

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' AND ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER
MOTIVATION

by

Jody Mac Foreman

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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APPROVED BY:

Dr. Gary Kuhne, Doctor of Education, Committee Chair

Dr. Micheal Patrick, Doctor of Education, Committee Member

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to compare elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. By identifying that differences exist between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of what motivates teachers, it allows for administrators to gain a better understanding and possibly design more effective strategies for enhancing teacher motivation. Additionally, it opens the door for further studies, not only with elementary teachers and administrators, but at the middle and high school levels as well. This study used a quantitative methodology with a causal comparative design. The sample population came from two school districts in South Carolina, the Alpha School District (ASD, a pseudonym) and the Beta School District (BSD, a pseudonym). The ASD contained a mix of rural, suburban, and urban stakeholders while the BSD was rural. The sample included 251 elementary teachers and 31 administrators from twelve schools in the two districts who completed the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey (TMJS) electronically through Survey Monkey. The sample size for this study included a total of 282 participants. All data was collected by Survey Monkey. Overall statistical comparisons of elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation and comparisons of teacher motivation as delineated by gender were analyzed with independent samples t-tests. Comparisons of teachers based on their length of service were analyzed with ANOVA's. Results indicated statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Results indicated no difference in perceptions of motivation for either gender or length of service. Implications for practice and recommendations for future studies are included.

Keywords: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, two-factor theory, elementary teachers, elementary administrators.

Dedication

Without Jesus Christ, my Lord and Savior I would not have been able to accomplish this (or anything else). Therefore, the first dedication must go to Him. Next, this manuscript is dedicated to my wife Shilo for the countless hours that she has given up with me in order to finish this endeavor. Without her perseverance, successfully completing this dissertation would not have been possible. This document is also dedicated to my parents Mac and Diane Foreman for instilling in me the importance of academics and the value of hard-work. My parents-in-law, Chicago Fred and Sandy Carpenter deserve credit for assisting when needed and always providing encouragement. My children (Raquel, Ashley, Allison, Holly, Adam, and Gannon) deserve credit, as well, for giving up much quality time with their father without complaining about it. Finally, I would also like to dedicate this manuscript to my grandparents, Robert and Shirley Palmer, Jim and Wanda Jones, and Nellie Foreman and Alvie Foreman. Although only Jim Jones is still alive to help celebrate this occasion, the rest have not been forgotten.

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List of Abbreviations

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Kindergarten through Twelfth Grade (K-12)

Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey (TMJS)

Alpha School District (ASD)

Beta School District (BSD)

Teacher of the Year (TOY)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Quality education is fundamental to obtaining economic freedom and giving students a better chance at escaping poverty (Salifu & Agbenyega, 2014). Maintaining a strong and effective core of teachers assists with quality education. Teacher motivation is an issue which affects how strong and effective America's teachers are for a number of reasons. Increased motivation of teachers has a positive effect on student academic performance (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Recepoglu, 2013; Iliva & Ifeoma, 2015; Bollough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012). Better teaching practices can be linked to teacher motivation (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014; Arifin, 2015). Simply maintaining an adequate supply of teachers is also necessary to keep the American education system functioning properly. Improved teacher motivation helps prevent teachers from exiting the profession and therefore assists in preventing teacher shortages (Mertler, 2002; Griffin, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Nawez & Yasin, 2015). Therefore, a study focusing on teacher motivation will be beneficial for a variety of reasons.

Background

Motivation research has been around for a long time. In the 1930's Henry Murray pioneered achievement motivation and asserted that people have a desire for accomplishment and mastery of ideas (Blair-Brocker & Ernst, 2013). The 1940's saw Abraham Maslow propose a 'need theory' of motivation which eventually led to his well known 'hierarchy of needs' pyramid (Grison, Heatherton, & Gazzaniga, 2015). David McClelland proposed a new achievement theory in the 1950's in which he theorized that individuals have a need to master

difficult challenges and attempt to outperform others (Weiten, 2013). From these early theories, motivation research began moving into the realm of workplace motivation.

One of the pioneering efforts in the subject of worker motivation included Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) research with 203 accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Herzberg's et al. (1959) research inspired the two-factor theory. The two-factor theory asserts that there are two types of motivational factors, intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors, or as Herzberg et al. (1959) defined them, motivators and hygienes. The identification of separate motivational factors spurred many others to continue research in the field of worker motivation. David McGregor's research followed Herzberg's et al. (1959) study. McGregor (1960) formulated Theory X and Theory Y from his research. McMillan, McConnell, and O'Sullivan (2016) explain the contrasts in Theory X and Theory Y with their analysis that the two ends of the spectrum include the view that humans are basically lazy and require external stimulation (Theory X) or that true motivation can be internal to an individual (Theory Y). From Herzberg's and MacGregor's research in the 1950's and 1960's, further research on worker motivation followed.

Motivation continued to be a highly researched topic in many occupational fields. For example, Gardner (1977) studied it with London bus crews, Frey and Edinburg (1978) with social workers, and Allan and Sienko (1998) focusing on temporary workers. Research involving the motivation of teachers was the emphasis of a number of other studies as well (Gaziel, 2001; Kocobas, 2009; Brien, Hass, & Savoie, 2012; Convey, 2014). Beginning in the early part of the 21st Century, some of the focus regarding teacher motivation began shifting towards a comparison of teacher and administrator perceptions of teacher motivation (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014; Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016). The sheer volume

of current studies involving teacher motivation demonstrates the impact and importance of teacher motivation to society, the education community, and the education system overall.

Teachers shape the future of a nation through their influence on the minds and souls of the younger generations (Afshar & Doosti, 2016). Because teachers play such a vital role in society and in the overall educational process, the motivational status of teachers is important as well. The motivational status of the teachers of a nation effects many areas which relate to society as a whole, the educational community, and the overall educational system. A discussion of some of the specific realms with which teacher motivation affects follows.

A number of studies report that increases in teacher motivation leads to better teaching practices (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Ceresoli et al., 2014; Arifin 2015). Because one result of increases in teacher motivation is better teaching practices, it makes sense that increasing teacher motivation would also lead to a corresponding increase in student academic performance as well. Accordingly, there is much research which demonstrates that with an increase in teacher motivation, there is also an increase in student academic performance (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Recepoglu, 2013; Iliva & Ifeoma, 2015; Bollough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012). In addition to increases in student academic performances and better teaching practices, another benefit of increasing teacher motivation is that it enhances student-teacher relationships (Lam, 2012). Additionally, there are still other benefits to the educational system and to society as a whole that involves the issue of teacher motivation. A discussion of the conceptual framework follows.

The issue of teacher motivation flows from the problem of worker motivation. This study's conceptual framework is derived primarily from the works of Herzberg and McGregor. Herzberg et al. (1959) created the two factor or motivator hygiene theory which stated that there

are two types of motivational factors. One type, which Herzberg refers to as ‘motivators’, is similar to intrinsic motivation. Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that ‘motivators’ will lead to satisfaction if present and ‘no satisfaction’ if not present. The other type of motivational factors include what Herzberg et al. (1959) labeled ‘hygienes’ or what is known as extrinsic motivational factors. Herzberg (1959) argued that ‘motivators’ lead to ‘satisfaction’ or ‘no satisfaction’, while hygienes lead to ‘no dissatisfaction’ if present and ‘dissatisfaction’ if absent. Thus, if managers want to increase the ‘satisfaction’ of their workers they need to help them with intrinsic motivation and if they want to prevent dissatisfaction, they need to do increase extrinsic motivation.

McGregor’s (1960) research led to his creation of Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X and Theory Y are beliefs held by managers. The assumptions of Theory X are that the manager’s subordinates do not like to work, require coercion to complete the tasks, look to others for guidance, and do not want to be held accountable (Seeger, 2015). The assumptions of Theory Y are that subordinates can be intrinsically motivated to work, can regulate their own performance, and prefer to be held accountable for their actions. Highhouse (2011) noted that Theory X and Y are not strategies, but beliefs that guide a leader’s actions. Administrators who hold Theory X viewpoints do not consider workers capable of intrinsic motivation. This concept is important because an administrator’s outlook on teachers’ ability to self-motivate will greatly affect how an administrator approaches the task of managing teachers. Herzberg’s two factors of motivation and McGregor’s identification of two types of administrator/manager beliefs help inform this study on teacher and administrator perceptions of teacher motivation.

The background for this study includes a historical overview of motivation studies in general and teacher motivation in specific, a society at large discussion, and a discussion of the

conceptual framework for this research. Research on motivation has been extensive and dates back throughout much of the previous century. Pioneering work by Herzberg (1959) and McGregor (1960) were the impetus for later work on motivation. The societal benefits of enhancing motivation for teachers was found to be extensive and includes the idea that increased teacher motivation enhances teaching practices, increases student academic performance, promotes better relationships between teachers and students, and helps to prevent teaching shortages. The theoretical framework for this study is derived from the work of Herzberg's et al. (1959) two-factor theory and McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y. These theories help set the stage for the continuance of further studies into the domain of teacher motivation.

Problem Statement

Although the topic of teacher motivation has been extensively researched, there is a niche in this body of research which has yet to be explored. Only four studies have been found which address the topic of teacher motivation by comparing teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. The primary responsibility for increasing teacher motivation belongs to administrators (Kocobas, 2009). It is for this reason that studies regarding the motivation of teachers should involve and include administrators. However, as previously mentioned, only four studies were found which compared teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation.

Bexley (2005) in Mississippi and Brown and Hughes (2008) in Arkansas studied K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation factors. Both of these studies found statistically significant differences between the two groups. Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) researched the motivational factors of Arab teachers by comparing K-12 teacher responses with K-12 administrator responses. Their research also found differences between the

two groups. Boyle (2014) researched the same topic in Georgia, but used only high school teachers and administrators.

Boyle's (2014) research only identified differences between high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Bexley (2005), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) researched K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation, but did so without delineating between the teaching levels. The previous studies' data detailing the differences between 'K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation allows administrators to tailor professional development to the specific needs of their teachers. However, the value of the studies would have been greater if administrators knew the results for teachers of only their teaching level like Boyle (2014) did for high school teachers and administrators. Because Boyle's (2014) research excluded elementary and middle school teachers and administrators, and Bexley (2005), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) did not delineate their results, a gap has developed.

No research has been found which compares elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Additionally, there is little research regarding gender or length of service differences for elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Bexley (2005), Boyle (2014), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) have requested further research on this realm of teacher motivation. Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) stated that further research should be encouraged to clarify the factors influencing teacher motivation. Boyle (2014) likewise argued that her high school study should be expanded to the other grade levels (elementary and middle school). Therefore, in addition to looking for gender and length of service differences in elementary teachers, this study will identify whether differences exist between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation for

elementary teachers and administrators. Because research has not identified whether differences exist regarding perceptions of teacher motivation between elementary administrators and elementary teachers, a problem has developed. The problem is that it is not known if there are differences between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to compare elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. The need for research of this nature developed as a result of previous research focusing exclusively on K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation without delineating between the teaching levels (Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016; Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008) and by Boyle's (2014) focus on only high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions. Therefore no previous research was found that delineated teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation at either the elementary or middle school levels. Likewise, little research was found regarding differences between male and female elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation or differences between elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation by lengths of service.

The primary independent variable for this study is the job status (teacher, administrator) of the participants. Other independent variables include teacher gender (male, female) and teacher length of service (early career, mid-career, late career). The dependent variable for this research is 'teacher motivation scores' from Mertler's (1992) Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey (TMJS). The population for this study includes all elementary teachers and administrators in the ASD and the BSD in South Carolina. The TMTJ survey's theoretical foundation was informed with Herzberg's two factor theory (Mertler, 1992).

Significance of the Study

Previous studies have researched teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation (Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016; Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014). However, no study has been found which researched elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Bexley (2005), Boyle (2014), and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) have recommended future research in this realm. Principals are in a key position to effect teacher motivation (Finnigan, 2012). Therefore, it stands to reason that administrators can better assist teachers' motivation if they are aware of what motivates teachers.

Previous studies identified differences in perceptions of teacher motivation at a K-12 level without delineating between elementary, middle school, and high school teachers and administrators (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016). This study will go one step beyond the previous studies by ascertaining whether differences exist between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. This study will also make a theoretical contribution to Herzberg's et al. (1959) two factor theory by adding to the knowledge base of whether elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation differ with the participants in the 12 participating schools. An empirical contribution to the overall knowledge of teacher motivation will likewise result from the data of this research due to the quantitative nature of the research and the fact that the data will be collected from both the ASD and the BSD, neither of which have been used in prior teacher motivation studies. Although a convenience sample is used and therefore results may not be generalized to other locations, data from this study may be used to inform administrators of both the ASD and the BSD as to whether their elementary teachers and administrators agree as to what motivates teachers or whether there are differences between their teachers based on the

demographic categories of gender and length of service. Likewise, results of this research may help promote research in other locations and contribute to the overall knowledge of teacher motivation and the possible differences in perception of teacher motivation between teachers and administrators.

Research Questions

RQ1: Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ2: Are there any differences between male and female elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ3: Are there any differences between early career, mid-career, and late career elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Definitions

1. *Motivators*– Herzberg (1959) used the term motivators to denote intrinsic motivation. Mertler (1992) included the following of Herzberg's motivators in his Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey: sense of achievement, recognition, job significance, and professional growth.
2. *Hygienes*– Herzberg (1959) used to term hygiene to denote extrinsic forms of motivation. Mertler (1992) included the following hygiene factors of Herzberg's theory in his Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey: monetary rewards, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships.

3. *Two Factor Theory*– The two-factor theory is the other name for Herzberg’s (1959) motivator hygiene theory.
4. *Intrinsic Motivation*- When one does something only for the internal feeling it fosters (Wyatt, 2013). Intrinsic motivation refers to the desire to perform a task or activity without any hope of reward outside of the satisfaction derived from performing the activity. Intrinsic motivation and Herzberg’s (1959) ‘motivator’ mean the same thing. Some of Herzberg’s (1959) intrinsic factors include professional growth, sense of achievement, and the meaningfulness of the work itself.
5. *Extrinsic Motivation*– When someone derives their desire to work from sources outside of the work itself. Herzberg et al. (1959) listed some extrinsic factors as interpersonal relationships, monetary rewards, and working conditions.
6. *Job Status*–Job status is the primary independent variable for this study. Job status refers to whether the participant is classified as an administrator or a teacher (Boyle, 2014).
7. *Gender* – Gender is an independent variable in this study and it refers to whether the participant is classified as a male teacher or female teacher.
8. *Length of Service* – Length of Service is an independent variable in this study and it refers to how long (in years) a participant has been a teacher. Early career teachers are defined as beginning teachers up to ten years of service. Mid-career teachers are defined as having taught from eleven years to twenty years. Late career teachers are defined as teachers who have served twenty-one years or more.
9. *Perception of Motivation Scores*– ‘Perceptions of motivation scores’ is the dependent variable for this study. The perceptions of motivation scores will be captured via

participant responses to various categories pertaining to Herzberg's (1959) factors as stated in Mertler's (1992) Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey.

10. *Theory X* – McGregor's (1960) theory in which managers or employers hold the opinion that employees lack intrinsic motivation and will only be motivated by coercion or other means used by management to force workers to work.
11. *Theory Y* – Theory Y is McGregor's (1960) theory in which managers or employers hold the opinion that employees are capable of intrinsic motivation and that they have an internal drive to perform well at work. In this theory, managers only have to try to assist employees in reaching their full potential and no coercion is necessary.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The purpose of this causal-comparative, quantitative study is to determine if differences exist between elementary administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation on the TMJS survey in the ASD and the BSD in South Carolina. Additionally, motivation differences among the teacher demographics of gender and length of service will be explored. This chapter consists of four major sections: an overview, the theoretical framework of the study, related literature, and a summary. The theoretical framework section identifies the theory/theories that provide the foundation for the research and explains how the problem under investigation relates to the theory. Next, the related literature section includes a broad, balanced overview and synthesis of existing literature related to the research topics. The chapter concludes with a focused summary. This summary addresses what is currently known and not known about teacher motivation. General and specific topics which will be found in the literature review follows.

Theoretical Framework

The ideas of Herzberg (1959) and McGregor (1960) are the foundation upon which this study is built. Herzberg's two factor theory and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y provide the basic constructs on the phenomenon of teacher motivation. To begin a discussion on teacher motivation, one must first address worker motivation because in any workplace setting, results matter.

In 1959, Herzberg sought to find out what motivates people at work. He formulated a theory referred to as the motivator-hygiene or two-factor theory. Herzberg claimed his theory encompassed all types of workers in all occupations (Herzberg et al., 1959). Basically, Herzberg

opined that working circumstances could be categorized as either a factor for satisfaction or a factor for dissatisfaction. Because worker motivation is an important topic in a highly industrialized society, research regarding motivation continued throughout the 1970's to the present time (e.g., Gardner, 1977; Spillane, 1977; Herzberg, 1987; Gazieli, 2001; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Kocobas, 2009; Griffin, 2010; Convey, 2014; Boyle, 2014).

In *The Motivation to Work*, Herzberg et al. (1959) conducted interviews with 203 industrial accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania in order to learn more about their job-related events and how those events made them feel. The authors used a qualitative technique called the 'critical incident' method to research job satisfaction and employee motivation in order to develop a framework that could be applied to all types of workers and organizations. The critical incident technique, which is a narrative method, involved asking workers to think of a time or incident at work that led to either a positive or negative feeling. The workers were then asked to describe the incident and the feelings associated with the event. The analyses of these statements led Herzberg to formulate his motivator hygiene or two-factor theory of motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959).

The two-factor theory asserts that there are some factors that cause job satisfaction (intrinsic factors) and another set of factors that cause job dissatisfaction (extrinsic factors). Extrinsic factors were labeled 'hygiene' factors and their absence could lead to job dissatisfaction, but their presence could not lead to job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) coined the term hygiene because these factors act in a similar manner to the principles of medical hygiene. Medical hygiene can prevent, but not cure disease. Similarly, extrinsic factors can prevent dissatisfaction, but cannot cause satisfaction. Hygiene factors include (a) pay, (b) fringe

benefits, (c) company policies, (d) working conditions, (e) interpersonal relations, (f) job security, and (g) positional status.

Accordingly, Herzberg et al. (1959) labeled the set of intrinsic factors that caused job satisfaction as motivators. Motivators include (a) recognition, (b) sense of achievement, (c) responsibility, (d) growth and promotional opportunities, and (e) the meaningfulness of the work itself. Essentially Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not two ends of one continuum. At the other end of the 'job dissatisfaction' continuum is 'no job dissatisfaction'. Herzberg et al. (1959) summarized the relationship between motivator and hygiene factors:

Poor working conditions, bad company policies and administration, and bad supervision will lead to job dissatisfaction. Good company policies, good administration, good supervision, and good working conditions will not lead to positive job attitudes. In opposition to this, as far as our data has gone, recognition, achievement, interesting work, responsibility, and advancement all lead to positive job attitudes. Their absence will much less frequently lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959, p. 82).

Herzberg further asserted that the findings from his study, along with corroboration from many other studies that used different techniques, suggest that the factors that produce job satisfaction and motivation are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. In 1959, Herzberg et al. opined that the leading causes of job dissatisfaction are hygiene (extrinsic) factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, and salary. He went on to say that leading factors for job satisfaction are motivator (intrinsic) factors such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. This is important in the educational setting because every

administrator needs to be aware of what specific policies and actions help create job satisfaction and motivation and which factors lead to poor motivation and a sense of dissatisfaction.

Throughout the years, Herzberg's Motivator Hygiene theory has received criticism (Gardner, 1977; Spillane, 1977). In fact, Gardner (1977) asserted that more than half of the published evidence contradicts the motivator hygiene theory. Also, Spillane (1977) criticized Herzberg's methodology itself and argued that Herzberg should have acknowledged that worker's themselves would claim responsibility for their own intrinsic motivators and therefore be the cause of their own success. Spillane went on to say that it should also have been evident to Herzberg that dissatisfied workers would argue that they are the victims of extrinsic circumstances beyond their control.

Despite criticisms, support for Herzberg's theory has been found in many contemporary studies (e.g., Frick & Drucker, 2011; Gaziel, 2001; Purohit & Bandyopadhyay, 2014; Wilson & Zhang, 2011). Herzberg's concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation provide a platform for categorizing motivational factors and continue to be used in studies related to teacher motivation (e.g., Bexley, 2005; Boyle, 2014; Brown & Hughes, 2008). In fact, Spytak, Marsland, and Ulmer (1999) observed that Herzberg's ideas offer a reasonable starting point when one considers how to manage staff.

Because Herzberg's theory offers a reasonable platform for categorizing both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation, it makes sense that survey instruments dealing with the topic of worker motivation would use his theory. Accordingly, when Mertler (1992) designed the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey, the theory that he based his instrument off of was Herzberg's motivator-hygiene or two-factor theory (C. Mertler, Personal Communication, January 20, 2015). Mertler further stated that one will notice that many of the topics in his

survey come directly from Herzberg's basic theory. Mertler selected seven of Herzberg's most highly ranked motivation factors in designing his instrument. Mertler included four of Herzberg's intrinsic factors (job significance, recognition, sense of achievement, and professional growth) and three of his extrinsic factors (working conditions, monetary rewards, and interpersonal relationships). Herzberg's two factor theory provides a sound and rational starting point for research studies and instruments involving worker motivation.

Herzberg's study (1959) which identified motivational variables and labeled them as either intrinsically rewarding or extrinsically rewarding may be dated and perhaps flawed. However, it provides a foundation upon which future studies on worker motivation were launched. In a profession such as teaching, many of the rewards are intrinsic and come from the helping, nurturing nature of the profession. Of course pay, benefits, and other extrinsic rewards also impact motivation.

The research questions which guide this study stem from Herzberg's theory and Mertler's instrument (which was based off Herzberg's theory). The first research question involves finding out whether differences exist between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as captured by Mertler's (1992) overall scale. The second and third research questions involve finding out whether differences exist between teachers based on the variables gender and lengths of service respectively. The independent variables for this study include job status (administrator, teacher), gender (male, female), and length of service (early career, mid-career, late career). The dependent variable is the 'teacher motivation scores' as identified through Mertler's TMJS Survey. The research questions use Herzberg's motivation factors to help identify differences in teacher motivation factors between teachers and administrators and between teachers based on the demographic categories of gender and of length of service.

However, the theoretical foundation for this study comes not only from Herzberg and his two factor theory, but also from MacGregor and his Theory X and Theory Y which played a role in Herzberg's later work and also in this study.

During the years following his 1959 work, Herzberg continued his studies on worker motivation. As Highhouse (2011) noted, Herzberg's later study (1987) was greatly influenced by McGregor's (1960) seminal book, *The Human Side of Enterprise*. In his 1960 work, McGregor also studied the idea of worker motivation. He formulated Theory X and Theory Y and asserted that these theories lead to assumptions by management that guide leaders' actions. McGregor's ideas acknowledge that managers will make assumptions about worker motivation. Some managers will credit workers with the ability to self-motivate. These managers see workers as willing to perform their jobs well based on their need for intrinsic rewards; they see workers as in control of their own work ethic. On the other hand, McGregor opined that some managers view workers as basically lazy with the tendency to avoid work and responsibility.

Theory X managers believe that workers need to be coaxed and coerced into performing job duties. The assumptions of Theory X are that the manager's subordinates do not like to work, require coercion to complete the tasks, look to others for guidance, and do not want to be held accountable (Seeger, 2015). The assumptions of Theory Y are that subordinates can be intrinsically motivated to work, can regulate their own performance, and prefer to be held accountable for their actions. Highhouse (2011) stated that Theory X and Y are not strategies, but beliefs that guide a leader's actions. Administrators who hold Theory X viewpoints do not consider workers capable of intrinsic motivation. This concept is important because an administrator's outlook on teachers' ability to self-motivate will greatly affect how an administrator approaches the task of managing teachers.

Accordingly, McGregor's (1960) theory about administrators' beliefs and Herzberg's (1959) theoretical foundation with his various motivator and hygiene factors play an important role in this study. Identifying factors that affect teacher motivation and then ascertaining whether administrators agree with teachers about what motivates teachers are essential steps in administrators being able to foster teacher motivation. Consequently, this study expands Herzberg's idea of evaluating an individual's own perceptions to a study of the relationships of their perception with that of another individual (administrators). In essence, this study extends Herzberg's ideas into the social psychology realm. Administrators who hold a worldview of Theory X essentially believe that workers are incapable of intrinsic motivation. This attitude is in direct contrast to those who hold views that support Theory Y and feel that workers are more intrinsically motivated. Whether discussing assembly line work or teaching, there is little doubt as to the importance of management and administration in regards to employee motivation and job satisfaction (Kocobas, 2009). While Herzberg (1959) provided a means to label and classify forms of motivation, McGregor's ideas (1960) add to the understanding of how to conceptualize the role of administrators in teacher motivation.

Related Literature

The related literature section begins with a general look at worker motivation and progresses to specific information about the complex issue of teacher motivation with an emphasis on differences of the perceptions of teacher motivation by elementary administrators and elementary teachers, as well as differences between male and female elementary teachers and differences between elementary teachers with varying lengths of service. A discussion of the most useful way to conceptualize teacher motivation from a theoretical standpoint is included. The literature review also discusses the major topics included in this literature review.

The major topics include: the importance of teacher motivation, perceptions of teacher motivation by administrators, the importance of the administrator regarding teacher motivation, perceptions of teacher motivation by elementary school teachers, the impact of gender on elementary teachers' motivation, and the impact of length of service on elementary teachers' motivation. Research found on all of these topics was located from many sources.

Existing literature on these topics was located by searching the foundational and current scholarly, peer reviewed journals in the databases of the Liberty University on-line library. Common themes found in the literature on motivation include morale (Fernet, 2012; Mertler, 2002), increased production and efficiency (Siddique, Aslam, Khan, & Fatima, 2011), and job motivation (Griffin, 2010; Kocobas, 2009; Ciner & Saracli, 2015). These themes, along with the search terms used to find and identify relevant articles included teachers, administrators, motivation, motivation factors, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, elementary teachers, middle school teachers, high school teachers, Herzberg, two-factor theory, motivator-hygiene, McGregor, Theory X, Theory Y and various combinations of the aforementioned terms.

Additionally, relevant books and dissertations were used as sources of information. These were located by perusing citations in the reference sections of pertinent journal articles and books and from personal recommendations from experts in the field. Also, a Google search was conducted for dissertations regarding teacher and administrator perceptions of motivation that revealed Boyle's (2014) and Bexley's (2005) dissertations on the subject. Boyle's (2014) study was located from a Google search, and Bexley's (2005) research was accessed through ProQuest. Initially, Herzberg's seminal book, *The Motivation to Work* (1959) was used as a historical background on the subject of worker motivation. The dissertations of Bexley (2005)

and Boyle (2014), as well as the studies conducted by Brown and Hughes (2008) and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) identified a number of gaps regarding perceptions of teacher motivation.

The literature review revealed that very little research exists which explores the differences between administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Bexley (2005) and Brown and Hughes (2008), in Mississippi and Arkansas respectively, researched differences between K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation and found differences between the groups. Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) studied this issue with Arab teachers and administrators. Boyle (2014) wanted to find out whether the differences found by Bexley and Brown and Hughes at the K-12 level applied to teachers and administrators at the high school level. Boyle's (2014) study revealed that there were differences between high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Boyle (2014) then suggested that further research should be conducted in the lower grade levels (elementary and middle school) to see if there were differences at these levels as well. Therefore, the purpose of this study originates from where the problem was first identified: in those studies involving comparisons of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. A further discussion of the four aforementioned studies follows.

The most recent addition to the study of teacher motivation through the comparison of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation was conducted by Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016). Theirs was the first study found which explored this topic outside of the United States. Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) captured Arab teachers' and Arab administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. They found differences between the two groups, which are discussed later.

The most recent American study of the problem that compares perceptions of teachers and administrators on teacher motivation that was found in the literature search was by Boyle (2014). Boyle (2014) conducted a study on perceptions of teacher motivation in a high school in Judy County, Georgia. Boyle (2014) studied high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as well as teacher perceptions of teacher motivation among some demographics including gender and lengths of service. Boyle found statistically significant overall differences between teachers and administrators regarding teacher motivation and also statistically significant differences based on gender. Boyle did not elaborate on why she was interested in this topic, but she did assert that her idea for the study stemmed in part from the similar research by Brown and Hughes (2008).

In 2008, Brown and Hughes researched teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation in elementary and secondary schools in Arkansas. Brown and Hughes (2008) found statistically significant overall results between teachers' and administrators' perceptions and statistically significant differences in perception of teacher motivation based on gender. Brown and Hughes (2008) cited that the idea for their study came from Bexley's (2005) similarly titled research which was conducted in Mississippi.

No research on the topic of teacher and administrator perceptions of teacher motivation could be found which pre-dates Bexley's. Likewise, Bexley (2005) asserted that she could not find any prior research on this topic in her literature search. In 2005, Bexley conducted a study that focused on school improvement through the comparison of K-12 teacher and administrator perceptions of teacher motivation. Like Brown and Hughes (2008), Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016), and Boyle (2014), Bexley found statistically significant overall differences between teachers and administrators. Each of the authors of these studies (Arar & Massry-Herzllah,

2016; Boyle, 2014; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Bexley, 2005) made recommendations for future studies based on their research and findings.

Research has demonstrated that there are differences in perceptions of teacher motivation at the K-12 level (Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016; Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008) and at the high school level (Boyle, 2014). However, no research was found which explored the possibility of differences in perceptions of teacher motivation between administrators and teachers for the lower levels (elementary and middle school). In 2014, Boyle requested future studies on the topic of comparing elementary administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation and middle school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Likewise, both Bexley (2005) and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) asserted that future research should be conducted with teacher and administrator perceptions in other realms such as elementary or middle schools, and in other teacher demographics such as teacher gender and teacher length of service.

This review of the related literature turns to a brief restatement of what will be found in this chapter. Because teacher motivation is a focal point of this study, the related literature topics begin with a brief section regarding why teacher motivation is important. The second and third topics of this section present overall findings of previous research regarding what administrators think motivates teachers followed by a section discussing the importance of the administrator in the process of teacher motivation. The related literature then proceeds towards a discussion of the findings of overall teacher perceptions of teacher motivation followed by elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation followed by findings and discussions of teacher motivation as delineated by gender and length of service.

The Importance of Teacher Motivation

The motivation of teachers has an impact on students. When teachers are motivated, it can have a positive impact on the achievements of students. A number of researchers posit that teaching practices are enhanced with higher teacher motivation (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Demir, 2011; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Arifin, 2015). Student performance likewise, can be linked to better teaching practices by motivated teachers (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Recepolgu, 2013; Iliya & Ifeoma, 2015; Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Klusman, Richter, & Ludtke, 2016). Increasing student performance is a laudable goal which helps establish the relevance of the topic of teacher motivation.

Interestingly, student success likewise increases teacher motivation. Kocobas (2009) asserted that the majority of teachers surveyed in primary schools in Turkey responded ‘always’ to the survey item which stated that “My students being successful motivates me.” (p. 729). Thus, teacher motivation helps with student success and student success helps drive teacher motivation. Obviously, both of these factors are positives for educational systems. Student success is only one of several reasons for the importance of teacher motivation. Another reason for the importance of teacher motivation includes preventing the exodus of teachers from the profession.

Maintaining an adequate supply of teachers has been a concern at various times and in various countries. Teacher motivation has an impact on whether teachers choose to stay in the profession or not. A number of studies have found that increasing teacher motivation and job satisfaction helps prevent a desire to leave the profession (Mertler, 2002; Griffin, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Nawez & Yasin, 2015). Teacher retention has become a top concern in many countries (Mansfield, Wosnitza, & Beltman, 2012). Aside from helping teachers better their

teaching practices, improving student performance, and assisting in teacher retention, teacher motivation is important for other reasons as well.

Teacher motivation is linked to increasing the overall psychological health of teachers as well as helping to enhance student-teacher relationships. Teacher motivation and job satisfaction helps teachers maintain better psychological health (Brien, Hass, & Savoie, 2012). The maintenance of better psychological health by teachers is seen as a positive by-product of motivation and can realistically only be viewed in a positive light. Another benefit to teacher motivation is that it leads towards better relationships with students and other staff at the school. In a study of prospective teachers in Hong Kong, Lam (2012) found that one of the important motivations for prospective teachers was to establish, build, and develop good relationships with young people. It is fairly easy to see that these relationships will be easier with more, rather than less, motivated teachers. Thus, the benefits and importance of teacher motivation is far reaching in the educational system and could potentially have profound effects. A summary of the finding regarding the importance of teacher motivation follows.

A summary of the importance of teacher motivation leads to an interesting conclusion. Not one published piece of literature was found that asserted in any way that there were no benefits to enhancing the motivation of teachers. Consequently, the easy conclusion to reach on this topic is that teacher motivation is important. As previously mentioned, teacher motivation is linked to better teaching practices (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Arifin, 2015), increasing student achievement (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Recepolgu, 2013; Iliya & Ifeoma, 2015; Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Klusman et al., 2016), helping teachers want or desire to stay in the classrooms (Mertler, 2002; Griffin, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Nawez & Yasin, 2015), enhancing the psychological health of

teachers (Brien et al., 2012), and helping maintain better relationships with students (Lam, 2012). The aforementioned reasons demonstrate the importance of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. The literature review turns towards the primary focus of the study, that of comparing and contrasting perceptions of teacher motivation by administrators and teachers.

Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Motivation

Finding out whether administrators share the same perceptions as teachers do regarding teacher motivation is among the highlights of this study. If teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation differ, then it will be difficult for administrators who want to enhance teacher motivation to do so. How can administrators do anything about teacher motivation if they do not know what motivates teachers? The results of this study could identify whether administrators and teachers differ regarding their perceptions of teacher motivation. Research of this nature was specifically called for by Boyle (2014), Brown and Hughes (2008), Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) and Bexley (2005). Thus, ascertaining if job status (teacher or administrator) leads to differences in teacher perceptions of motivation is a crucial aspect of this research. The purpose of this particular section of the literature review is to discuss the findings of what administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation are.

How do administrators perceive teachers' motivation? Boyle's (2014) study of high school teachers and administrators in Georgia revealed administrators' perceptions of teachers' motivation. Boyle's study was unique in that only high school administrators were participants as opposed to the other 'teacher and administrator' studies which included the elementary, middle school, and high school levels without delineating between the three. With Boyle's study, one gets a chance to view what only high school administrators perceive regarding teacher motivation. The seven factors of teacher motivation that Boyle included in the study were: (a)

monetary rewards, (b) recognition, (c) sense of achievement, (d) working conditions, (e) interpersonal relationships, (f) job significance, and (g) professional growth. Boyle found that administrator's perceived monetary rewards (an extrinsic motivator) as the most potent motivator, and sense of achievement (an intrinsic motivation factor) as the second most powerful motivator. It is also interesting to note that administrators' perceived such intrinsic factors as job significance and recognition much further down the list. As previously noted, Boyle became interested in this subject area in part because of Brown and Hughes' (2008) study of K-12 administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. A discussion of Brown and Hughes' (2008) findings follows.

Brown and Hughes' study of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation took place in Arkansas. Like Boyle, Brown and Hughes (2008) found differences between administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Brown and Hughes (2008) found that administrator ratings of the intrinsically motivated items were statistically significantly less than the ratings of teachers' perceptions of the teachers' intrinsic motivation. In contrast, administrator ratings of teachers' extrinsically motivated items were statistically significantly greater than teachers' extrinsic ratings for teachers. This again supports the idea that teachers feel more intrinsically motivated than administrators perceive. Brown and Hughes found that administrators misperceived the most powerful motivators for teachers to be (1) time off and holidays, (2) supervisor recognition, and (3) salary. Brown and Hughes (2008) asserted that the idea for their research came from Bexley's (2005) research on K-12 administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation.

The earliest study that could be found regarding teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation was conducted by Sheila Bexley in 2005. With participating teachers and

administrators from Mississippi schools, Bexley (2005) used an instrument that contained 32 separate factors to measure perceptions of teacher motivation for both extrinsic factors and intrinsic factors. The highest extrinsic motivators for teachers as perceived by administrators were (a) open, supportive principal, (b) having needed materials, (c) and the atmosphere of the school setting. It seems that the administrators in this study gave a great weight to the factors that they themselves could control. Administrators also gave high rankings for the extrinsic motivational factors of (a) salary, (b) time off-holidays, (c) peer recognition, (d) supervisor recognition, (e) parent recognition, and (f) parent involvement. Interestingly, administrators in this study did not attach great weight to the extrinsic factors upon which they had little control. Bexley's finding also included interesting results for administrators' perceptions regarding intrinsic factors for teachers. A discussion of Bexley's (2005) findings regarding administrators' misperceptions of teacher motivation as being less intrinsic in nature follows.

In each of the previous studies, administrators' misperceived teacher intrinsic motivation as less motivating for teachers than extrinsic motivation. Bexley's study was no exception to this. According to the results of Bexley's (2005) research regarding intrinsic motivation factors, administrators did not attach much importance to teachers' (a) pride in work, (b) professional growth, and (c) shared responsibility with peers. However, administrators did attach more importance to teachers' intrinsic motivators of (a) knowing what is expected, (b) a love for children, (c) and a sense of accomplishment. The intrinsic factors 'love of children' and 'sense of accomplishment' did appear multiple times in different studies as a dominating motivating factor for teachers. One difference between Bexley's (2005) work and that of Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016), Brown and Hughes (2008) or Boyle (2014) is that Bexley included a qualitative component to her study.

Bexley included open-ended questions and collected qualitative data from administrators regarding teacher motivation. Bexley did not collect qualitative data from teachers. Principals were asked about methods used to motivate teachers and the administrators' open-ended responses included (a) praise, (b) appreciation (including using notes and small gifts), (c) extra planning time, (d) duty free time, and (e) verbal recognition of a job well-done. Furthermore, in Bexley's (2005) study, the use of fear or threats was not mentioned in administrator responses, and this could indicate an absence of an authoritarian Theory X style of management. But one has to ask, "How likely is it that an administrator will mention using fear or threats as a means to motivate teachers?" Although the results of Bexley's (2005) study imply that administrators view teachers as motivated by extrinsic factors more than intrinsic factors, the principals perceive themselves as attempting to motivate through praise and rewards rather than threats and fear. The literature review regarding administrator perceptions of teacher motivation was anchored by the three primary American studies on the matter. However, since fairly similar results were uncovered in each study which was conducted in different years, in different states, and with different teachers and administrators, an identifiable trend can be discerned which will be discussed and summarized next.

In summary, administrators' views regarding what motivates teachers cannot be overemphasized as this is the primary group that has the ability to do something about teacher motivation aside from the teachers themselves. Comparing the alternate perspectives and themes regarding administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation is quite simple due to the findings. Each of the studies on administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation identified that administrators' misperceived teacher motivation as being extrinsic in nature. Consequently, no contrasting perspectives or themes regarding administrators' perceptions of teacher

motivation were found. The major theme uncovered in this section is crucially important because if this trend (that of administrators misperceiving that teachers are motivated more by extrinsic factors than intrinsic factors) continues, then it will be very difficult, if not impossible, for administrators to contribute in any meaningful way towards enhancing teacher motivation. Although the literature review is clear regarding what administrators perceive to be motivating factors for teachers, it still behooves one to establish why this is relevant; what role does the administrator play in the motivation of employees? This topic (the administrators' role in teacher motivation) of the literature review will be discussed next before delving into what teachers' perceive to be motivating factors for themselves in order to help establish 'why' the comparisons between administrators' and teachers' perceptions are important.

Administrators' Role Regarding Teacher Motivation

The topic of 'what the administrator's role is' regarding teacher motivation is an important area with the subject of teacher motivation. The primary responsibility for increasing teacher motivation belongs to the administrator (Kocobas, 2009). Thus, identifying what the administrator's role is with teacher motivation is important primarily because it establishes additional relevance for this research. A discussion of the role of the administrator in teacher motivation follows.

As in any work situation, the person who oversees personnel plays a great role in worker productivity, motivation, and satisfaction. Likewise, school administrators greatly influence teacher motivation and job satisfaction. There is ample literature to support this concept (e.g., Gaki, Kontodimopoulos, & Niakis, 2013; Hitka, Stachova, Balazova, & Stacho, 2015; Convey, 2014; Akpinar, Bayansalduz, & Toros, 2012; Chiller & Crisp, 2012; Fernet, 2013; Hamzah, Wei, Ahmad, Hamid, & Mansor, 2013; Puplampu & Adumako, 2014). For example, in

2013, Gaki et al. argued that motivation is seen as an administrative operation and through their actions it is possible to maintain human behavior in the desired direction. Furthermore, Convey (2014) stated that administrators' management philosophy was an important predictor of workplace motivation, and this is in agreement with Akpinar's et al. (2012) assertions that administrators determine working conditions, and through this they shape employee motivation. Chiller and Crisp (2012) went on to explain that employee motivation could be increased with regular and supportive supervision by administration. A discussion of administrators' beliefs regarding whether collaboration or control provides better workplace outcomes follows.

The particular management style and beliefs as to whether administrators adhere to Theory X or Theory Y may also play a role not only in determining motivation but also in desired workplace outcomes (McGregor, 1960). As previously noted, a manager who holds Theory X beliefs would not trust employees to have any internal drive to perform or succeed. Thus, the manager sees himself/herself as the only impetus for workers actually accomplishing anything. On the other hand, a Theory Y manager would trust, nurture, and assist employees to reach their potential and allow them to flourish using as much or as little assistance from management as desired. Also, Fernet (2013) posited that management style indeed exerts a powerful influence on employee motivation. According to Chuang (2013) individuals with different backgrounds may vary in their conception and expectations of leadership. Thus, the way to lead and motivate one person or even one group of people may not work with everyone, which is partly why there are various types of management styles (assertive, authoritarian, collaborative, etc.) in regards to trying to enhance motivation.

Whether administration adheres to an assertive, authoritarian, Theory X style of management or a more collaborative team-driven approach advocated by a Theory Y style,

management influences employee motivation. Likewise, Williams, Lankford, and DeGraaf (1999) maintained that motivation is the center of the management process and is the basis for productivity. They reported that the use of threats and fear to motivate (Theory X) often results in less than desirable outcomes and naturally was not considered an effective motivator.

Williams et al. (1999) urged a more participatory Theory Y style of management to increase overall motivation. In either case though, the administrator plays a significant role in the motivation of his/her teachers.

Regarding administrators' influence, Leonard and Leonard (1999) reported that principals are seen as a very important source of motivation for teachers. Mertler conducted research in middle and high schools in Ohio (2002) to explore the importance of the administrator's role. He concluded that an essential role of school administrators is responsibility for the morale of teachers. Likewise, other studies (e.g., Griffin, 2010; Kocobas, 2009; Siddique et al., 2011) have demonstrated the strong connection between administration and teacher motivation. Furthermore, Puplampu and Adumako (2014) concluded that although management and employees have different beliefs in the value of certain outcomes, administration must remember that each individual is motivated differently. This means that administrators need to get to know the teachers on a professional level; what drives the individual?

One of the factors that motivate teachers is when they feel they have effective leadership of those in positions of authority over them. Kocobas' study (2009) of administrators and teachers from all grade levels in Turkey found interesting results. A statistically significant effect was found for "an effective administrator governing the school body motivates me" (Kocobas, 2009, p. 728). Administrators do have control on how they interact with teachers and this factor has the potential to provide a great positive motivational influence. Kocobas' study

concluded that the main responsibility for motivating teachers ultimately falls on administrators. This is an important concept because it brings to light the large amount of influence that administrators have on teacher motivation.

Administrator influence on teacher motivation can come from at least two sources: helping to increase the intrinsic motivation of those in their charge and minimizing things that de-motivate their teachers. Leaders can motivate employees to work and perform by minimizing de-motivators (Siddique et al., 2011). Herzberg et al. (1959) related the hygiene factors to dissatisfaction or no dissatisfaction and by the lessening of de-motivators, administrators can lessen teachers' overall dissatisfaction. On the other hand, effective leaders can help increase the intrinsic motivation of their teachers. This is also important; principals can play a role in helping teachers become intrinsically motivated. Likewise, Siddique et al. (2011) stated that effective leaders can increase employees' job engagement and organizational commitment. Thus, effective administrators can help with overall motivation by lessening de-motivators and also by increasing the factors that Herzberg et al. (1959) described as motivators. As has been demonstrated above, there is ample evidence to demonstrate the importance of the administrator regarding teacher motivation and a brief synopsis of the findings follows.

In summary, the role of the administrator regarding teacher motivation led to two alternate perspectives and two themes which are important in making this study more relevant. The two alternative perspectives with the role of the administrator includes how the administrator projected himself/herself (whether they acted in an authoritarian, Theory X role or a collaborative, Theory Y style). The alternate perspectives of whether the Theory X or Theory Y style of management was better for employee motivation that ran through this section of the literature review demonstrated that the Theory Y style of leadership (collaborative, team driven

approach) was preferable and that most administrators view themselves as Theory Y leaders. Thus, the first theme of this section was that the Theory Y style of leadership was preferable to the Theory X style. The second theme that was found throughout the literature on this topic was of one voice in claiming that administrators have an important role regarding the motivation of his/her staff and no literature was found asserting the opposite point. The first theme (whether an administrator is oriented towards the Theory X or Theory Y viewpoint) is primarily helpful for educating the reader as to differing perspectives and viewpoints of leadership styles and how this may have an influence on motivation. The second theme (that of the importance of the administrator in teacher motivation), establishes the reasoning behind why administrators may want to view the results of this study which is because they are the primary people who are in the position to influence teacher motivation. After discussing the perceptions of administrators regarding teacher motivation and discussing the reasoning behind why it is important to include the administrators in this process, it is now time to turn to what the teachers themselves think are motivating factors for teachers.

Teacher Perceptions of Teacher Motivation

This literature review now turns towards looking at what teachers perceive as motivating factors for themselves. Although another section in this literature review will look at the same issue through the lens of elementary teachers' perceptions only, this section takes a broader look at the whole topic of teacher perceptions in general. In other words, the aim of this section of the literature review is to give an overall view of teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. The importance of this section cannot be overstated as it goes to the heart of the study. What will be found in this section includes the work and results of the main American studies of perceptions of teacher motivation (Boyle, 2014; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Bexley, 2005) along with teacher

motivation studies from various countries around the world. The research of Bexley (2005), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Boyle (2014) as well as many others regarding teacher perceptions of teacher motivation garnered interesting findings and is discussed next.

Teacher motivation is a well researched topic and includes many recent studies. One of the more recent ‘perceptions of teacher motivation’ studies was conducted by Boyle in 2014 and her findings yielded some very eye-opening results. Boyle (2014) used an adapted version of Mertler’s (1992) Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey to gather her data. However, the same seven of Herzberg’s motivation factors that Mertler used in his survey were used as well by Boyle in her adapted version of that instrument. The seven factors of motivation included four intrinsic factors (sense of achievement, recognition, professional growth, and job significance) and three extrinsic factors (monetary rewards, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships). Boyle found that teachers ranked the factors in the following order beginning with the most motivating: (1) sense of achievement (intrinsic), (2) monetary rewards (extrinsic), (3) interpersonal relationships (extrinsic), (4) job significance (intrinsic), (5) recognition (intrinsic), (6) professional growth (intrinsic), and (7) working conditions (extrinsic). A further discussion of how teachers ranked the aforementioned factors in Boyle’s (2014) study follows.

One of the more interesting findings from Boyle’s research was that the intrinsic factor sense of achievement was the most motivating factor of them all as perceived by teachers themselves. This means that teachers’ perceptions of themselves, at least from this study, identified an intrinsic factor as being more important than either how much money or benefits they earn (the extrinsic factor monetary rewards) or the day to day conditions that they work in (the extrinsic factor working conditions). It should be restated that sense of achievement or

sense of accomplishment was one of those factors that administrators also placed near, but not at, the top for teachers (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014). Besides the fact that an intrinsic factor led the pack in Boyle's (2014) study, other interesting results were found as well.

One other finding in particular in Boyle's study stands out and is worthy of further discussion. Two of the top three factors as perceived by teachers as motivating for themselves were extrinsic factors. Both monetary rewards and interpersonal relationships are extrinsic factors, but ranked as the 2nd and 3rd highest as perceived by teachers in Boyle's study. This is contrary to much of the research on teacher motivation in the United States which, generally speaking, has found that teachers perceive themselves to be most motivated by intrinsic factors. It should be recalled though that administrators perceived these factors to be motivating for teachers (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014). Nevertheless, although two of the top ranked teacher motivators were extrinsic, the top ranked motivator was sense of achievement, an intrinsic factor. Boyle's research followed in the trail of Brown and Hughes' (2008) study of teachers' and administrators' perceptions in Arkansas and they had many similar results.

Intrinsic motivators were at the top of the list for teachers in Brown and Hughes' study of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Like Boyle, the top teacher motivator according to teachers for Brown and Hughes (2008) was an intrinsic factor, 'pride in work'. Unlike Boyle, the second ranking factor for Brown and Hughes was also an intrinsic motivator, sense of accomplishment, which corresponds to the top ranking factor for Boyle, sense of achievement. In Brown and Hughes' study, teachers rated intrinsic factors statistically significantly higher than extrinsic factors overall. The leading extrinsic factor was open,

supportive principal, which found its way to the top in a number of other studies. The extrinsic factor, 'open supportive principal', gives credence to the aforementioned sections in this review as well regarding both the role of the administrator in teacher motivation and the importance of the administrator in teacher motivation. Brown and Hughes' stated that the idea for their research came from Bexley's (2005) research of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation which took place in Mississippi.

The research and findings of Bexley's study are interesting in that she included far more factors than either Brown and Hughes or Boyle. Bexley's (2005) research included 32 motivation factors as opposed to the seven factors used by Brown and Hughes and Boyle. Bexley's (2005) results for teachers placed supportive principal as the most important factor of the 32 factors included in her study. Even though an extrinsic motivator, the principal plays a huge role in the affective sector of teacher motivation. Teachers' perceptions regarding how they are treated is a monumental part of teacher satisfaction and motivation. Bexley's (2005) study also revealed that teachers are also intrinsically motivated by (a) their love of children, (b) improving achievement, and (c) pride in work. The top ten ranking factors for Bexley are as follows: supportive principal (extrinsic), love of children (intrinsic), improving achievement (intrinsic), having needed materials (extrinsic), knowing expectations (extrinsic), pride in work (intrinsic), sense of accomplishment (intrinsic), professional growth (intrinsic), shared vision (intrinsic), and decision making (intrinsic). Due to the number of factors included in Bexley's study, a further discussion of her results is warranted.

Although the top ranked factor for teachers in Bexley's study (open, supportive principal) was extrinsic, seven of the top ten factors identified by teachers were intrinsic factors. Love of children, improving achievement, and pride in work were three highly rated factors in Bexley's

study. These three factors were a common theme among many teacher motivation studies (Lam, 2012; Lin, Shi, Wang, Zhang, & Hui, 2012; Jugovich, Marusic, Ivaneeb, & Vidovi, 2012; Visser-Wijnveen, Stes, & Van Petegem, 2012; Brien et al., 2012). Since Bexley included so many factors in her study, it is also interesting to note the factors teachers did not rank as motivating. Starting with the least motivating and moving up were: easy hours (extrinsic), merit pay (extrinsic), public recognition (extrinsic), peer recognition (extrinsic), parent recognition (extrinsic), rank/title (extrinsic). As can be seen from the list, the top six non-motivating factors according to Bexley's findings were all extrinsic. With the exception of peer recognition (which was found to be a motivating factor in a number of studies), the rest of that list did not appear as motivating factors for teachers in any research that was found. Besides the research on teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation from Boyle (2014), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Bexley (2005) a number of other studies in the United States and around the world regarding teacher motivation were found.

For teachers in the United States, the factors that motivate them seem to be all over the board, but with some commonalities. One common theme for teacher motivation involved the school administration. Eros (2011) found that the most important factor for the motivation of teachers is the school administration. Thus, administrators have been identified in multiple studies (Eros, 2011; Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Mertler 2002) as playing a large role in teacher motivation. Along with motivating factors involving principals and school administration, a number of other motivating factors were identified in other teacher motivation studies.

Many other factors were identified by teachers as being motivating which include relationships with colleagues, making a social contribution, participating in the decision making

process, love for children, sharing authority, monetary compensation and other tangible rewards, the fact that teaching is an awesome responsibility, and the physical conditions of the schools. Important factors as noted by Eros (2011) included: the participation of teachers in the decision making process, the sharing of authority, compensation and rewards, and the physical conditions of the schools. Although participation in the decision making process and sharing authority was noted by others (Gulcan, 2011; Bastick, 2000), the physical conditions of the schools was not found to be much of a motivating factor in any study besides the one conducted by Eros (2011). Bastick's (2000) study sought to find and identify why teacher trainees enter the profession and asserted that the highest ranking factors included love of children, the fact that teaching is an awesome responsibility, and that teaching would give them a chance to express their creative abilities. All top ranking factors as noted by Bastick (2000) were intrinsic in nature and may explain why less experienced teachers who have more recently entered the profession are motivated more by intrinsic factors than by extrinsic factors. Finally, other studies in the United States found that teachers were motivated by their relationships with their colleagues (Roby, 2012), making a social contribution (Akar, 2012) and by what they thought their colleagues thought about them and their job performance (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). Research regarding teacher motivation from various countries around the world shared some commonalities with research found regarding teachers in the United States, but also many differences.

Teacher motivation studies were found concerning many different countries and many different types of countries such as Nigeria, Turkey, Canada, Croatia, China, Ghana, and Hong Kong. Many of the teachers in some of these countries (Nigeria, China, Ghana, and Turkey) listed primarily extrinsic motivational factors as being the most important teacher motivators. In a teacher motivation study conducted by Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010) in Nigeria, the

researchers found that teacher pay was the major focus for motivation of teachers. The authors also asserted that Nigerian teachers suffer from being the country's lowest paid university graduates which helps explain why teacher pay is an important motivator for teachers in Nigeria when it ranks lower in many industrialized countries. Like Nigerian teachers, pre-service teachers in China also listed salary as one of their top motivating factors (Lin et al., 2012). Similar to both Nigeria and China, a teacher motivation study in Turkey also found that Turkish teachers were motivated more by extrinsic factors than by intrinsic factors. Siddique et al. (2011) studied teachers in Turkey and found the top motivational factors for teachers to be the opportunity for career advancement, salary, and working conditions. Likewise, teachers in Ghana reported their top motivation factors as compensation for job performance (merit pay) and job enrichment (Salifu & Agbenyega, 2013). However, a number of other teacher motivation studies from various countries listed intrinsic factors above extrinsic factors as top motivators for teachers.

Primarily intrinsic motivational factors for teachers were found among teachers in the countries of Canada, Hong Kong, and Croatia. Teachers in Hong Kong listed intrinsic motivation factors as the top reasons for their motivation. Lam (2012) researched teacher motivation in Hong Kong and found that these teachers listed a love of teaching and helping the next generation, influencing the next generation, and that they enjoyed being with kids as their top motivational factors. Similarly, teachers in Canada were motivated primarily by their relationships with others, including students and colleagues (Brien et al., 2012). Although teachers in one study in Croatia did list an extrinsic factor (the influence of significant others) as an important motivator, the top motivator was an intrinsic factor. Jugovich et al. (2012) found that teachers in Croatia had one factor in common with teachers in Hong Kong and teachers in

Canada, that of the desire to work with children as being their top motivator. The teacher motivation studies from the United States and from various countries around the world regarding teacher motivation demonstrates that teacher motivation is a complex issue with many divergent viewpoints.

The Impact of Grade Level on Teacher Motivation

The various teaching levels (elementary, middle, and high school teachers) may have motivational characteristics that set them completely apart from each other. Grade level may well be the most important demographic factor because administrators in most schools will have teachers of both genders, many education levels, and varying lengths of service, but are likely to only be responsible for one certain range of grade level such as elementary, middle, or high school teachers. Partly because of this, Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016), Bexley (2005) and Boyle (2014) recommended further research conducted in this realm of teacher motivation.

Motivation Factors for Elementary Teachers

One aspect of teacher motivation at the elementary level was the finding that this group of teachers is primarily motivated by intrinsic factors (Klassen & Chui, 2010; Klassen et al., 2011; Gulcan, 2011; Dundar, 2014; Weiss & Kiel, 2013). Likewise, Griffin (2010) reported that elementary teachers have higher levels of intrinsic motivation than either middle school or high school teachers. Specific intrinsic motivation factors that were found to be motivating for elementary teachers include engagement (Klassen & Chui, 2010), relatedness (Klassen et al., 2011; Weiss & Kiel, 2013), participation (Gulcan, 2011; Dundar, 2014), social equity (Dundar, 2014), and idealism/ability (Weiss & Kiel, 2013). A discussion of these specific motivation factors for elementary teachers follows beginning with the factor engagement.

Elementary teachers are motivated by the intrinsic factor engagement. Klassen and Chui (2010) conducted their study with teachers in Canada and found that elementary teachers were motivated most by engagement. The authors asserted that engagement was synonymous with connectedness. Teachers who were motivated by engagement in this study had an engagement/connectedness with their school, the students, and their teaching subjects. Aside from engagement, other researchers found elementary teachers to be motivated primarily by the intrinsic factor relatedness.

Elementary teachers are also motivated by relatedness, which refers to the relationships between teachers and others at the school including students, parents, administration, and other school employees (Klassen et al., 2011). A common finding for elementary teachers was that their relationship with others was a positive motivating factor for them. In a study of prospective German elementary teachers, Weiss and Kiel (2013) asserted that a dominating motivation factor for elementary teachers centered on their contact and closeness to children. Along with engagement and relatedness, another intrinsic factor, participation was found to be important to elementary teachers.

The feeling of being an active participant in the various aspects of the decision making process in a school is what is referred to as the motivating factor participation. Gulcan (2011) found elementary teachers to be motivated by participation. Although Gulcan's study of Turkish teachers and administrators was one of the few studies that delineated the demographic groups by grade level, the primary focus of his study was perceptions of teachers' and administrators' views towards participation in the schools rather than motivation. However, Gulcan did look at participation in terms of whether that was more or less motivating for any of the three grade levels of teachers (elementary, middle school, high school). Gulcan found that elementary

school teachers' and administrators' views regarding the decision making process and participation in the decision making process was statistically significantly higher than middle school teachers' and administrators' views regarding the decision making process. In another Turkish study of the motivating factors for elementary teachers, Dundar (2014) found that elementary teachers' prior experiences with decision-making with either their teaching assignments or decisions at the building level was motivating for them. Participation in the decisions made at either the classroom level or the building level was motivating for elementary teachers. Elementary teachers were also found to be motivated by intrinsically rewarding social equity factors which will be discussed next.

Social equity factors include factors such as making a social contribution and having the ability to make a contribution to society through teaching. Dundar (2014) reported that in a study which included 176 Turkish elementary teachers, they were motivated by enhancing social equity, shaping the future of children, and making a social contribution. These teachers felt intrinsically rewarded by the aforementioned factors and this was a major source of motivation for them, ranking as the top three factors in Dundar's (2014) study. Other sources of intrinsic motivation for elementary teachers included idealism and the ability of teachers to do a good job and will be discussed next.

Elementary teachers also derive motivation from other intrinsic factors such as idealism and their perception of their ability to perform well as teachers. In Weiss and Kiel's (2013) study of German elementary teachers, they found that these teachers were motivated by idealism. Idealism, as mentioned by Weiss and Kiel, referred to the teachers' sense that what they did really mattered to students, parents, the community, etc. Teachers in their study found this to be internally rewarding and motivating for them. Tangential to idealism as defined by Weiss and

Kiel, is the idea that teachers are motivated by the belief that they have the ability to do a good job performing as teachers and that this makes a difference in the lives of those in their charge.

Dundar (2014) reported that this sense of their ability was a strong motivational factor for teachers in her study. A review of the factors that elementary teachers found motivating for them includes engagement, relatedness, participation, social equity, idealism, and ability.

However, research was also found which demonstrated certain factors which elementary teachers perceived as being de-motivating for them which will be discussed next.

Among the factors that elementary teachers found to drive their motivation levels down include low pay, poor working conditions, teaching not being respected as a career, and the science of teaching itself. Interestingly, many of these factors are extrinsic in nature and could potentially be alleviated by administration. Each of the aforementioned factors will be addressed individually beginning with the issue of teacher pay and the perception by some elementary teachers that it is too low.

Multiple studies involving elementary teachers in different countries of the world reported that teacher pay was perceived to be too low and that this negatively affected motivation for those teachers. In a study of elementary teachers in Ghana, Salifu and Agbenyega (2013) found that teachers perceived their pay to be too low and forced them to do other side-jobs such as herding goats and selling agricultural products in the market which affected their motivation and commitment to teaching. Elementary teachers in China also reported that a cause of job dissatisfaction and lack of motivation for them was their pay which they likewise perceived as too low (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014). Dundar's (2014) previously mentioned research of Turkish elementary teachers also reported that they felt that teaching is not a well paid profession and that this was also a source of dissatisfaction for them as well. Along with the perception of

low teacher pay, perceived poor working conditions also served as a source of dissatisfaction and de-motivation for elementary teachers.

The factor working conditions includes both the physical area in which teachers work and also the conditions of the work environment itself such as student-teacher ratios, teacher evaluation systems, and disciplinary policies (or lack thereof) for misbehaving students. Although no studies were identified which elementary teachers stated that the physical condition of the school buildings or classrooms were a source of job dissatisfaction to them, elementary teachers in both Ghana and China cited other working conditions as factors causing them to be less motivated as teachers. Elementary teachers in Ghana cited that they had student-teacher ratios of 70-1 when the school policy was supposed to maximize the student-teacher ratio at 24-1 (Salifu & Agbenyega, 2013). This high student-teacher ratio was a source of discontentment and a cause of lessening their motivation. Likewise, elementary teachers in China listed working conditions such as unfair teacher evaluation systems, poor student behavior with administrators not following stated policies and guidelines to alleviate the problem, and bad attitudes of parents as being causes of dissatisfaction for them (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014). Interestingly, both pay or monetary rewards and working conditions are factors mentioned by Herzberg as potentially causing dissatisfaction when not adequately dealt with by administration. Although not mentioned frequently, the perception that teaching is not respected as a career was mentioned in a few studies as having caused a lessening of motivation for elementary teachers and will be discussed next.

Although not identified as a source of dissatisfaction for teachers in most countries, teachers in both China and Turkey cited that teaching was not a well respected career and that this caused a sense of dissatisfaction for them. In Lui and Onwuegbuzie's (2014) study of

Chinese elementary teachers, these participants reported that one of the major factors that caused a lessening of their motivation for teaching was their perception of low social status of teaching as a profession. Likewise, elementary teachers in Dundar's (2014) research involving elementary teachers in Turkey felt that teaching was not respected as a career. Along with factors such as monetary rewards, working conditions, and the low social status of teaching, other factors which were found to be non-motivating for elementary teachers include the subject matter that they teach and the science of teaching.

Although elementary teachers are motivated by many factors, the subject areas that they teach and the science of teaching itself were found to be non-motivating for German elementary teachers (Weiss & Kiel, 2013). German elementary teachers reported a love and motivation for the nurturing aspect of teaching. However, when questioned about whether the specific subject areas that they taught motivated them, the participants in Weiss and Kiel's study reported that this was not an area that motivated them. Also, getting down to the nuts and bolts of teaching, the science of teaching itself, the German elementary teachers in the aforementioned study also reported that they were not motivated by this factor.

The Impact of Gender on Teacher Motivation

Both Bexley (2005) and Boyle (2014) called for further research regarding ascertaining whether male and female teachers are motivated differently. Bexley (2005, p. 70) stated that future research should, "Consider experience, gender, and education level of participants. These factors may provide insight to reasons for responses given." Likewise Boyle (2014, p. 31) stated, "...few studies have examined the similarities and differences in how teachers are motivated based on their sex, ethnicity, or length of service." Further research in this area would support administrators in their efforts to better understand how they can motivate their teachers."

Therefore, it was thought to be important to look into research involving the motivation of teachers based on gender.

There is a wealth of research available regarding motivation based on gender. Research regarding the impact of gender on motivation, both in an educational setting and in other professions was found in a variety of studies (e.g., Kusrkar, Croiset, & Ten Cate, 2013; Kocobas, 2009; Akpınar et al., 2012; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Amelink & Meszaros, 2011; Bexley, 2005; Christopherson, Elstad, Solhaug, & Turmo, 2015; Chan et al., 2012; Kusrkar, TenCate, VanAsperen, & Croiset, 2011; Boyle, 2014; Griffin, 2010). Much of this research is either directly or tangentially related to motivation or factors that may contribute to motivation. Are female and males motivated differently? The literature demonstrates that men and women are motivated by different factors. The majority of the research, but certainly not all of it, demonstrates that female teachers are motivated primarily by intrinsic factors.

While motivation studies regarding the interaction of gender and motivation were quite common, the results were surprisingly consistent. The following studies on motivation all identified that females are motivated by intrinsic factors statistically significantly more than males (Kusrkar et al., 2013; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Kocobas, 2009; Amelink & Meszaros, 2011; Chan et al., 2012; Bexley, 2005; Kusrkar et al., 2011; Boyle, 2014). Female teachers were not simply motivated by intrinsic factors more than male teachers, specific intrinsic motivators were found to be more motivating for females as well. In Kocobas's (2009) study of teachers in Turkey, he found that female teachers were statistically significantly motivated more by the intrinsic factor recognition. Although recognition could be viewed as an extrinsic motivator, Herzberg (1959) identified it as an intrinsic motivator based on his view that the internal feeling of satisfaction is derived from someone identifying 'a job well done'. Other

intrinsic motivational factors were also identified in studies as being more motivational for female teachers than for male teachers.

Another intrinsic motivation factor, professional growth, was found to be more motivating for females than for males in multiple studies. In Boyle's (2014) study of high school teachers and administrators in Georgia, she found that although neither generation (age) nor length of service had a great impact upon what teachers said motivated them, there were effects related to gender. In Boyle's (2014) study, females rated professional growth (an intrinsic motivational factor) statistically significantly higher than male teachers. Likewise, Brown and Hughes (2008) also identified that female teachers were statistically significantly higher than male teachers for the intrinsic factor professional growth. In showing a preference for professional growth, female teachers in Brown and Hughes (2008) and Boyle's (2014) studies identified that they are motivated by learning and advancing in their chosen professional career (teaching) more than male teachers. However, the research is less clear when it comes to extrinsic factors for male and female teachers.

When comparing male and female teachers regarding their perceptions of extrinsic factors that motivate them, a mixed bag of results appears. Regarding overall extrinsic motivation between male and female teachers, Griffin (2010) found that male teachers in the Bahamas were more motivated than female teachers by these factors. However, in the same study, he found no difference between male and female Jamaican teachers on extrinsic motivation. Griffin also found that neither male nor female teachers in the Bahamas or Jamaica were motivated by the extrinsic factor salary or monetary rewards. Although Brown and Hughes (2008) identified that female teachers were statistically significantly more motivated than males by intrinsic factors, the authors found no difference between male and female teachers based on

extrinsic factors. Interestingly though, Boyle's (2014) research uncovered that female teachers were statistically significantly more motivated than male teachers by the extrinsic factor working conditions. Thus, although most of the studies regarding whether male or female teachers were motivated by different factors found some statistically significant differences, some studies found no differences between the genders on any factors of motivation.

Of all the research found regarding perceptions of teacher motivation based on gender, only two researchers were identified who found no differences between male and female teachers. Interestingly enough, both studies that were found which contained no statistically significant differences in teacher motivation based on gender were conducted in the country of Turkey. Recepoglu (2013) specifically looked at demographics regarding teacher motivation among teachers in Turkey and asserted that there was no meaningful difference between male and female teachers in terms of their motivation. He further posited that in terms of motivation, male and female teachers have the same opinion. Likewise, Akpınar's et al. (2012) study of Turkish teachers also found no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers in terms of what motivates them. What is fascinating about these two studies is that so many studies in so many other countries were found that did contain statistically significant differences between the genders for teacher motivation. However, aside from the two Turkish studies, the remainder of the research demonstrates a much more intrinsic orientation for female teachers and a hodge-podge of results regarding extrinsic motivation for male and female teachers which will be summarized next.

In summary, the first focal point that was apparent very early on in the review of the literature on this topic was that a majority of the studies identified an intrinsic orientation for female teachers over male teachers. The second focal point that developed was that regarding

extrinsic motivation, no discernable trend could be established as to whether male or female teachers were motivated more by extrinsic factors. A discussion of the finding regarding teacher motivation as delineated by length of service follows.

The Impact of Length of Service on Teacher Motivation

Although there is considerable research regarding length of service and teacher motivation, the findings were not very consistent. Studies which included length of service among the demographic variables used to ascertain differences in teacher motivation were plentiful (Griffin, 2010; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014; Recepoglu, 2013; Mertler, 2002; Schbarador, Ebrahimpour & Hasanzadeh, 2013; Erdemli, 2015; Can, 2015; Kocobas, 2009; Lam, 2012; Akpinar et al., 2012; Klassen & Chui, 2010). Akpinar et. al. (2012), Can (2015), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Boyle (2014) were the only studies which did not report any statistically significant differences with length of service and teacher motivation. Proceeding with identifying various motivational factors with a number of differing lengths of service in the various studies and keeping them organized in any meaningful way is challenging to say the least. Adding to this dilemma is the fact that many of the studies on teacher motivation and lengths of service used different length of service parameters. However, this section proceeds with a discussion of the findings among of the lowest tenured group of teachers, followed by teachers near the middle of their career, and finally teachers closer to the end of their career. A discussion of what teachers in the earliest stage of their career are motivated by follows.

Among the findings for what motivates teachers near the beginning of their career is that they rank nearly highest among all of the groups regarding overall motivation. In a study of Turkish teachers, Recepoglu (2013) found statistically significant differences between teachers at the 1-5 years of tenure level and both the 6-10 year of tenure level and the 11-15 years of tenure

level with the former group having the highest levels of overall motivation. Recepoglu (2013) asserted that it is remarkable that the new teachers (1-5 years of tenure in office) have the highest motivation. He further posited that perhaps it could be explained by the enthusiasm of starting a new career in the teaching profession. Mertler (2002) researched teacher motivation in Ohio and likewise found statistically significant differences between the various groups of length of service. Although Mertler also found longer tenured teachers to be highly motivated as well, teachers in the 1-5 year range of tenure were statistically significantly higher than teachers at the 6-10 year range of tenure. Actually, Mertler found that teachers in the 6-10 year range of length of service to be the lowest of the various ranges in his study. Early tenured teachers were found to be motivated by specific motivational factors as well as in overall motivation.

Although early tenured teachers ranked highest in overall motivation, they also ranked statistically significantly higher than teachers of other levels of tenure in certain specific motivational factors. In his study of teachers in the Bahamas and Jamaica, Griffin (2010) found that early career teachers were motivated more by the motivation factor salary or monetary rewards. Interestingly, no other teacher motivation study in either the United States or any other nation found salary or monetary rewards to be a high ranking motivational factor for early career teachers. Griffin (2010) also identified that for new teachers, another strong motivator was the level of administrative support. Although being motivated by support from the administrators or by monetary rewards may not be viewed in a positive light by some as it reflects potentially either a need for help (from the administrator) or a desire to earn more money, it must be remembered that anything that enhances motivation can be valuable. It should also be restated one more time before moving on to the next group (those in the 11-20 years of tenure level), that

regarding overall motivation, teachers at or near the beginning of their career rank at the top of all length of service groups.

It was identified through the literature search that teachers near the middle years of their careers (11-20 years of service) had some positive motivational attributes as well as one disturbing fact regarding motivation. In Kocobas' (2009) study of teachers in Turkey, he found that teachers with 11-20 years of service rated the question 'a positive atmosphere in the school motivates me' statistically significantly higher than teachers in the 21 years and up level. This is an encouraging finding for this length of service range which had few other notable positive motivational attributes. Another positive finding for the teachers in the 11-20 length of service range was also found by Kocobas. 'Being part of the decision making process' was another finding by Kocobas for teachers in the 11-20 year range in which they again ranked statistically significantly higher than teachers in the 21 year and up range. However, one disturbing finding for the 11-20 year range of teachers was identified by multiple studies as a particularly concerning motivational area and will be discussed next.

An area of particular concern for teachers in the length of service range of 11-20 years is significantly more withdrawal behavior. Schbarador et al. (2013) found that teachers in the 11-20 range of length of service had statistically significantly more withdrawal behaviors than teachers in the 21 years and up range. In another study of teacher perceptions of motivation by Erdemli (2015), his findings were the same as that of Schbarador's et al. (2013), except that the length of service range was for teachers of 6-20 years of service as opposed to 11-20 years of service. Regardless of the slight variation in the tenure range, it is particularly worrisome that teachers in this range would identify withdrawal behaviors for this group. One wonders how

difficult the task may be to motivate students when one's own motivation is lacking. However, the picture is brighter for teachers nearer to the end of their careers.

Teachers in the 21 years and up length of service range demonstrated strong overall motivational orientations for teaching. Mertler's (2002) teacher motivation study in Ohio found that teachers nearing the ends of their careers (as well as teachers at the beginning of their careers) had statistically significantly higher levels of motivation than teachers in the middle range of their tenure. Griffin's (2010) study of teachers in the Bahamas and Jamaica also demonstrated statistically significantly higher overall levels of motivation for teachers in the 26 years of service and up category for the teachers in Jamaica. Interestingly enough, this same study found that teachers in the Bahamas were identified as having low levels of motivation in this length of service range. Griffin did not address what may have caused this or why teachers near the end of their careers in Jamaica had high levels of motivation while teachers in the Bahamas in this tenure range had low levels. Aside from Griffin's study which identified low levels of motivation for teachers at the end of their careers for teachers in the Bahamas, no other research was found showing low levels of motivation for this length of service range. For this range of length of service of teachers, other strong motivational factors were identified.

Teachers in the tenure range of 21 years and up identified both a competitive atmosphere at school and a strong love for children as very motivational for them. Kocobas (2009) found that teachers in the 21 years and up length of service range were statistically significantly more motivated than all other tenure ranges for having a competitive atmosphere in the school. Kocobas did not discuss why he thought this was the case. However, the identification by this tenure range of teachers of having a competitive atmosphere in the schools can be viewed as a positive finding because instead of winding down and simply settling for mediocrity in the years

before retirement, longer tenured teachers, at least in Kocobas' study, were motivated by the desire to compete with others to be better in the school. Another encouraging motivational finding for teachers near the latter end of their careers was the strong love for students (Lam, 2012). Maintaining a strong love for students after 20 years or more of teaching is obviously both desirable and admirable. The literature review has uncovered interesting findings from many studies regarding teacher lengths of service and teacher motivation which will be summarized next.

The findings in the literature review regarding teacher motivation at various lengths of service levels identified many differing perspectives regarding these tenure ranges, as well as demonstrated that there were a number of themes in this topic that relate to this dissertation. It must be mentioned that two of the primary studies found in this literature review (Boyle, 2014; Brown & Hughes, 2008) were among the few in which no statistically significant differences were found among any of the lengths of service ranges for any of the factors of motivation. However, the majority of the rest of the studies demonstrated two important themes. First of all, teachers near the beginning of their careers and teachers near the end of their careers were found to be highly motivated overall and also highly motivated by a number of specific motivation factors. Among these factors for early career teachers were monetary rewards and administrative support (Griffin, 2010) and among the factors for teachers at the end of the length of service spectrum were a competitive atmosphere (Kocobas, 2009) and a love for students (Lam, 2012). Secondly, teachers in the middle range of the length of service category not only had the lowest levels of overall motivation, but also were plagued with withdrawal behaviors (Schbarador et al., 2013; Erdemli, 2015).

Summary

This summary section of the literature review will discuss what is known about elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation, what is not known about this topic, and how this study addresses the gap in the knowledge base. The purpose of this study is to ascertain whether there are differences between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Further, this study looks into teacher demographic categories of gender and length of service to identify other possible differences. Numerous studies have delved into the subject of teacher motivation. Hence, much is known about the motivation of teachers.

What is known about this topic is that teacher motivation is important for a number of reasons. Teacher motivation is linked to better teaching practices (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Arifin, 2015), increasing student achievement (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Receptolgu, 2013; Iliya & Ifeoma, 2015; Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Klusman et al., 2016), helping teachers stay in the classrooms (Mertler, 2002; Griffin, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Nawez & Yasin, 2015), enhancing the psychological health of teachers (Brien et al., 2012), and helping maintain better relationships with students (Lam, 2012). It is also known that the administration plays an important role in teacher motivation (Griffin, 2010; Kocobas, 2009; Siddique et al., 2011; Eros, 2011). Finally, it is known that differences exist between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation in a number of settings. Boyle's (2014) study demonstrated differences between high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation in a suburban Atlanta school district. Both Bexley's (2005) and Brown and Hughes' (2008) studies showed differences between K-12 teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation in Mississippi and

Arkansas respectively. Likewise, Arar and Massry-Herzllah's (2016) study in Israel also demonstrated differences between teachers' and administrators' differences in teacher motivation. However, there is still much that is not known about teacher motivation.

One thing that is not known about teacher motivation is whether differences exist between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Although a number of studies were found that delved into whether teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation differed (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014; Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016), none of them ascertained whether the differences that they found applied to elementary teachers and administrators. Boyle's (2014) study only used high school teachers and administrators. Bexley (2005), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) included elementary teachers and administrators in their K-12 studies, but did not delineate between the grade levels. Therefore, it is still not known whether elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' differ in their perceptions of what motivates teachers.

It is perhaps for the aforementioned reason that three of the previous researchers (Bexley, 2005; Boyle, 2014; Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2016) have requested that further research in teacher motivation be conducted by ascertaining whether differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation exist at the other grade levels (elementary schools and middle schools). This study will address part of that gap in the knowledge base by finding out whether elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' differ in their perceptions of teacher motivation through the participants from the ASD and the BSD in South Carolina. The results of this study will add to the overall knowledge base of teacher motivation in general. Also, the results of this study will specifically address the gap in the knowledge base:

that of whether differences exist between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter orients the reader to the methods used in this study. In Chapter Three, the design of this study (causal-comparative) will be introduced and explained. Further, the three research questions and hypotheses will be stated and addressed. Other parts of Chapter Three include a section on the study's population and sample as well as the instrument used in this study. Mertler's (1992) Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey is used to capture data from both teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Chapter Three also includes sections describing and detailing the procedures and the data analysis for this study.

Design

A causal-comparative design was used for this study. Mertens (2015) stated that causal-comparative research is 'ex post facto' meaning at least two different groups are compared on a dependent variable because the independent variable has already occurred. Mertens (2015) also stated that in causal-comparative research the groups are not randomly selected because the population already belongs to a group. The population for this study already belongs to specific groups based on job status (elementary teacher, elementary administrator), gender (male teachers, female teachers), and length of service (early career teacher, mid-career teacher, late career teacher). Further, Lord (1977) asserts that in causal-comparative research, the purpose of this type of design is to make a search for factors or conditions which seem to be associated with one group and not the other that might serve as a possible explanation of the underlying causes.

The different groups in this study include the groups within the independent variable for job status, gender, and lengths of service. As Mertens (2015) asserted, these groups would be compared on a dependent variable (perceptions of teacher motivation scores) as the independent

variable (job status, gender, lengths of service) has already occurred, which makes a causal-comparative design the most appropriate design for this study. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) asserted that causal-comparative designs can be used to discover and verify cause and effect relationships and that the presumed cause is the independent variable (job status, gender, length of service) and the presumed effect is the dependent variable (teacher motivation scores on the TMTJ survey).

The causal-comparative design will enable the researcher to capture data regarding Herzberg's factors of motivation from Mertler's (1992) TMTS survey. Also, descriptive data was obtained from the survey as well in regards to the participant's job status, gender, and length of service. Comparisons regarding differences of the perceptions of teacher motivation based on job status (elementary teachers, elementary administrators) and gender (male teacher, female teacher) was conducted statistically with independent samples t-tests. Comparisons regarding differences of the perceptions of teacher motivation based on lengths of service (early career teacher, mid-career teacher, late career teacher) was conducted with ANOVA's.

Although the causal-comparative design is the best design fit for this study, the causal-comparative design does have some drawbacks which were considered when selecting the research design. Unlike experimental designs, causal-comparative designs have a lack of control over its independent variables (Lord, 1977). In ex post facto research such as this study, the independent variables (job status, gender, length of service) already exist and thus allow for no manipulation or control over the variables. This fact tempers assumptions of cause and effect relationships. Lord (1977) further asserts that in causal-comparative research there is difficulty in being certain that the relevant causative factor (job status, gender, length of service) is included among the factors under study. In other words, it is possible that a different causative

factor such as teacher ethnicity or teacher age may in fact be more of a causative factor than the independent variables in this study. However, based on the recommendations to study the independent variables of job status, gender, and length of service by Boyle (2014), Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016), Brown and Hughes (2008), and Bexley (2005), and the findings regarding these variables in the literature review, it is believed that the proper independent variables have been selected for this study and for this design.

Research Questions

RQ1: Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ2: Are there any differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ3: Are there any differences between early career teachers', mid-career teachers' and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Null Hypotheses

H₀1: There are no statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

H₀2: There are no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

H₀₃: There are no statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

Participants and Setting

The participants for the study were drawn from a convenience sample of elementary teachers and administrators from both the ASD and the BSD located in the southern quadrant of South Carolina during the 2018-2019 school year. The ASD consists of a broad range of lower, middle, and upper income families which include urban, suburban, and rural populations. The BSD incorporates a large geographical area, but consists of a small, rural, and primarily low socioeconomic population. The population from which the sample was drawn included all willing elementary teachers and administrators in the 17 elementary schools within the ASD and the two elementary schools in the BSD. As per the ASD policy for site authorization, building administrators were contacted first to determine their willingness to have their staff participate in the research study. Ten of the 17 elementary school administrators in the ASD granted permission for the study. The superintendent of the BSD agreed that both of the elementary schools in her district would participate.

Using the ASD school directories from the 2017-2018 school years, it was determined that there were approximately 410 teachers in the ten participating schools. Likewise, the directories demonstrated that there were approximately 36 administrators in the ten participating schools. Using the same procedure to obtain approximate population numbers of teachers and administrators in the BSD, it was determined that the two elementary schools in the BSD had approximately 100 teachers and 11 administrators. The aggregate of the two districts thus include approximately 510 teachers and 47 administrators.

Determining the gender population of the 12 schools was more problematic because many of the teachers in the directories did not have pictures included. To compound the problem, many also had gender-neutral names. However, using the directories and taking a few educated guesses with the 'gender neutral' names, it was determined that approximately 85% of the teachers in the 12 participating schools were female (433) and 15% were male (77).

As problematic as ascertaining the gender of the participants, ascertaining their lengths of service was even more so. The school directories were of no use for determining lengths of service. Therefore, it was assumed that approximately 1/3 of the teachers would fall into each of the three 'length of service' categories. To be conservative though, for the purposes of ascertaining whether the population numbers would be sufficient for the power analyses of the study, each of the three 'length of services' groups were assumed to only contain 1/4 of the total teacher population (127) rather than the 1/3 that they likely are (170).

Using a target population of 510 (teachers) and 47 (administrators), 433 (female teachers) and 77 (male teachers), and 127 (in each of the length of service categories), *a priori* power analyses were conducted to determine if these numbers were adequate for each of the three hypotheses. The power analyses were conducted for the use of independent samples t-tests (for Hypotheses One and Two) and one way ANOVAs (for Hypothesis Three) and the size of the sample population required for the study was determined by the *a priori power* analyses.

Power was set to .70 and alpha was set at .05 for the analyses, and unequal group representation was assumed. According to Gall et al. (2007) 100 participants is the required minimum for a medium effect size with the statistical power of .7 at the .05 alpha level for the independent samples *t*-test which is used in Hypotheses One and Two. A minimum participant number is required for each group as well. Hypothesis One has two groups, teachers (510) and

administrators (47). As this study's data collection procedures most closely resemble Boyle's (2014) procedures, and she obtained approximately a 50% participation rate for teachers and a 75% participation rate for administrators, those percentages were used to approximate the anticipated participation for this study. Therefore, it was anticipated that 255 teachers (50% of 510) and 35 administrators (75% of 47) would participate. Likewise, for Hypothesis Two, it was anticipated that 217 female teachers (50% of 43) and 37 male teachers (50% of 74) would participate.

Regarding Hypothesis Three (which contains three length of service groups), according to Gall et al. (2007) 126 participants is the required minimum for a medium effect size with the statistical power of .7 at the .05 alpha level for the one way ANOVA which is used in this hypothesis. With an overall teacher population of 510, if 50% participate, 255 teachers will comprise the sample. To ascertain whether there would be difficulty reaching the minimum number in any of the three length of service categories, each of the three categories (as previously stated) was assumed to contain only 1/4 instead of 1/3 of the overall teacher population. Under that assumption, each length of service category contained only 127 participants, and if 50% participate, then each category would contain approximately 63 participants.

For this study, the number of teacher participants sampled was 252 and the number of administrator participants sampled was 31 which exceeded the required minimum for a medium effect size. The number of female teacher participants sampled was 244 and the number of male teacher participants sampled was 31 which exceeded the required minimum for a medium effect size (8 participants did not select a gender and their data was subsequently eliminated from the research). The number of 'early career teacher', 'mid-career teacher' participants, and 'late

career teacher' participants sampled was 96, 76, and 70 respectively which exceeded the required minimum for a medium effect size (one participant did not select a length of service and that participant's data was also eliminated from the results). The sample came from all participating elementary teachers and administrators in the ten elementary schools within the ASD in South Carolina and the two elementary schools in the BSD in South Carolina.

Instrumentation

Mertler's (1992) Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey was used to assess perceptions of teacher motivation factors. Mertler granted permission for his instrument to be used in this study (Appendix C). Mertler's instrument was based on Herzberg's (1959) two factor theory. With Mertler's permission, Mertler's original instrument (Appendix A) has been slightly modified in order to fit the parameters of this study (capturing both teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation).

Mertler originally published no reliability data on the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey from his initial study. However, after using this instrument in subsequent research, Mertler (2002) established overall reliability (.876) with Cronbach's alpha for his instrument. Vogt (2007) posited that the closer the results were to 1.0, the higher the correlation between the items and that a reliability coefficient higher than .7 is acceptable for most research. A reliability score of .876 is considered to be a good indicator of the instrument's reliability. This instrument was used in previous studies by both Mertler (2002) and Griffin (2010).

In an effort to assure the instrument's validity for the present study, the researcher sought the expertise of Mertler, the scale's author. He recommended that certain changes be made (C. Mertler, Personal Communication, January 27, 2016) (Appendix D). Mertler's

instrument contains two questions (Question 1: “What is your overall level of satisfaction with your job as a teacher?” and Question 2: “If you had the opportunity to start over in a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?”) which conflict with the current study design. These questions were removed because they do not pertain to administrators participating in the study. Along with the removal of the first two questions, permission was also sought to add an additional demographic question (“Are you an administrator or teacher?”). Mertler granted permission for this change as well (C. Mertler, Personal Communication, January 27, 2016) (Appendix D).

Mertler (1992; 2002) established content validity by gathering an expert panel to evaluate his instrument. Content validity is the extent to which the test measures the behavior of interest. Mertler (2002) asserted that his panel was highly representative of the ultimate sample for his research. His panel reached a consensus that the survey did measure teacher motivation and job satisfaction. As opined by many researchers, it is enough for some tests to have content validity (Myers, 2014; Anastasi & Urbina, 1997; Gay, 1992). Gay (1992) further elaborated that content validity is determined by expert judgment and that there is no formula to compute it and no way to express it quantitatively.

There are 28 items on the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction survey. Eighteen survey items related to job situational factors (intrinsic) and 10 related to job performance incentives (extrinsic). The 28 questions were distributed among seven of Herzberg’s (1959) intrinsic and extrinsic categories. The category *recognition* contained four questions, *monetary reward* contained three, *professional growth* contained five, *interpersonal relations* contained four, *job significance* contained three, *sense of achievement* contained four, and *working conditions* contained five. Each of the questions were answered with a 6-point Likert

scale. The six points on the scale range from highly motivating (with a value of a one for this answer choice) to highly un-motivating (with a value of a six for this answer choice). The closer the results of a question is to the score of a one, the more motivating that item is for the respondent or the aggregate of respondents and the nearer the score is to a six the less motivating that item is.

Each participant will have a specific score for each question and a total score for the scale. For example, if participant X selects 'highly motivating' for the question on *salary* (e.g. financial compensation) then a score of a one will be reported for that individual regarding that question. The same calculations will take place for the aggregate of all other individuals in regards to this question and the rest of the questions on the instrument. Overall scores on the instrument range from 28 (highly motivating) to 168 (highly un-motivating). The data will be broken down and analyzed for teachers on each question and for the overall scale and for administrators on each question and for the overall scale.

Procedures

Before conducting research, permission from Liberty's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was sought to conduct this research. Liberty's IRB was provided all documents pertinent for their approval including participant informed consent forms (Appendix F), the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey (Appendix A) (Mertler, 1992), the slightly altered version of the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction survey (Appendix B), site authorization letters to the ASD and the BSD and the site authorization approval letters from those districts, and the proposal which details procedures and ethical considerations. Before obtaining IRB approval, the Chief Operating Officer, a representative of the superintendent of the ASD was contacted by email to request consent to conduct the research. A letter explaining the study and

guaranteed anonymity for the district was given to her. After obtaining site authorization approval from the Chief Operating Officer, each of the principals of the elementary schools within the ASD was contacted for their consent. Of the 17 elementary schools in that district which were contacted, ten granted consent, four respectfully declined, and three never responded despite repeated attempts to contact them. The superintendent of the BSD was contacted directly and site authorization was granted for both elementary schools in that district.

After permission was granted from each school's principal, the researcher met with each school's faculty at a pre-arranged time and location to introduce the study, discuss informed consent, and to explain that the survey was sent electronically through Survey Monkey to the participants. When participants received the survey instrument, the document's written instructions included the following statement, "The purpose of this research is to identify differences regarding the factors that motivate teachers." In order to provide information regarding risks and benefits, the document also states, "there are no known risks to participants in this study, and potential benefits include that participants may gain a greater understanding of teacher motivation."

In addition to written assurances on the survey, all participants were verbally informed and assured that no names or personal identifiers are requested on the survey in order to protect confidentiality for the participants. Consent was implied when participants completed the survey independently and electronically. To further guarantee confidentiality, the surveys were collected electronically with no IP addresses collected. Participants were provided the researcher's name, cell phone number, and email address in case they had any concerns or questions.

Completed surveys were collected electronically by Survey Monkey and data was managed and stored on the researcher's home office computer where the protected password is known only to the researcher. At the completion of the study, data was removed from the researcher's computer and stored on an external hard drive and secured by the researcher. Data security was maintained by providing access only to the researcher. Furthermore, data will be saved until three years after the dissertation process is complete. At that time all data will be deleted and destroyed.

Data Analysis

The relevant data analysis will include both descriptive and inferential statistics. The first research question involves identifying whether elementary administrators and elementary teachers have differing perceptions as to what motivates teachers and is stated as follows: "Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?" This research question pertains to Hypothesis One which uses independent samples t-tests to identify if there are statistically significant differences between elementary administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Hypothesis 1₀ is: "There are no statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation."

The second research question involves identifying whether male and female teachers have differing perceptions as to what motivates teachers and is stated as follows: "Are there any differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of

motivation?” This research question pertains to Hypothesis Two which uses independent samples t-tests to identify if there are statistically significant differences between elementary administrators’ and teachers’ perceptions of teacher motivation. Hypothesis 2₀ is: “There are no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers’ perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg’s two factors of motivation.”

The third research question involves identifying whether early career, mid-career, and late career teachers have differing perceptions as to what motivates teachers and is stated as follows: “Are there any differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers’ perceptions of motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg’s two-factors of motivation?” This research question pertains to Hypothesis Three which uses an ANOVA to identify if there are statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers’ perceptions of teacher motivation. Hypothesis 3₀ is: “There are no statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers’ perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg’s two factors of motivation.”

The data from the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey (Mertler, 1992) was uploaded into Excel, respondents were given a code, and then the data was imported into SPSS. Next, the data was scrutinized, by checking to see that the codes assigned to the answer choices for each question (1 = Teachers, 2 = Administrators), (3 = Male Teachers, 4 = Female Teachers), (5 = Early Career Teachers, 6 = Mid-Career Teachers, 7 = Late Career Teachers) appear in the data file, in order to detect and correct corrupt or inaccurate records. Data was obtained from all participating elementary administrators and teachers in the ASD and the BSD in South Carolina.

As the population of teachers and administrators of the elementary schools in this district which have granted consent is approximately 510 teachers and 47 administrators, and it is anticipated that approximately 50% of the teachers and 75 % of the administrators will participate, an estimated 290 participants are expected as pertaining to Hypothesis One. Likewise, 218 female teachers and 37 male teachers for Hypothesis Two and 127 participants in each of the three length of service categories. The *a priori* power analyses in this document demonstrated that a sample size of 126 would be sufficient. Thus, the sample population should exceed the sample size requirements as demonstrated by the *a priori* power analyses and all groups should meet or exceed the minimum sample size of 30. Each of these assumptions held true in this study.

Independent samples *t*-tests analyses and ANOVA's were used to analyze the data. Independent samples *t*-tests and ANOVAs align with both the research questions and the research design in that these statistical analyses demonstrated whether any differences exists for the independent variables (job status, gender, length of service) on the dependent variable (perceptions of teacher motivation scores). Outliers were examined and removed. All data was checked to make sure it met the basic assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance. Any cases where there were missing values for job status, gender, or length or service were deleted from the data set (of which there were nine in all). The level of statistical significance for data analysis was .05. Eta squared will be used for reporting effect size.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this causal-comparative, non-experimental study was to compare elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Additionally, comparisons were made between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as well as between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Administrators were included in this study because they play a primary role in the motivation of teachers (Kocobas, 2009). Alerting administrators as to what factors motivates teachers as well as demonstrating whether administrators already understand what those factors are could go a long way towards helping them identify factors that motivate teachers. This study's inclusion of comparing teacher motivation on the basis of gender and length of service could further assist administrators in identifying how these teacher groups differ regarding motivation.

This study focused on teachers and administrators from 12 schools in two school districts in the southern quadrant of South Carolina. All willing elementary teachers and administrators from the ten schools in the Alpha School District and two schools in the Beta School District completed the TMJS survey designed by Mertler (1992). The dependent variable was the teacher motivation scores from the TMJS survey. The independent variables included job status (teacher, administrator), teacher gender (male teacher, female teacher), and teacher length of service (early career teacher, mid-career teacher, late career teacher). Participants in the study included 31 administrators and 251 teachers. The following chapter provides the research questions, null hypotheses, descriptive data, and the results of the *t-tests* and ANOVA to determine if there were differences between the groups.

Research Questions

RQ1: Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ2: Are there any differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ3: Are there any differences between early career teachers', mid-career teachers' and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Null Hypotheses

H₀1: There are no statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

H₀2: There are no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

H₀3: There are no statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

Descriptive Statistics

The data set contained 251 teacher responses and 31 administrator responses to the TMJS survey and was used to answer the research questions. One participant did not fill out any of the

demographic questions and this participant's survey was removed from the data set.

Additionally, seven participants failed to identify their gender and one failed to answer the demographic question regarding length of service. These eight participants' data were removed from the data set as well. After the removal of the data from these nine participants, the data set contained 242 teacher responses and 31 administrator responses. The TMJS survey was tested by the developer and was found to have a high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .876 (Mertler, 2002). Additionally, the present study found the survey to have a high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .893.

Research Question 1

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the first research question addressing the differences between elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Table 2 shows the means for the elementary teachers and the elementary administrators on each of the 28 factors of motivation. There were 28 items in the survey that were each scored with a range of 1-6 with one being most motivating and six as least motivating for the participants. The possible range for elementary teachers' perceptions on each item was 1 – 6 ($N = 242$, $M = 2.54$, $SD = .727$). Additionally, the possible range for elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation on each item was also 1 – 6 ($N = 31$, $M = 2.30$, $SD = .618$).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics: Teachers and Administrators

	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Teacher	242	2.54	0.047	0.727	0.528
Administrator	31	2.30	0.111	0.618	0.382

Table 2

Means: Teachers and Administrators

	Teachers	Administrators
Recognition	2.32	2.00
Potential for Professional Growth	2.41	1.94
Supervision	2.83	1.90
Interpersonal Relationships with Colleagues	2.02	1.77
Salary	1.91	1.97
Job Security	2.08	1.84
Status of Profession	2.96	3.10
Interpersonal Relationships with Administrators	2.37	2.06
Sense of Achievement	1.70	1.58
Working Conditions	1.79	1.71
District Policies	2.58	2.65
Teacher Evaluation	3.20	2.26
Responsibility	2.06	1.93
Potential for Advancement	2.66	2.27
The Work Itself	2.38	2.40
Factors in Personal Life	2.41	2.20
Interpersonal Relationships with Students	1.85	1.84
Sense of Accountability	2.95	2.61
A One-time Monetary Award	2.34	2.58
Selected as T.O.Y in District	3.73	3.19
Instructional Workshop for a Fee	4.41	4.13
Being Thanked by a Student	2.21	2.00
Instructional Workshop Paid by the District	2.56	2.35
Opportunity for Teacher Projects	3.00	2.71
Early Retirement/Contract Buyout	2.85	2.71
.Improvements in Student Achievements	1.68	1.37
Plaque from Students	3.72	3.13
Ability to Purchase Classroom Equipment	2.17	2.10

Research Question 2

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for the second research question addressing the differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Table 4 shows the means for the male and female teachers on each of the 28 factors. There were 28 items in the survey that were each scored with a range of 1-6 with one being most motivating and six as least motivating. The possible range for male teachers' perceptions on each factor was 1 - 6 ($N= 31$,

$M = 2.47$, $SD = .763$). The possible range for female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation on each factor was also 1 - 6 ($N = 211$, $M = 2.55$, $SD = .723$).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics: Male and Female Teachers

	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Male Teachers	31	2.47	0.137	0.763	0.582
Female Teachers	211	2.55	0.050	0.723	0.522

Table 4

Means: Male and Female Teachers

	Male Teachers	Female Teachers
Recognition	2.41	2.26
Potential for Professional Growth	2.00	2.41
Supervision	2.31	2.80
Interpersonal Relationships with Colleagues	1.97	1.99
Salary	1.87	1.93
Job Security	1.70	2.12
Status of the Profession	2.98	2.97
Interpersonal Relationships with Administrators	2.18	2.36
Sense of Achievement	1.62	1.69
Working Conditions	1.74	1.79
District Policies	2.60	2.58
Teacher Evaluation	2.82	3.14
Responsibility	1.87	2.08
Potential for Advancement	2.36	2.66
The Work Itself	2.03	2.44
Factors in Personal Life	2.38	2.39
Interpersonal Relationships with Students	1.95	1.83
Sense of Accountability	2.83	2.93
A One-Time Monetary Award	2.13	2.41
Selected as TOY in District	3.45	3.71
Instructional Workshop for a Fee	4.15	4.42
Being Thanked by a Student	2.18	2.19
Instructional Workshop Paid by the District	2.38	2.56
Opportunity for Teacher Projects	2.75	3.00
Early Retirement/Contract Buyout	2.95	2.82
Improvements in Student Achievements	1.82	1.62
Plaque from Students	3.41	3.69
Ability to Purchase Classroom Equipment	1.88	2.21

Research Question 3

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics for the third research question addressing the differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. Table 6 shows the means for the early career, mid-career, and late career teachers on each of the 28 factors. There were 28 items in the survey that were each scored with a range of 1-6 with one being most motivating and six as least motivating. The possible range for early career teachers' perceptions was 1-6 for each item ($N = 96$, $M = 2.51$, $SD = .755$). The possible range for mid-career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation was also 1-6 for each item ($N = 76$, $M = 2.49$, $SD = .664$). The possible range for late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation was also 1-6 for each item ($N = 70$, $M = 2.63$, $SD = .755$).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics: Early Career Teachers, Mid-Career Teachers, Late Career Teachers

	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Early Career Teacher	96	2.513	0.07701	0.75458	0.569
Mid-Career Teacher	76	2.492	0.07613	0.66371	0.441
Late Career teacher	70	2.634	0.09019	0.75459	0.569

Results

Null Hypotheses One

H₀₁: There are no statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

T-test data screening. For the first hypothesis, a t-test was utilized because the independent variable was categorical (teachers and administrator). The analysis was conducted

on the overall scale of the 28 motivation factors in the TMJS survey. The scores of the participants on these 28 questions constituted the dependent variable (teacher motivation scores).

Table 6

Means: Early Career Teachers, Mid-Career Teachers, Late Career Teachers

	Early Career	Mid-Career	Late Career
Recognition	2.11	2.21	2.57
Potential for Professional Growth	2.22	2.51	2.35
Supervision	2.79	2.70	2.66
Interpersonal Relationships with Colleagues	1.97	1.94	2.06
Salary	2.07	1.78	1.88
Job Security	2.19	2.01	1.94
Status of the Profession	3.00	2.82	3.11
Interpersonal Relationships with Administrators	2.25	2.27	2.52
Sense of Achievement	1.74	1.63	1.68
Working Conditions	1.73	1.72	1.90
District Policies	2.59	2.59	2.57
Teacher Evaluation	3.18	2.91	3.18
Responsibility	2.18	2.01	1.93
Potential for Advancement	2.62	2.42	2.81
The Work Itself	2.34	2.57	2.24
Factors in Personal Life	2.37	2.47	2.33
Interpersonal Relationships with Students	1.83	1.83	1.88
Sense of Accountability	2.83	2.91	3.01
A One-Time Monetary Award	2.37	2.40	2.34
Selected as TOY in District	3.39	3.87	3.80
Instructional Workshop for a Fee	4.26	4.64	4.24
Being Thanked by a Student	2.31	2.08	2.14
Instructional Workshop Paid by the District	2.37	2.76	2.49
Opportunity for Teacher Projects	2.92	3.06	2.93
Early Retirement/Contract Buyout	2.94	2.61	2.94
.Improvements in Student Achievements	1.64	1.70	1.59
Plaque from Students	3.53	3.69	3.76
Ability to Purchase Classroom Equipment	2.15	2.20	2.13

To determine if parametric tests could be used, a box and whisker plot was created and the data was shown to have five outliers for the teachers and one extreme outlier for the administrators. A histogram and a Q-Q Plot were created for teachers. The histogram and Q-Q Plot for teachers demonstrated that the distribution was not normal. A histogram and a Q-Q Plot

was created for administrators as well. Both the histogram and the Q-Q Plot for administrators also demonstrated that the distribution for administrators was not normal. Further checks were made on the skewness and kurtosis of the data to check for normality. Kim (2013) asserted that in a small sample ($n < 50$) as in the data set for administrators if the z scores for skewness or kurtosis are larger than 1.96 we conclude that the distribution is non-normal. The z scores for skewness for administrators was 6.99 and was 15.52 for kurtosis suggesting that the population distribution for administrators was non-normal. Kim (2013) asserted that for medium sized samples ($50 < n < 300$) as in the data set for teachers if the z scores for skewness or kurtosis are larger than 3.29 we conclude that the distribution is non-normal. The z scores for skewness for teachers was 4.64 and was 2.61 for kurtosis suggesting that the population distribution for teachers was also non-normal.

Therefore, the five outliers were removed for teachers and the one extreme outlier for administrators was removed and the data was rechecked for normality. A box plot for teachers and administrators with the outliers removed was created (Figure 1). A new histogram with the outliers removed for teachers was produced (Figure 2) and a new Q-Q Plot for teachers were created without the outliers as well (Figure 3). The histogram and Q-Q Plots for teachers with the outliers removed appear normally distributed. A new histogram for administrators without the extreme outlier was produced (Figure 4) and a new Q-Q Plot for administrators were created without the extreme outlier (Figure 5). The histogram and Q-Q Plots for administrators with the extreme outlier removed appear normally distributed.

Further, skewness and kurtosis of the data was rechecked for normality. The z scores for skewness for administrators was .00 and was .42 for kurtosis suggesting that the population distribution for administrators was normal. The z scores for skewness for teachers was 2.18 and

was .73 for kurtosis suggesting that the population distribution for teachers was also normal. A table with descriptive statistics for teachers and administrators was produced (Table 7). A Levene's test was then executed ($p = .001$) and the assumption of homogeneity was violated (Table 8). Since our variance is not equal the results were taken for unequal variance. The result for unequal variances demonstrated statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation with $t(57.651) = 3.701, p = .000, \alpha = .05$. This result gave significant evidence against the null that there were no differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. The 95% confidence interval for the perception mean ranged from .132 to .445. The data was found to have a small effect size of $d = .021$. The post hoc level of the statistical power was an observed power of .653

Figure 1

Outliers: Box and Whisker Plot for Teachers and Administrators after outliers were removed

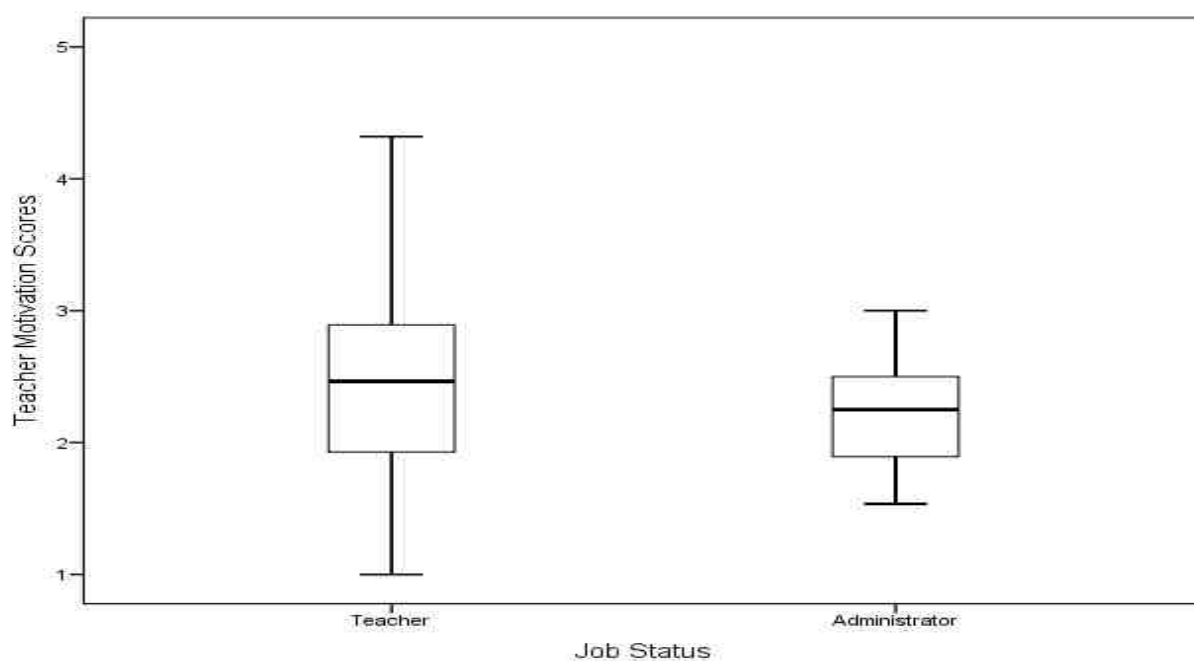


Figure 2

Normality Tests: Histogram for Teachers with outliers removed

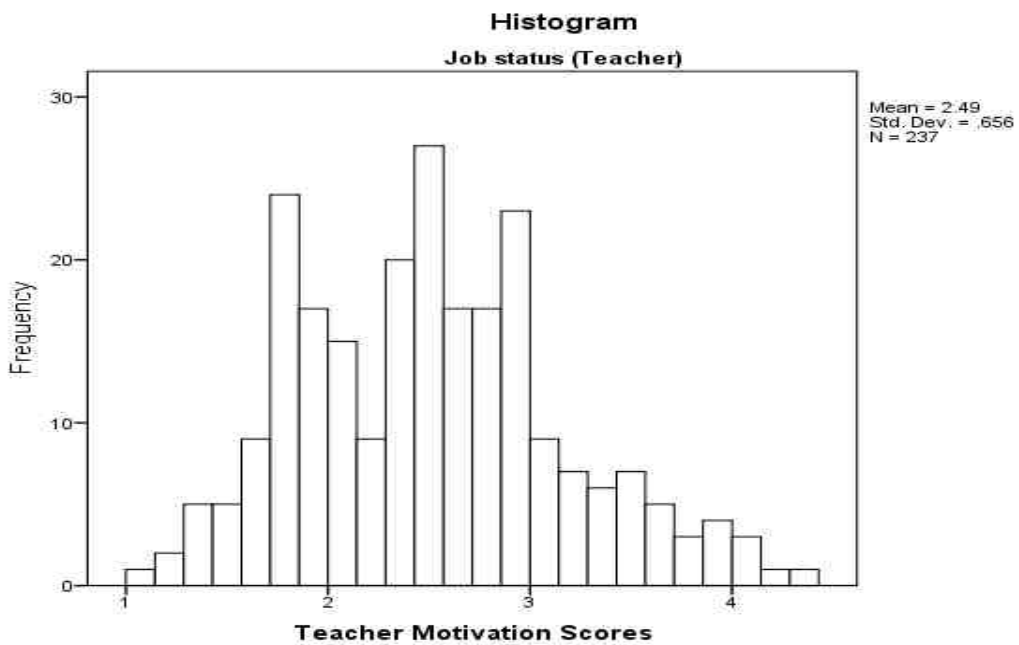


Figure 3

Normality Tests: Q-Q Plot for Teachers with outliers removed

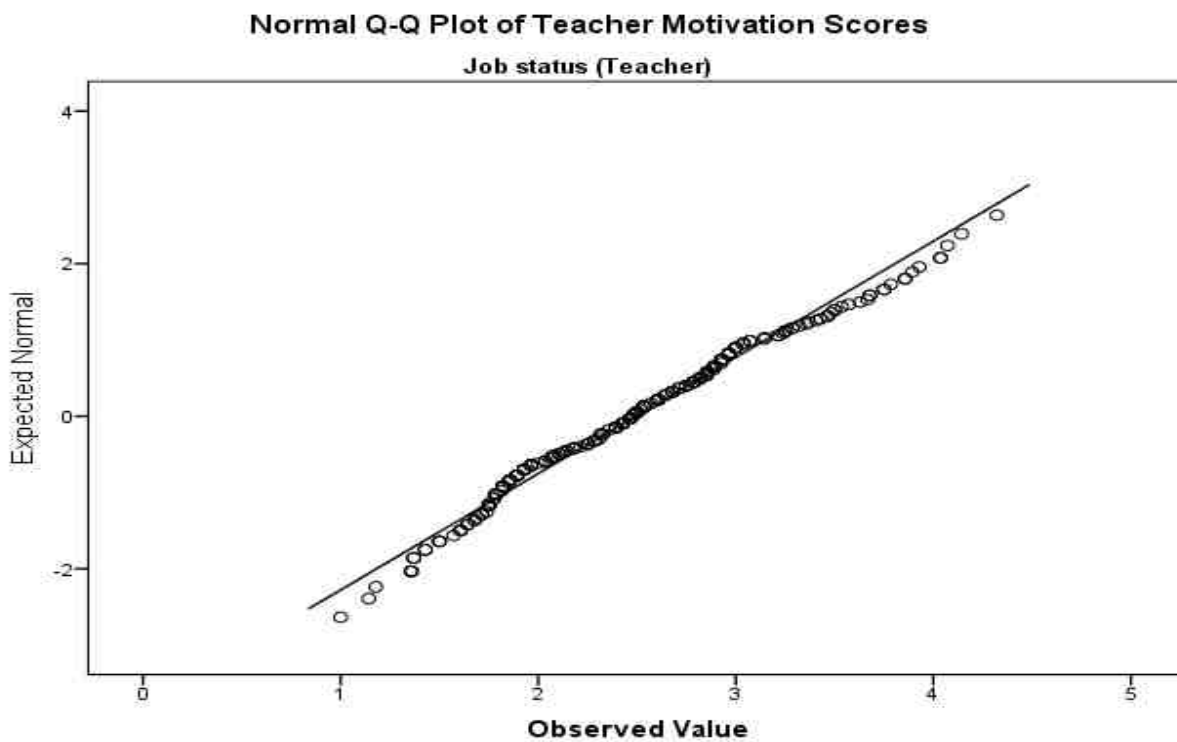


Figure 4

Normality Tests: Histogram for Administrators with outliers removed

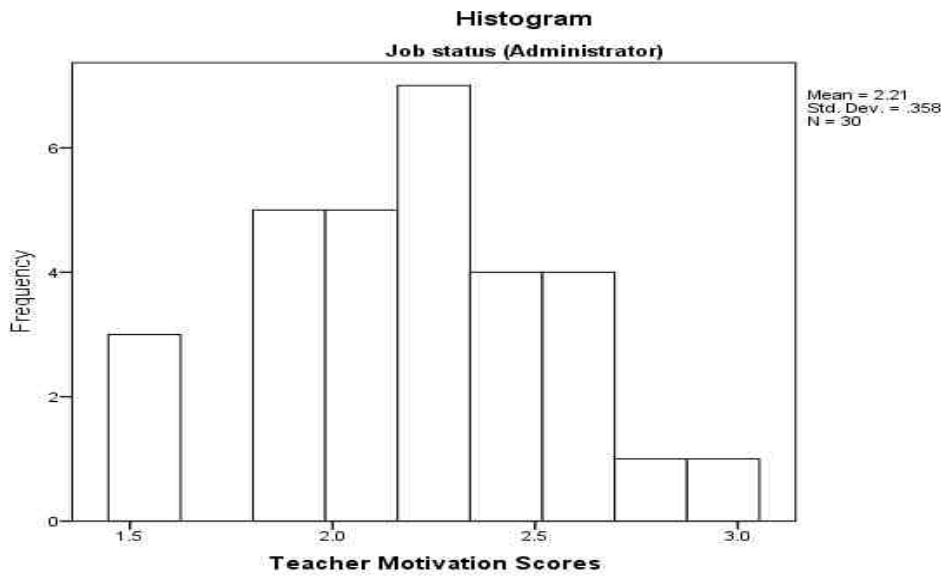


Figure 5

Normality Tests: Q-Q Plot for Administrators with outliers removed

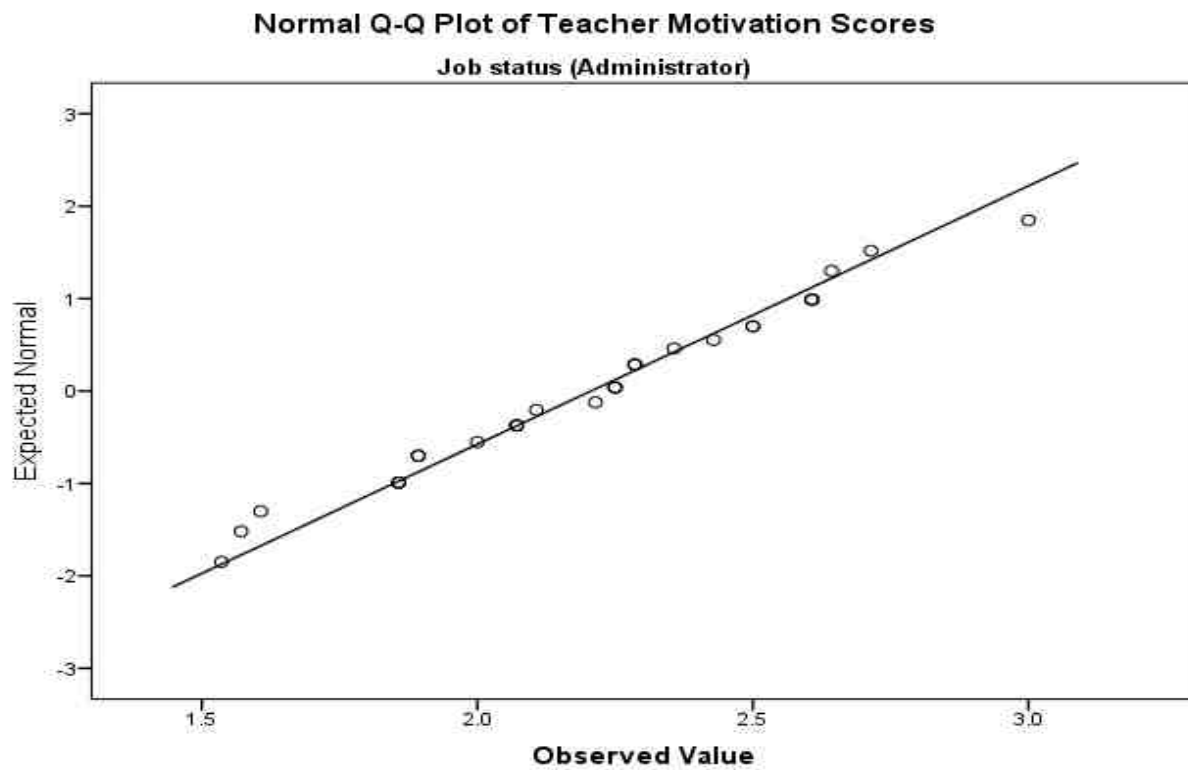


Table 7

Teacher and Administrator Descriptive

Group Statistics					
	Job Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Teacher Motivation Scores	Teacher	237	2.49	.656	.043
	Administrator	30	2.21	.358	.065

Table 8

Teacher and Administrator Independent Samples T-Test

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Teacher Motivation Scores	Equal variances assumed	10.702	.001	2.363	265	.019	.289	.122	.048	.529
	Equal variances not assumed			3.701	57.651	.000	.289	.078	.132	.445

Null Hypotheses Two

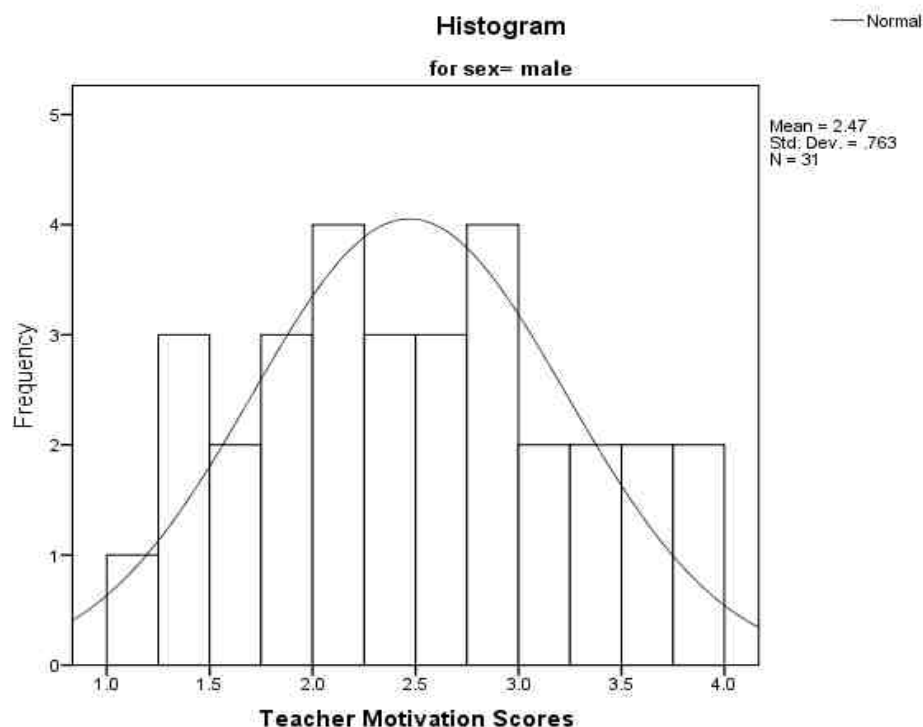
H₀₂: There are no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

T-test data screening. For the second hypothesis, a t-test was utilized because the independent variable was categorical (male teachers and female teachers). The analysis was

conducted on the overall scale of the 28 motivation factors in the TMJS survey. The scores of the participants on these 28 questions constituted the dependent variable (teacher motivation scores). To determine if parametric tests could be used, a box and whisker plot was created and the data was shown to have five outliers for female teachers and no outliers for male teachers. A histogram and a Q-Q Plot was created for female teachers. The histogram demonstrated a non-normal distribution. The Q-Q Plot also demonstrated that the sample for female teachers was not normally distributed. A histogram (Figure 6) and a Q-Q Plot (Figure 7) was created for male teachers as well. The histogram demonstrated a normal distribution for male teachers. The Q-Q Plot for male teachers also demonstrated that most of the sample was clustered near the line. Skewness and kurtosis was checked for male teachers as well. Skewness (.23) and kurtosis (1.18) demonstrated a normal distribution for male teachers.

Figure 6

Histogram for Male Teachers



Since the histogram and Q-Q Plot for female teachers demonstrated a non-normal distribution with the five outliers, the outliers were removed and the data was re-checked. A Box Plot (Figure 8) was created with the outliers removed for female teachers. With the five outliers removed, the histogram (Figure 9) demonstrated a normal distribution. Further, a Q-Q Plot (Figure 10) also demonstrated a normal distribution. Skewness z scores (2.11) and kurtosis z scores (.48) also demonstrated that the female teacher distribution was normally distributed with the five outliers removed.

A Table (Table 9) with descriptive statistics was produced for male and female teachers. Next, a Levene's test (Table 10) was executed ($p = .074$), and the assumption of equal group variances was not violated. Results of the t-test were $t(234) = .155$, $p = .877$, $\alpha = .05$. Therefore, there was no evidence to reject the Null hypothesis. The 95% confidence interval for the perception mean ranged from 2.357 to 2.603. The data was found to have a small effect size of $d = .000$. The post hoc level of the statistical power was an observed power of .053.

Figure 7

Q-Q Plot for Male Teachers

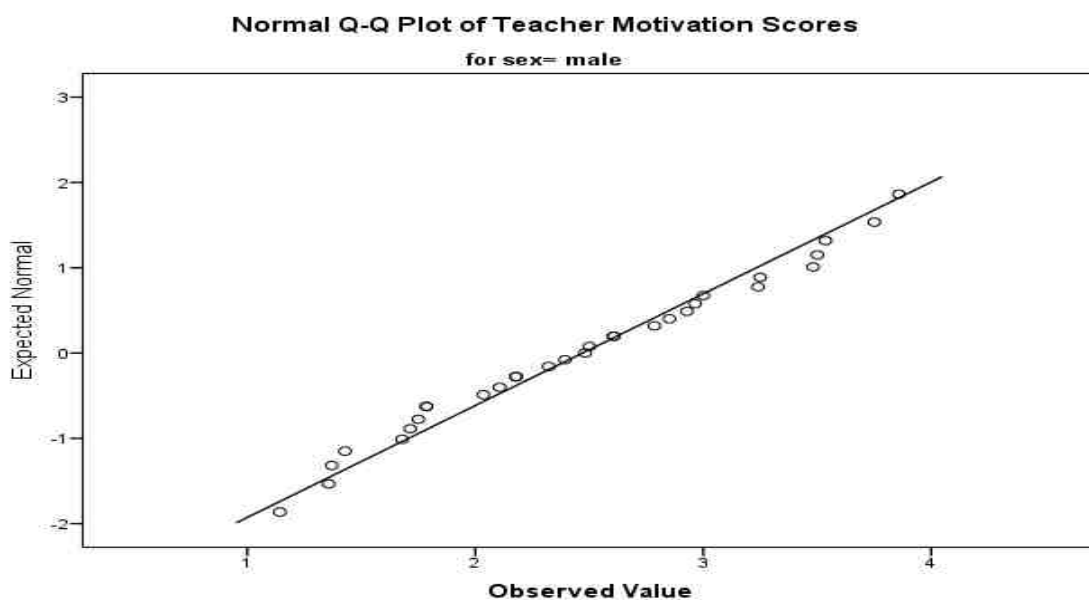


Figure 8

Outliers: Box and Whisker Plot for Male and Female Teachers after outliers were removed

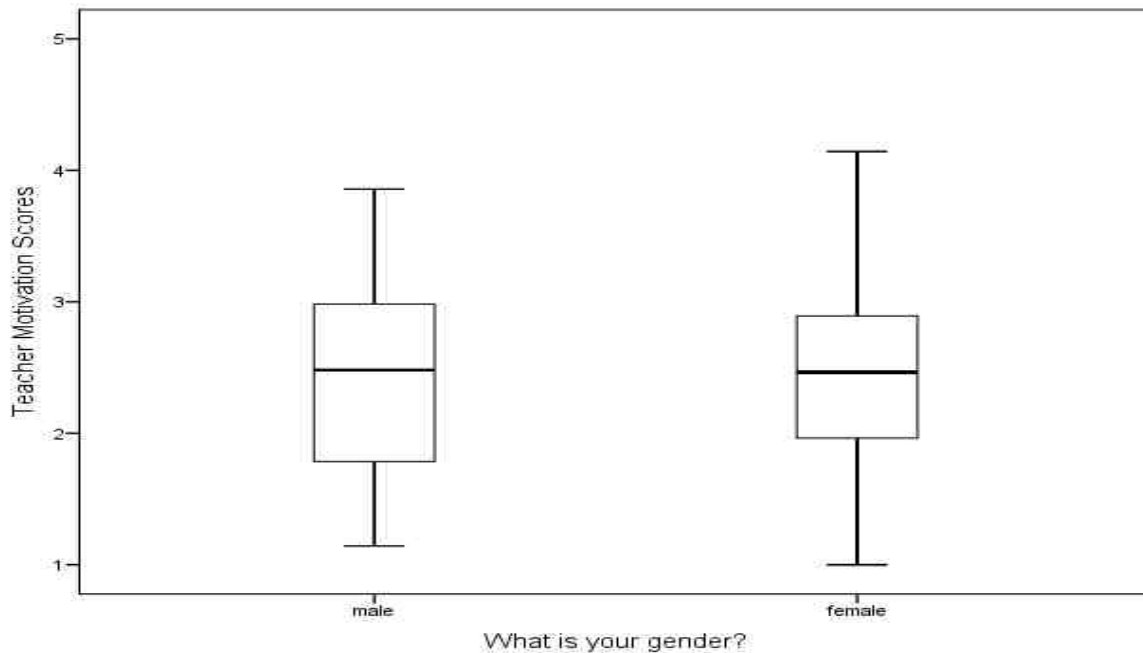


Figure 9

Histogram for Female Teachers with outliers removed

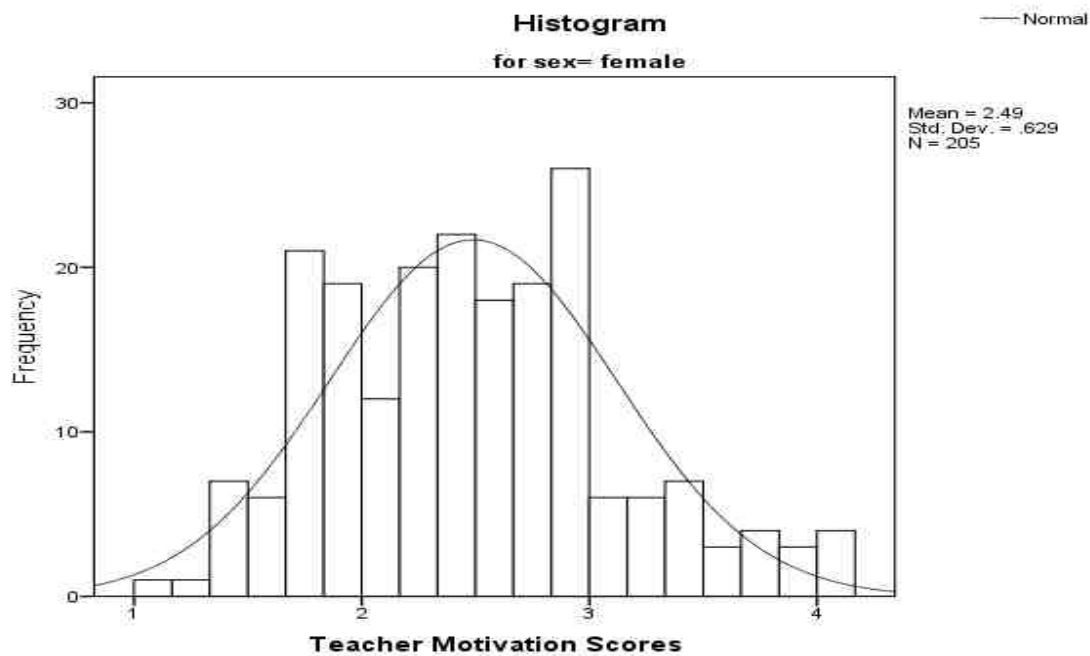


Figure 10

Q-Q Plot for Female Teachers with outliers removed

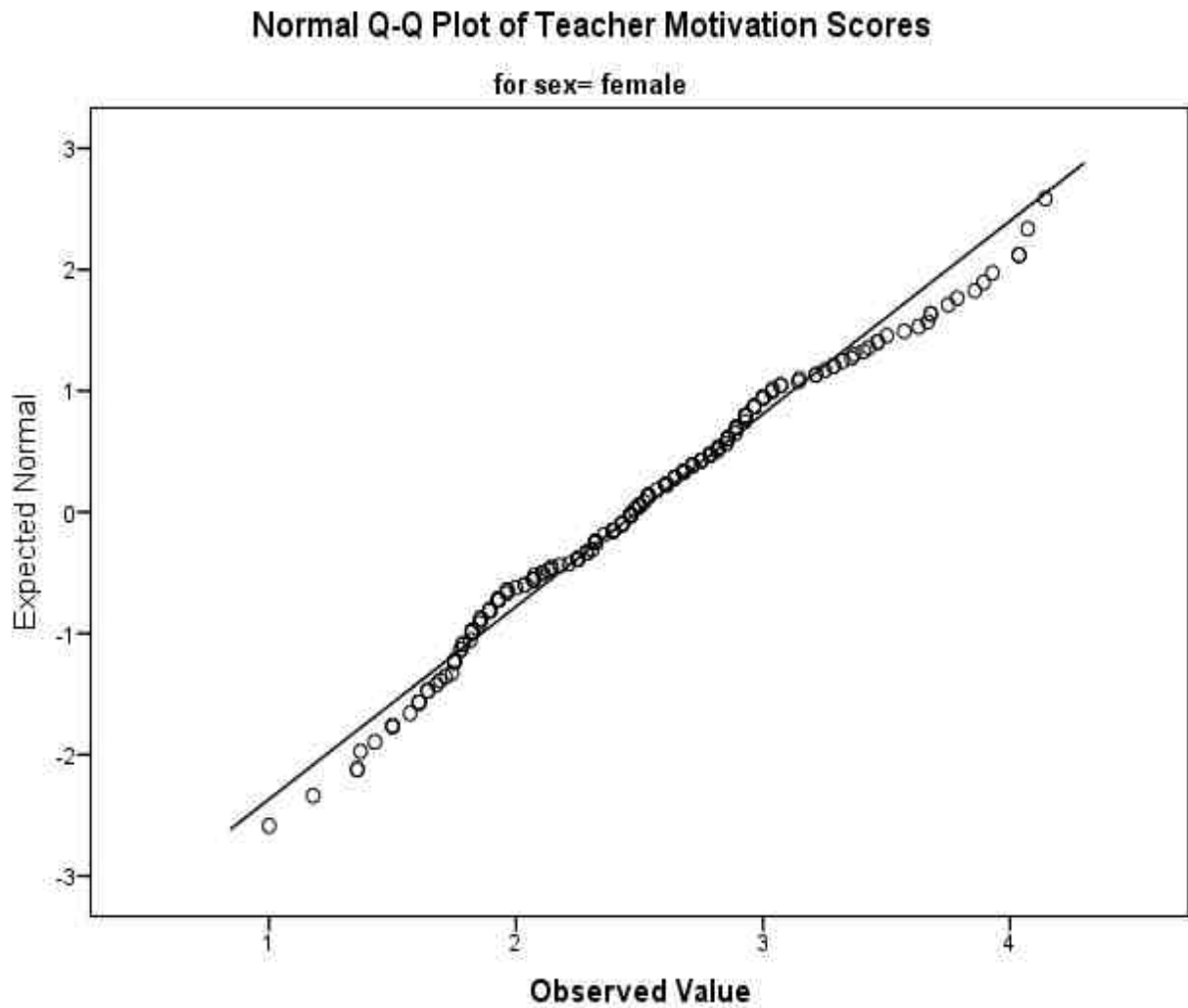


Table 9

Male and Female Teacher Descriptive

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Teacher Motivation Scores	female	205	2.49	.629	.044
	male	31	2.47	.763	.137

Table 10

*Levene Test for Male and Female Teacher**Independent Samples Test*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
Teacher Motivation Scores	Equal variances assumed	3.223	.074	.155	234	.877	.019	.125	-.227	.265
	Equal variances not assumed			.135	36.424	.894	.019	.144	-.272	.311

Null Hypotheses Three

H₀₃: There are no statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

ANOVA data screening. For the third hypothesis, an ANOVA was utilized because the independent variable was categorical (early career teachers, mid-career teachers, and late career teachers) and there were three groups. The analysis was conducted on the overall scale of the 28 motivation factors in the TMJS survey. The scores of the participants on these 28 questions constituted the dependent variable (teacher motivation scores). To determine if parametric tests could be used, a box and whisker plot was created and the data was shown to have three outliers

for the early career teachers, one for the mid-career teachers, and one for the late career teachers. Histograms were created for early career, mid-career, and late career teachers. Q-Q Plots were also created for early career, mid-career, and late career teachers. The histograms and Q-Q Plots all demonstrated non-normal distributions for each of the variables. Therefore the outliers were removed and the data was rechecked.

After removing the three outliers for the early career teachers, a histogram (Figure 11) was created and demonstrated a normal population distribution. A Q-Q Plot was also created for early career teachers (Figure 12) and this also demonstrated a normal distribution. Further, z scores for skewness (2.00) and kurtosis (.22) for early career teachers demonstrated a normal distribution. After removing the one outlier for the mid-career teachers, a histogram (Figure 13) was created and demonstrated a normal population distribution. A Q-Q Plot was also created for mid-career teachers (Figure 14) and this also demonstrated a normal distribution. Further, z scores for skewness (.62) and kurtosis (.08) for mid-career teachers demonstrated a normal distribution. After removing the single outlier for the late career teachers, a histogram (Figure 15) was created and demonstrated a normal population distribution. A Q-Q Plot was also created for late career teachers (Figure 16) and this also demonstrated a normal distribution. Further, z scores for skewness (1.33) and kurtosis (.20) for late career teachers demonstrated a normal distribution.

A table was produced with descriptive statistics for early career, mid-career, and late career teachers was produced (Table 11). Furthermore, a Levene's test (Table 12) was executed ($p = .441$) and the data fulfilled the assumption of equal variances. There was not a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by a one-way ANOVA $F(2, 234) = 1.189$, $p = .306$, $\alpha = .05$). The null hypothesis was not rejected. Therefore, post hoc tests were not

conducted. The data was found to have a small effect size of $d = .010$. The post hoc level of the statistical power was an observed power of .259.

Figure 11

Histogram for Early Career Teachers with outliers removed

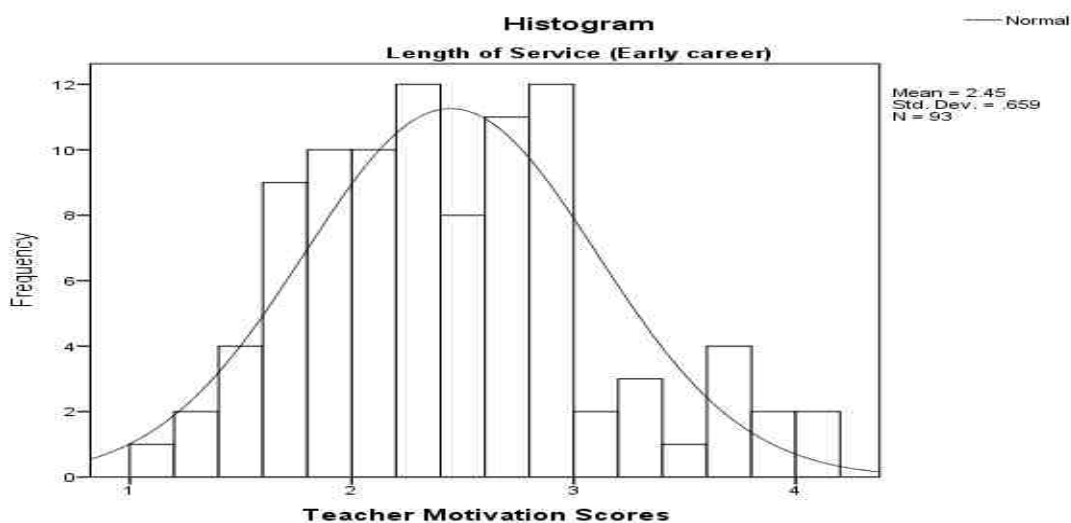


Figure 12

Q-Q Plot for Early Career Teachers

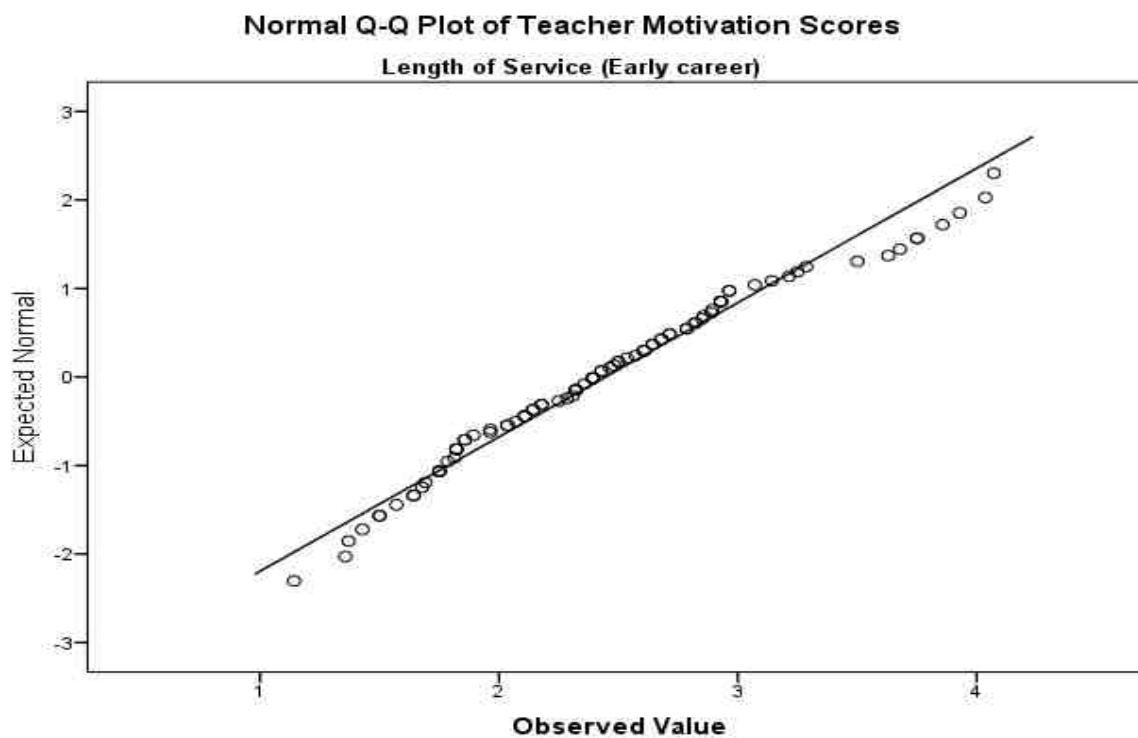


Table 11

*Descriptive Statistics for Length of Service**Descriptive***Teacher Motivation Scores**

	N	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Early career	93	2.45	.659	.068	2.31	2.58
Mid career	75	2.46	.621	.072	2.32	2.61
late career	69	2.60	.699	.084	2.43	2.77
Total	237	2.50	.660	.043	2.41	2.58

Figure 13

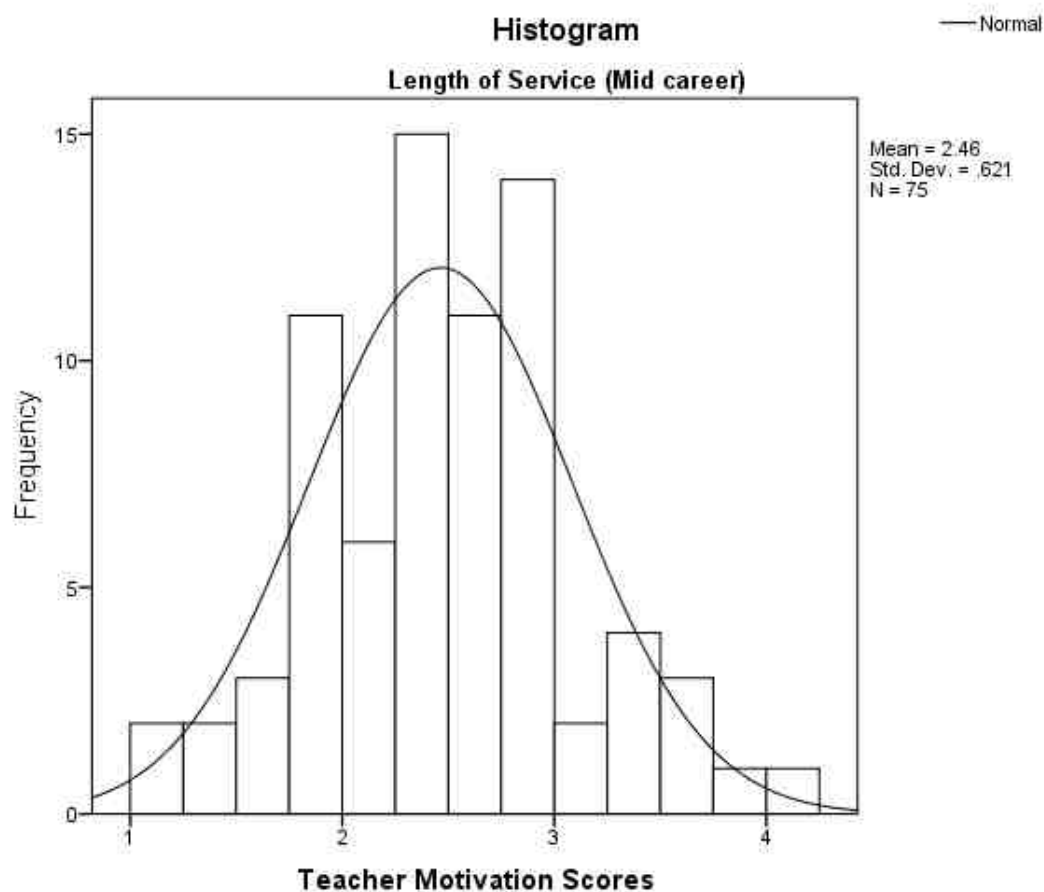
Histogram for Mid-Career Teachers

Figure 14

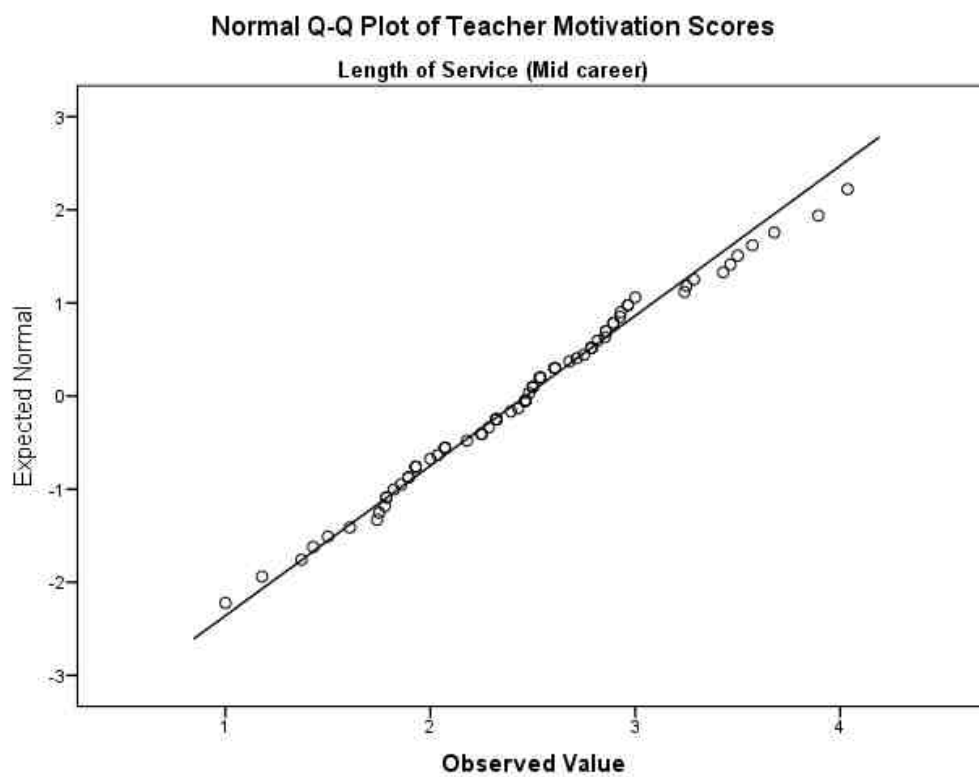
Q-Q Plot for Mid-Career Teachers

Figure 15

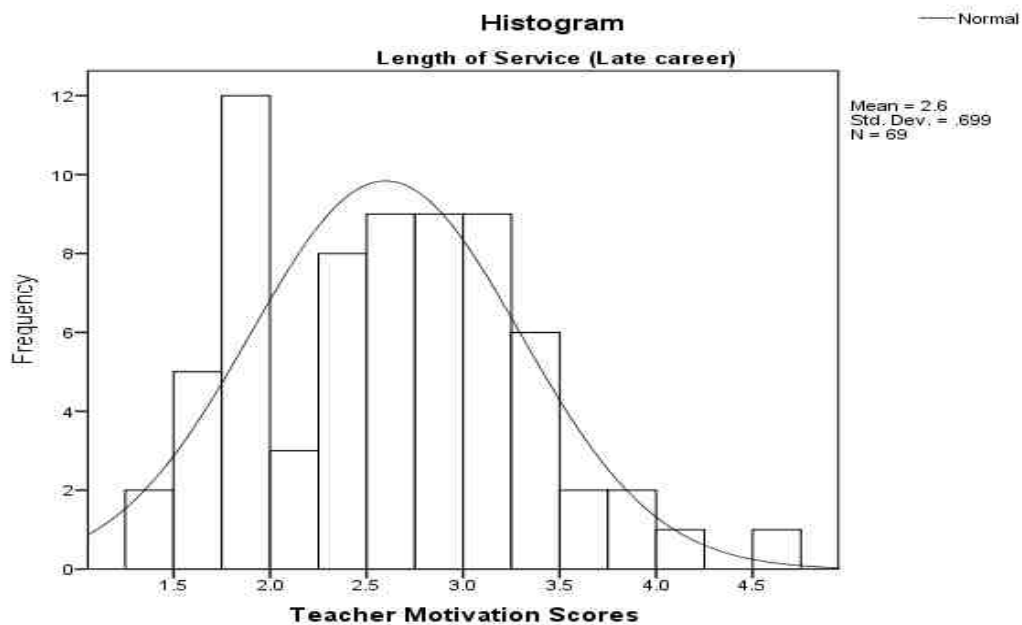
Histogram for Late Career Teachers

Figure 16

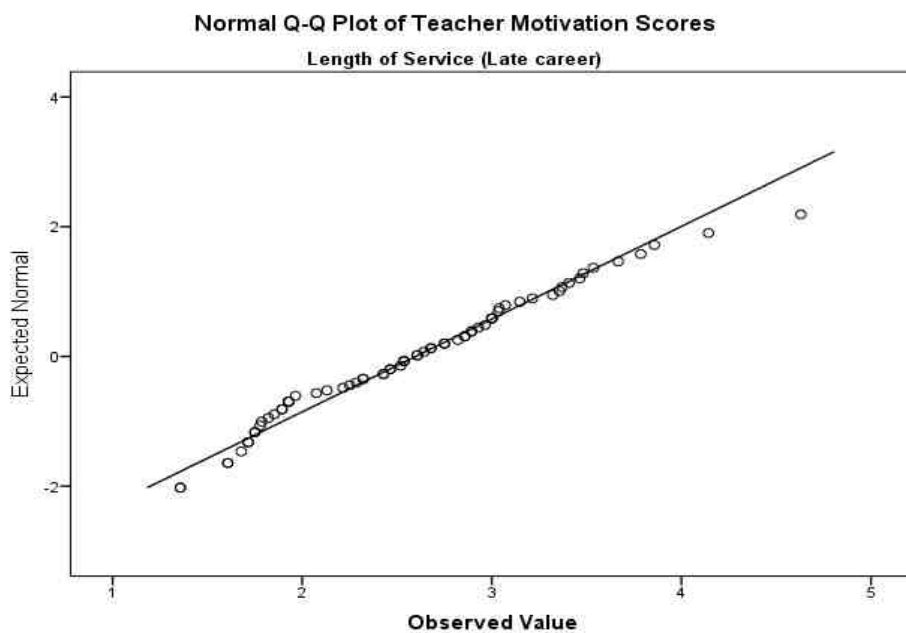
Q-Q Plot for Late Career Teachers

Table 12

ANOVA for Length of Service

*Test of Homogeneity of
Variances*

Teacher Motivation Scores

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.822	2	234	.441

Our data fulfilled the assumption of equal variances.

ANOVA

Teacher Motivation Scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.034	2	.517	1.189	.306
Within Groups	101.714	234	.435		
Total	102.748	236			

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This quantitative, non-experimental, causal-comparative study was designed to explore whether differences existed between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction (TMJS) survey. Additionally, data was checked to identify whether differences existed between male and female elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as well as whether differences existed between early career, mid-career, and late-career teachers' perceptions of motivation. Participants included teachers and administrators from ten participating schools in the Alpha School District (a pseudonym) and from two schools in the Beta School District (a pseudonym). Those who volunteered to participate in the study filled out the TMJS survey designed by Mertler (2002) to capture perceptions of motivation. An independent samples t-test was used to compare the means of the teachers and the administrators. An independent samples t-test was also used to compare the means of the male teachers and the female teachers. An ANOVA was conducted to determine if differences existed between the early career, mid-career, and late career teachers. The following chapter provides a discussion of the statistical analyses results, implications of the study, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation to determine if there were differences between the groups. The study also examined whether differences existed between male and female elementary teachers as well as between teachers at various stages in their career (early career, mid-career, late career). Administrators are the primary groups responsible for the motivation of teachers

(Kocobas, 2009). Therefore, it was thought important to find out whether administrators agreed with teachers as to what motivates teachers. Additionally, if differences were found between teachers of the different genders or between teachers at differing lengths of service (early career, mid-career, late career) that information could be valuable to administrators who seek information for motivating different demographics of their staff.

For this study, perceptions' of teacher motivation was measured with the TMJS survey designed by Mertler (2002). In all, 282 (251 teachers and 31 administrators) participants from 12 schools in two schools districts (the Alpha School District and the Beta School District) in South Carolina completed the survey. Two independent samples *t*-tests and an ANOVA were utilized to determine if there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of teacher motivation. For the first independent samples *t*-test, the independent variable was defined as job status and consisted of two groups (teachers and administrators). For the second independent samples *t*-test, the independent variable was defined as teacher gender and consisted of two groups (male teachers and female teachers). For the ANOVA, the independent variable was defined as teacher length of service and consisted of three groups (early career teachers, mid-career teachers, and late career teachers). The dependent variable was defined as teacher motivation scores as determined by the TMJS survey.

Research Question One

Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Null Hypothesis One

There are no statistically significant differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

For the first research question, an independent samples t-test was performed to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between elementary teachers and administrators on the TMJS survey. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Administrators perceived teachers as being more motivated by the factors in the survey than teachers did. As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. Previous teacher and administrator motivation studies also found statistically significant differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation.

In a recent study of K-12 teachers and administrators in Israel, Arar and Massry-Herzllah (2016) also found statistically significant differences between these groups. Boyle (2014) researched high school teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation in Judy County, Georgia and also found statistically significant differences between teachers and administrators. Likewise, both Brown and Hughes (2008) in Arkansas and Bexley (2005) in Mississippi identified statistically significant differences between the K-12 teachers and administrators on teacher motivation in their respective studies. Although none of these studies researched elementary teachers and administrators independent of the other grade levels, since they each found statistically significant differences between their teachers and administrators, it is perhaps not surprising that differences were found in this study as well.

Results from this study, and in the aforementioned studies, suggest that there may indeed be differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of what motivates teachers irrespective of the grade level of teachers and administrators. Identifying specific motivational factors that teachers and administrators perceive differently could assist administrators in tailoring motivational enhancement approaches towards achieving higher motivation among their teachers. The researcher calls for future research to be completed with surveys designed to identify specific motivation factors.

Research Question Two

Are there any differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Null Hypothesis Two

There are no statistically significant differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

For the second research question, an independent samples t-test was conducted to analyze whether statistically significant differences existed between male and female teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation on the TMJS survey. Statistically significant differences were not found between the male and female teachers. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. This result was surprising because the majority of studies that explored teacher motivation on the basis of gender identified statistically significant differences between male and female teachers (Kusurkar et al., 2013; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Kocobas, 2009; Amelink & Meszaros, 2011; Chan et al., 2012; Bexley, 2005; Kusurkar et al., 2011; Boyle, 2014). Only two

studies were found (Recepoglu, 2013; Akpinar et al., 2012) in which no statistically significant differences were found between male and female teachers.

The results of this study may have had contradictory results than the majority of other studies because of the low number of male teachers (n=31) compared to the number of female teachers (n=205) in this study. It is possible that male teachers conformed to what female teachers perceived as motivating because they were vastly outnumbered in the schools that were studied. To find out if this is the case, the researcher calls for a qualitative aspect to be added in future research of this kind. Both male and female teachers could be interviewed to obtain greater detail as to what specific motivation factors motivate each gender. The researcher also calls for future research in elementary schools in which the male and female teachers are more equally distributed.

Research Question Three

Are there any differences between early career teachers', mid-career teachers' and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Null Hypothesis Three

There are no statistically significant differences between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as reported by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two factors of motivation.

For this null hypothesis, an ANOVA was performed to determine if statistically significant differences existed between early career, mid-career, and late career teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation on the TMJS survey. There was not a statistically significant relationship between the variables and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. These

results suggest that there are no statistically significant differences in the perceptions of teacher motivation on the basis on length of service in this study.

This result is not totally surprising as previous studies demonstrated mixed results on this demographic variable. There were a number of studies in which statistically significant results were found on the basis of teacher length of service (Griffin, 2010; Receptoglu, 2013; Mertler, 2002; Schabarador et al., 2013; Erdemil, 2015; Lam, 2012; Klassen & Chui, 2010). There were also a number of studies in which no statistically significant differences were found on the basis of teacher length of service (Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014; Can, 2015; Akpinar et al., 2012). This variable was included because it was thought that motivation may change over time and life circumstances. However, in this study that was not found to be the case. Future research could explore other teacher demographics such as ethnicity, teacher generation, and level of education to determine if any of those variables affect the way teachers are motivated.

Implications

Although only the result of the first research question was statistically significant, the present study adds valuable research to the body of knowledge about teacher motivation. Firstly, no previous study that could be identified researched teacher motivation on the basis of comparing elementary teachers' perceptions and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. Previous teacher motivation studies explored this issue on a K-12 basis without delineating between the grade levels (Bexley, 2005; Brown & Hughes, 2008; Arar & Massry-Herzllah, 2017) or in the case of Boyle (2014) only researching at the high school level. Finding statistically significant results between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation adds to teacher motivation research in a new way with a previously unexplored group (elementary teachers and administrators). Additionally, in each of the

previously mentioned studies, teachers perceived the various factors to be more motivating than the administrators perceived. In this study, the reverse was true (administrators perceived teachers to be more motivated by the factors than the teachers did). This is, thus far, a difference found only in elementary schools.

Secondly, the present study added to the body of research about male and female elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as the vast majority of previous studies identified statistically significant differences with this demographic. Previously, the only research found which did not identify differences between male and female teachers came from two independent studies (Recepoglu, 2013; Akpinar et al., 2012), each conducted in the country of Turkey. The current results may be due to the location (South Carolina) or to the vastly larger number of female teachers as compared to male teachers in this study population.

Thirdly, the present study added to the body of research about early career, mid-career, and late career elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation. A number of other studies have explored whether teachers of varying lengths of service differ on perceptions of teacher motivation (Brown & Hughes, 2008; Boyle, 2014; Griffin, 2010; Recepoglu, 2013; Can, 2015; Mertler, 2002; Akpinar et al., 2012; Schabarador et al., 2013; Erdemli, 2015; Lam, 2012; Klassen & Chui, 2010). Although their results were mixed, this study's results can now be added to the overall body of research on whether length of service affects teacher motivation.

Finally, improving teacher motivation is a laudable goal. A number of researchers posit that teaching practices are enhanced with higher teacher motivation (Butler, 2012; Klassen et al., 2012; Remijan, 2014; Kocobas, 2009; Demir, 2011; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Arifin, 2015). Student performance likewise, can be linked to better teaching practices by motivated teachers (Butler, 2012; Jerotich, 2015; Recepolgu, 2013; Iliya & Ifeoma, 2015; Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012;

Klusman, Richter, & Ludtke, 2016). Likewise, administrators greatly influence the motivation of their teachers (Kocobas, 2009). Therefore, identifying whether administrators know what motivates teachers is important because if they perceive wrongly as to what motivates teachers it will be difficult for them to assist in the motivation of their staffs. The current study has demonstrated that for this population, administrators and teachers differ significantly on teacher motivation.

Limitations

The current study had limitations that could have affected the data. The first limitation was with the TMJS survey. Teachers and administrators are often busy. Taking out ten minutes to fill out a motivation survey means they have ten less minutes to do other teacher/administrator tasks. For that reason it is possible that some teachers and administrators who filled out the survey rushed through it and their answers did not accurately reflect their true feelings. Although participants were informed that their answers would be anonymous and confidential, it is still possible that when answering survey questions participants may have felt the need to select what they think is the 'correct' answer rather than their true feelings (Gall et al., 2007). Because participants completed this survey at a single time, it is possible that an incident of either a very positive nature or a very negative nature may have affected their true feelings than if the survey had been administered to them at a different time.

A final limitation is the inability to generalize the findings. The sample was taken out of convenience, limiting the generalizability of the findings (Warner, 2013). Because the current research only studied two school districts in one portion of the state of South Carolina, generalizability can only be made to populations that are similar in demographics. It is possible

that the teachers and administrators in other parts and the country and in other parts of the world could have had different results.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research is needed to determine if teachers and administrators differ on the factors that motivate teachers. The researcher suggests the following considerations:

1. Collect data that can identify specific subscales of motivational factors.
2. Add a qualitative component to the study in order to delve deeper into factors of motivation particularly with demographics in which there may be lower overall numbers such as administrators and male teachers.
3. Examine other demographics such as teacher ethnicity, teacher generation, and teacher level of education to determine if teacher motivation differs with any of these.
4. Collect data from other geographic locations.
5. Collect data from middle school teachers and administrators.

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Appendix A

The Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey

(Mertler's original survey)

Question No. 1

What is your overall level of satisfaction with your job as a teacher?

Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4

Question No. 2

If you had the opportunity to start over in a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?

Yes	No
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Question No. 3

Generally speaking, do you believe that the teachers with whom you work are motivated?

Yes	No
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Question No. 4

How many teachers that you know or work with would you classify as unmotivated?

1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	More than 10
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No. 5

On the following 6-point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the

Following serve as a motivating factor or an unmotivating factor for teachers.

	Highly Motivating -----HighlyUnmotivating					
5a. recognition (e.g., receiving praise from administrators, parents, students, or others)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5b. potential for professional growth (e.g., possibility of improving one's own professional skills)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

5c. supervision by superiors (e.g., overall competence of superiors)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5d. interpersonal relationships with colleagues (interactions with other teachers)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5e. salary (e.g., financial compensation)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5f. job security (e.g., tenure)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5g. status (e.g., professional status of teaching)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5h. interpersonal relationships with administrators (e.g., interaction with administrators)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5i. sense of achievement (e.g., experiencing success)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5j. working conditions (e.g., building conditions, amount of work, facilities available)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5k. district policies (e.g., overall effects of the district as an organization)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5l. teacher evaluation (e.g., appraisal of classroom instruction by evaluator)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5m. responsibility (e.g., autonomy, authority and responsibility for own work)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5n. potential advancement for (e.g., possibility of assuming different positions in the profession)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5o. work itself (e.g., aspects associated with the tasks of teaching)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5p. factors in personal life (e.g., effects of teaching on one's personal life)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5q. interpersonal relationships with students (e.g., interactions with students)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
5r. sense of accountability (e.g., being held directly responsible for student learning)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No. 6

On the following 6 point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the following items serve as a motivating factor or an unmotivating factor for teachers.

	Highly Motivating -----HighlyUnmotivating					
6a. A one-time monetary award (supplemental to the step increase)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6b. Being selected a "Teacher of the Year" in the district	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6c. An instructional workshop offered by the district for a fee	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6d. Having students thank a teacher for aiding in the understanding of a difficult concept	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6e. An instructional workshop offered and paid for by the district	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6f. being given the opportunity to participate in teacher projects (e.g., research, curriculum development)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6g. Early retirement/contract buyout	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6h. Observing vast improvements in the achievement levels of one's students since the beginning of the year	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6i. Being awarded a plaque by students	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
6j. Being permitted to purchase additional equipment and supplies for the classroom	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No.7

What is your gender?

Female	Male
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Question No.8

What is your ethnicity?

African American	Asia American	Caucasian	Hispanic American	Other
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5

Question No. 9

What is your age?

21-25-Yrs	26-30 Yrs	31-35 Yrs	36-40 Yrs	41-45 Yrs	46-50 Yrs	51-55 Yrs	56 Yrs or older
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6	<input type="radio"/> 7	<input type="radio"/> 8

Question No.10

Including the current school year, how many years of teaching experience do you have?

1-5 Yrs	6-10 Yrs	11-15 Yrs	16-20 Yr	21-25 Yrs	26-30 Yrs	31-35 Yrs	36 Yrs or more
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6	<input type="radio"/> 7	<input type="radio"/> 8

Question No.11

Which best describes your current school setting?

Urban	Suburban	Rural
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3

Question No.12

Which best describes your current school level?

Elementary	Middle/Jr.High	High School
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3

Appendix B

The Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey

(Adapted Version for this Study)

Question No. 1

Generally speaking, do you believe that the teachers with whom you work are motivated?

Yes	No
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Question No. 2

How many teachers that you know or work with would you classify as unmotivated?

1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	More than 10
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No. 3

On the following 6-point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the

Following serve as a motivating factor or an unmotivating factor for teachers.

	Highly Motivating -----HighlyUnmotivating					
3a. recognition (e.g., receiving praise from administrators, parents, students, or others)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3b. potential for professional growth (e.g., possibility of improving one's own professional skills)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3c. supervision by superiors (e.g., overall competence of superiors)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3d. interpersonal relationships with colleagues (interactions with other teachers)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3e. salary (e.g., financial compensation)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3f. job security (e.g., tenure)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3g. status (e.g., professional status of teaching)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3h. interpersonal relationships with administrators (e.g., interaction with	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

administrators)						
3i. sense of achievement (e.g., experiencing success)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3j. working conditions (e.g., building conditions, amount of work, facilities available)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3k. district policies (e.g., overall effects of the district as an organization)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3l. teacher evaluation (e.g., appraisal of classroom instruction by evaluator)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3m. responsibility (e.g., autonomy, authority and responsibility for own work)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3n. potential advancement (e.g., possibility of assuming different positions in the profession)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3o. work itself (e.g., aspects associated with the tasks of teaching)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3p. factors in personal life (e.g., effects of teaching on one's personal life)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3q. interpersonal relationships with students (e.g., interactions with students)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
3r. sense of accountability (e.g., being held directly responsible for student learning)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No. 4

On the following 6 point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the following items serve as a motivating factor or an unmotivating factor for teachers.

	Highly Motivating -----HighlyUnmotivating					
4a. A one-time monetary award (supplemental to the step increase)	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4b. Being selected a "Teacher of the Year" in the district	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4c. An instructional workshop offered by the district for a fee	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4d. Having students thank a teacher for aiding in the understanding of a difficult concept	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4e. An instructional workshop offered and paid for by the district	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4f. being given the opportunity to participate in teacher projects (e.g., research, curriculum	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

development)						
4g. Early retirement/contract buyout	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4h. Observing vast improvements in the achievement levels of one's students since the beginning of the year	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4i. Being awarded a plaque by students	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6
4j. Being permitted to purchase additional equipment and supplies for the classroom	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

Question No.5

What is your gender?

Female	Male
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Question No.6

Including the current school year, how many years of teaching experience do you have?

1-5 Yrs	6-10 Yrs	11-15 Yrs	16-20 Yr	21-25 Yrs	26-30 Yrs	31-35 Yrs	36 Yrs or more
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6	<input type="radio"/> 7	<input type="radio"/> 8

Question No.7

Which best describes your job title?

Teacher	Administrator
<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2

Appendix C

Permission Letter from Dr. Mertler to use Instrument

From: Dr. Craig A. Mertler [craig.mertler@gmail.com<mailto:craig.mertler@gmail.com><mailto:craig.mertler@gmail.com>]
Sent: Sunday, January 18, 2015 11:20 AM
To: Foreman, Jody
Subject: Re: Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey

Hello Jody,

Thanks for your email request. You certainly may have permission to use the instrument for your dissertation research study. All I ask is that you cite me appropriately.

Thanks, and best of luck!!

Best Regards,

Dr. Craig A. Mertler

CRAIG A. MERTLER, Ph.D.
President, Mertler Educational Consulting, LLC
Delray Beach, FL

Web:

www.craigmertler.com/mec<<http://www.craigmertler.com/mec>><<http://www.craigmertler.com/mec>><<http://www.craigmertler.com/mec>>

Phone: 561-665-0572

Email:

craig.mertler@gmail.com<<mailto:craig.mertler@gmail.com>><<mailto:craig.mertler@gmail.com>><<mailto:craig.mertler@gmail.com>>

Appendix D

Permission Letter from Dr. Mertler to Alter Instrument

DM

Dr. Craig Mertler craig.mertler@gmail.com

|

To:

Wed 1/27/2016 12:08 PM

Hi Jody,

You can certainly have my permission to adapt the instrument as necessitated by the parameters of your study.

Actually, it would likely improve both the validity and reliability, since the items would pertain more to administrators than would my original items.

Continued best of luck! I am actually sitting here putting the "finishing touches" on my final study report for my statewide study I conducted in Arizona in the fall!

Thank you,

Dr. Craig A. Mertler

CRAIG A. MERTLER, Ph.D.

Associate Professor

Leadership & Innovation EdD Program Coordinator

Arizona State University | [Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College](#)

P.O. Box 37100 | Phoenix, Arizona | 85069-7100 | Mail Code 3151
Office: FAB N278 | PH: 602.543.2829 | E-mail: Craig.Mertler@asu.edu

<http://www.craigmertler.com>

On Jan 27, 2016, at 10:05 AM, Foreman, Jody Jody.Foreman@jcsd.net wrote:

Dr. Mertler,

I am sorry to bother you again with another request and a question.

Previously you gave me permission to not only use your survey, but to add a demographic question (adding the category teacher/administrator). Since my study involves comparing teacher and administrator responses regarding the factors that motivate teachers it has come to my attention that the first two questions in the instrument are not applicable for administrators. The questions are: 1. 'What is your overall level of satisfaction with your job as a teacher?' and 2. 'If you had the opportunity to start over again in a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?'

Can I have your permission to remove those two items from the instrument?

Also, do you think that by removing those two items that I will be harming the instrument's overall reliability or validity?

Appendix E

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

September 26, 2018

Jody Foreman

IRB Exemption 3467.092618: Elementary Teachers' and Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Motivation

Dear Jody Foreman,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

- (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
- (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and
 - (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,



Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

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Appendix F

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
9/26/2018 to –
Protocol # 3467.092618

CONSENT FORM

Elementary Teachers' and Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Motivation
Jody Foreman
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study of elementary teachers' and elementary administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an elementary teacher/administrator in a participating school. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Jody Foreman, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to identify differences in perceptions of what motivates teachers. The following groups will be checked for differences (elementary teachers and administrators; male teachers and female teachers; early-career teachers, mid-career teachers, and late-career teachers). The following research questions guide this study:

RQ1: Are there any differences between elementary teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ2: Are there any differences between male and female elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

RQ3: Are there any differences between early career, mid-career, and late career elementary teachers' perceptions of teacher motivation as measured by the Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey based on Herzberg's two-factors of motivation?

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following thing:

1. Participate in an online survey. It should take you approximately five to ten minutes to complete this survey.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from participating in this study. Benefits to society include the possibility that the results of this study will enlighten elementary administrators as to what teachers view as motivating for themselves and be able to plan for the future accordingly. Consequently, this study could lead to a more motivated core of teachers in the future.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Appendix G

Dr. Mertler,

I hope that you remember me. Previously, you gave me permission to use your survey (The Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction Survey) in my dissertation. I just successfully defended my dissertation. My program requires me to submit it for publication in the Liberty University open-access institutional repository, the Scholars Crossing, and the Proquest Theses and Dissertation subscription research database. Can I have your permission to reproduce your survey in these publications? I will, of course, cite you appropriately.

Thank You

Jody

Jody Foreman, Ed.S

Dr. Craig Mertler <craig.mertler@gmail.com>



Reply all

Today, 4:04 PM

Foreman, Jody

JCSD

*WARNING: This is an external email that originated outside of our email system. DO NOT click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and know the content is safe!
From the JCSD Technology Department*
Yes, of course you may, Jody! And congratulations!

Thank you,

CRAIG A. MERTLER, Ph.D.

Arizona State University | Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College