession is being held hostage by the

actions and decisions made by students? Also, how can students be held accountable for

being an academic scholar, when it is impossible for every student to have such high

honors? Should we punish students for being born with a disability or for being a slow

learner as well? The government seemed to think educators should have the direct control

to do all of this and more under the accountability umbrella. The expectations put forth

by the government are unrealistic, so despite the threatened behavior of the politicians,

educators cannot deliver high test scores for all of their students.

Participants 5 and 9 made several comments regarding businesspeople interfering

with public education. These successful businesspeople attempted to open the floodgates

without taking into consideration the consequences. Politicians attempted to hold

educators directly accountable for everything to do with learning, and then opened up the

possibility of holding everyone else in America accountable for another aspect of daily

life. Two participants offered this example, if teachers are held directly accountable for

the learning of every student, then police officers could be held directly accountable for

every citizen who decides to break the law. Every lawyer must directly account for every

client's behavior, whether they are guilty or innocent. Every politician will be held

directly accountable for every citizen's well-being. Every economist will be held directly accountable for the daily economy of the country. Every doctor will be held directly accountable for the health of every citizen treated. A few participants asked could the American citizens force politicians to be directly responsible for their individual well-being? Rights of this nature are not a guarantee. What is guaranteed in this nation is all citizens' opportunities.

Change initiatives and collaboration results. Finally, there were interview questions about collaboration, failed change initiatives, and functioning PLCs. After the days of NCLB, politicians and policymakers tried to start another change initiative, while addressing only some of the problems with NCLB. President Obama instigated Race to the Top, with most of the same elements as NCLB. Politicians still controlled and micromanaged the public-school system, with demanded student test scores. Most policymakers believed teachers were not trained correctly to deliver high student test scores. The idea of collaboration among professionals started to emerge and, soon after, the idea of PLC's. PLC's could become a motive of intrinsic motivation for teachers if teachers controlled the PLC. Unfortunately, most PLC's are prescribed demands from administrators. Most teachers invited the idea of accountability; however, the process needed to be fair and realistic. The demands made by politicians remained unrealistic, while politicians continued to make threats against the profession.

Below, in Table 33, I discussed interview participants' perceptions of failed reform efforts in the public-school system.

Table 33

Failed Reform Effort Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"Reform efforts fail when there is not the proper amount of buy-in for all constituents. Reform efforts cannot only look good on paper, and you cannot scare them out of people either."
2	"It seems that everyone outside of education thinks we do not have the proper training, program, or accountability measures in place. No one has all the answers, but it seems like everyone is expecting us to have all the answers and when we do not, it does not seem to be a surprise to anyone in the community."
3	"I think those reforms have focused on the wrong things – they try to solve quickly superficial problems without looking at the real issues behind them."
4	"Until an educator and not a legislator is in charge of reform, it is destined to fail. Reform must be education first, personal agenda last."
5	"I feel like the reform is trying to make it into a capitalist, business-like structure and that is not how learning happens. I think we have narrowed our view of education so much that other ways of learning are not accepted, and the reform efforts have made that worse."
6	"It is to make them feel like they are doing something…. about education, you and I think it self-serving."
7	"For him [President Bush] to expect every single kid to be on grade level and to think that it is all on the teachers is unrealistic."
8	"We all agree change needs to happen, but what teachers would like to change, what the students would like to change, what the parents would like to change, and what politicians and administration would like to change are completely different things."
9	"America seems to want a quick fix. They change a couple of things and when it does not work the government uses teachers as a scapegoat."

9) During NCLB, were you eager to hide your failures or to share failures?

10) Do you feel your school is a functioning PLC? Why or why not?

11) In a PLC are you eager to hide your failures or to share your failures with your colleagues?

Failed reform effort results. Reform movements have existed almost as long as public education itself (Ravitch, 2010). All nine participants responded with similar ideas about why they felt the reform efforts failed. First, the participant's stated expectations are unrealistic. Currently, the government required all students to test high, regardless of ability or motivation. Participant 1 commented what looks good on paper does not mean the reform effort will work in reality and scaring high test scores out of them will not be effective either. Reform efforts required everyone participating and working towards a common goal.

Second, the government seems to be more worried about public image than they are about the actual condition of public education. Participant 2 reported the media is very negative towards public education, and everyone seemed to think educators perform poorly and that accountability will put education back on track. The public education system seemed to change daily and is not perfect. The teachers thought they did not have all the answers and neither do the politicians; however, the politicians thought they had all the answers, as shown when they speak publicly about education.

Third, the government and administration focused on the wrong things. Participant 3 stated there is too much emphasis on quick fixes or some accountability measure. Participant 9 reported the number of quick fixes forced upon education will not

make it better but could potentially make education worse. Most participants felt the government needed to collaborate respectfully with the actual teachers, so together they may decide where to concentrate on making effective changes.

Fourth, who really should have made the decisions about education? Participants 4 and 5 felt, as long as politicians and the businesspeople are in charge of educational decisions; reform efforts will continue to fail. The politicians appeared to pressure teachers until possibly, all of the bad teachers have left the profession. Some politicians seemed to think a new surge of educators will be able to make their plan work. Unfortunately, educational history disagrees, and the nine interview participants disagreed as well.

Fifth, the interviewees, also considered the ability and need to change the public-school system. Participant 8 stated everyone associated with the public education system is not ready to change. Everyone wanted to change and agreed the system needs to change. However, what teachers wanted to change and what the government wanted to change are completely different things. Participant 9 believed everyone has a separate agenda. The government noted that educators are not motivated to teach well, and that money will motivate them to teach better. Most of the participants claimed the government and businesspeople are attempting to run education like a business. Children are not products or robots. Also, motivated by money, individuals did not become teachers, so why would teachers, all of a sudden, be motivated to teach better with money? True, teachers need money like everyone else. However, most teachers would be happy to be in control of the education profession instead of making a professional wage.

A few of the participants referred to the country of Finland, currently testing in the top

three in the world, not micromanaging their teachers. Teachers in Finland appeared

already accountable as their government delivered resources, tax dollars, and respect.

Participant 9 also stated that if teachers in America were treated with respect and were

allowed the autonomy and the resources necessary, American educators would rise to the

top as well. Name-calling and threatening behavior never won any wars. Participant 9

stated if the American government truly wanted to improve education, then the

politicians and businesspeople will need to start acting like professional adults.

Participants 5 and 9 suggested if the politicians and corporate reformers intentions

were true, then why not visit the schools, meet the teachers and talk to them like human

beings? Why not talk to the children, and look into the faces of the people the policies

affect directly? Why not talk to the parents and find out what the people think about

public education? Politicians and corporate reformers have no intentions of talking with

anyone (Ravitch, 2010). The politicians and corporate reformers simply appear to want to

make policies according to the reformers own agenda. Also, several participants alluded

to the idea that, with all of the negative talk about teachers, many parents have begun to

act like the politicians and corporate reformers by talking to the teachers in a

disrespectful manner, demanding services whether they are appropriate or not, and just

being argumentative. One participant even mentioned that a parent bragged about making

a teacher cry. The participants were quick to mention these situations are still in the

minority; however, every year the number seems to rise.

Below, in Table 34, I discussed quotations made by the interview participants concerning issues of educators being skeptical of change.

Table 34

Educators Skeptical of Change Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"A bit because I have seen testing become the focus rather than students being the focus. It seems everyone is more worried about a test score than he or she are about the students."
2	"Yes, merit pay is ridiculous. Once you start with these unrealistic expectations no one in their right mind will become a teacher."
3	"Yes – it seems like they never really change in my favor – I am afraid it will be more trouble and more punishments without positive change."
4	"Unless parents and students are willing to accept some of the responsibility for education, I do not think changes in education will be very effective."
5	"It depends on who is saying it. If it is educators saying it, then I am much more willing to listen. If it is politicians or businesspeople like Bill Gates, then no."
6	"Not with my troops. I like to buy into anything and everything that comes along. Just wish I had more time to keep up with it."
7	"Yeah, I mean change is good, but they keep changing them. I wish they would have a little bit of consistency."
8	"No, some change is a good thing. What I am skeptical of is who is making decisions for my profession."

Participant	Quotation
9	"Change is not what I am afraid of. I find it hard to swallow the decisions being made for public education being made by politicians and other so-called administrators, and now businesspeople are getting into the action. I do not believe for even a second these individuals have the students' best interests at heart."

Educators Skeptical of Change Results. In general, all nine of the interview participants reported being willing to change in school is not the issue for teachers. The change occurred every day in the public-school system. Teachers felt like they changed to make lessons better and to grow and learn alongside the students, and in this instance, change in education is good. All nine interview participants worried about the next so-called extrinsic rewards and punishments for classroom teachers issued by the government. About half of the interview participants specifically referred to the government's focus on testing. Participants 5 and 9 stated tests do not accurately confirm learning for everyone, that tests are only one measurement, and that even the publishers of such tests will not account for using the tests to hold teachers directly accountable for student achievement. Some interview participants reiterated the end goal for a teacher is to motivate students to keep on learning, improving, exploring, and discovering. The participants believed the government assumed high test scores equates to high learning.

Participants 5 and 9 reported the government and businesspeople attempted to run the public-school system as a business or corporation. The comparison showed teachers are paid to teach, and that students prove how much they learned by their test scores.

Participants said that businesspeople tend to ignore the fact that the public-school system is teaching minors. They stated that if teachers treated students like they would treat a customer, learning would not occur in the same way because the customer has most of the control and power. Some participants commented if children controlled the learning environment, then most learning would not develop appropriately. Many participants stated children cannot be treated as a customer because the differences are too extreme. A customer goes to a business because they are motivated to conduct business, and the customer is capable and skilled enough to conduct business. Most participants reported students are forced to attend school; students are not motivated to attend school. An individual worked for a business to make money, as do teachers. However, a student goes to school to learn and not to earn a paycheck. Teachers are now supposed to earn their paycheck through the performance of their students. In business, the performance of the employees earned a profit for the boss. However, the employees were already motivated to perform for money, while students were extrinsically motivated by the words of their teachers. According to the participants, a fair comparison included a boss who would need to motivate an employee to work harder without using a paycheck as an incentive, and the cost of the incentive would need to come from the personal paycheck of the boss.

Some participants suggested an ulterior option of choice. State law requires education for minors, which is understandable and commendable. However, lost autonomy causes rebellion in many students. Some interview participants suggested education changing from a right, back to a privilege. In Finland, the government mandated education to be free, including college; however, taxes are high, and so can the

consequences be high. For instance, if an individual chooses to attend college and then drops out, that individual must pay for the wasted tuition. Participants suggested if schooling is a privilege, and one may abuse that privilege through behavior, absenteeism, or neglect, then the consequence may be transferring responsibility back to the parents for educating their child no longer free of cost. As it stands currently, students and parents contain all of the rights and opportunities, while the teachers are held accountable for the misuse of those rights and opportunities. Autonomy used in a positive way means a positive action.

Participants also referred to school choice as another option offered by the government without really thinking it through. A customer mistreated by a company takes their business elsewhere. When a parent perceives their child feels mistreated at a particular school, then they may choose to send their child to another school. The only problem lies with whether or not the parent can provide the provisions necessary to allow the child to attend another school. Bussing provided for students attending their home school when necessary is an appropriate accommodation. Bussing provided for every student to attend every school possible is impossible. So, parents who opt out of sending their children to their home school may take advantage of school choice. The students do not have true autonomy and neither do the parents, as some political officials might lead the community to believe. Parents ultimately make the decisions for the minor, which is appropriate. Unfortunately, those opportunities drive motivation for the individual as autonomy. Therefore, treating schools like a business is only appropriate for a somewhat

general comparison. There are too many inequalities which make such a comparison between schools and businesses inappropriate.

Several participants discussed that teachers do not possess much autonomy either because of the nature of the job. Education is divided up into skills and age levels. As an educator, individual teachers cannot just teach whatever they want and feel comfortable with. Education is more than that, and the participants were fine with the structure of the core curriculum. Almost all of the participants voiced disagreement with how administration addresses teaching the curriculum. Again, most of the participants discussed teaching motivating lessons on specific core objectives; yet, administrators were negative towards the lesson because of the motivating part of the lesson. Participants spoke of using art and music to help the students express themselves while teaching core material on math, reading, or writing and found administrators disagreeing with their choices. Again, the topic of motivation takes on several meanings and perspectives.

NCLB failure results. The No Child Left Behind era disappointed most educators. Participant 7 stated the idea behind NCLB was good, but the execution of the plan lacked realistic expectations. The NCLB based everything on extrinsic rewards and punishments, which turned into all punishments, as the interview participants reported. Some school districts across the country attempted to share teacher failures as an opportunity to learn from mistakes, while other schools attempted to hide from failures. Participant 1 attempted to learn from failure, while other participants might share with another trusted colleague, but not with an entire school or administration.

Below, in Table 35, I discussed quotations made by the nine interview participants concerning their NCLB failures.

Table 35

NCLB Failure Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"I have always been willing to share my failures. That is how I learn from my mistakes and become a better teacher."
2	My testing scores were good during the time of NCLB, but I hate the feeling that I cannot control my children's entire outcome."
3	"I would hide them – I did not want to be punished or kicked out of my job."
4	"Nobody is eager to share failures with others, I am included."
5	"I wanted to know what our school was graded, but I do not agree with the formula that they created to do that."
6	"At the district, I was very happy to say, what works for you?"
7	"The idea of wanting every child to succeed is a good thing, but I think it is more about growth."
8	"Thankfully, I was still a student in college during this period."
9	"I wanted to hide my failures. No one wants to fail. When you have a government that doesn't understand or acknowledge how learning occurs, then why provide them the ammunition to do what they want."

Interview participants discussed negative feelings during the NCLB era. Unrealistic expectations left teachers feeling the effects of being stressed and

overwhelmed. Participant 2 talked about the huge responsibility placed upon teachers and commented even the parents did not have a responsibility concerning their child's learning. Participant 3 and 9 stated most teachers hid their failures because the teachers did not want the district to use that kind of ammunition against them. Participant 9 reported all teachers want to succeed, but not everyone was meant to test at such a high level. Non-educators felt teachers failed at teaching children appropriate skills. The media and the government sounded like educators could make the children test well, but teachers were too lazy and unmotivated to do anything to change the situation. Most of the interview participants reported an average of 15 hours of preparation time outside of contract hours in a week. The participants felt like there was nothing teachers could do that would make enough of a difference to turn a failure into a success on those terms. Only students' intrinsic motivation resulting in a greater effort to learn would make a difference. And, teachers can only indirectly influence such motivation in students.

PLC operation results. One major education success that emerged during the NCLB era was professional learning communities. PLC's developed by teachers that attempt to turn academic failures into successes are what PLC's are supposed to look like and function. Educators felt they had the autonomy to participate in a PLC and collaborated on the topics teachers felt were important in their particular schools. Most of the nine interview participants felt that XYZ Elementary School was not a functioning PLC at this time; however, XYZ Elementary School had the potential to become a functioning PLC. Most interview participants stated XYZ Elementary School was not a functioning PLC because the teachers were forced into PLC's. A true functioning PLC

does not take attendance and does not dictate the topic of the meetings. Participant 1 stated the districts are demanding whatever the state legislature and politicians are saying is appropriate.

Participant 2 reported, PLC's can be helpful and therapeutic when the PLC has trusted colleagues. The competitive nature of education and testing took away the trust and loyalty in our schools, leaving behind only testing scores. Participant 3 believed if teachers experienced more autonomy, perhaps the PLC's could be more effective. Participant 6 reported PLC's are just another demand made by the politicians. At some point, the majority of truly influential educators will leave the profession because neither the intrinsic nor the extrinsic rewards are anywhere near the personal sacrifices made by the educators.

Some participants noted the use of academic teacher coaches and PLC's are an attempt made to train educators to become highly effective teachers. Unfortunately, the general conception of most of the nine interview participants was that the coaches and the day to day operation of XYZ Elementary School's PLC's were being forced and dictated upon the teachers, leaving the situation as a painful necessity. Participant 8 stated, "Classroom observations are like going to the dentist. It is something that needs to be done, but we will not be enjoying the experience." Again, the district and the state government are strongly encouraged to require schools to engage in a PLC and use teacher coaches. As long as the schools forced teachers into a PLC and teacher coaching experiences, the experiences will never be as effective as they once could have been.

Below, in Table 36, I discussed teachers' immersion in professional learning

communities and how these communities operate within their school. I asked participants

if their school was operating as a functioning PLC and what definition, if any, could the

participants give for a PLC.

Table 36

PLC Operation Quotations

Participant	Quotation
1	"No, because there is no community created and accepted vision of where the school is headed."
2	"No, I do not feel my school is a functioning PLC. For one reason, there are too many put-downs."
3	"I think it has the makings of one in that I think most teams get along well and can talk effectively together."
4	"We do not have a functioning PLC. We are told what we are to do, and are expected to do it."
5	"No, we do not function as PLC's were intended."
6	"Well, over my history it was a lot more open than it is right now."
7	"Probably not, but I am sure it could be."
8	"Sometimes I feel like we are a functioning PLC, but most of the time I do not feel like we are, though."
9	"No, I do not feel like my school is a functioning PLC. Most schools do not even know what a PLC is supposed to be like. Schools only know what the districts tell them they can and cannot do."

Individual teacher interviews analysis. All nine teacher interview participants were asked to member check the data collected and analyzed. Interview participants agreed that motivation for becoming a classroom teacher most likely originated from an inner (intrinsic) desire to work with children and a joy of being a part of the learning process. Participants of the interviews all discussed a purpose higher than money or prestige. The motivation for these participants came from being able to teach children to become independent thinkers and develop a love of learning and knowledge.

Participants of the individual interviews felt threatened by the politicians and businesspeople who attempted to change the education system into a competitive business system. Businesspeople assumed by reorganizing the structure, schools, and teachers will compete for the business of students, creating a high level of learning atmosphere. According to the participants, in theory, this comparison seemed successful. Unfortunately, in reality, this theory interfered with the relationships among teachers, which in turn negatively affected student learning.

Administration micromanaging the teachers in the teaching profession was stated by participants as a negative response to change. Participants of the teacher interviews reported that limiting teacher autonomy and degrading teachers in general only motivated existing educators and potential educators to rebel or move on to other inviting careers. Some participants speculated that it was the motive of politicians to get rid of the old and bring in the new. However, participants stated that in several major cities, politicians and businesspeople fired the old teachers and brought in the new only to fail; yet, the politicians and businesspeople continued to believe in their theories and to blame the

teachers for their failure. Also, interview participants felt as though management and government officials were ignorant of the entire learning process. According to participants, politicians and businesspeople seemed to be eager to control teachers rather than work with teachers. Some participants stated management was ignorant of the idea that autonomy inspires professionals to do more than ever believed to be possible because it spurs intrinsic motivation, a reward, in itself for doing one's best.

Interview participants felt the comparison between business and education was unbalanced. The biggest discrepancy revealed by participants that educators were working with minors, and even though teachers were being paid to teach, students were not being paid to learn. School is work for students, but students are not paid to go to school. Also, participants noted making individuals do anything is impossible. Teachers cannot make students do anything. Teachers can only influence. Teachers can motivate. However, teachers do not have the power to make students work or even try to learn. According to participants, parents have the final word concerning their children; yet, teachers are blamed for the bad choices some students make at school. The rules change when working with minors. Therefore, teachers being paid according to the performance of minors is unrealistic and difficult at best. Teachers can only indirectly influence such student performance.

Interview participants also believed the idea of accountability through testing was unrealistic. The government misused the purpose of testing. Test scores are the single most important aspect of education, as warranted by the actions of the government. However, test scores rise consistently after several conditions are met. Politicians and the

government assumed that micromanaging the profession and threatening the teacher's accountability would fix the problems in education. According to the interview participants, accountability was not the problem, and testing was not the answer.

All interview participants felt accountable in education. Most participants talked about consistency and realistic goals and measures. "Accountability in education is difficult from a distance. You cannot hold someone accountable when you do not know what their limitations and challenges are," said Participant 1. Participants argued being influential and being in total control are completely different and unbalanced topics. Children are forced to get an education, which means teachers will never obtain complete influence over the students. And without total influence, how will educators ever be truly accountable for student learning the way the government believed possible? Some participants argued, politicians assumed accountability comes from total domination and control. From a psychological standpoint, some participants argued only submissiveness and rebellion come from total domination. True accountability depends on intrinsic motivation aspects within (Fullan, 2011a).

One of the only positive elements that came from NCLB is PLCs. Again, interview participants argued forced PLCs are not truly PLCs and were ineffective. Administration forced teachers to engage in meaningful ways about dictated topics would never amount to an effective PLC. PLCs are supposed to be about the community rallying together to achieve a common goal. All interview participants discussed the need for open dialogue between politicians and educators and the need to rebuild a trusting relationship between management and educator. Participants reflected back to the

numerous failed reform efforts and suggested politicians needed to change reform tactics if the politicians expected the education system to change. According to participants, changing names for reform efforts and keeping theories intact would only cause more educators to rebel the process.

In general, interview participants felt politicians and businesspeople shoved the education professionals out of the profession. Politicians and businesspeople abused their role of community leadership by refusing to collaborate with educators about the public education system. The public education system remained unchanged until both politicians and the educators reach common ground with open dialogue and open minds.

Evidence of Quality

This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study involved the strengths and weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative data. There was only one researcher and a total of 21 possible participants. Once I had received permission from the IRB to conduct my study, I then petitioned for permission from the district office. After the district office had granted permission I requested permission from the principal and individual participants. I addressed the potential participants in a faculty meeting to introduce the study. Afterwards, participants approached me with a signed permission. My main objective, once permission had been granted, was to gain confidence from the individual participants. Without the confidence of the individual participants there would be no data to analyze.

Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment

The Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment focuses primarily on numerically

quantifying the readiness of an individual to change both personally and professionally

(Reeves, 2009). The assessment required two parts. The first part was to write down three

to five personal change experiences and rate them into categories. The second part was to

write down three to five organizational change experiences and rate them into categories.

The categories were: Planning, Sense of Urgency, Personal Focus, Personal Support, and

Effect on Results. When participants approached me with a signed permission I explained

the procedure and allowed the participants to work in their own time. If the participants

had questions, they were allowed to email me, approach me, or leave a note in my box.

Reeves (2009) suggested validity of the assessment is based on the participants

ability to fill out the assessment honestly. Typically, some scores will be outside the

range. However, the majority of the scores should fall within the same range. When

participants told me they had completed the assessment, I went over the papers with them

to make sure they rated the experiences the way they perceived. I did not collect or read

the written portion of the change experiences. A copy of what I handed the participants is

found in Appendix A. The written portion of the assessment was for the benefit of the

participant only. Next, I labeled the assessment, personal and organizational, with a

single number and told that number to the participant. I simply assigned the same number

to a personal and organizational assessment to keep the scores together. These scores

were calculated to give the individual participant a level of change readiness according to

the Change Matrix (Figure 2). Personal and professional ratings allowed me to judge

whether the change experiences were just about the individual person or an organizational issue.

Once all the data had been collected and numbered I calculated the personal versus organizational ratings to find the individual's level of change readiness. After calculating all of the ratings, I then calculated a group level of readiness versus their personal ratings, as indicated in Figure 3. I illustrated a visual representation in a bar graph of the comparison between personal ratings and organizational ratings. Participants were given their level of change readiness and asked to check the findings for accuracy.

Autonomy Audit

The Autonomy Audit was written by Daniel Pink (2009), according to the four categories of autonomy. The four categories of autonomy, according to Pink (2009) are: team, task, time, and technique. The audit consists of a simple rating system of one to ten about autonomy in the workplace. A copy of the Autonomy Audit can be found in Appendix C. Again, scores should be consistent within the categories, with a few scores outside the parameter. The consistency of the score gives validity (Pink, 2009). The audit is reliable if the participants answer honestly (Pink, 2009).

Participants were handed the audit when a permission slip was signed. Directions were given to the participants and they were given the choice to complete the audit in the moment or in their own time. When participants handed in the audit I reviewed their answers with them, if we were alone. If we were not alone, I assigned them a number and that is the only identifying mark on the audit. Later, as the percentages were being calculated as a group or organization, I reviewed the individual ratings with the

participant. Above, in Figure 4, I showed a visual representation of the low autonomy

percentages compared to the high autonomy percentages. I presented the percentages to

each individual participant to check for accuracy from their point of view.

The Flow Test Experiment

The Flow Test Experiment was originally created by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi

(1990, 2008). Later, Daniel Pink (2009) adapted the original experiment to be used in

individual organizations. The Flow Test Experiment measures the number of flow-like

experiences an individual has, based on their own perception, on a given day and asks for

a written personal reflection within an eight-hour period. I designed a reflection

worksheet to help participants quickly analyze flow and reflection at the end of a school

day (Appendix D). The purpose of the worksheet is to use just enough words to

remember the experience at the end of the day while writing the reflection. Also, the

worksheet helped to keep participants honest and on-track. I also used cell phones,

personal or other, to set silent alarms to vibrate at eight random times during the school

day. Before starting the experiment, participants wrote down appropriate check time

ranges for flow. This process helped me to avoid times at the computer lab, the library,

recess, or the gym.

The validity of this experiment is found with the comparison of the worksheet and

the individual reflection. I was in the building to answer any questions the participants

had throughout the week. All materials were handed in at the end of the participant's

experiment week. I assigned each participant a number. Names or grade levels were

never divulged to maintain anonymity. I cross referenced and coded any similarities

between the quick response worksheet and the written reflection daily. Once all the data

for one participant had been analyzed and coded I had the participant check the

information for accuracy. The daily worksheets and reflection papers are found in

Appendix D.

What's Your Sentence?

The What's Your Sentence? activity is an individual exercise to determine one's

purpose of life. The activity asks individuals to ponder the bigger picture of one's goals

and ultimately, defines oneself. I devised a worksheet, which contained an example of a

sentence found in Appendix E. When participants handed me a signed permission I

explained the directions and asked if they would like to work on the sentence with me in

the room or individually in private. Most participants chose to work on the sentence in

private and ask clarifying questions later. The worksheet also asked for permission to use

the sentence in the study. The papers did not contain any names or other identifying

marks. When papers were handed in, I asked if I had permission to use the sentence and

then I gave the participant a number. Once all the papers were handed in, I coded all of

the sentences into general themes, and I showed a visual representation of those themes

in Figure 5. After the themes were created, I checked with the participants for accuracy.

Individual Teacher Interviews

The beginning individual teacher interview questions are found in Appendix B. I

conducted the interviews at the end of the study to take advantage of the data generated

by this study. Through the course of the interviews, different questions were asked. The

purpose of the individual interviews was to give a voice and a story to the quantitative

data. The interviews gave the story behind the numbers. The principal signed a document indicating she would not be given access to the individual participants data before, during, or after the study. This allowed me to gain the confidence of the participants of the interviews.

Once a signed permission was received, I asked the participant where they would be most comfortable in conducting the interview. The interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed on my home computer. No names were published with the interviews. I assigned each participant a number to track the data. Once the interviews were completed, I categorized the data by themes and reported the stories through a case study format. The findings were available for each participant to review for accuracy and change if necessary.

Summary

The main research question of this mixed methods study was, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" Educators and the public education system has changed for decades. The premise of this research is that politicians' motives for educational reform (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014) refused to address teacher motivation (Ravitch, 2014), particularly in terms of a third drive. This research used different instruments to assess teachers' motivation.

The change constantly occurred in education, some changes naturally and others intentionally. I answered Research Question 2, "To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?" using the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment. The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment indicated the

participants of XYZ Elementary School were ready to change. The participants of XYZ Elementary School experienced some more success with personal change situations than professional change situations. Overall, 12/16 were in the ready to change category indicating that as a school they were overall ready to change. According to the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment results, the faculty of XYZ Elementary School was ready to change. The Ready for Change phase, according to Douglas Reeves (2009), indicated both leader and participants had a history and capacity for effective change initiatives. With regards to this assessment, the organization could adapt to new situations and move forward (Reeves, 2009, p. 35).

I addressed Research Question 3, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?" using the Autonomy Audit. Based on the results of the participants of XYZ Elementary School, the organization had Low Autonomy. The topic of autonomy broke down into four categories of the team, task, time, and technique by Daniel Pink (2009). In the category of the team, 82% of the participants scored autonomy in the low range. In the category of task, 65% of the participants scored autonomy in the low range. In the category of time, 76% scored autonomy in the low range. However, in the category of technique, 65% scored in the high range of autonomy. According to interview data from the participants, the management took away teacher's autonomy in every category except technique. Participant 7 stated, "As long as my kids do well. If my kids do well on the test, they do not seem to bother me as much." In essence, the administration allowed teachers to teach

using an acceptable technique, as long as student test scores showed the technique's effectiveness. In contrast, their time, team members, and tasks were all restricted.

I measured Research Question 4, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess enough belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?" using the Flow Test Experiment. A 'flow' experience occurs once in a while and is not a common everyday occurrence (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990/2008). The majority of Flow Test participants reported primarily Low and Medium levels of flow. Journal entries from Flow Test participants indicated scoring high levels of flow on a consistent basis was nearly impossible due to the number of distractions encountered in a given day. Several participants argued there were numerous obstacles impeding on an educator's intrinsic motivation on a daily basis. Csikszentmihalyi (1990/2008) reported flow experiences are not an everyday occurrence. There are many factors to align, especially in a classroom, in order to experience flow on a daily basis. Most educators want to increase flow in the classroom and strive towards that goal daily. The participants of this study also believe flow is possible in the classroom and are willing to work towards this ultimate goal on a daily basis.

The What's Your Sentence exercise pertained to the third category of the Third Drive as purpose (Pink, 2009) or relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). I addressed Research Question 5, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?" using the What's Your Sentence activity. All of the participants wrote a purpose of life sentence about education in some way. All of the sentences were positive and related to children, learning, teaching, or changing the

lives of others. All of the statements were influential. None of the sentences alluded to money, wealth, prestige, test scores, or anything related to what the government assumes motivates teachers. All of the participants indicated that, in general, teachers were internally motivated and driven by the act of teaching and learning as opposed to being lazy, unmotivated to teach, and/or externally motivated by wealth and prestige, as indicated by the politicians and businesspeople (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). Individual interviews indicated participants were angry because politicians have attempted to speak for educators. Participants, disappointed by the politician's obsession with test scores and other insignificant factors about the learning process, felt abandoned by the government. In general, participants believed, politicians and businesspeople have misguided goals and theories about education.

The primary research question of this study was, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" I addressed the question through the Individual Teacher Interviews. Politicians and businesspeople ideas regarding teacher motivation have been dismissed by every single interview participant at XYZ Elementary School. According to participants, the key element missing from every debate concerning teacher motivation or public-school reform was the voice of the educator. According to interview participants, everyone except the teacher spoke for the educator. Somehow educators were pushed out of education and were being replaced by politicians and businesspeople. Interview participants worried about the politicians' and business people's motives. They stated that the push for public-schools to become competitive businesses turned a safe learning environment into an international competitive performance with no room for

error. Participants felt that every move an educator makes must be approved by the district, the state, administration, students, and parents before public-schools will protect the teachers. Participants are aware teachers are the scapegoats.

The politicians and businesspeople attempted to micromanage the public education system, which undermined the authority of the educator over the classroom (Fullan, 2011a). Interview participants viewed the act of downgrading differently, as some chose to react in a submissive way, while others chose to rebel, and others chose to weigh their options and make the best decision possible given the circumstances. All interview participants viewed the act of political dominance as negative and damaging to efforts toward changing the education system. Politicians and businesspeople seemed more interested in controlling educators rather than working with educators toward a common goal. This lack of political empathy worried some interview participants who questioned the motives of the politicians and businesspeople. The push for unrealistic test scores without the input of the educators also cast doubt on the motives of both politicians and businesspeople.

According to the interview participants, the only positive aspect that developed from the politicians'and businesspeople's push toward reform, such as NCLB, was PLCs. A true PLC dedicated to changing the system to meet the needs of the students was a shared leadership role. However, management of the schools turned control of PLCs over to administration. Now the downside to PLCs seemed to be the micromanagement of PLCs, changing the true purpose of PLCs into an ineffective managerial ploy. The national push for educational accountability, mixed with micromanagement of educators,

made the motivated classroom teacher almost obsolete and the learning environment into

an isolated event (Fullan, 2011a). Participants felt as though the politicians deleted the

dialogue between politician and educator. Participants voiced their opinions about

politicians abusing their authoritative power to take over the public education system and

make more money from a business stand-point. Several participants voiced concerns

about teachers are the only people standing in the way of big business and who is going

to care about the motivation of a teacher.

Section 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

My purpose in this research study was to explore processes other than extrinsic motivation that motivate teachers to engage in strategies and methods that invite intrinsic motivation in their classrooms over the long-term. Constant external control from politicians, corporate reformers, and administrators results in undermining the educator's intrinsic motivation to teach (Fullan, 2011a). When the teacher's motivation to teach becomes undermined, then the student's motivation to learn is also affected (Fullan, 2011a; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

I constructed five research questions revolving around the main idea of what motivates classroom teachers. I conducted a transformative-emancipatory mixed methods design to empower the marginalized classroom educators with a voice. I was interested in change in the classroom and in improving the social injustice or unbalanced power within the school. I embraced a pragmatic with a transformative philosophical view to make the public aware of the power imbalance between politicians and the educators in the public-school system. The mixed methods design was implemented to take advantage of both the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research.

The root of my research stems from motivational research. Extrinsic motivation is the type of motivation with which most people are familiar. Extrinsic motivation cannot account for the type of teaching and learning that needs to occur within the classroom (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Extrinsic motivation only accounts for behavior controlled through a series of rewards and punishments (Ryan & Deci, 2000,

2017). Ryan & Deci (2017, 2000) proposed autonomy, competence, and relatedness to directly influence an individual's ability to intrinsically motivate themselves without the use of external rewards and punishments. Pink (2009) suggested autonomy, mastery, and purpose to directly influence such actions and behavior.

This mixed-methods research study created five research questions and five methods of action to answer the research questions. I asked Research Question 1, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" and answered it through individual teacher interviews. I asked Research Question 2, "To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?" and answered it through the organizational change readiness assessment. I asked Research Question 3, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?" and answered it through the autonomy audit. I asked Research Question 4, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess enough belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting change?" and answered it through the flow test experiment. I asked Research Question 5, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?" and answered it through the what's your sentence? activity.

The organizational change readiness assessment answered the question if the faculty was ready to change. The assessment comes in two parts, personal and professional. There were 16 participants out of a possible 21 participants. Higher scores indicate higher readiness to change, and scores are in five categories. I indicated in the personal change results section that the average mean percentages were all in the 70th

percentile, with the exception of the planning category, which was 68%. The high

percentages suggest the 16 participants do not have a problem with personal change.

However, the scores in the professional portion of the assessment were lower than the

personal scores. The highest category of percentages was the sense of urgency category at

79%, indicating that teachers felt some of urgency to change professionally. I also

calculated the lowest category of leadership focus at 52%, indicating that teachers felt

lower leadership support for change. The overall percentages indicated the 16 participants

all reported higher personal scores than professional scores, which minimally affects the

participants to make changes within the organization.

The autonomy audit created by Pink (2009) contains four categories of autonomy

including: team, task, time, and technique. I chose the audit to answer research question

three about the levels of autonomy felt in the workplace and had 17 participants out of a

possible 21 participants choose to be involved. True autonomy is about control and

choice with support and trust to work interdependently alongside colleagues (Ryan &

Deci, 2000). I found the category of technique to be the only category to score above

50%, which means the participants perceive overall autonomy within this organization to

be lower medium range. The category of team contained an unbalanced array of scores,

causing me to follow Pink's (2009) indication, and consider it to be inconsistent and

unreliable. I found the categories of task and time were both consistently rated low. This

means that task and time are factors in which the participants found the least amount of

autonomy within the organization. Most of the autonomy scores were between four and

six on a scale of one to 10, suggesting the participants of the autonomy audit feel medium autonomy in the workplace.

The flow test experiment was created by Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 2008). A flow experience is not ordinary. However, flow experiences tend to motivate individuals to experience more of the same as they are rewarding without the need for external rewards or punishments (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2008). I used the flow test experiment to address research question four concerning perceived mastery levels, and I had nine participants. The findings of the flow test indicate that overall, teachers have low to medium levels of flow, and some high flow experiences during the week. The times of the day to have the lowest amount of flow were the very beginning, the middle or lunchtime, and the last minutes of the school day. The in-between times were reported as containing the highest flow experiences. Also, Mondays and Fridays scored higher than I originally speculated. However, the highest flow days were during the in-between days. The majority of participants were consistent with reflections and the flow worksheet. During the interview sessions, most teachers (including some who had not been in the flow experiment) reported believing they were capable of having flow-like experiences in the classroom. However, since there are several distractions during the school day, planning helps alleviate many obstacles.

The What's Your Sentence activity was used in response to research question number five regarding purpose or relatedness. Extrinsic motivation has no sense of purpose (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Political and administrative officials are attempting to micromanage or force educators into a sense of purpose (Pink, 2009). For

this study, the activity produced data to indicate whether the 17 participants, out of a possible 21 participants, from XYZ Elementary School had purpose pertaining to education. After color coding the responses, I created three categories of purpose, including: Teaching and Learning at 59%; Inspiration and Service to Others at 24%; and Happiness, Truth, and Balance in Life at 6%. I reported all the topics to have a direct or indirect connection to the profession of teaching.

Individual Teacher Interviews addressed the research question number one concerning motivation to change. Everyone agrees the public-school system needs change (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Reeves, 2009). The educational debate revolves around exactly what needs to change, exactly who needs to change it, and exactly how do we change it (Fullan, 2011a; Ravitch, 2010; Pink, 2009). The purpose of the interviews was to give the participants a voice beyond the quantitative numbers. There were nine interview participants out of a possible 21 participants, and all of them speculated on the negative publicity toward educators, without the critics communicating directly with the educators. Most reported working directly with children towards a learning goal as motivation to change and continue teaching. Testing was reported in a negative light consistently, whether there were high scores to report or not. The participants did not enjoy being bullied, harassed, or embarrassed through the use of test scores. The participants also reported that micromanagement is not a form of accountability. Attempting to force results only produces negative results. Overall,

participants reported the desire to be treated with respect and dignity as dedicated educators.

Interpretation of Findings

Politicians and corporate reformers accused educators of being lazy and unmotivated to teach well (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). In response, I constructed this study around two theoretical foundations, transformative design and emancipatory theory. Emancipatory Theory supports researching an underrepresented or marginalized group (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), such as classroom teachers. The Transformative mixed methods design allows the researcher to shape the study to address the needs of a specific population, as the classroom teachers, and calls for positive change (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The study is designed to inform everyone, including the politicians, who may want to promote teacher motivation in order to create positive change in the public-school system.

In this section the interpretation of findings is organized by the research questions. The first research question of this transformative mixed methods study was, "What motivates teachers at XYZ Elementary School to change?" I addressed this research question with Individual Teacher Interviews.

The interviews revealed that participants felt politicians did not value teachers' opinions regarding what might motivate classroom teachers to teach better. Teachers felt they and their colleagues were professional, dedicated teachers sacrificing time, energy, and money towards educating children. Despite this, the participants stated that they are subjects of unprofessional and disrespectful bullying by administrators, districts,

politicians, businesspeople, the community, and the media. The participants felt that

many want to use teachers as a punching bag or a scapegoat, and that no one wants to

address the real problems from the teachers' point of view. The teachers' point of view

was what this study sought to uncover, instead of business people's views. Teachers

pointed out what the literature has also noted, that politicians do not address the root

problems such as childhood poverty and school segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014;

Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

In the literature it is contended that politicians and corporate reformers deceived

the American public for years to incorporate the business people's agenda concerning

public education (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014;

Stitzlein, 2017). Public education costs the American public billions of dollars each year,

and corporate reformers envy the opportunity to invest and control the education system

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Business-style

competition forced into the public-schools created a non-learning atmosphere and

mistrust among classroom teachers (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014;

Ravitch, 2014).

Interviewees reported that many teachers chose to work in isolation to avoid the

general negativity. The participants speculated that the negatives will eventually

outweigh many teachers' sense of purpose in teaching, and teachers will leave the

profession. In a competitive atmosphere, educators withdraw from true collaboration and

continue to teach in isolation, which negatively affects the teacher's intrinsic motivation

to teach and the student's motivation to learn (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Participants stated significant concern with politicians and corporate reformers lack of empathy toward the teaching profession, toward the students, toward the parents, and toward the general public. Interview participants commented that the politicians and corporate reformers must only care about money and power because of their unethical actions. For example, corporate reformers and politicians used the media to suggest that the general public lacks empathy for teachers using fictional reports and stories (Goldstein, 2014; Kuhn, 2014). Interview participants worried about the lack of empathy on behalf of the politicians and corporate reformers and what the consequences of such actions meant for students, the public, and the country. Currently, interview participants remarked on the parting between the rich and the poor, noting that the middle class seemed to be dwindling away while the school reform controversy seemed to make matters worse. The literature supports this by noting that politicians and corporate reformers say they want to reform the schools; however, all the political decisions concerning public education have created a significant increase in childhood poverty and segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Furthermore, interview participants commented that politicians appeared to accommodate corporate reformers' wishes rather than the general public's wishes. In other words, politicians appeared to adhere to whatever corporate reformers or the richer population wanted rather than what was right or best for public education. It appeared 'fishy' to interview participants that, overnight, the politicians stopped collaborating with educators and started listening to the

voices of businesspeople concerning public education. Some participants remarked the actions of the politicians were similar to, as one participant stated "treason" as the politician's decisions reflected benefiting the rich and punishing the poor citizens by driving out the middle class and increasing childhood poverty and segregation (Ravitch, 2014). In summary, participants and the literature note politicians' and corporate reformers' lack of empathy for teachers, students, and the poor. Interview participants also pointed out politicians and corporate reformers claim to motivate educators through accountability, micromanagement, and high-stakes testing; yet, the literature indicates teacher motivation and student motivation to be intertwined (Ryan & Deci, 2017), while high-stakes testing undermines both teacher motivation and student motivation proving to be ineffective as an approach to public-school reform (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Research Question 2 was, "To what degree are the educators at XYZ Elementary School ready to change?" The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment indicated teachers of XYZ Elementary School in terms of their personal and professional experiences were ready and willing to participate in change processes and accept change. In the personal readiness data, the overall means were 1,792 points and the mean percent was 75%. The professional readiness data was somewhat lower with overall means of 1,577 points and the mean percent was 66%. According to Douglas Reeves (2009) the assessment indicated the Ready for Change phase, which means both leader and participants had a history and capacity for effective change initiatives (p. 35). Participants of this study also pointed out that the district reacted to whatever initiatives were imposed upon them by the state and federal government. In other words, in the eyes of the

educators, the district made initiatives with the teacher's best interests in mind by

following the guidelines of the state and federal government, while attempting to make

the situation user-friendly to the educators.

In terms of the literature, educational change is directly related to motivation

(Connors & Smith, 2011; Fullan, 2007; Kotter & Cohen, 2002). Politicians and corporate

reformers treat public-schools like a business, through practices like top-down extrinsic

motivation managerial styles and merit pay (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014;

Ravitch, 2014). The human condition is not a business and also includes intrinsic

motivation (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Concerning High Stakes Testing (HST), Ryan

and Deci (2017) indicated:

> Educational reforms that revolve around HST will likely not be
>
> successful in promoting engagement, learning, and well-being.
>
> The nature of these approaches is control, and control serves to
>
> thwart teachers' and students' basic psychological needs, undermining
>
> sustained volitional engagement of teachers and students and
>
> diminishing deep learning. (p. 377)

Research indicates teacher motivation to be associated with student motivation (Ryan &

Deci, 2017). Motivation techniques used with teachers must involve intrinsic qualities to

be effective for school reform (Ryan & Deci, 2017). This study found that the

participants are intrinsically motivated in terms of their readiness for change. They may

not be influenced by extrinsic rewards and punishments for student test scores. The effort

of one individual (teacher) cannot be dependent upon the efforts of another individual

(student) (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Indeed, it may be that students learn best when intrinsically motivated, as it has been noted that a child will learn directly through its own expended effort (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2012).

Research Question 3 was, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the autonomy to promote lasting change?" The Autonomy Audit by Daniel Pink (2009) indicated four categories of autonomy including, team, task, time, and technique. The overall scores were found in the low average range indicating teachers at XYZ Elementary School perceived low amounts of autonomy overall. In the category of team, 82% of the participants scored in the low range. In the category of task, 65% of the participants scored in the low range. In the category of time, 76% scored autonomy in the low range. In contrast, in the category of technique, 65% scored in the *high* range of autonomy. Participants argued time, task and team seemed to be dictated by the state and district, while technique acquired more autonomy as long as the teacher's test scores were adequate.

The Emancipatory Theory takes a stand for the autonomy and overall power of the undervalued classroom teachers. The transformative mixed methods design of this study allows the researcher to advocate for a change (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The autonomy of educators is diminishing quickly and has been for decades (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). Business and political leaders want control of the schools; and legislation, such as NCLB and Race to the Top, proves leaders are not interested in changing the public-school system, they want to control it (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014;

Kumashiro, 2012; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). Attempting to enforce external

motivation upon teachers and indirectly upon students for decades only proves that

teacher external motivation is not the answer (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

One cannot force internal motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), especially through the

withdrawal of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

  I asked Research Question 4, "To what degree did the teachers at XYZ

Elementary School possess enough belief in their mastery levels to promote lasting

change?" and used the Flow Test Experiment to address the question. A 'flow'

experience occurs occasionally and is not a common everyday occurrence

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990/2008). Most of the Flow Test participants reported Low and

Medium levels of flow throughout the week. Participants reported higher levels of flow

when the teachers could teach a concept when and how the teacher wanted. Participants

also reported several distractions, which also interrupted learning and flow and were out

of control of the teacher.

  Expecting intrinsic motivation from any individual all day is unrealistic (Saeed &

Zyngier, 2012). Yet teachers in this study did achieve flow experiences regularly,

although often low to medium experiences. Yet the higher flow experiences happened

when the teacher had greater autonomy and control over when and how a subject was

taught. Politicians have taken away the autonomy from educators and demanded

unrealistic expectations from the teachers and the students (Berliner & Glass, 2014;

Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). In addition, the fewer the distractions the

greater the likelihood for flow experiences. Teachers noted that these moments were

rewarding for both themselves and their students. Thus, providing fewer scheduling and bureaucratic distractions could be one way to increase intrinsic motivation flow experiences in classrooms. In contrast, attempting to force extrinsic motivation in the classroom only proves that management has lost control (Deci & Ryan, 2012). The attempt to motivate children to learn and teachers to teach through extrinsic motivation only works for a short period and causes serious damage for the long-term (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017; Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). To increase motivation, especially intrinsic motivation, requires autonomy, competence or mastery, and purpose or relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Pink, 2009). Demanding motivation will only bring about rebellion (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink, 2009). Providing autonomy and fewer bureaucratic distractions may bring about more instances of high flow experiences through encouraging intrinsic motivation.

I asked Research Question 5, "To what degree do the teachers at XYZ Elementary School possess the sense of purpose to promote lasting change?" and used the What's Your Sentence activity to address the question. All the participants of What's Your Sentence regarding purpose pertained to education in some way. All the participant's sentences were positive and related to children, teaching, learning, and individuals working to influence the lives of others. Not one sentence alluded to material wealth, money, or competitive test scores in any way that politicians claimed teachers felt. If politicians and corporate reformers bothered to visit any public-school, they would find hard-working individuals who truly care about the students.

Educational reform movements have not changed the actual plan for more than 30 years (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). The purpose of teachers is about inspiring learning, the purpose of educational reform is about control (Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009). The purpose of this mixed methods study is to educate the citizens about the perspective of the teachers and the existence of their intrinsic motivation, so that we may come together to find a compromise that perhaps is not so destructive. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest knowledge becomes a power with a social relationship framework, "and the purpose of knowledge construction is to aid people in improving society" (p. 44). The purpose of this study is to suggest that the teacher participants of this study are (a) dedicated professionals with significant potential to improve education, but who feel bullied, (b) ready for change both personally and professionally, (c) feel autonomy only in how they teach but severely constrained in time, task, and team, (d) when they have greater autonomy and fewer distractions have greater and stronger intrinsic motivation flow experiences, and (e) have a strong sense of purpose to inspire learning (rather than accumulate wealth). These attributes suggest that if teachers were given a greater voice and greater autonomy, they would be ready and willing to change their practice in order to inspire more learning in their students.

Implications for Social Change

Introduction

Public education has endured over 30 years of failed reform movements. Society agrees public education needs to change. The controversy begins with the perception of those changes and the leaders in charge of making those changes. Politicians and

corporate reformers are the leaders in charge of making decisions concerning public education. In the Background section, I discuss some of the major controversies surrounding the perceptions of politicians, corporate reformers, and educators. In the Social Change section, I discuss the results of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study and the implications it implies for future research and reform movements.

Background

Over fifty years of failed education reform movements measured by standardized tests proved that the politicians and corporate reformers way of doing things was ineffective (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Ravitch, 2014). Politicians followed an agenda including the micromanagement of public education, teacher performance measured by student test scores, public degrading and harassment of teachers, and disabling the public-school system to involve private investors and contributions (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The social change implications for the previous reform efforts have been dismal, including the demotivation of educators and wasted tax dollars on standardized testing supplies. If education reform were to have positive social change implications on the currently strong but in need of improvement school system, there are scholars who argue that it will come from instilling democratic principles into the reform effort. These include being a self-starter, intrinsically motivated, autonomous and having a strong sense of purpose. In order to study whether one school's teachers were ready for this kind of educational reform, I looked at the teachers' readiness to change, their intrinsic motivation, current autonomy in the workplace, and their sense of purpose. Together these four qualities, as indicated

by research, are central to a teacher's ability to successfully reform their classroom practice without external intimidation.

Additional negative social change implications of previous reform efforts include wasting tax payer dollars and lining the pockets of rich investors of charter school investments. Indeed, the American public education system has survived decades of imposed sanctions and legislation aimed at degrading teachers and destroying the system in place today (Ravitch, 2010). Politicians proved deceitful intentions through unrealistic and improbable expectations and legislation, which cost the taxpayers millions of dollars and destroyed many of the positive points about education (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hursh, 2016; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). The rich investors made more money through charter school investments at the cost of the students' education made possible by the politicians (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Stitzlein, 2017). The social implications these actions impede upon the public-school system was to turn the general public against the educators. The negative social connotations towards educators will allow politicians and corporate reformers to make a profit from educating children through charter schools and private schools (Stitzlein, 2017). Another negative aspect, as a direct result of the politicians' and corporate reformers' business decisions, is that America has one of the highest childhood poverty rates, an increase in racial segregation, and an increase in socioeconomic and ability segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Motivation, or more specifically teacher motivation, is the main argument in the war on education or public education reform. Politicians and corporate reformers argue if

teachers were properly motivated through a merit-pay system and a get-tough attitude

towards accountability for student performance on standardized assessments, then

education would improve (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein,

2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Management bribes employees with external rewards

and threatens them with negative punishment when the work itself is unfulfilling (Fullan,

2011a; Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation can be of some benefit in

certain circumstances (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Fullan, 2011a; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2010;

Ryan & Deci, 2017). However, forcing external rewards and punishments on a situation

requiring intrinsic motivation simply undermines the motivation to complete the task

(Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). The fact that the theory of the politicians and

corporate reformers demotivates educators proves America needs a new and more

positive democratic way to reform public education. Therefore, this study researched the

qualities that promote intrinsic motivation in teachers such as, autonomy, mastery or

competence, and purpose or relatedness.

Money is considered the great motivator (Pink, 2009). Unfortunately, money is

simply an external reward fulfilling an individual's biological needs of food, water, and

shelter (Adams, Heywood, & Rothstein, 2009; Pink, 2009). Using money to motivate

individuals into unrealistic tasks ends in failure and undermines the individual's ability to

intrinsically motivate themselves into completing the task (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Pink,

2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Sandel (2012) reported New York City districts, as well as

some Chicago districts, attempted to pay students and teachers for good test scores. The

attempt ended in failure because one cannot motivate extrinsically when the task requires

intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Also, Goldstein (2014)

reported numerous cities across the United States attempted to reward teachers with

money for higher test scores, again, to end in failure. Participants argued that because

they are harassed and treated poorly, it is not motivating when management offers them

money to reach an unattainable goal, such as unrealistically high test scores. Instead of

demanding and demeaning professionals, leaders need to explore the motivation of

teachers in terms of their intrinsic sense of purpose. Readers of this study might find

outcomes, as this study did: (a) that teachers had times of intrinsic motivation when they

had more autonomy, (b) that teachers had a strong sense of purpose centered on inspiring

student learning, (c) that, currently, teachers have a low to medium sense of autonomy,

and (d) that teachers are actually quite ready and willing for change.

In contrast, Fullan (2009) reported educational change incorporated correctly

could insight positive social change by potentially motivating millions of people to learn,

teach, and improve mankind. A strong public educational system continues to develop

and maintain our nation's economy and democracy (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017).

Democracy strengthens through the people's willingness to learn and innovate without

micromanaging with force and intimidation (Ravitch, 2010). Positive social change has

the capacity to raise a nation of independent thinkers and innovators through an

intrinsically motivated institution of learning. A community of educators gathered

together who are willing to change, intrinsically motivated, autonomous, and has a strong

sense of purpose is a new, more positive, and democratic approach to educational reform.

Therefore, this study looks at teacher's intrinsic motivation, willingness to change, and current autonomy in the workplace to impose positive social change.

Social Change Implications for this Study

This transformative-emancipatory mixed study has the potential to inform the public of a new way to reform public education. The old method of reform was established by politicians and corporate reformers who claim teachers are unwilling to change, are lazy, and unmotivated (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). According by this study's results, teachers are not motivated by money, competition, or elevated test scores, as indicated by the Individual Interviews. Teachers are not lazy or unwilling to change, as indicated by the Organizational Readiness for Change Assessment. The XYZ Elementary School participants indicated 75% were Ready for Change. The Ready for Change phase indicates the leaders and the faculty are capable of personal and professional change and are ready for the work (Reeves, 2009). Change is inherent to reform and a new approach to education reform, which could promote positive social change implications.

This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study addressed the question of teacher motivation to the participants of XYZ Elementary School through Individual Teacher Interviews. Interview participants all commented on the topic of merit-pay and said that money as a motivator was absurd. Participants reported consistent negative feedback from parents, the students, administration, the state, and the federal government as one of the top reasons why educators are not motivated to teach better. In other words, negative feedback demotivates teachers. Participants argued when people are mistreated, almost on a daily basis, it is not motivating when leaders offer you money for

unattainable goals, such as high test scores. In summary, the positive implication results are that teachers, when they are treated with professional respect and given the opportunity to have autonomy in the workplace, can and will experience more intrinsic motivation.

Another point made by this study was that the degree of autonomy felt in the workplace at XYZ Elementary School was in the relatively low to medium ranges. The Autonomy Audit showed low to medium ranges of autonomy in the categories of team, task, and time. The category of technique showed high autonomy ranges. The Individual Interviews also explored the topic of autonomy in education and found most participants felt generally low levels of autonomy. Participants reported most aspects of teaching are determined by non-classroom personnel and felt like enormous pressure was being laid upon the profession and most of the decisions were out of the hands of the teachers. The social implications regarding autonomy include when teachers, like the participants of XYZ Elementary School, have a sense of autonomy in the workplace, they experience more levels of intrinsic motivation. Higher levels of autonomy combined with a strong sense of purpose and teachers who are ready and willing to change has the potential to positively affect social change in the public-schools.

The following points made by this study includes the Flow Test Experiment. The Flow Test Experiment attempted to measure the amount of flow experienced by participants during a typical week in school. With the enormous expectations laid upon educators, the amount of mastery a teacher experiences is important. Flow cannot be expected or demanded all day every day. Again, experiencing flow all day every day

would be unrealistic. The Flow Test Experiment participants and participants of the Individual Interviews expressed concerns about expectations of teachers and their students reaching unobtainable goals, such as high test scores, demotivating educators on a daily basis. Unrealistic expectations and demands cause individuals to lie, cheat, or believe they need to work a miracle (Kuhn, 2014). This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study discovered there are better ways to reach high goals. By promoting positive supportive social interaction with educators, with a higher sense of purpose and willingness to change, teachers will experience a better sense of mastery or competence, resulting in intrinsic motivation to teach and learn.

The What's Your Sentence activity delivered those concerns with regards to purpose. Participants of this study found purpose does not relate to money or titles in education, as some corporate reformers have commented. The participants of XYZ Elementary School expressed their individual purpose in life to be centered around teaching and learning. Ten out of the seventeen participants for this activity defined a sentence pertaining to teaching and learning as a life purpose. Participants of the Individual Interviews expressed how flow and purpose went hand in hand with regards to teaching and learning in the classroom. The positive social implications of this study found when participants experience a higher degree of autonomy and sense of purpose they also feel a larger amount of intrinsic motivation to teach and learn.

In summary, this mixed methods study is about implementing positive social change to reform public education in a new and more positive democratic way. Instead of degrading and harassing professional educators, politicians and corporate reformers

should explore motivating teachers, and extensively students, much like this study,

through: (a) allowing teachers who are willing and ready to change the opportunity to do

so, (b) supporting educators with the opportunity to experience autonomy in the

workplace, (c) supporting teachers with a strong sense of purpose to focus on student

motivation and learning through mastery, and (d) promoting intrinsic motivation with

educators by leading and guiding them to success without external rewards and

punishments.

Recommendations for Action

This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study has shown the

participants of XYZ Elementary School indicated a group of professional educators who:

(a) are ready and willing to change, (b) experienced greater moments of flow and

intrinsic motivation to teach when they had more autonomy in the workplace, and (c)

have a strong sense of purpose centered on inspiring student learning. In contrast,

politicians and corporate reformers reportedly accuse professional educators of being

lazy, unmotivated, and lacking in accountability (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009). The

greatest social implication of this study is to inform the general public of the situation.

Understanding the perspectives of everyone involved will give insight to the general

public and aid them in making informed decisions concerning the welfare of the public

education system.

A democracy is at its strongest when the people assemble together to debate and

instigate change on behalf of all the citizens (Ravitch, 2010). Currently, it has been

implied that politicians and corporate reformers are attempting to disassemble America's

public-school system for individual gain. Politicians and corporate reformers have used their wealth and prestige (Brill, 2011) to demand higher test scores and suggest that America's educators are lazy, unmotivated, and lack accountability (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Klein, 2014). In a 2011 interview, David Berliner put it bluntly, "The people who are saying we look terrible in international competition are simply lying" (School Leadership Briefing, 2011). For example, Bill Gates (2011) attempted to elude the American public by stating America has increased educational spending; yet, the testing scores remain unchanged. Gates deceived the public into thinking the increased spending went to the general public education, when the increased funding was a direct result of special education laws mandated by Congress in 1975, for which the government imposed the laws without funding even half of the cost (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Furthermore, the United States includes all students in international testing, while other countries select which students will participate (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014, 2010). The United States has experienced gains in PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) scores since 2006 (Berliner & Glass, 2014) and in TIMSS (Trends in Mathematics and Science Study) scores since 1995 (Loveless, 2011). This is an example of politicians and corporate reformers attempting to elude the truth and turn the general public against educators.

In this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study, participants of the Individual Interviews expressed serious concerns with this type of deception. American classroom teachers are the scapegoat for every politician and corporate reformer. Participants stated the politicians and corporate reformers take every opportunity to twist

the truth and the media reports it. The sympathy vote, or voting directly toward emotion, allows politicians and corporate reformers to invest and profit in a business venture the corporate reformers know nothing about and which, in the process, will destroy a costly, yet effective, public system (Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Boyle and Burns (2012) reported, "In our efforts to make public-schools more accountable to the public we have lost sight of the notion that the public should be responsible to public-schools and accountable to the ideals that public-schools represent" (p. 12-13). Citizens need to pay close attention to these types of ploys, so that they can be better informed about the situation.

One of the first steps required to take back the public-school system is to educate the people about the situation. Stanford University researcher Edward Haertel opposed using standardized testing to measure teacher quality because the system was biased based on student population, economic status, student ability levels, and student behavior (Haertel, 2013). Haertel reported the system was flawed when the numerical values measure a concept that is not numerical in nature. In other words, a numerical test cannot measure a teacher's ability based on the students the teacher taught and on the school in which the teacher taught because the measurements are incompatible (Haertel, 2013). In response, politicians and corporate reformers created the VAMs (Value-added measures) system to numerically measure the value of an educator's teaching. Advocates of this process denied using the system as the sole measurement of teacher quality for merit pay systems and job security; yet, the system proved publicly degrading and harassing to teachers everywhere (Strauss, 2011). Even Klein (2014) stated, "Accountability should

be used less as a club to impose consequences and more as a flashlight to illuminate what was working, identify where there were challenges, and figure out how to address them" (p. 187). Keith Baker, a former U.S. Department of Education analyst, reported the international test scores mean nothing in the real world as the scores are not associated with national success or economic well-being (Baker, 2007). Robert Scott, the former Commissioner of Education in Texas, reported abuse and degrading criticism towards educators from politicians and corporate reformers (Smith, 2012). Scott continued to study the system devised to report on teacher accountability and how the system proved ineffective (Kuhn, 2014). The teacher accountability system failed in objectivity, reliability, and soon became a politician's tool to report whatever the report needed to say (Kuhn, 2014). Politicians and corporate reformers will continue to publicly degrade the public-school system until enough citizens protest.

First of all, the message of this controversy needs to be debated. In order to begin a debate, citizens need to become aware of the situation. The true message needs to reach the public through the internet, blogs, emails, texts, twitters, and public engagements. Letters to the local newspaper editors need to be written. I will begin by reaching out to the local teaching unions in Utah to decide how and when to disperse this message.

The real crisis involves inequality, childhood poverty, and the civil rights movement of the 21st century, all problems that could cost billions of dollars to correct (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014). Instead, politicians and corporate reformers twist the truth in films like *Waiting for Superman*, hoping to win over the public opinion of teachers (Goldstein, 2014; Goyal, 2016; Kuhn, 2014). Unfortunately,

the only aspects of the film supported by politicians and corporate reformers were the

film itself, nothing about the social supports or local programs aimed at helping families

in poverty proved politicians or corporate reformers supported the cause (Kuhn, 2014).

Phil Rosenzweig (2007/2014) speculates on the Halo Effect from a business standpoint,

which is similar to the crisis in education.

> The Halo Effect shapes how we commonly talk about so many
>
> topics in business, from decision processes to people to leadership
>
> and more. It shows up in our everyday conversations and in
>
> newspaper and magazine articles. It affects case studies and large-
>
> sample surveys. It's not so much the result of conscious distortion
>
> as it is a natural human tendency to make judgments about things
>
> that are abstract and ambiguous on the basis of other things that
>
> are salient and seemingly objective. The Halo Effect is just too
>
> strong, the desire to tell a coherent story too great, the tendency
>
> to jump on bandwagons too appealing. (p. 65)

Interview participants report true reformists would oppose budget cuts, child poverty,

racial segregation, curriculum decreases, increased class sizes, and discriminating

policies; yet, politicians and corporate reformers engage in increasing all these actions

(Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

In this study, the participants of XYZ Elementary School showed the community

through the Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment that 75% of the participants

were in the Ready to Change phase. The Ready to Change phase indicates a situation

where both the organization and the employees are willing and able to make effective

changes (Reeves, 2009). Also, the Autonomy Audit indicated low to medium scores (4-6)

in the categories of time, team, and task. Autonomy Audit participants experience low to

medium levels of autonomy. Individual Interview participants indicated no problem with

fair accountability; however, reaching unrealistic expectations placed on educators

without support requires a miracle. True reformists would not ignore and degrade the

very people needed to fix the problem. True leaders and reformists would refrain from

publicly humiliating educational professionals and explore the possibility of teacher

motivation through alternate motives than external rewards and punishments. True

reformists would not deceive the public into thinking teacher accountability is about

improving education, rather than using tax dollars and investment opportunities to take

the public out of public-schools (Boyle & Burns, 2012; Stitzlein, 2017).

Next, step two involves visiting a local school or two to gain firsthand knowledge

about what occurs in the public-school system. Politicians and corporate reformers only

visited schools to receive photo opportunities for the media. They refused to discuss

options with the teachers or the unions (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond,

2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). The politicians and

corporate reformers obviously did not engage with the teachers to further their personal

agendas at the people's expense. In this study, the Individual Interview participants

indicated politicians and corporate reformers refused to dialogue with educators. The

participants voiced concerns about the true intentions of a group of people refusing to

cooperate and support the very individuals the leaders are responsible for guiding through

the reformation process. The community needs to see firsthand what the schools are trying to accomplish and with what resources. Sharing the results of this mixed methods study shows the public that teachers are being accused of some falsehoods. Along with getting the message out to local teaching unions, the unions will be able to suggest local schools participate in the study as well to determine their results. The more schools that participate in the study, the more reliable results the community will be able to share. If local schools know that citizens are concerned, they will be more willing to participate.

Third, the people need to contact the local teacher unions to see these actions made locally. The politicians and corporate reformers refused to talk with the teacher unions, and the reason remains the teacher unions speak for the benefit of the children, the teachers, and the system (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014; Pink, 2009; Ravitch, 2014). The teacher unions are like any other union in that the unions benefit when teachers benefit, and students benefit when teachers benefit. Decisions made by outsiders like politicians and corporate reformers undermine the process, and everyone loses, much like the competitive system of Race to the Top. Schools should not be competing for federal dollars (Ravitch, 2014; Fullan, 2011a). Competition drives a wedge between teachers, schools, and even students (Fullan, 2011a; Kuhn, 2014). The political wedge helps the "rich get richer, and the poor get poorer" through inequality, racism, and segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

In this study, according to the Individual Interview participants, accountability means 'miracle worker'. Participants voiced concerns about unrealistic expectations and how the added emphasis on standardized test scores puts undue pressure on everyone

involved, especially the students. Participants commented that students do not want to come to school to review or take a test; however, because the politicians and corporate reformers put a strong emphasis on testing, teachers have very little choice or autonomy. If education reform is to experience positive social change implications, scholars argue that it will come from instilling democratic principles into the public-school reform effort. True leaders and reformists will explore the motivation of teachers and the intrinsic sense of purpose through teaching and learning. Theories of the politicians and corporate reformers reform efforts have led to childhood poverty, segregation, and civil liberty segregation (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Kuhn, 2014; Ravitch, 2014).

Fourth, contact local politicians to hear their point of view. Listen to the evidence and ask the politicians about the evidence produced. Most people will find the politicians and corporate reformers fall back on a no excuses campaign, which allows the politicians to blame the teachers and say whatever needs to be said to further the agenda of the rich. Allow local politicians to listen to reason and common sense. Working together on a common goal will benefit everyone. Phil Rosenzweig (2007, 2014) reports on a business idea referred to as CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility). "The idea here is that the companies should do more than just pursue profits but should think more broadly about the concerns of stakeholders – the community, the environment, the employees, and society at large" (p. 77).

Finally, every citizen must make their vote count. Most citizens live life without considering the consequences for their generation or the next generation. The public education system affects everyone as the system helps to mold future citizens. The public

needs to stand up for what is right and appropriate for the country and not just the privileged. Politicians and corporate reformers are the country's leaders. True leaders will guide and support everyone to success not just the privileged.

The public education system is necessary to preserve democracy (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). The strength of the nation lies with the people, not with a select few people, but with all the people (Ravitch, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). Politicians and corporate reformers will continue to use wealth and power to mislead the citizens as long as the citizens allow them to do so. American citizens need to realize and understand they have power in numbers and responsibility to unite the people in this common cause to save our public education system (Ravitch, 2014, 2010; Stitzlein, 2017). Once the message is out there, a media campaign can begin to get the views of the community. Every community is unique and requires different resources. Contact the local schools and unions to work with your community to bring about the will of the people. Instead of debating quarreling leaders, citizens need to explore alternative methods to solve the educational reform movement. Stitzlein (2017) stated:

> The effort is one of crafting and implementing solutions and upholding a responsibility to an ideal of democracy and public education that can improve life in schools. This positive spirit of change and transformation as a form of responsibility may help to overcome the currently dominant spirit of negativity and skepticism regarding teachers propagated by the accountability era. (p. 124)

This mixed methods study showed the participants of XYZ Elementary School: (a) experienced higher levels of intrinsic motivation when they had more autonomy, (b) already had a strong sense of purpose directed towards inspiring students to learn, (c) generally experienced low to medium levels of autonomy in the workplace, and (d) already were ready and willing to instigate change. The greatest recommendation for action will be to continue this type of study with public, private, and charter schools across America.

Recommendations for Further Study

To improve a system, each individual must clearly understand what actions to take. Today the public education system is used as a punching bag and blamed for everything. To improve a system or individual, one must develop a trusting relationship, provide training and support, and allow the individual or individuals involved the experience to lead others to the same destination. Criticizing, bullying, and blaming teachers will destroy the system one claims to preserve. Teachers must nuture children into the learning process and help guide other teachers to guide children into becoming future democratic citizens.

Goyal (2016) reported most schools run like prisons as the government dictates everything. Teachers possess very little autonomy, as the Autonomy Audit showed low to medium levels in time, task, and team; and, as professionals and experts in the field they have no voice concerning teaching practices. Goyal (2016) stated, "The system is the primary cause of students' unhappiness, boredom, apathy in learning, and diminishing levels of curiosity. The system is harmful" (p. 15). Unfortunately, society tends to punish

the victim by claiming the children cannot be taught, or it must be the teacher's fault or the school's fault (Goyal, 2016). The blame game just makes the situation worse as people tend to pick sides and fight. Children have a voice, especially about education, and the adults need to listen. Teachers want to teach and have children learn. So, it makes sense to train the teachers to engage students in curiosity. Students rarely feel engaged in taking a test; and, if teachers cannot engage the students in the testing process, then how can teachers be accountable for student test scores. The process itself is flawed. One recommendation is to study the motivation of the teachers and the students. Instigating rewards and punishments will not bring about the desired results. Study the motivation of the individuals involved in the teaching and learning process. The participants of the Individual Interviews and the What's Your Sentence activity have indicated the politicians and corporate reformers have absolutely no idea what motivates educators. Ten out of seventeen participants of the What's Your Sentence activity reported their sole purpose in life was directly related to teaching and learning. Interview participants elaborated with the idea that individuals cannot fix what they do not know or understand. Politicians and corporate reformers cannot fix problems from a distance when they do not have the understanding or motivation to improve the problem.

Another recommendation would be to not just study XYZ Elementary School, explore other schools for teacher and student motivation. Also, explore charter schools and private schools for teacher and student motivation. The acts of the politicians and corporate reformers increased childhood poverty, racism, and educational inequality; so,

by studying the motivation of both teacher and student, researchers can begin to understand the positive attributes of public, charter, and private schools.

The final topic of recommendations for action is the collaborative relationship between government and community through education. Brill (2011) contended the educators cannot compete with the wealth and prestige of the politicians and corporate reformers. Participants of the Individual Interviews reported motivation to leave public-school teaching is high for just about everyone. The constant harassment, emphasis on standardized testing, and the unwillingness to treat educators as professionals is a burden not too many teachers choose to contend with over a long period of time. Political officials, educational and business leaders, and professional educators have the responsibility to the youth of our country to educate them in the best way possible to ensure the strength of our democracy (Ravitch, 2010). The fight for wealth and prestige should be put aside for educating our youth. The government should not be involved or allow others to participate in destroying the opportunity to be educated publicly, privately, or through a charter school. The American government is supposed to represent the majority of the people and not just the wealthy citizens.

Conclusion

This transformative-emancipatory mixed methods case study has been turbulent. I chose a mixed-methods design to take advantage of both strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative data. I wanted the classroom teachers to have a voice and tell their side of the story. Teachers are not the enemy; however, in talking with the politicians and several corporate reformers, it seems educators are public enemy number

one. Many wars have begun over a single debate where both sides were incapable or unwilling to compromise. Politicians are willing to sacrifice a quality education for every citizen for greed and power. Teachers are so used to being degraded that they will not even attempt to fight back. The most important positive social change implication this study possesses is that, instead of competing against each other, politicians, corporate reformers, and educators need to explore the motivation of teachers in terms of intrinsic motivation to teach and learn.

I am the single researcher for this mixed methods study. I am also a classroom teacher. Therefore, I am biased because I know firsthand what it is like to be degraded, embarrassed, harassed, and disrespected. That is also why I was able to gain the trust of my colleagues and participants. I doubt if a non-teacher attempted to run this study, they would have any participants. Teachers find it difficult to trust for good reason. What I did not know going into this study is the depth of the corruption and misguided information surrounding the controversy and the toll it has taken on the country and its citizens. Being a classroom teacher, I have had to watch my step because I too could potentially become a liability in the eyes of the administration.

The single most important concept I believe I have learned through this entire process is that I need to be an informed citizen. Informed citizens are the check and balance system this country needs to remain honest. Unfortunately, every profession, every country, every culture has its share of dishonest and manipulative people. So, I cannot report all teachers are innocent and all politicians are corrupt. That would be dishonest. There are good teachers and there are some not so good teachers. It is the same

with politicians. What I cannot stand by and watch silently is the not so good politicians and corporate reformers taking advantage of the decent, hard-working, good teachers and the public education system. I believe being informed will allow the good in all of us to see the light. True reform will begin when participants will be willing and able to explore alternative solutions to educational reform. True leaders will emerge when individuals rise up to guide and support others in the pursuit of intrinsic motivation in the public-school system.

Jamie Vollmer began as an education critic or corporate reformer and, through his individual research, realized everything he was claiming was propaganda (Vollmer, 2010). Vollmer visited the schools, researched the reform movement, and came to realize the schools were functioning well, considering the obstacles. Vollmer's plea to restore public education to greatness involves communication. Vollmer (2010) stated teachers must develop a relationship with the community. By developing a positive relationship, teachers and the community can work together towards the same goal. The public-school system is complex; yet, working relationships are what will produce miraculous results because everyone is on the same team.

The result is clear. The claims made by politicians and corporate reformers do not apply to XYZ Elementary School. The claim of teachers being unwilling to adapt and change are untrue for XYZ Elementary School. The Organizational Change Readiness Assessment placed 75% of the participants in the Ready to Change quadrant, suggesting the majority of the participants are able and willing to change, as well as the leaders. The claim of teachers needing a merit-pay system to be properly motivated is untrue for XYZ

Elementary School. The What's Your Sentence activity placed ten out of seventeen participants with a main purpose in life centered around teaching and learning. The claim of teachers needing to be motivated through external measures is untrue for XYZ Elementary School. The Autonomy Audit shows 82% of the seventeen participants scoring 0-5 points for the category of team. The Autonomy Audit shows 65% of the seventeen participants scoring 0-5 points for the category of task. The Autonomy Audit shows 76% of the seventeen participants scoring 0-5 points for the category of time. The Autonomy Audit shows 35% of the seventeen participants scoring 0-5 points for the category of technique. The state and federal government's attempt at motivating educators through external means proved lower autonomy and less motivation. Individual Interview participants stated the government could not possibly be aware of what motivates an educator when the government refuses to communicate with teachers. Participants are frustrated with the expectations of the government and their unwillingness to collaborate, rather than to harass and degrade. The participants of this transformative-emancipatory mixed methods study want the opportunity to explore other options to reform America's public-school system than external motivation factors. The significance of this study is to inform the public of the true nature of the public debate between politicians, corporate reformers, and the educators of America. Further studies with other public-schools addressing the same questions revolving around teacher motivation may shed more light on the problem with public-school reform. Also, continuing research into charter schools and private schools with regards to teacher motivation may bring new helpful information to the problem of public-school reform.

America's public-schools exist to educate the masses, and it is the job of every citizen to

maintain and reform the organization.

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Appendix A: Organizational Change Readiness Assessment

Change Readiness Survey

Personal Change

1. Think of several changes you've made—behavioral, personal, relational, physical, or other changes—in the past five years. Please list them briefly here.

Change #1: _____

_____

Change #2: _____

_____

Change #3: _____

_____

Change #4: _____

_____

Change #5: _____

_____

Source: Reeves, D. (2009) p. 20.

2. Think of the change for which you exercised the greatest degree of

planning. This means that you identified the steps that you would take and you

knew clearly how to make the change. Identify just one change and list some of

the most important steps in the planning process.

Change: _____

_____

Step #1: _____

_____

Step #2: _____

_____

Step #3: _____

_____

Step #4: _____

_____

3. Think of the change for which you had the greatest *sense of urgency*.

Describe why the price of failure was high—much higher than the price of change.

If I failed to make this change, then . . .

_____

_____

_____

If I succeeded in making this change, then . . .

_____

_____

_____

Personal Change Score:

    Total for Change #1 _____

    Total for Change #2 _____

    Total for Change #3 _____

    Total for the *two highest changes* _____

Organizational Change Score:

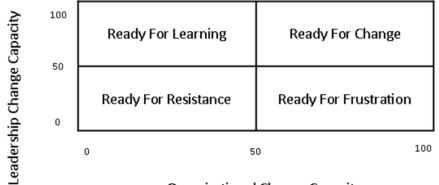   Total for Change #1 _____

    Total for Change #2 _____

    Total for Change #3 _____

    Total for the *two highest changes* _____

The total for the two highest changes in your Personal Change Score represents the vertical score. The total for the two highest changes in your Organizational Change Score represents the horizontal score. Use the two scores to enter an X in the appropriate box of the Change Readiness Matrix.

Change Readiness Matrix

Source: Reeves, D. (2009) pp. 25, 33.

Personal Change Readiness Assessment

Directions: For each change, enter a score of 1 to 10 in each column, with 1 representing no evidence of the characteristic described, and 10 representing an exceptional reflection of that characteristic.

Personal Change	Planning I planned in advance the steps I would take and knew clearly how to make the change.	Sense of Urgency I knew that the price of failing to change was much greater than the price of changing.	Personal Support My family and friends knew I was making a change and supported me.	Personal Focus I devoted time to initiating and maintaining the change despite my busy schedule.	Effect on Results I can measure the results of the change and they are clear and significant.
1.					
2.					
3.					

(Source: Reeves, 2009, p.24)

Organizational Change Readiness Assessment

Directions: For each change, enter a score of 1 to 10 in each column, with 1 representing no evidence of the characteristic described, and 10 representing an exceptional reflection of that characteristic.

| Organizational Change | Planning

Plans were clear, detailed, and effectively communicated. | Sense of Urgency

Widespread sense of the immediate need for change was apparent. | Stakeholder Support

Employees, clients, and the community understood and supported the change. | Leadership Focus

Senior leadership made the change their clear and consistent focus long after initiation. | Effect on Results

The change had a measurable and significant effect on results. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | | | | | |
| 2. | | | | | |
| 3. | | | | | |

(Source: Reeves, 2009, p.24).

Appendix B: Individual Teacher Interview Questions

Individual Teacher Interview questions

1) What do you think motivates you to be an effective teacher?

2) Do you feel you have autonomy with regards to time, task, team, and technique?

3) Do you feel like you are a master teacher? What attributes contribute to shaping a master teacher?

4) What is your purpose as an educator?

5) Do you feel you have or are capable of having flow-like experiences at school?

6) What is accountability to you?

7) Why do you think reform efforts have failed up to this point?

8) Are you skeptical of change with regards to education?

9) During NCLB were you eager to hide your failures or to share your failures?

10) Do you feel your school is a functioning PLC? Why or why not?

11) In a PLC are you eager to hide your failures or to share your failures with your colleagues?

Appendix C: Autonomy Audit

AUTONOMY AUDIT

Ask everyone in your department or on your team to respond to these four questions with a numerical ranking (using a scale of 0 to 10, with 0 meaning "almost none" and 10 meaning "a huge amount").
The figure will fall somewhere on a 40-point autonomy scale (with 0 being a North Korean prison and 40 being Woodstock).

1. How much autonomy do you have over your tasks at work—your main responsibilities and what you do in a given day?
2. How much autonomy do you have over your time at work—for instance, when you arrive, when you leave, and how you allocate your hours each day?
3. How much autonomy do you have over your team at work—that is, to what extent are you able to choose the people with whom you typically collaborate?
4. How much autonomy do you have over your technique at work—how you actually perform the main responsibilities of your job?

Appendix D: Flow Test

FLOW TEST

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi did more than discover the concept of "flow". He also introduced an ingenious new technique to measure it. Csikszentmihalyi and his University of Chicago team equipped participants in their research studies with electronic pagers. Then they paged people at random intervals (approximately eight times a day) for a week, asking them to describe their mental state at that moment. Compared with previous methods, these real-time reports proved far more honest and revealing.

You can use Csikszentmihalyi's methodological innovation in your own quest for mastery by giving yourself a "flow test". Set a reminder on your computer or mobile phone to go off at forty random times in a week. Each time your device beeps, write down what you're doing, how you're feeling, and whether you're in "flow". Record your observations, look at the patterns, and consider the following questions:

- Which moments produced feelings of "flow"? Where were you? What were you working on? Who were you with?

- Are certain times of day more flow-friendly than others? How could you restructure your day based on your findings?

- How might you increase the number of optimal experiences and reduce the moments when you felt disengaged or distracted?

Flow: is described as an optimal experience, in which the individual is in a mental state where focus is clear, feedback is immediate, and the challenge is not too difficult and not too easy.

Source: Pink (2009) pp. 112-113, 153-154.

Day: _____

Flow	Time of Day	What are you doing?	Feelings? Notes:
High/Med/ Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			
High/Med Low/No			

Daily Reflection Page

Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5

- Which moments produced feelings of "flow"? Where were you? What were you working on? Who were you with?
- Are certain times of the day more flow-friendly than others? How could you restructure your day based on your findings?
- How might you increase the number of optimal experiences and reduce the number of moments when you felt disengaged or distracted?
- If you're having doubts about your job or career, what does this exercise tell you about your true source of intrinsic motivation? (Pink, 2009, p. 154).

_____

_____

_____

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_____

Appendix E: What's Your Sentence?

WHAT'S YOUR SENTENCE?

In 1962, Clare Boothe Luce, one of the first women to serve in the U.S. Congress, offered some advice to President John F. Kennedy. "A great man," she told him, "is a sentence". Abraham Lincoln's sentence was: "He preserved the union and freed the slaves." Franklin Roosevelt's was: "He lifted us out of a Great Depression and helped us win a world war." Luce feared that Kennedy's attention was so splintered among different priorities that his sentence risked becoming a muddled paragraph.

You don't have to be a president—of the United States or of your local gardening club—to learn from this tale. One way to orient your life toward greater purpose is to think about your sentence. Maybe it's, "He raised four kids who became happy and healthy adults." Or "She invented a device that made people's lives easier." Or "He cared for every person who walked into his office regardless of whether that person could pay." Or "She taught two generations of children how to read."

As you contemplate your purpose, begin with the big question: *What's Your Sentence?*

Source: Pink (2009) pp. 154-155.

What's Your Sentence?

As you contemplate your purpose, begin with the big question: What's Your Sentence? Please do not refer to yourself by name or gender specific pronouns. You may use I, or gender-free pronouns, to keep everyone's identity confidential.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____ Yes, I agree to allow the researcher to use my sentence in the study

entitled Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation without reference to myself.

_____ No, I do not agree to allowing the researcher to use my sentence in the

study entitled Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation, which does not include any

reference to myself.

Appendix F: Daniel Pink's Permission Email

Daniel Pink's Permission Email

Date: December 6, 2014

I am a doctoral student researcher and I am writing this letter to inform and request official consent of using your measurement tool(s):

- The Flow Test Experiment
- The Autonomy Audit
- What's Your Sentence

The researcher first came across these tools while researching for their Doctoral Study, Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation. The book where the material was found in is: *Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us* by Daniel H. Pink.

In your book the researcher's understanding is that you intend to share these measurements with others in order to promote change in education and other organizations. On page 149, you indicate your desire to hear about progress and/or use of the materials. So, the researcher is writing to inform you of their intention to use the above listed instruments with your consent.

Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation is the title of the researcher, Mindi Hennefer's, Doctoral Study. The Problem Statement: Given the current process of holding classroom teachers directly accountable for individual student achievement through standardized testing, teachers at XYZ Elementary School are currently only motivated to change through rewards and punishments (Motivation 2.0). The Purpose Statement: The basic purpose of this mixed methods study is to explore processes other than Motivation 2.0 (rewards and punishments) that motivate teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to learn about and use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability and, thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to learn.

The researcher, Mindi Hennefer, is currently employed at XYZ Elementary School as a classroom teacher. Mrs. Hennefer is seeking an Ed.D. from Walden University and officially requests your permission to use the above mentioned materials. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,
Mindi Hennefer
XXXXXXXXXXX

Daniel Pink <XXXXXXXXXXXXX> 3/19/15

Mindi —

So long as everything is fully attributed, I don't have a problem with this. Good luck on the research.

Cheers,
Dan Pink

_____
DANIEL H. PINK
e: XXXXXXXXX
u: XXXXXXXXX
t: XXXXXXXXXXXX

** Sign up for our irregular, irreverent (and free!) newsletter:
XXXXXXXXXXXXXX
_____

Appendix G: Douglas Reeves's Permission Email

Douglas Reeves' Permission Email Date: December 6, 2014

I am a doctoral student researcher and I am writing this letter to inform and request official consent of using your measurement tool(s):

- The Organizational Readiness to Change Assessment

The researcher first came across these tools while researching for their Doctoral Study, Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation. The book where the material was found in is: *Leading Change in Your School: How to Conquer Myths, Build Commitment, and Get Results* by Douglas B. Reeves.

In your book the researcher's understanding is that you intend to share these measurements with others in order to promote change in education and other organizations. In Sections 2 and 3, you talk about the assessment and you invite readers to take the assessment. So, the researcher is writing to inform you of their intention to use the above listed instruments with your consent. The researcher is conducting a doctoral mixed methods study at one elementary school where the researcher is employed to instigate appropriate motivation and change.

Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation is the title of the researcher, Mindi Hennefer's, Doctoral Study. The Problem Statement: Given the current process of holding classroom teachers directly accountable for individual student achievement through standardized testing, teachers at XYZ Elementary School are currently only motivated to change through rewards and punishments (Motivation 2.0). The Purpose Statement: The basic purpose of this mixed methods study is to explore processes other than Motivation 2.0 (rewards and punishments) that motivate teachers to change, resulting in their choosing to learn about and use all possible strategies to help increase the quality of their teaching ability and, thus, their indirect influence on their students' choice to learn.

The researcher, Mindi Hennefer, is currently employed at XYZ Elementary School as a classroom teacher. Mrs. Hennefer is seeking an Ed.D. from Walden University and officially requests your permission to use the above mentioned materials. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,
Mindi Hennefer
XXXXXXXXXXX
██████████

W: Permission to DReeves (Thread:1324405)

Inbox x

Permissions <XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX>

4/
14
/1
5

to me

In response to your request below, please consider this permission to use the excerpt(s) from the referenced publication for your personal research purposes. Should you include excerpts or cite content in a paper or some other report form, please credit the source accordingly. If your research results in use of our content in a product or publication for commercial release, please contact me again to secure further rights to do so.
Thank you for your interest in ASCD and good luck with your dissertation.

Sincerely yours,

KATY WOGEC • Sr. Paralegal
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
P XXXXXXXXXX· F XXXXXXXXXX ·XXXXXXXXXXXXX

Join us:

From: Scott Hennefer [mailto:XXXXXXXXXXX]
Sent: Saturday, April 11, 2015 1:52 PM
To: XXXXXXXXXXX
Subject: Permission to DReeves (Thread:1324405)

This email is directed to Douglas Reeves author of Leading Change in your School. I am currently in a graduate program through Walden University working on my doctorate entitled Intrinsic Classroom Teacher Motivation. I am currently working as an elementary educator and I am seeking permission to use the Organizational Readiness to Change Survey. Please let me know if I have contacted the right people in seeking permission. Thank you for your time.

Mindi Hennefer
XXXXXXXXX