THE USE OF MOTIVATIONAL THEORY IN TEACHER PERFORMANCE

EVALUATIONS: A CONTENT ANALYSIS

by

Marjorie A. Parsons

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

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A wide spectrum of theoretical views of motivation from findings in psychology, communication, organizational management, and educational administration are reviewed; eight elements of Fredrick Herzberg's two factor theory are specifically considered in relation to current research on written teacher performance evaluations: achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, the work itself, school policies, supervisory provisions, and working conditions. The critical question is asked: what is the strength and type of motivational message that public school administrators are sending to teachers in written performance evaluation documents? Results of a content analysis of 200 written teacher evaluation documents, prepared by a suburban Detroit K-12 public school administration, are presented and analyzed with an emphasis on the frequency of use of each individual Herzberg criterion, and the pattern of integrated use of the Herzberg criteria.

In general, written teacher evaluations are found to be motivationally significant primarily in

communicating recognition, and secondarily in attempting to activate achievement. Male and female administrators are observed to communicate motivational references at approximately the same rate of frequency, but evaluated female teachers are observe to receive motivational messages at a rate of frequency 76% higher than evaluated male teachers. High school administrators are observed to communicate the greatest frequency of motivational messages. Administrators at all three levels are observed to communicate recognition at approximately the same high rate of frequency.

Interpretation of the study's findings involves answering the question: Motivation for what? Despite the teacher evaluation system's overt purpose, to stimulate instructional performance improvement, the cumulative effect of observed administrative stress on simple recognition of approved teacher behavior, supports a conclusion that maintaining a long-established status quo by simple reinforcement of acceptable teaching behavior is apparently what drives the public schools' written instructional performance evaluaton system. The significance of this finding lies in its descriptive contribution to a profile of an important school administration practice, and also in its indication of a measurable organizational "temperment" toward change.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to Patrick Francis Parsons and Laura Elvere Parsons whose enthusiasm, caring, and love continuously energized their mom. Despite the enormous burden this project imposed on our family life, their staunchness verified Browning, "Greatness is made of little things." It is also a gift to my mother, Loretta V. Smith and my aunts, Margaret M. Carey and Sister M. Bertille Carey, RSM; their intelligence, patience, and perceptiveness should make them, in truth, the recipients of the doctoral degree.

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Dr. Roger A. McCaig whose brilliant analytical skills and generous, warm-hearted encouragement have graced my years of teaching as well as my preparation of this study.

Dr. John H. Suehr whose intense sensitivity, unfailing goodness, and unique lack of reliance on popular approval systems have taught me the true meaning of motivation, and have sustained my years of satisfying work.

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PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

Introduction

At the core of what it means to be a person is the concept of individual motivation. In a sense, the study of motivation is the study of control, the essential question being: whose control? The research begun by organizational psychologist Fredrick Herzberg in 1959 suggests that man is motivated both by external control mechanisms and internal control mechanisms either of which can influence his behavior and stimulate his will to act. For educational organizations, one of the most significant inquiries into motivational controls involves the measurement and evaluation of teacher performance. The need for a descriptive study of teacher performance evaluation became increasingly evident in the last few years when the literature of evaluation strongly suggested that instructional appraisals aimed at encouraging performance growth should replace traditional instructional appraisals which aimed at simply assessing achievement. As a lever for redefining the administrative task of communicating teaching evaluations, a theory-based

study of current written evaluation practices is intended to describe which motivational perspective is currently driving administrative written communications of teaching performance evaluation.

Research on motivational forces suggests that optimally effective written teacher evaluations tend to accomplish more than a careful assessment of achievemment against goals; evaluation documents which evolve from a sound theoretical basis also present meaningful stimuli expressly planned to prompt reinvigorated responses by teachers to the multiple problems of organized instruction in schools. The question examined here is whether public school administrators are using the tenets of motivational theory, as defined by Fredrick Herzberg, to assist their teachers' performance improvement.

Individual differences in performance motivation inevitably surface when school administrators prepare teachers' performance feedback. Even though the profession of education is philosophically driven by the concept that people are different, practical responses to individual differences sometimes elude the traditional administrative practice of preparing written evaluations of teachers. Recognizing that a fundamental characteristic of all groups of people is diversity, current literature on motivation espouses expanding an organization's variety of differences rather than restricting them; as positive elements, collective

individual needs should serve an organization as a growth resource, a dynamic supply of diverse talent and energy.

Motivational theory shows that by responding to the distinct incentive needs of teachers, a school administrator may find that performance appraisal feedback transforms divergence into assets. Research on personnel evaluation has concluded that the regular neglect of unique motivating differences among teachers is potentially a result of administrative systems that tend to emphasize programs rather than individual performance styles.

Evaluation of human performance involves a decision on what type of behavior is desirable, followed by a description of what actions actually are occurring, and finally, a judgment about how closely the observed reality approximates the desired standard. The complexity of an appraisal process and the difficulty of translating it into language which encourages and stimulates improved teaching performance is the emphasis of this present research project. Albert Einstein's admonition, however, that, "Words are and remain an empty sound, ... the road to perdition has ever been accompanied by lip service to an idea..."[1] reminds one that a written evaluation's words themselves, while documentable, are only part of the school's motivational process. Administrative evaluations which frequently and verbally strengthen and nourish an individual's desire for the Herzberg-identified motivators

of achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth, address a teacher's psychological need for regular, reliable feedback on his professional performance.

Research on effective models for teacher evaluation reveal no best format for success in this essential task. Many definitions of evaluation are limited to a systematic determination of whether, and to what degree, identified tasks have been successfully performed. The problem of confining the formal written evaluation to achievement of specified goals is that in such narrowness, the essence of what it means to educate is easily overlooked. A simple "achievement against goals" perspective denies the reality that no strategy works in isolation; achieving objectives is meaningful only in the context of its purpose. The primary question of why a person succeeds in obtaining his goal is why does he want to obtain it in the first place? What motivates him to strive, what causes him to fail to achieve more, and what meaning does he perceive in the enterprise? Addressing such factors is the real challenge of preparing the type of teacher performance evaluations that move people to search for their own understanding of what it means to teach successfully.

One aspect of motivation that studies have made abundantly clear is that a person cannot be simply reasoned into a state of willing to succeed in any enterprise. What a person can be talked into, he can also

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be talked out of. Instead, personal incentives must spring from an individual's own unique desire to accomplish or obtain a certain achievement. The long-term motivational sources identified by Herzberg as the desire for achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth tend to be internal and less subject to the changing nature of worldly detail than short-term stimulators, or such hygiene factors as pay, hours, and job surroundings. As a result, an external device like a professional evaluation can vigorously augment or stimulate latent teacher effectiveness only by personally involving teachers themselves in the appraisal process, and by addressing their unique, long term motivation needs.

As the process of inspiring people is essentially a function of communication, it is the choice of language as well as the content of thought that an administrator selects which determines the efficacy of his motivational message. By definition, communication encompasses listening as well as speaking; if a written evaluation is to serve as an incentive, an administrator first needs to listen to individual teachers before responding to each one's personal motivation needs. New evidence on the importance of listening has been found in medical research studies which have shown that physicians sometimes misdiagnose illnesses because they don't listen well when their patients describe symptoms. Administrators as well as doctors, "...can get a tremendous amount of information

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if they can just listen quietly a little longer."[2] Research on the Boolean Logic of Artificial Intelligence has underscored the irreplacable importance of listening as a key factor in human intuitive reasoning. As a form of communication, listening demands concentrating on both the explicit words and the implicit undertones of language, or the capacity as Robert Frost described it, to "hear a person's grief as well as his grievance."[3] Individualizing a motivational message calls for understanding some of the needs of the person receiving the message which demands active listening when administrators serve as evaluators.

Even though the subject of this study is the effective use of motivational components in teachers' written evaluations, motivating people does not begin or end with addressing their divergent needs on individual performance appraisals. Rather, the written evaluation is documented evidence that a school's administration recognizes the requirement that people need constant and stimulating feedback in order to work positively toward achieving their own as well as the organization's goals.

People, however, "like buildings and machines, must first be maintained, before they can be motivated."[4] The research begun by Fredrick Herzberg proposes that factors intrinsic to a job substantially determine the extent to which people are motivated to work. These factors, that Herzberg called "motivators," include

regular feedback on achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement or personal growth in competence. Dissatisfaction or loss of motivation is usually caused by factors extrinsic to work, termed "hygienes." Examples of these short term motivators include school policies, supervisory practices, working conditions, pay, security, and status.

Herzberg's work has shown that the essential prerequisite to higher level motivation is personal satisfaction of an individual's "lower order" or "hygiene" needs such as basic economic, security, orientation, status, social, and physical requirements. Even though maintenance needs tend to be peripheral to a school's purpose, their continuous satisfaction, according to Herzberg's two factor theory, serves as a fundamental condition for motivation. Following the Herzberg theory, performance feedback will enhance motivation to the extent that motivators are specifically designed into the feedback mechanism. Appraisals that deal solely with hygiene, however, will not be likely to generate lasting performance improvement.

In the study of organizational behavior, it has frequently been said that all management is ultimately the management of human effort. That simply means that before all else, people's attitudes and perceptions are a primary cause of an organization's successes and failures.

Ideally, the recognition teachers receive is a natural expression of feedback from their achievement itself. In reality, motivational theory has suggested that consistently reinforced, planned feedback on such instruments as performance evaluations is as much a function of the attidudes and knowledge of informed school administrators as it is of the intrinsic characteristics of an instructional system itself.

Purpose of the Study

The investigation undertaken here has the descriptive purpose of identifying motivational characteristics which appear on written performance evaluations of teachers in The Grosse Pointe Public School System. In order to fulfill a descriptive purpose, the study employs the set of five motivator needs defined by Herzberg: achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth, and the three applicable Herzberg maintenance needs: school policies, supervisory practices, and working conditions, as an analytical matrix to describe the extent of motivational theory inclusion on documented teacher evaluations.

This study also has a theory-testing purpose; motivator-hygiene theory postulates that two different sets of factors affect a worker, each in a different way. One set, the motivators, tends to produce feelings of stimulation toward work, while the other set, the hygiene factors tend to be associated with feelings of job dissatisfaction. As a theoretical purpose, the study seeks a clarification of Grosse Pointe school administrators' orientation toward motivatior factors or hygiene factors as shown in the performance appraisals they write about Grosse Pointe teachers.

This study acknowledges the teacher's psychological dilemma of being in a job in which one can

appear to succeed only if one's students succeed. Few educators feel the same satisfaction that bakers experience when a loaf of bread turns out well. When pupils do not do well, or do not even want to do well, a teacher has difficulty gaining personal satisfaction or growth in professional self-respect. While this paper is concerned with the motivational feedback an administrator can provide to teachers, it avoids the dubious assumption that an organization's administrators are exclusivley responsible for providing teachers' motivational stimulus. This project's scope is limited to the direct impact of written evaluations, and accepts the reality that other motivational resources are also needed by teachers to offset the somewhat ambiguous product of the educator's role.

The research problem explored in this project concerns one of the most important responsibilities of school administrators: the task of encouraging teachers to actual performance improvement. The project traces documented thinking to date which has found that motivation can be encouraged through a process of written communication, that motivation, as defined by Herzberg, may not inexorably lead to higher achievement, but does make a positive difference in teacher performance, that the type of motivational message which is primarily concerned with human environmental adjustment can be expected to promote a minimal or maintenance level of

performance behavior, while the type of motivational message which is concerned with psychological growth or intellectual development can be expected to stimulate a worker to achieve improved instructional performance, and asks, as a research problem: What is the type and strength of the motivational message that Grosse Pointe Public School administrators are sending to teachers in their written performance evaluations?

The purpose of counting and coding examples of motivational characteristics for this study is to determine the ratio of knowledge to practice, the relation of motivator-hygiene theory to written teacher evlauation practices as evidenced by the teaching appraisal documents in the Grosse Pointe School System. This descriptive study analyzes documentary materials, namely written teacher evaluations that already exist, and is concerned with what school administrators think and do as revealed by what they put on paper. The study's ultimate purpose in illuminating what is, is to direct more thinking toward what might be.

The key to an organization's success is not, however, paper; it's people. As with all other forms of education, the administrative task of providing motivational feedback is essentially the process of reaching out to other people, and trying to help them to do their jobs better.

The focal point of this analysis is the written

communication link between an instructional evaluator and an instructional performer; from this focal point, the analysis is aimed at producing an accurate description of how reliably this written communication link serves as a firm synapse between motivational theory and evaluation practice. In this study, the quantitative evidence supplied by the collected data should suggest the strength and quality of the written motivational outreach school administrators in Grosse Pointe are sending to their teaching staffs at evaluation time.

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Significance of the Study

Voluminous evidence exists in the literature of educational psychology to suggest that when teachers are presented with accurate, behaviorally stated information on their professional performance, they can use that information to improve their teaching behavior. Providing reliable feedback to teachers for performance improvement purposes is recognized as an essential component of a school administrator's responsibility. The language administrators choose to verbalize their evaluations of teachers' performance is clearly a determining factor in the usability of feedback information to teachers. This project's significance to educational administration theory and practice is in ascertaining whether a discrepancy exists between the potential utility of the findings of motivational theory, as defined by Fredrick Herzberg, and the actual use of the findings of motivational theory in the administrative practice of writing performance evaluations of teachers.

While the research is descriptive in nature, it is expected that the focus on motivation as a factor of evaluative feedback, will generate significant help to school administrators in developing motivationaly profitable strategies for teacher evaluation. The significance of this study lies not only in its potential

for application in practice, but in its clarification of some of the unique behavioral issues delineating the performance evaluation process. All teacher behavior cannot be controlled or directed, because people differ in individual talent and capacity to develop in different directions. The study, however, begins with the premise that administrators can modify teacher behavioral tendencies by using encouraging or discouraging feedback; written evaluations may not be able to totally change anyone, but they may be helpful in inspiring a teacher to become more successful. Indeed, it is the basic premise of all educational pursuit that what an educator does can make a predictable difference in how other people act.

> The fundamental fact of human existence is man with man. What is peculiarly characteristic of the human world is above all that something that takes place between one being and another the like of which can be found nowhere in nature.[5]

The significance of this study lies in its attempt to desecribe something of what happens in one of man's important communication tasks.

Definition of the Variables

A continuing problem in the study of teacher motivation has been the lack of standard, precise definitions of the terms used in numerous investigations. Different researchers use the language of motivation in diverse ways. Even worse, they sometimes fail to define the phraseology they use at all. The semantics of motivation includes expressions such as goals, purposes, intentions, desires, beliefs, wants, habits, needs, drives, values, rewards, and compulsions in descriptive, unqualified, contradictory, and sometimes misleading fashion. To overcome the obscurity of aleatoric terms, this study is grounded on the firm, restrictive basis of motivation-hygiene theory as defined by organizational psychologist Fredrick Herzberg.

MOTIVATION is a psychological term for a process tht deliberately impels an organism toward active, integrated, directed behavior.

The term is a construct used to account for incitement either in terms of the energy expended in specific goal seeking, or in relation to internal and external factors which help initiate as well as maintain purposeful human effort. In the context of organizational behavior, motivation is concerned with human personality, especially in a group context, and is directed toward

describing and analyzing causes of people's actions in order to understand and influence them. In searching for an explanation of human action, organizational theorists have focused on discrete cognitive, social, and physical roots of man's behavior mechanisms. The research of Fredrick Herzberg specifically supports a motivational schema based on two mutually exclusive factors of human nature: animal or maintenance characteristics, and human or motivator characteristics. The goal of Herzberg's and most other organizational studies of motivation is to learn how to create more effective, satisfying, and productive work environments. In educational administration, the specific objective of most studies of motivation is to understand how to stimulate increased learning through improved teacher performance.

EVALUATION in education generally consists of two classifications: summative, a system of perfunctory, routine monitoring; formative, a system of supportive assistance for performance growth.

Over the last decade teacher evaluation has assumed increasing importance even though it is generally agreed that the more "professional" a person is, the more difficult it is to validly judge his competence. This dilemma stems from the need to evaluate effective performance rather than simply rate work output. Prior to 1960, an instructor's skill was typically perceived to be a collection of desirable personal characteristics such as

commitment, creativity, loyalty, and initiative. Primary in this collection of descriptors was a person's intelligence as measured by the extent of his subject matter knowledge. However, research since 1960 has found almost no relationship between a teacher's measurable knowledge and his ability to produce gains in pupil learning. Rarely were any of the other typical traits, formerly deemed appropriate for teachers, ever defined explicity or tested scientifically.

In actual implementation, evaluation of teacher performance traditionally walked the line between formative and summative approaches. A formative orientation focuses on providing supportive assistance to a teacher for the purpose of improving his instructional skills, while a summative orientation is designed to provide an assessment mechanism for obtaining clear and consistent documentation of accountable teacher behavior. Formative and summative approaches share a role of conveying useful information; the extent to which each is used separately or in combination typically suits the educational goals, the management style, the conception of teaching, and the community values of the school district. Before an evaluation commences, formative and summative purposes for the evaluation system are normally ascertained in order to match the process to the purpose.

The positive outreach of formative evaluation systems is based on the premise that most teachers have

the capability of further growth and development and that evaluations which focus on coaching will enable them to improve their teaching performance. An emphasis on improvement necessarily demands an emphasis on motivation; the single most important distinction between formative and summative systems comes in the feedback each evaluation framework provides. While summative evaluations yield perfunctory, routine monitoring of minimum performance adequacy, formative evaluations can produce motivationaly valuable advice on the substance of instructional work. To be effective, however, formative systems usuallly depend on a supportive relationship between a knowledgeable supervisor and a receptive teacher. The use of formative evaluation systems tends to reveal an administrative identity not as much with authoritarian power as with people themselves and what it takes them to change.

MOTIVATOR-HYGIENE THEORY holds that man has two sets of needs which are mutually exclusive: hygiene, or the need to avoid pain, and motivation, or the need to grow psychologically.

Avoidance of pain can be accomplished without necessarily producing any performance satisfaction or any motivation to achieve more. Fulfillment of hygiene needs, however, is normally a first prerequisite for growth toward achievement motivation. In The Motive To Work in 1959, Herzberg first described hygiene factors as elements

related to people's animal or survival nature and motivators as elements which appeal to the uniquely human characteristic of desiring psychological growth through achievement.

COMMUNICATION is defined as an operation involving the transfer of informational messages between two points.

The sending of messages from one person to another, in written language, is a complex process of three essential stages. A message is first formulated by a sender in coded symbols designed to convey meaning to a specified receiver who is assumed to be capable of decoding the written symbols. When the message is received by the recipient, it is processed, meaning its written signals are changed by systematically coding and re-coding so that the recipient comes to understand and interpret what he believes is the idea of the written message. Finally, when comprehended, the transformed signals of the written message elicit a certain response from the reader-recipient. The three essential stages of communication analysis consist of dealing with language as a pattern of frequencies; the component parts of these frequencies make up the pieces of the message transferred from person to person. This study consists of an intense analysis of the written communication link between school administrators as evaluators and school teachers as performers on the theory that the predictability of the

content of evaluation documents can reveal much about the predictability of motivational practices existent in present teacher performance evaluation systems.

ACHIEVEMENT means the sense of accomplishment a worker experiences as a result of his successful attainment of a goal or goals that he personally values.

A performer who clearly comprehends the standards of performance which exist for his actions, can be said to experience achievement when his behavior matches or surpasses the defined norms. A work world devoid of opportunities for achievement, or lacking in administrative encouragement for performance achievement becomes, in a motivational sense, a self-fulfilling prophecy that a worker won't achieve. Obtaining the sense of achievement that stimulates one to achieve even more is, to a large extent, reliant on an environment rich in opportunity for continual achievement and on supportive administrators who understand employee motivational needs.

RECOGNITION refers to earned administrative affirmation rather than uneared approval, because earned affirmation tends to foster a cooperative relationship between teacher and administrator while unmerited approval encourages a dependency relationship.

Because a considerable part of a teacher's work day is devoted to the performance of tasks whose outcomes have important consequences, recognition for successful outcomes becomes motivationally significant to a teacher's

survival, his well-being, his social rewards, and, his self-esteem. Aiming at recognition means desiring the approval of one's fellow man, a dynamic which has traditionally been considered an important binding powers of an organization. Herzberg's work revealed that motivationally significant recognition feedback must be clearly deserved and validly related to accepted organizational goals.

THE WORK ITSELF refers to the incentives and rewards that are inherently structured into the performance of a job.

The two issues most central to the motivation of work itself are the aspirations of individual teachers or their sense of personal mission, and the sense of fulfillment individual teachers can derive from their students' learning responses. Surveys of teacher motivation over the years have consistently revealed that the dominant reason teachers have for entering and remaining in the field of education centers in the personal rewards they expect to receive from their efforts in promoting student growth and development. However, the work of teachers, by itself, cannot always be expected to provide the psychic rewards that teachers as workers typically seek and need in order to sustain their efforts and their personal strong sense of motivation. Effective administrative feedback enhances and strengthens the sense

of accomplishment that a teacher gains from the intrinsic nature of the work itself.

RESPONSIBILITY refers to a worker's proprietary feeling toward his work.

Feeling a sense of responsibility within an educational organization, means feeling a personal commitment toward the organization's primary purposes. Herzberg's two factor theory suggests that such a sense of responsibility stems primarily from the teacher's condition of feeling in control of his work assignment. Teachers tend to place importance on the autonomy of their own classroom, even though control over most other aspects of their work world often eludes them. Organizational theories of motivation conclude that administrators encourage growth in a teacher's sense of responsibility through a process of participative planning, controlling, and performing of challenging jobs. "Responsiblity is not a personality trait which exists in varying degrees in individuals, but rather, is an attitude which changes from time to time, depending on the extent to which an individual's role results in his feelings of dignity, worth, and freedom."6

GROWTH refers to various forms of professional life enrichment.

Educational research has found that the psychological growth a teacher experiences, both personally and professionally, is distinctly tied to his

level of self-esteem, and that the type of feedback message contained in a performance appraisal thus has significant bearing on a teacher's sense of confidence and his stimulation to activate expanded growth. Advancement, as Thoreau described, "in the direction of one's dreams"[7] is consequently a function of one's attitude as much as one's opportunities. As a factor in growth encouragement, administrators' written evaluations have the potential to become an important determinant in helping to satisfy a teacher's professional growth needs.

SCHOOL POLICIES refer to the promotion of order within an organization's structure through formal and informal sets of guidelines and regulations.

Ideally, a school's policies contribute to a comfortable climate of reliability and predictability, a nonthreatening sense of future direction, a perceptible descriptive character, and a system of strategies it can use to reach its mission. In practice, however, organizational policies sometimes tend to limit an organization's flexibility in decision making, and to encourage any administrative weakness toward expediency. School policies that become dysfunctional are often those which are used as ends rather than as means. The manner in which a school defines its policies usually determines the conditions under which important actions such as those involving teacher performance feedback are made. To serve as effective arrestors of systematic entropy, an

organization's policies must provide informing ideas that help mesh the economic, technical, human, and moral parameters of its mission into a rational framework in order to promote the primacy and validity of the system's and the individual teacher's achievement goals. In terms of teacher evaluation, interrelated organizational policies have the two roles of describing and motivating improved performance which ultimately means securing the commitment of evaluated teachers by planning an orderly, optimistic climate which makes achievement possible and desirable.

A school system's policies are a formulated attempt to stabilize its task processes, but what many standardized approaches actually produce is not a uniform result at all because administrators and teachers are not alike in their attention to and respect for policy implementation. Organizations may tend to operate under norms of rationality but human beings do not always do so; the dimension between school policy implementation and educators' actions is frequently one of intuition. Over time, administrative decision making tends to form a consistent pattern which determines whether an organization's policies serve a hygiene function or a motivating function.

SUPERVISORY PROVISIONS refers to an organizations's authority structure and to its formal and

informal control methods.

As organizational managers, school administrators have the responsibility to serve both as instructional leaders, and as operational directors. Their manner of performing these dual tasks and the priorities they set in overseeing a school's many functions communicate definite messages about the level of trust, confidence, and concern school administrators have toward a teaching staff, a student body, and a community. To study supervisory practices means, fundamentally, to study the value of time as it is spent in governing a school. Practices by administrators which emphasize efficiency, for example, at the expense of less tangible institutional goals can cause serious dissatisfaction among teachers. However, because supervisory practice is primarily a hygiene factor rather than a psychological mover, supervisory provisions, even when well-planned, can do little do prompt lasting motivation for performance improvement responses.

WORK CONDITIONS refers to the set of conditions, both physical and psychological, that make up the work environment.

The presence of motivational theory in written evaluations of teachers does not, ipso facto, guarantee intensely motivated instructors. On the contrary, some of the conditions under which teachers routinely work often deny even the most invigorated professionals a sense of personal self-worth, instructional success, or

professional success. Frustrations such as excessively large classes, insufficient materials, intrusive clerical duties, uncomfortable surroundings, plus the tendency toward isolation that accompanies somewhat autonomous environments, may foster an overriding psychic weariness rather than the positive rewards teachers usually need in order to sustain their efforts. Reality seems to dictate that working conditions for educators frequently serve as the victims of budgetary limitations caused by a tax support system which is voted in or out by publics frequently misinformed or confused with the apparent contradictions of rising costs in the face of declining enrollments. When poor teaching conditions test the durability of a teacher's emotional stamina, the feedback instructors receive from their school administrators often becomes a crucially significant motivational factor.

THE GROSSE POINTE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM refers to a suburban Detroit school district composed of 7,308 students drawn from five separate municipalities in order of ascending size: Grosse Pointe City, Shores, Farms, Park, and Woods, and a small portion of Harper Woods. Receiving almost no state aid, the Grosse Pointe Public Schools' operating expenditure exceeds $5,000 per pupil paid for by a local millage of 32.5 on a State Equalized Valuation of approximately $160,000, and a general fund budget of approximately $40,000,000. With a population of approximately 60,000 residents, the Grosse

Pointes are a "bedroom" community, with no local industry and two central retail areas. Two senior high schools (9-12) of approximately 1,500 students each, three middle schools (6-8), nine elementaries, and one continuing education center make up the district's instructional facilities. In addition, the Grosse Pointe Public Libraries are a division of the Grosse Pointe Public School System; three library branches house a collection of over 130,000 volumes. Approximately 500 teachers and 23 building administrators staff these schools which have an average pupil-teacher ratio of 22:1. Average ACT scores are 21.3 compared with a national average of 16.8. The graduation rate of Grosse Pointe Public Schools students is 98% compared with a national rate of 70% and Michigan rate of 72%. About 90% of all public high school graduates in Grosse Pointe go on to higher education. Teachers' salaries in Grosse Pointe average $38,026.00, while the national average is $25,313.00, and the Michigan average is $30,168.00. The district could be described as an affluent, upwardly mobile, professional or management oriented social group with a strong work ethic and consistently high expectations of its public schools. An independently contracted study of community attitides in 1985 found that two-thirds of polled residents rated their school district as a central factor in their decision to move to Grosse Pointe and 95% of the polled claimed that they would recommend the Grosse Pointe Schools to others.

The last millage election in 1985 passed by a 2:1 margin. The district makes an appealing starting point for a study of instructional performance improvement motivation through teacher evaluation reports because of its lengthy history of acclaimed success; both district high schools have been recognized for excellence in student achievement by the United States Department of Education.

The Grosse Pointe School District subtly displays a distinctive organizational culture which has gradually evolved over a ninety year history into a central core of unwritten rules that dictate how things get done. The identity of the Grosse Pointe Schools reflects the Grosse Pointe longstanding image of material and social success. A proclaimed status of excellence as an institutional value traditionally sets high expectations for Grosse Pointe teachers and seems to reliably support substantial student results on national test scores and college acceptance rates. The operative power of such a traditionally recognized "successful" culture can be measured by evaluative language which Grosse Pointe administrators use to influence teacher performance.

The type and content of language used in teacher evaluations in the Grosse Pointe Public School System could reveal the presence of effective written communication avenues of motivating teachers to improved instructional performance.

Assumptions of the Study

This investigation of the extent of public school administrators' use of Herzberg-defined motivational theory in written performance evaluation of teachers is based on the following assumptions:

1. Written evaluations of teaching performance are assumed to be directed, at least in part, toward improved teaching performance.

2. An administrator who is intentionally sensitive to the feelings and self-perceptions of individual teachers is assumed to recognize how important these two major psychological forces have been proven to be in determining the direction of human behavior.

3. Preparing written evaluations that help an individual teacher achieve his personal performance potential is assumed to be a function of understanding motivationally significant attitudes which impact on human behavior.

4. Administrative attitudes toward individual teachers' motivational needs are assumed to be similar to value judgments that are: a) learned, b) based on administrative experience and training, and c) revealed in administrative products, such as written evaluation documents.

5. Administrative orientation toward either

motivational or hygiene factors, as Herzberg described them, is assumed to reflect an administrator's fundamental attitude toward: a) his own ability to evoke positive motivational response in others, and b) his perception of the teacher's value in the overall scheme of his responsibilities.

6. Written performance evaluations of teachers are assumed to provide a valid, reliable, documented basis for descriptive research of school administrators' disposition toward the motivational needs of teachers as professional workers.

7. Motivationally effective writtten evaluation feedback is assumed to be important to teachers as personal knowledge itself as well as for the instructional benefits it can positively influence.

8. The motivational quality of written evaluations is assumed to be a function, at least in part, of the quality of administrative communication, specifically the choice of words and comments, to teachers about their professional performance.

9. A linguistic inquiry into theoretical questions of what governs an administrator's choice of language is assumed to be correlated with the question of what governs an administrator's choice of motivational tactics.

10. The Grosse Pointe Public School System which has long been widely perceived, both popularly and

professionally, to have outstanding educational programs is assumed to offer an excellent resource to a study of public school administrative talent in preparing motivationally significant teacher evaluations.

11. A contingency relation between the probable motivational response of teachers and the theory-based motivational content of teaching evaluation documents is assumed to suggest that the written communication language chosen by administrative evaluators is a function of the nature of the improvement expected in the evaluated teaching performance, and the nature of the motivational needs of the teacher-reader

Limitations of the Study

This study is concerned with an analysis of school administrators' use of the elements of motivational theory on teachers' performance evaluations. While the presence of such elements tends to indicate the existence of administrative awareness of teachers' needs for supportive, reviviscent feedback, meaningful written messages do not, in themselves denote ideal, motivationally strong school management behavior. The many human variables of divergent prepotent needs usually result in the fact that some performers keep improving

while others in the same motivational environment regress.

Even though no single formula for encouraging performance growth in people exists, written evaluations which apply the tenets of motivational theory can be said to exhibit an administrative commitment to deliberate attempts at strengthening a teacher's improvement efforts. This study addresses one phase of performance improvement: the important reinforcement school administrators may offer in the context of documented evaluations.

An important reason for limiting this discussion to the strength of the presence of motivational theory on teacher evaluations is the problematic idea that either motivation itself can be extracted from the mainstream of a teacher's job attitude, or that the specific incentive effects of using motivational techniques for performance improvement can be validly measured along a linear scale. However, the use of motivational theory in writing is a quantifiable indicator of an administrator's awareness of its importance. The specific impact of encouraging feedback, its utility to individual teachers, and its long term effectiveness is so inextricably affiliated with other complex variables of the teaching job, the individual person, and the particular school that a reliable paradigm of motivational impetus for the entire teaching situation is realistically not feasible.

The link between the use of motivational feedback

and increased teacher productivity has been only tenuously established in the literature of organizational behavior making the relationship between motivational theory and the behavior it prompts only an estimate at the present time. What is particularly valuable in lmiting the scope of analysis to the presence of motivational theory in current performance appraisal documents is the opportunity for charting useful implications about administrative sensitivity to teachers' needs for meaningful feedback about their achievements as evidenced in their evaluations.

While this study involves the Herzberg two factor theory of motivation, three important Herzberg-defined elements, economic, security, and status aspects, are not within the realm of the study simply because these three factors are not substantially evidential in the present world of public school teacher evaluation for the following reasons:

ECONOMIC MAINTENANCE refers to wages, salaries, and supplemental employment benefits received simply by being hired as a teacher.

Determining satisfactory compensational levels is often not only a matter of figuring dollar amounts, but also involves a process of assessing teachers' relative standing with comparable professionals in similar districts. Since this study is concerned with public school teachers who are covered by collective contracts

which legally "lockstep" salary movement according to tenure and to educational attainment level, the economic maintenance factor will not be considered as a variable here. Blanket economic treatment of all salaried teachers in the Grosse Pointe Public School System essentially neutralizes any motivating factor which could normally be attributed to financial incentives which renders this maintenance element ineligible for the present research.

SECURITY MAINTENANCE refers to the survival needs people feel arising primarily from their perceptions of a supervisor as an impartial, consistent, reliable type of person.

A supportive administrator suggests the reassuring knowledge that an employee is protected by a just system, one that is not seen to be exploitive or manipulative. Security, however, is also largely outside the realm of this study as union-negotiated master contracts and state tenure laws effectively protect teachers from the bulk of problems related to employment security. However, security for public school teachers was, apparently, a vastly neglected need in the past as evidenced by the emergence of strong, protective teachers' unions, and by multi-level state legislation which guards professional job security.

STATUS MAINTENANCE refers to a worker's identity eeds that are satisfied in organizations through suitable job classification titles, image-counscious furnishings,

distinctive discretionary privileges, carefully structured human relationships, and an overall personal organization of rank order identity.

The status needs listed in Fredrick Herzberg's theory of motivation are generally satisfied in organizations through suitable job classification titles, image-conscious furnishings, distinctive discretionary privileges, carefully structured human relationships, and an overall personal organization of rank order identity. In organizational studies, the process of acquiring desired status is usually considered a motivational issue, but gaining possession of any desired status is first a maintenance need. Because a teachers's status is effectively prescribed both by tradition and by master contract, the importance of filling status needs is considerably diminished for the education profession.

New studies suggest the utility of distinctive teaching status tiers such as instructor/master/professorial status levels, but no such differentiating design currently exists, to any significant degree, for public school teaching staffs. The many barriers to educational change of any sort plus the resistance of professional unions to currently defined merit award plans, makes status arrangements a very unlikely occurrence in public school organization for the forseeable future. For purposes of this research, therefore, economic needs which are addressed in master

contracts, security needs which are addressed in tenure laws, and status needs which are typically addressed, at present, only in job seniority considerations, will not be included in this study.

The heart of any evaluation system is the day to day feedback teachers receive in response to their efforts. Daily forms of verbal and non-verbal messages serve as a primary motivational source for increasing achievement. This study will limit its focus to the written comments administrators plan and write on teachers evaluations, because by analyzing the official documents which anchor the teacher evaluation system, the flow of supportive feedback from administrators to teachers can be measured, analyzed, and discussed.

Overview

The process of studying evaluation language is, in essence, the process of studying efforts to reach answers to the fundamental question of why evaluation is important at all. Undertaking an inquiry as fundamental as this requires an astute theoretical base as a framework to form a perspective for observation, to measure observation, and to formulate further discovery. Searching for a theoretical purpose in the administrative use of evaluation language has both a practical consequence: the intensification of motivational content

in written performance appraisals, and a philosophical result: the motivational value of evaluations are significant to the extent that the motivational value of language is understood.

While Fredrick Herzberg's work has indisputably exerted a seminal influence on the field of motivational dynamics, this study makes no claims that Herzberg's theory is the best or the most widely proven theory of motivation. Herzberg's theory, which has been the basis for numerous investigations into the type of cause-and-effect relationships in human situations that are amenable to prediction and control, was selected as the foundation for this study for two reasons: as a coherent continuum of defined elements, it was found to be useful in explaining evaluation communication, and as a set of specific, descriptive terms that identify a data base for testable conclusions, it was found to be more generalizable in describing administrative behavior than other less encompassing psychological or organizational theories of motivation.

The prime function of a theory is to draw together into a logical whole what has been observed in the real world. Fundamental to the decision to use Herzberg's theory of human motivation is the assurance that it meets the practical test of applicability: Herzberg's widely regarded explication of human motivation was deliberately chosen as the starting point of this

study because of its long established ability to identify,
suggest, stimulate, and generate new understandings about
the function of motivational language in teacher
evaluations.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

<u>Introduction</u>

The scholarly and professional literature cited here derives from a conscientious effort to distill the voluminous output of scholarship and research on motivation and on evaluation into classifiable nexuses of important literature. Generally speaking, the research strategy for the study of motive systems consists of identifying a reasonably finite set of behaviors that can be defined under a single term. Efforts are then made to provide a measure of the motive, its sensitivity to environmental arousal, its role in personality dynamics, and its effect on other specific behavior systems such as learning or managing, and finally, to abstract from the findings some general statements of motivational processes.

From the outset, systematic writing about human motivation has had to accommodate the fact that people's subjective sense of intention is an unreliable index of people's behavior. As a result, no general theory of human motivation exists. The early work of Freud(1915) with the unconscious and Thorndike(1927) with roles used

the observable changes of behavior in human experience to describe motivation components. In 1950, Eriksen emphasized maturational ages as motivating factors in the development of trust, autonomy, iniative, industry, identity, and ego integrity. Since Maslow's investigation of human behavior in the middle 1950's, the appetite side of motivation has been emphasized in psychological theorizing. In this framework, behavior is controlled by positive seeking-after of stimulus objects for various needs fulfillment.

Of fundamental importance in the process of behavior change is the ability to recognize multitudinous and diverse patterns. Classifying data into deterministic or probablistic stimuli has been found to be the foundation for pattern recognition, or "gestalt," an integrated configuration of personality components having a characteristic of a totality rather than of fragmented parts. Pattern, also know as structure, provides decision-making with a process of associating various inputs and corresponding responses in models such as the Markov Process of systematic decision making which is largely based on the conditional probabilities of past events.

The study of cybernetics or information feedback control systems began with Weiner(1949) who noted that an electric speed-up in society tends to cause an information overload that demands effective pattern recognition or

structural theory for survival. In cybernetics, the concept of effective pattern recognition is viewed as a comparison between the seemingly "purposeful" behavior of organisms and the planned behavior of automata, within the mathematical framework of an algorithm which attempts to predict behavior models as syntheses of many different lines of science, which is particularly meaningful to human motivation at the neurological level and then at the behavioral level.

McLuhan(1969) observed that man has an innate urge to minimize the uncertainty of his environment. Patterns as instruments of decision-making, tend to reduce man's uncertainity through systematic interactive loops of information especially about unexpected or troublesome events. Motivational theory serves as an extension of feedback systems by supporting human need to behave in an informed manner.

Inevitably, some of the early studies of motivational behavior produced anamolies, requiring revision of the original construct description and of the sets of behaviors originally said to define them. The literature on motivation still tends to be extensive and fragmented; it carries with it a tremendous burden of explanation. Nevertheless, it continues to illuminate the nature of human experience in organizational settings, and as such, will be eminently useful in the present study.

Motivation in Psychology

The central issue of the study of motivation as a psychological construct is its utility in describing the observable and controllable aspects of stimulation and response. Psychological studies have revealed that there are many sources for the energizing of human behavior arising from both regulatory or external processes and nonregulatory or internal processes. Essentially, psychologists such as Atkinson(1964), Allport(1965), Lewin(1970), and White(1959) offered various paradigms of thought answering the questions: 1) What are the motives of man? 2) How do motives affect behavior? and 3) How are man's motives altered or enhanced by organizational mechanisms? Almost all of the studies of motivation in psychology begin with the premise that man's awareness of himself is essentially an awareness of his functions, and of the relationships in which he is involved.

As an element of psychology, the study of motivation involves the study of cognition as an explanation of why people perceive and gain knowledge differently. Perceptual differences affect what is received and how it is received resulting in diversity of meaning; one word might not mean the same thing to two people. As a consequence, people's responses to different stimuli vary according to their perception of it. What

serves to motivate one person fails to move another because of genuine differences in cognition styles. Allport in 1961 defined cognitive perception styles as, "...distinctive ways of living in the world..."[8] Rumelhart and Norman(1987) suggested that cognition involves six processes: 1)encoding written items, 2)inferring relationships between the known and the unknown, 3)mapping a higher order rule about the inference, 4)applying the results of the inferring, 5)justifying answers on the basis of "ideal" solutions, 6)translating the solution into an active response. In 1965 Tyler concluded that, "in both education and psychology the possiblity exists that the world might actually look, sound, and feel so different to different persons, that the same stimuli might carry different meanings for them."[9]

Motivation is also concerned with conceptualization; people form ideas and think differently. Some people process information by convergence, by tying facts together. They tend to order information in linear, sequential ways. Other people think divergently, by using ideas to trigger a multitude of new directions. They tend to organize thoughts in clusters and random patterns. These differences form motivational patterns for each person and affect a person's response behavior. Keirsey in 1970 discovered that because people exhibit differences in what they do with the knowledge they gain, their conceptual responses

to motivational stimuli are manifested in widely divergent behavior patterns.

Motivation is further concerned with affect or decision making. Carl Jung(1913) noted that some people are motivated internally while others seek external rewards. Pleasing others is important to some people, while others are not strongly attuned to outside expectations, and still others rebel against external demands. For some thinkers, decisions are to be made logically, rationally, objectively, and calmly, while for others, decisions are often made subjectively, emotionally, and quickly. Criticism, for example, is received differently by various people, sometimes with hostility, sometimes with agreement, sometimes with indifference. Because of the span of differnces in decision-making style, a proportionately wide span of differences in motivational responses has been observed in people who receive the same motivational stimuli.

A discussion of differences in cognition, conceptualization, and decision-making does not contradict basic humanistic beliefs in the use of human motivators. Most people, regardless of their individual cognitive, conceptual, or affect styles, probably do their best work in a supportive atmosphere free from excessive negativism.

An awareness of motivational differences can help

THE RELATIONSHIP OF MOTIVATION TO EXPECTANCY

D.C.McClelland and J.W.Atkinson
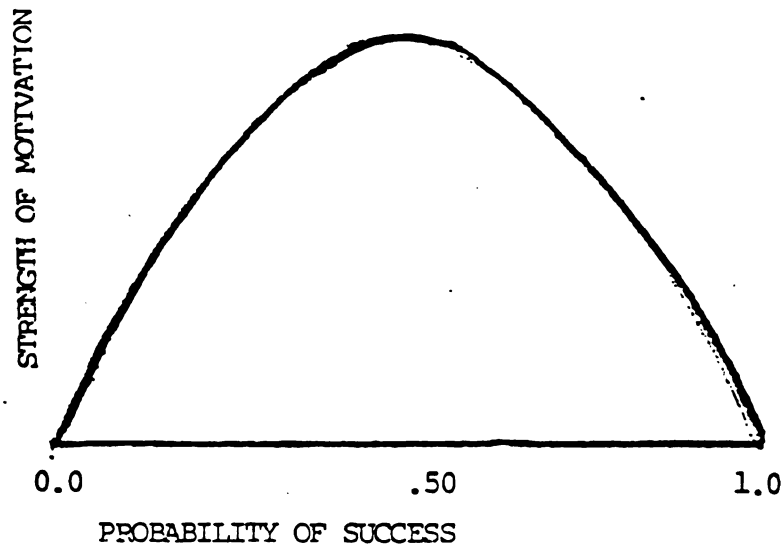
The degree of Motivation and effort rises until
the expectancy of success reaches 50%, then
begins to fall even though the expectancy of
success continues to increase. No motivation
or response is aroused when the goal is perceived
as being virtually certain or virtually impossible
to attain.

Figure 2-1

From Organizational Behavior by R. Hodgetts and
S. Altman. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Co., 1979.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MANAGEMENT:

JAPANESE AND AMERICAN

	JAPANESE	AMERICAN
Employment commitment	Lifetime	Short Term
Decision making	Collective	Individual
Responsibility	Collective	Individual
Evaluation and Promotion	Slow	Fast
Control	Implied and Formal	Explicit and Formal
Careers	Nonspecialized	Specialized
Concerns	Holistic	Segmented

FIGURE 2-2

From Ouchi, William G. and Jaeger, Alfred M. "Type Z Organization: Stability in the Midst of Mobility," Academy of Management Review 3 (April 1978): 308.

Also discussed in Hatvany, Nina and Pucik, Vladimir, "Japanese Management Practices and Productivity," Organizational Dynamics, Spring 1981, pp. 5-21.

school administrators to recognize that every teacher does not seek the same motivational source, and to understand the individual kinds of support various people want.

Lewin(1940) defined behavior as a function of both an individual's personality and his environment. Understanding reasons for behavior, involves understanding both individual personality characteristics and situational influences. Lewin's work formed the basis for attribution theories which are still used by analysts attempting to explain reasons for individual differences in behavior and motivation.

Cognitive dissonance theory, first developed by Festinger(1972), assesses motivation as a product of rationalizing agents. Dissonance is tension that arises when two psychologically inconsistent cognitions, such as opinions or beliefs, occur simultaneously. The dissonance which, by definition, is unpleasant, motivates a person to take action to reduce it, usually by justifying actions or moving toward self-correction. This process of releasing psycholgical tensions, called catharsis by Aristotle, becomes a symbolically controlled mechanism when a person either expresses his tension in language or mentally reclassifies his experiences so that they become less frustrating.

An experimental perspective on motivation came in Brown's 1961 study of drive theory; it reduced motivational questions to an analysis of habit systems and

found that learning new thoughts and goals on a programmed "spaced repetition" schedule helped people remove self-imposed motivational limitations. Cofer and Appley(1974) suggested an "equilibrium" model which focused on the anticipation of invigoration in human motivational response mechanisms; its practical findings encouraged other research projects on curiosity, manipulation, and attention.

The work of B. F. Skinner(1955) added the concept of reinforcement, also known as operant conditioning or behavior modification to psychologists' understanding of motivation. Based on the use of appropriately scheduled rewards for positive or desirable actions, reinforcement is similar in some respects to the associative linkages described by Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov in the early 1900's. Reinforcement (S-R) exists as an extrinsic explanation of human behavior control and eventually led to other empirical designs for the use of incentives: Adams(1963) and later Porter(1979) advanced Equity Theory which added a decision-making element to motivation. Essentially people rationally assess and compare the returns on each set of behaviors and then consciously decide what to do. Vroom(1964) formulated an "Expectancy Theory" which held that people are motivated by their expectations of effectiveness, and that rewards as motivators should be valued by the receiver and consistently applied by administrators in order to work as

calculated probabilities of effective incentives; Aronson(1972) advocated a "Social Exchange Theory" which used the principle of evaluating the ratio between outcomes and inputs for different individuals. Based on the psychology of motivation, these schools of thought eventually became known as behavioral science, and were extremely influential in the development of motivational studies in organizational settings.

Motivation in Organizational Management

One of the most widely discussed theories of motivation was developed by Abraham Maslow whose Needs-Hierarchy Theory, first presented in 1955, visualized man's needs in a hierarchy of ascending categories for physiological, safety, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs, with each correspondingly higher-level need becoming a motivator as the next lower need is fulfilled. According to the theory, satisfied needs do not cause a person to act. Maslow's original papers contained almost no empirical evidence to support his theory, because he himself suggested that it was primarily useful as a framework for further research. The Needs Hierarchy is extremely difficult to test because human needs are elusively difficult to specify and measure; systematic attempts to assess the validity of

MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP - A CONTINGENCY AUTHORITY MODEL

Routine
Task

Power   Autocratic Leadership

Nonroutine
Task

Authority   Democratic Leadership

Unstructured
Task

Political Tasks   Free-rein Leadership
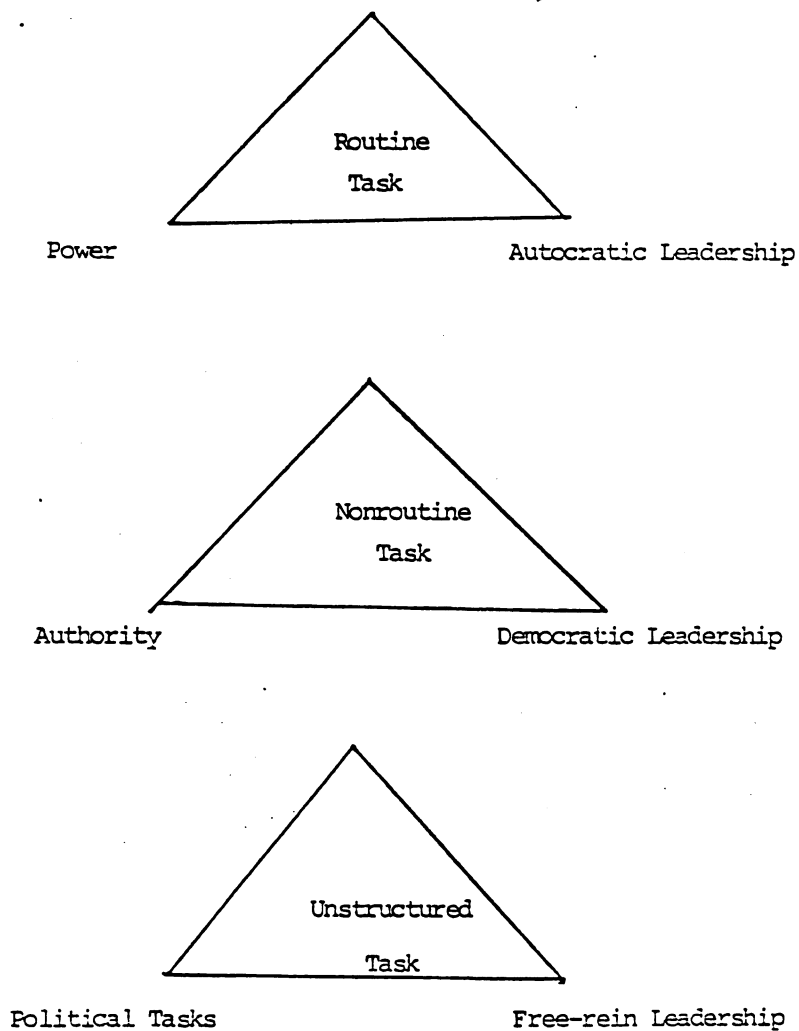
FIGURE 2-3

From Fielder, Fred E. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, (New York: Mc Graw - Hill, 1967, p. 383).

Maslow's theory (Alderfer, 1972, Schneider and Alderfer, 1973) have not succeeded in demonstrating whether Maslow is right or wrong. Nevertheless, his work has been widely influential, sometimes in more pragmatic models, such as that of Fredrick Herzberg. Research continuing Maslow's original work sugggested that higher order needs are usually the least satisfied needs for all groups of people, and that several needs can be prepotent to varying extents simultaneously. Probably the chief insight from Maslow's work is the understanding that wants are not absolute; the more one want is satisfied, the less its satisfaction matters.

In 1961 David McClelland theorized that each person has needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. While only one of these elements tends to motivate at a given time, achievement needs tend to dominate in organizational settings. Where Maslow's work concentrated on satisfying needs, McClelland focused on an individual's capacity to develop motives through training and effective leadership. Building on the work of Henry Murray(1938), who was one of the first to define a need as a tension that leads an organism in the direction of a goal, McClelland endeavored to use the Thematic Apperception Test as a measure of a person's need for achievement. McClelland's primary contribution may have been his description of the effects of environment on achievement: in an environment rich in opportunity to achieve and

surrounded by high achievers, people tend to become high achievers, but in an environment devoid of opportunity to achieve and surrounded by low achievers, people tend to become low achievers. Lowell(1952) confirmed this observation on the influence of environmental factors on need achievement fulfillment of workers over time. Figure 2-1 illustrates McClelland's critical area of motivation.

Atkinson(1964), building on McClelland's theory, formulated a comprehensive theory of achievement behavior composed of three factors: 1)the need for achievement or motive for success, 2)the probability for success, and 3)the incentive value of success. According to Atkinson's theory, achievement motivation for any person is the strength of the tendency to approach the task, minus the strength of the tendency to avoid the task. Weiner and Rosenbaum(1965) supported this theory in findings about low achievement groups: people who show low achievement motivation have a greater fear of failure than a hope of success. In 1972, Weiner found that, for people of high achievement motivation, tasks of intermediate difficulty are the most conducive to maximum motivation.

Along with the many theorists who continued the study of motivational needs, both Maslow and McClelland agree on the importance of environmental compatibility with individual needs as a component to improved motivation and, somewhat more tenuously, to improved performance. All motivational studies tend to be

problematic to the extent that they stereotype individual people within single categories of needs. Recent research concludes that other variables should also be considered. Psychologists, for example, have found that specific types of motivation may actually be reflections of networks of social relations in a specific culture. Moscovici(1972) suggested, for example, that, "Achievement motivation is related to the imperatives of Protestantism and of economic rationalism, as shown by Max Weber."[10] In this sense achievement motivation is less a variable than a parameter of a psychosocial system. Achievement as a practical effect of work symptomizes the primary contradiction between the Protestant ethic of self-control and the moral dignity, and the Protestant culture of external control and economic utility. Formal authority probably established the ultimate source of managerial legitimacy in the American constitutional guarantee of private property.

By contrast, the Acceptance Theory of Barnard(1938) postulated that the source of managerial authority lies with the worker who must understand, believe in, and "accept" his task. Achievement in Barnard's Theory has more to do with psychic income than with any inherent moral quality.

Motivation, to classicists such as Taylor(1911) and Fayol(1949), emphasized rewards and legal compliance, because they, apparently, assumed that man was motivated

almost entirely by economic gain. On the other hand, one of the first to address the importance of intrinsic motivation was Herbert Simon(1956) who advocated the development of organizational loyalty or identification, the hiring of workers who appreciated the value of efficiency, and training for the development of self-control and independence from constant supervision. Simon's work was predicated on the 1949 research of Mayo which specified a cooperative relationship between workers and managers. McGregor(1960) distinguished between two sets of management assumptions: Theory X which is a direct control or carrot and stick approach, and Theory Y which concentrates on building self-control through challenging work and participative management. (An eralier version of Theory X was expressed by Samuel Johnson in the eighteenth century, "When a man knows he is to be hanged in a fortnight, it concentrates his mind wonderfullly."[11]) In 1981, Ouchi used the term, Theory Z, which had first been coined by Maslow, to describe an organizational philosophy, used widely in post-war Japan, based on adherence to a mission statement and to a primary commitment to human relations rather than to advanced technology as a path to increased productivity. Characteristic management differences between the Japanese and Americans are noted in Figure 2-2.

Katz and Kahn(1966) found that legal compliance was usable as a motivator for routine activities such as

attendance, but that other motivational patterns were needed for eliciting contributions that go beyond the formal quantifiable standards of a person's performance. Katz and Kahn and later, Oldham(1978), found that extrinsic rewards such as money may actually detract from intrinsic motivation; creative and innovative behavior seems to require other motivational schemes which rely on intrinsic motivation and self-control.

In _Freedom and Control in Modern Society,_ Bierstedt(1954) claimed authority is a property of social organization, a dynamic which is illustrated in Figure 2-3. Later, Peabody(1974) identified several poses of authority: Traditional External Rules, Positional Functional Competence, and Personal Charisma. Other management theorists found that positional strength is based on organizational structure, organizational demands, professional competence, and human relations skills. Drucker(1967) claimed that motivational effectiveness must be learned by leaders, and that the extent of their effectiveness was related to the type of organizational climate and management system in place: Exploitive, Benevolent Authoritative, Consultative, or Participative.

According to Likert(1961) an organization functions best when its personnel function not as individuals but as highly effective teams with measurable performance goals; Likert's findings are illustrated in Figures 2-4 and 2-5. Likert's work equated climate with

six scaled variables: leadership, motivation, communication, interaction, goal-setting, and control. His theory of the organization as a structure of groups is built on the principle of supportive relationships. "The most important source of motivation is the response we get from the people we are close to...the face to face groups with whom we spend the bulk of our time." [12] The chief contribution of Likert's work was the articulation of conflict-theoretic research which is a line of thought that looks at social and institutional interactions as strategic rather than as meliorist or as Weberian. Likert's words echo the propinquity theory of Festinger(1950) which states that people communicate more frequently with persons who are nearest to them in space. The group is also the influential factor of motivation in the studies of Argyris(1964) who followed Likert; the extent to which the group has power over a person's behavior, particularly perception, and judgment, seems to rely on the strength of attraction the group has for that person.

Bennis found in a 1969 study of organizational development that the only real way to change an organization lies in changing the "climate" of the organization, the "way of life" or system of beliefs and values which an organization accepts and displays. Organizational development studies have found that job structure and work climate contribute more to the

determination of how people act and what management they need than any extrinsic motivational factors. Bennis and others have addressed organizational motivation as a function of systematic infrastructures of interpersonal support, trust, and cooperation. Performance evaluations, as an organizational development component, is concerned with the mental environment of a worker as a path toward his achievement of goals consistent with the organization's mission, and as a personal challenge toward a worker developing himself.

A cardinal tenet of organizational development noted by Lundberg in 1974 is the use of accurate and timely feedback to employees about their job performance. This tenet is based on the principle that the quality of an individual's work and his motivation depend, to a great extent, on the consequences associated with job performance. A written evaluation serves as one source of motivational feedback; some of the other systematic consequences can be found in performance of the work itself, in association with co-workers, and, for teachers, in direct feedback from students and parents.

Looking at school climate as a source of performance improvement means clear communication of a fundamental source of purpose. Drucker(1964) noted that organizations work best when their members work together with a commonality of operational values. In a study of organizational culture at the University of Michigan,

Boulding(1953) found that performance outcomes which were clearly understood and personally meaningful, generated worker excitement, while performance outcomes which were not clear or "too big to affect me" caused a failure oriented, "learned" helplessness.

Byron's poetic lines, "I live not in myself, but I become a portion of that around me,"[13] expresses the concern organizational development has in the creation of faith in each worker of his sense of control over his own destiny through the achievement of high quality performance inside the system. Most organizational development studies have concluded that an environment of intuitive trust, high expectations, and belief in people compliments, rather than competes, with rational, quantitative decision support systems.

Theories of organizational change attempt to describe the significant linkages or contextual variables underpinning organizational phenomena. The assumption each makes is that an objective reality exists for such constructs as human motivation. Despite the oversimplification of earlier perspectives such as those of Taylor and Mayo, organizational theories can be shown, over time, to seriously impact the use of various motivational schema in organizational operations. Reinforcement theory, for example, is evident in the work of Odiorne(1967) whose management by objectives formulated a performance equation for success: $S = A/E$; S (success)

equals the amount of A (achievement) over the amount of E (expectation): the greater the expressed degree of managerial or administrative expectation of performance success, the greater the liklihood of performance achievement.

In spite of the numerous approaches to the study of motivation and organizational management, the idea remains problematic that motivation itself can be measured and quantified precisely. Myers(178) suggested that the study of off-the-job pursuits constitutes a useful model of motivation to satisfy achievment needs. Whatever the perspective, any description of man's motivation begins with an understanding that individual behavior is a function of each person's ability to perform a behavior, and each person's incentive to do so. To have motivation is to have control; the central issue of describing this construct continues to revolve around the question of imposed vs self-control which is a question that needs resolution for administrtators if teacher performance evaluations are to influence improved teaching behavior.

ORGANIZATION PERFORMANCE VARIABLES WHICH CAN BE MEASURED

1. Extent of loyalty to and identification with the
   institution and its objectives.

2. Extent to which members of the organization at all
   hierarchical levels feel that the organization's
   goals are consistent with their own needs and goals,
   and the achievement of the organization's goals will
   help them achieve personal goals.

3. Extent to which the goals of the divisions and the
   individuals are of a character to enable the
   organization to achieve its objectives.

4. Level of motivation among members of the organization
   with regard to such elements as:

   a. Performance, including both quality and quantity done;
   b. Concern for elimination of wast and reduction of costs;
   c. Concern for improving the results of the work/product;
   d. Concern for improving processes;

5. Degree of confidence and trust among members of the
   organization in each other and in the hierarchical levels;

6. Amount and quality of teamwork in each division of the
   organization and between divisions of the organization;

7. Extent to which delegation is being effectively achieved;

8. Extent to which members feel that their ideas, information,
   knowledge of processes, and experiences are being used in
   the decision-making processes of the organization.

9. Level of competence and skill of different groups in the
   organization to interact effectively in solving problems;

10. Efficiency and adequacy of the communication process
    upward, downward, and sidewise.

11. Level of the leadership skills and abilities of supervisors
    and managers, including their basic philosophy of leadership.

12. Aptitude scores of members of the organization. (especially if
    obtained at time of hiring and tracked over time as to quality).

Figure 2-4

SOURCE: Rensis Likert. "Measuring Organizational Performance."
New Frontiers for Professional Managers. New York: McGraw-Hill
Book Company, 1956. Pages 95-98.

LIKERT'S MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Organizational variable	System 1	System 4
Leadership		
Managers' trust and confidence in subordinates	No confidence or trust.	Complete confidence and trust.
Subordinates' comfort in discussing important aspects of their jobs with immediate superiors	Not comfortable at all.	Completely comfortable.
Motivation		
Motivational forces	Fear, threats, punishments, and occasional rewards.	Rewards based on a compensation system developed through participation.
Responsibility felt by members for achieving organizational goals	Top management feels responsibility; lower levels feel less; rank and file feel little and may even behave in ways to defeat organization's goals.	Personnel at all levels feel real responsibility for organizational goals, and behave in ways to implement them.
Communication		
Direction of information flow	Downward	Down, up, and with peers.
Extent to which downward communications are accepted by subordinates	Viewed with suspicion.	Generally accepted, but if not, openly and candidly questioned.
Interaction		
Amount and character of interaction	Little interaction, and always with fear and mistrust.	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust.
Amount of cooperative teamwork	None.	Substantial amount throughout the organization.
Goal setting		
Manner	Orders.	Except in emergencies, goals established through group participation.
Control		
Purpose	Used by top management for policing; also used punitively.	Used for self-guidance and for coordinated problem solving and guidance; not used punitively.

FIGURE 2-5

From *The Human Organization* by Rensis Likert, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967). p. 414.

Motivator-Hygiene Theory

The theory of motivation that has probably stimulated the widest interest in recent years was developed by Fredrick Herzberg in 1959 in a book entitled The Motivation To Work, co-authored with Bernard Mausner and Barbara Snyderman. Motivator-Hygiene Theory is similar in several respects to Maslow's needs hierarchy; it postulates two classes of factors that closely parallel the lower and higher level needs categories of the Maslow proposal and affect both the frequency and duration of motivation. Over eighty research studies have examined and experimented with the theory, and it has been the inspiration and subject of many doctoral dissertations. The most widely viewed support of Herzberg's two factor theory was carried out by M. Scott Myers at the Texas Instruments Company in 1964.[14] Similar support was reported by Kerr(1973) whose review of the literature found that only three of the forty studies completed by 1970, which tested Herzberg' findings, failed to support the Motivator-Hygiene Theory.

Nevertheless, criticism of Herzberg's work continues.[15] In essence, most critics suggest that Herzberg's methodology introduced a bias in sampling only two types of workers (engineers and accountants), and a

research design error in basing great reliance on each interviewee's recall of various critical incidents. Others have questioned whether the Herzberg factors are mutually exclusive. In response to such criticism, the theory's defenders charge that critics have misinterpreted the theory and, therefore, misunderstood the results. Recent studies suggest that Herzberg's theory is, indeed, a viable, useful and revealing way of examining motivation, and, as such, it will be used in this study.[16]

During a series of interviews in 1958, two hundred engineers and accountants in nine companies were asked to describe several previous job experiences in which they had felt particularly good or particularly bad about their work. In addition, they were asked to indicate the degree to which their feelings had been influenced positively or negatively by each experience they described. Then a process of content analysis of the five thousand statements was begun; the interviewees' remarks were coded on the basis of classifications emerging from the collected data. As a result of the analysis of workers' remarks, Herzberg concluded that certain job events, classified as the motivator factors, lead to work satisfaction if they are present, but do not cause dissatisfaction if they are absent; other job events, labeled as the hygiene factors, lead to work dissatisfaction if they are absent, but will not add to employee satisfaction if they are present.

employee satisfaction if they are present.

Traditional motivational theory views satisfaction and dissatisfaction as the end points on a continuum with a neutral or zero satisfaction-dissatisfaction point in the middle. Herzberg, however, noting the discontinuity between factors involved in satisfaction and those involved in dissatisfaction, investigated the phenomena separately and in depth. He found that the factors relating to high levels of satisfaction were different from the factors involved in the dissatisfying sequences. Five factors which appeared significantly more often in highly satisfying work situations were: 1)achievement, accomplishment or success in the job situation; 2)earned recognition, the act of notice or praise from a superior, subordinate, or peer; 3)the work itself, the nature of the actual job being performed; 4)responsibility, the personal "ownership" or an accountability for a specific, definable area of work; and 5)advancement, conditions concerning the actual change in status of the employee. An entirely different set of factors was found to be associated with job experiences involving feelings of unhappiness and job dissatisfaction. Unlike the motivators, these factors, called hygiene or maintenance factors, were seldom involved in producing feelings of job satisfaction. The hygiene factors were associated with matters peripheral to the performance of the job. They appeared to be involved with

environment rather than with the content of the job itself. Hygiene factors are such contextual items as: 1)organizational policy; 2)administrative supervision; 3)salary, the relative wage received; 4)interpersonal relations with a supervisor; and 5)work conditions. These factors are illustrated in Figure 2-3.

In describing applications of the two factor theory, Herzberg argued that the best way to motivate employees is to give them challenging work for which they can assume responsibility. His research shows that higher level needs are the ones usually tapped when self-control is the goal, and that lower level needs are usually relied on when aiming for extrinsic, imposed control. For example, Herzberg claims that only by appealing to higher level needs for achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, and the inherent rewards of the work itself, can administrators encourage employees to be "self-starters" and to exhibit their own self-control. Herzberg also suggested that the presence or absence of hygiene factors can make a worker relatively happy or unhappy, but that their presence will not make him want to work harder or more effectively; only the presence and enhancement of intrinsic motivators can cause a worker to direct his efforts toward desirable, productive goals. The opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction; the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. "...I can charge a man's battery and recharge it, and recharge it again. But

it is only when he has his own generator that we can talk about motivation." [17]

The applicability of Herzberg's Theory is uniquely apparent in school organizations where teachers as workers have traditionally been accorded minimal participation in the decision making process. As a study in the use of motivational theory, the teacher evaluation process is both an organizational and a sociological analysis; a sociological perspective considers Herzberg's work from the longstanding isolation of "celluar-designed" schools whose semi-autonomous teaching stations permit a school to grow or diminish by this teacher or that without much consequence; an organizational perspective considers Herzberg's work from the traditional "powerlessness" of teachers who, for decades, have had little "voice" in setting school priorities, curricular framework, or school policies. Addressing performance improvement through the individual components of Herzberg's theory is, in essence, an attempt to convert knowledge to power by encouraging teaching performance improvement efforts.

This present study is concerned with the motivational content of the written feedback school administrators provide teachers about their performance. The focus, like Herzberg, is on the human needs that fuel motivation. The use of theoretical findings, such as those of Herzberg, suggests that the process of motivating a worker to develop his full potential is, in part, a

function of the administrative understanding of satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

Motivation and Educational Administration

Research and theoretical literature have identified two components of effective school administration:

1) leadership (communicating, influencing, and persuasion skills)

2) management (goal setting, organization of resources, and personnel development)

The use of motivational theory as a function of leadership involves elevating instructional performance by communicating confidence, trust, and the capacity to grow to teachers whose performance is being evaluated. Saphier and King(1985) pinpointed twelve cultural values as positively affecting school improvement:

> collegiality
>
> high expectations
>
> experimentation
>
> trust and confidence
>
> tangible support
>
> use of knowledge bases
>
> appreciation and recognition
>
> caring, celebrating, and honoring
>
> involvement in decision making

            protection of what's important

            traditions

            honest, open communication

The vital first step of using motivational theory in educational administration is the inculcation of researched thought in policies and operations. A school district's instructional values tend to be communicated through written materials which express predetermined performance standards.

Malcolm Forbes, founder and president of _Forbes Magazine,_ is fond of advising his staff that, "Necessity is the mother of motivation."[18] His words reflect the theoretical work of Abraham Maslow who formulated the concept of a human needs hierarchy in 1955. Carver and Sergiovanni, in 1980, studied teachers' needs satisfaction placement on the Maslow hierarchy. They found that, relatively speaking, teachers appeared generally satisfied with the fulfillment of the two lower-order needs of security and affiliation, but that the same group displayed considerably less satisfaction with the three high-order needs of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. However, considerable research has shown that teachers who reach the "self-actualizing" level are less susceptible to negative pressures in school organizations, and consequently, are less likely to suffer professional "burn out."

The same researchers, Carter and Sergiovanni, in

1975, articulated an inequity hypothesis which treats job satisfaction as a reflection of the divergence between a worker's view of ideal work conditions, and his or her perception of actual conditions. Further findings by Sergiovanni provided support for the pertinence of the inequity hypothesis in educational settings. An elaboration on the original inequity hypothesis came in the 1979 Miskel, Fevurly, and Stewart investigation which found that teachers consider schools, and by extension, school administrators, who provide less centralized decision-making structures and more participative organizational processes, along with support for higher order and more complex professional activity, to be more effective leaders and to encourage greater satisfaction and motivation than those who do not. Specifically, authoritarian approaches in educational practices place an emphasis on the importance of:

memorization

mechanical testing

teacher talks/student listens

abstract subjects

standardized syllabi

whole group instruction

Overall, however, research has yet to establish a definite relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Sergiovanni employed Herzberg's two factor theory

in the late 1960's in a report on factors that affect teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In 1967, he reported strong support for Herzberg's contention that satisfiers, called motivators, and dissatisfiers, called hygienes, tend to operate separately; the former contributed distinctly to satisfaction, the latter contributed independently to dissatisfaction. The presence or absence of one factor, hygienes or motivators, did nothing to affect the strength of the other factor.

In 1972, Miskel also tested the Herzberg two factor theory in educational settings and found difficulty in classifying the responses of nearly 500 educators into a simple two-way break of motivators or hygienes. However, Miskel did find, that supportive supervisor relationships count for a great deal with teachers. In a related study, Miskel incorporated business managers into a comparative study with school administrators and found that business managers tend to exhibit risk inclinations and less concern for hygienes, while educational administrators often show greater concern for security and less inclination for risk. In 1982, Schmidt conducted a straight-out Herzberg type investigation among secondary school administrators which produced results paralleling the bipolar findings of Sergiovanni, and provided further support for the viable application of the two factor theory in educational organizations.

In a 1985 study at Michigan State University,

"...it was concluded that the more influential sources of job satisfaction for teachers tended to be aspects of the work itself rather than aspects in the work environment."[19] Teacher achievement of growth, teacher-student interaction, and teacher resources were found to be the most influential factors in the prediction of overall job satisfaction. The study of motivation in educational administration concludes with the understanding that, "There is no panacea, no magic wand which will transform alienated individuals into happy, contented, hardworking, high-quality, high-quantity producers." [20] Motivational studies serve to emphasize that tackling the problems of performance evaluations involves understanding that expectations and values vary from group to group and between individuals within a group.

Written Performance Evaluations of Teachers

As a writing activity, the production of an evaluation document is fundamentally different from the average composing task. Most other writing activities require careful planning of content and structure, generation of core ideas with related details, and continuous shifting between these processes. Evaluation writing, on the other hand, involves operations based on actual occurrence and system-generated goals. More specifically, evaluation writing requires the comprehension, appraisal, condensation, and transformation

COMPARISON OF SATISFIERS AND DISSATISFIERS

FACTORS

Percentage Frequency   Percentage Frequency

FIGURE 2-6

SOURCE: Fredrick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959), p. 81.

of observations of teaching behavior into a comprehensible text which judiciously, persuasively, and deliberately attempts to propel the evaluated teacher toward performance improvement.

The major concerns of the evaluation writer, therefore, are not how to plan and generate new content, but 1)what to include and eliminate from the written evaluation of teaching performance, 2)what combinations or transformations of comments on observed actions make sense relative to improvement, and 3)how to infuse the tenets of motivational theory into improvement suggestions. The evaluation writer must also monitor the accuracy of his appraisal in reference to his own judgments and to the opinions of other reliable observers. Brown and Day(1983) found that inadequate written performance appraisals were likely to result from writers making inappropriate choices as to what is important in the observed teacher performance. Flower(1979) reported that writing difficulties often arose from a writer's inability to coordinate and integrate different parts of a performance with generated performance objectives. A profile of professional evaluation qualities is illustrated in Figure 2-7.

Understanding the critical function of teacher evaluations is not the same as understanding supervision. While supervision is concerned with specific behavior indicators, evaluation involves the translation of

supervision findings into effective performance feedback. Discontent with conventional employee appraisal systems in the 1970's prompted Levinson's study which found that an evaluation needs as much emphasis on the "how" as on the "what" in teaching performance; helping employees improve their performance means preparing evaluations that are behavior-oriented as well as results-oriented. Written evaluations that support behavior improvements do not lessen the importance of quantitative results. For an organization to reach its goals, information about both predictable behavior and observable outcomes is required. However, for individual written evaluations purposes, behavior and results are qualitatively different and should not be confused with each other.

Essentially performance appraisal has three basic functions: 1)to provide adequate feedback to each person on his or her performance; 2)to serve as a basis for modifying or changing behavior toward more effective work habits, and 3)to provide data for future job assignments and other employment considerations.

Cameron(1980) found that where no universal model of effectiveness was possible because of widely different criteria between organizations, six critical assessment questions were necessary dynamics to any model:

1) What type of activities are focused on: internal or external?

2) Whose perspective are used: internal or

external?

3) What level of performance analysis is used: individual department or organizational?

4) What time frame is used: short run or long run?

5) What type of analytical information is used: perceptual or objective?

6) What behavioral reference point is used: comparative, normative, or improvement?

The conception of supporting a worker's abilities within an organization rather than simply quantifying his performance originated with the "modern" or "behavioral" orientation of Etzioni(1969) and Perrow(1972). Observing studying, describing, and explaining organizational behavior departed materially from the classical, scientific view of Taylor(1911) and Fayol(1949), and introduced an expanded view of 1)social system and role, 2)decision making, 3)leadership, and 4)motivation through human relations(Mayo, 1949; Getzels and Guba, 1952,1957).

Sproull found evidence in 1981 that the structure and character of managerial attention in schools discouraged administrators from serving either as a technical resource or as a provider of useful performance feedback on instructional activities. This finding is diametrically opposed to the conclusions of most theoretical studies which specify the strong influence knowlegeable administrators can have on a school's

instructional program.

Sproul concluded in 1977 that school managerial activities in performance evaluations only marginally covary with school instructional objectives, because effective structures of evaluation have yet to be adequately formalized. These conclusions suggest the need to dig beyond the mechanics of counting work activities in order to achieve a clear understanding of just how and why instructional activities take the shape and substance that they do.

Almost all of the literature that has been directed at describing and explaining school administrative actions in assessing faculty performance has identified the principal as a central factor in reaching overall school effectiveness. Rosenblum(1979) discovered that the extant literature on the principal as instructional leader has yet to dispel the darkness still surrounding the establishment of causal connections between patterns of administrative behavior and patterns of school or educational effects.

Studies in organizational dynamics describe the nature of evaluation as essentially the development of a process that: 1)judges worth; 2)measures the degree to which designated tasks are accomplished; and 3)provides assistance in the developmental process. Anderson(1975) established "formative" and "summative" as functions of evaluation and as categories of evaluation research.

Formative evaluation is concerned with the development process, specifically diagnostic and therapeutic recommendations which can enhance a teacher's self-understanding and improved instructional processes. Summative evaluation is concerned with documenting incompetence, rewarding superior performance, validating hiring practices, and modifying teacher assignments. Figure 2-8 illustrates essential differences between formative and summative evaluation systems.

Most research points to the need for more formative oriented evaluations in education. Abbott(1975) found that performance evaluations should, "provide a basis for teachers' career planning and professional development."[21] Robinson(1979) studied the effects of rewards in evaluation systems and found that, "Teacher evaluation systems seem to be promoted by educators to keep the public or the state happy."[22] One of the most damaging statements has come from Scriven's study of personnel evaluation systems in 1981:

> Teacher evaluation is a disaster. The practices are shoddy and the principles are unclear. Recent work has suggested some ways to clarify the issues and to make the procedures more equitable and reasonably valid, but one can hardly point to a single exemplary system in which the practices come near to matching our knowledge...Once more the pressure to reform is coming from outside, from the Congress and the courts, not from the conscience.[23]

Earlier studies in 1978, (Kowalski), and 1976, (Rooney), suggested that practices in schools follow the lines of least resistance; rating systems rely heavily on

observation of attributes deemed important to the school or the school district. Wolf(1973) argued that summative approaches tend to work against performance changes by generating insecurity and defensive behavior. Clinical supervision, which is supposed to stress a supportive relationship between teacher and supervisor, was criticized by Synder(1981) and Eye(1975) for attempting to accomplish both formative and summative purposes while actually acomplishing neither goal to any significant degree.

Hartmann's 1978 study of the link between teacher evaluation and staff development found that the assessment of teaching performance can have an important motivating role. This study revealed that when teachers are evaluated individually using formative techniques, a clear picture of an individual teacher's professional development needs can be seen. However, such a clear picture of professional development needs is generally not obtainable when summative assessment processes are used. In a formative capacity, evaluation evolves into systematic feedback systems rather than simple appraisal methods. Definitions of feedback systems and types of supervision are contained in Appendix A of this study.

Effective schools research by Hunter et al.(1980) advises that, "The cornerstone priority for the eighties will be the translation of research-validated cause-effect relationships in teaching and learning into classroom

performance." [24]   In the case of written performance evaluations, Hunter's study found that, "Science will finally join art when written analyses determine those teaching behaviors which need labeling and reinforcing, and those teaching decisions and behaviors which need changing or elimination." [25]   Neufeld(1985) cautions against hasty adoption of all effective schools findings: "Effective teaching is defined as the sum of a series of discrete behaviors that could be put together expertly by anyone who puts together the proper ingredients...thereby conferring too much certainity on an uncertain enterprise." [26]   The formative nature of effective schooling research appears to make it an attractive body of knowledge as long as its techniques are properly understood as means rather than as ends, and as long as administrators do not ignore the importance of a teacher's knowledge of content and his ability to work with different kinds of people.

Since 1957, academicians and consultants such as Drucker(1985), McGregor(1960), and Herzberg(1959) have urged organizational administrators to shift their performance evaluation efforts from an emphasis on appraisal to one of analysis which implies a more positive approach and includes consideration of individual strengths, desires, and potentials. Performance is the focus of evaluations, they advocate, not the personality of the person being evaluated. Planned feedback, which is

formative in nature, addresses the evaluation subject as the principal participant in his own development.

In 1981, Boyan found that, "Few educational administration texts systematically develop or treat connections across task areas, administrative processes, theoretical developments, research findings, and patterns of work." [27] In an attempt to integrate administrative written tasks, Gagne(1977) sugggested five basic composition structures:

1) facts organized into lists;

2) subjects organized into taxonomies;

3) concepts organized into learning hierarchies;

4) steps organized into procedural hierarchies;

5) principles organized into models.

Methods of organizing information in writing are illustrated in Figure 2-9.

What is often left out of educational writing, whether normative or descriptive, is the connection between what "is" and what "ought" to be. This descriptive research attempts to breach that gap by illuminating what "is" happening with admistrative use of motivational theory as an informed perspective on what "ought" to be.

PROFILE OF IDEAL PROFESSIONAL EVALUATION QUALITIES

Knowledge

Has access to knowledge base on successful teaching

Understands what teachers know and believe about successful teaching

Understands ways of knowing

Communication Skills Priorities

Facilitates teacher reflection of research findings

Bases communication on what teachers already know

Demonstrates good listening skills

Demonstrates desire for teachers to adapt findings to their own purposes

Focuses on creating low-risk change

Exhibits patience, knowing that growth does not necessarily fit political schedules

Demonstrates confidence in teachers' knowledge and ability to learn

Performance Criteria

Measures success in terms of gradual increments of teacher, performance, autonomy, and capacity for further growth

Seen by school leaders as a teacher advocate who stimulates greater capacity for staff growth

FIGURE 2-7.

From Terry M. Wildman and Jerry A. Niles, "Essentials of Professional Growth," Educational Leadership, February, 1987, p.6.

CONGRUENCE OF PHILOSOPHY

THEORY AND PRACTICE IN EVALUATION

FORMATIVE EVALUATION   SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

Philosophy

Each individual   Individuals achieve
strives for   excellence only if
excellence.   supervised or evaluated.

Theory

Evaluations done   Evaluations done to
to improve the   improve performance of
performance of   social system; reward or
individual; reward   punishment decided
or punishment   externally.
decided internally.

Practice

Evaluate process   Evaluate products and
not person.   process and person.

FIGURE 2-8

Reprinted from Barber, Larry. "The Nature of Evaluation."
Evaluation of Teaching: The Formative Process. Bloomington, IN:
The Phi Delta Kappa, 1984, page 80a.

METHODS OF ORGANIZING INFORMATION IN WRITING

Elements of Information

problem statement	implications
purpose statement	proposal
explanation of process	description
explanation of cause/effect	evaluation
results of study/analysis	suggestions
recommended action	request
background information	summary
supporting data	scope
implementation plans	directions
observation report	conclusion
philosophy - rationale	considerations

TYPES OF DEVELOPMENT

Order of Importance	most important to least important least important to most important used for: reports and recommendations
Order of Chronology	history of situation relative to time data of events/changes structure used for: journals, minutes, growth reports
Order of Sequence	material organized spatially/geo graphically left to right/top to bottom/east to west used for: directions, descriptions, locations
Order of Comparison	placing unlike things to emphasize similarities material explained from familiar to unfamiliar used for: research results, feasibility study
Order of Specificity	material arranged from general to specific specifics usually reasons, generality opinions used for: proposals, training materials
Order of Analysis	logical breakdown of whole into parts examination of individual factors of entity

FIGURE 2.9

Use of Language in Writing

Rapaport(1952) noted that two suffixes in the English language, "-ology" and "-ics" suggest organized knowledge. The venerable "-ology" suggests academia, and words using it are explained by translating their first syllable, usually Greek or Latin, such as ornithology or biology. The ancient "-ics" suggests a method of attack on a problem, such as economics or mathematics, but these words are not as easily explained by translating their first syllable. Because the term semantics is derived from "meaning" or "to signify," popular thought is that semantics is a search for meaning, but the area of meaning is largely the domain of lexicography. Semantics is devoted to the analysis of how people use words and how words affect those who use them. Essentially, semantics is concerned with how language works to produce clear, precise, logical, written expression. A major principle in the field of semantics holds that the structure of people's language influences the way they understand reality, and the way they behave in terms of it.

Among acknowledged leaders in the field of semantics, a practical distinction is made between spoken language and written language. Kurt Lewin(1936) called, "speaking and writing different but interacting activities; they are not the same, do not follow all of the same conventions, and are not done for the same list

of purposes."[28]   Written language, claimed Strunk and White(1959) is,

> More immediately accessible than spoken language; written language has a permanence in contrast to the ephemeral character of speech; written language is more rigidly structured, more insistent on precision and clarity by virtue of the fact that it must stand alone.[29]

Most research on written communication has not been done by English language specialists, but by communication psychologists such as Holland, Janis, Kelley, Johnson, and Klapper who have focused on the effectiveness of written communication in influencing a reader's opinions, values, and behavior, Communications research, which began in the 1950s and is still in its infancy, has contributed considerable pertinent information on the psychological overtones and human relations problems of written messages. Of particular importance to psychologists has been the issue of form vs substance in conveying purposeful messages relative to the demands of particular situations. The important feature of language is that once it has been learned sufficiently, concepts and generalizations can be conveyed linguistically rather than through direct experience.

Theodore Berstein(1972) found that the use and misuse of language by accident or misunderstanding frequently occurs when writing attempts to simulate oral speech. "Writing requires careful thought and mental discipline which do not always come spontaneously; to

attempt to write as directly as one speaks is to indulge in a kind of steneography."[30]   Bergen Evans(1957), in studying confusing, ambiguous, and deceptive written statements, found that, "corruption of language is a withering away of the ability to use words for coherent communication, especially in writing."[31]

Fowler(1937) claimed that, "Standard written English" helps guarantee accuracy in communication between writer and reader.

> The convention of standard written English means the kind of English used by educated people in their serious writing. It does not mean the kind of writing used by poets and story tellers to represent speech or create special artistic effects. Neither does it mean the kind of English sometimes used by advertisers to attract attention. It is the work-a-day English of business, science, the professions, and most serious magazines.[32]

Good writing, most communication theorists conclude, can, as a minimum, simply assure the writer that he is really in communication with the reader, that he is delivering his message unmistakably, and perhaps, excellently.

James Fielden, Associate Editor of The Harvard Business Review (1965), pointed out four major elements of effectively written professional communication: correctness, readability, thought, and appropriateness. Understanding that professional communication differs in specific ways from literary exposition is, in Fielden's opinion, the starting point for analyzing serious writing skills. Seven notable differencs between general

exposition and professional writing are described by Fielden in Figure 2-10.

Whorf(1956) described the communication process of serious writing in five steps:

1) clarifying the idea or problem;

2) eliciting participation in solution developing;

3) transmitting ideas or decisions;

4) motivating others to take action;

5) measuring communication effectiveness of.

Mario Pei(1973) observed that it appeared simpler for writers to use euphemisms, cliches, and circumlocutions than to compose clear statements in expressing judgmental information: "Mechanical usage of panaceas or stereotypes often substitutes for reasonable precision when a writer perceives the possibility of sending difficult or offensive messages."[33] Human need for safety, Pei found, is apparently the origin of "buzz" words such as commitment and involvement which convey a pleasant sound while transmitting little or no meaning.

William Safire(1972) discovered that awkward and pretentious word usage often comes from writers whose sense of self-importance asserts itself in messages of supercilious wording, excessive length, or "insider pedantry." Likewise, the mistaken use of argot which

is the distinctive speech of a particular class of persons, or the overuse of jargon which is the specialized language of science, a sect, or a trade, or the erroneous use of slang which is substandard language usage peculiar to a particular social class is frequently the product of self-centered writers who have forgotten that the function of writing is communicating clearly to others.

Rudolph Flesch(1949) first developed the process of frequency analysis to quantify the readability of a piece of work so that it could be evaluated on its overall difficulty for the reader. As examples, the reading levels of the following publications were found to be:

New York Times - tenth grade,
Readers' Digest - eighth grade,
Wall Street Journal - thirteenth grade,
People Magazine - eighth grade,
The Gettysburg Address - tenth grade.

Flesch's arithmetic formulas, expressed in words, provide several maxims about writing for readability:

1) short sentences are easier to read;

2) short words are usually not Latinate and are, therefore, closer to common parlance;

3) personal names and pronouns are pleasing to a reader.

However, Flesch and other readability experts caution that sentence length, word length, and name usage are not the only items of writing importance. In

assessing difficulty of comprehension, Gunning(1964) called attention to the abstract quality of some words as compared to their more comprehensible concrete forms, and the unfamiliarity of some words as compared to the more comfortable familiarity of others. Weiss(1952) discovered that the degree to which a reader's opinion tends to change after reading something depends on the amount of trust or credibility that the reader places in the writer himself. Volkart's work(1952) suggested the strong possibility that a message addressed to a mass audience is not as effective a method of communication as variably planned messages addressed to smaller groups identified separately by group norms, values, and loyalties.

Additional research on written communication has found that effective messages, those that are vigorous, authoritative, direct, and lucid, often observe many of the following linguistic patterns of order and emphasis.

Grammatically, a phrase outranks a word; a clause outranks a phrase; an independent clause outranks a dependent clause; and a full sentence outranks all of these; more important ideas should be structured in higher-ranking grammatical expressions; (Holland).

Usually, important ideas should be expressed in independent clauses or in complete sentences; subsidiary ideas usually belong in subsidiary constructions such as dependent clauses, phrases, verbals, or appositives; (Veblen).

In paragraphs and in sentences, the two most important, i.e. most emphatic, positions are at the beginning and at the end. Of these two, the more important position is the end; (Veblen).

A topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph since it often expresses the main idea of a paragraph, and since every other sentence in the paragraph either supports or illustrates it; (Sapir).

Breaking up a subject into constituent elements is useful and often indispensable, but it is usually only a first step; for readability, meaning and clarity, the constitutent parts must then be carefully explained and adequately developed; (Janis).

Sentences beginning with "there is/there are/it is" tend to be weak; the subject word itself should occupy the strong opening position; (Sapir).

Deductive movement in writing means making a general statement, then supporting it with a number of particulars (effect to cause), and generally has the advantage of clarity; it is easier to see how elements support an announced idea than to guess from elements what an unnamed idea will be; (Bloomfield).

Inductive movement in writing means beginning with particulars and building up to generalizations (cause to effect), and has the strategic advantage of moving quickly and opening with concrete details rather than with vague concepts, but often causes reader confusion because

of the added difficulty of predicting where the writer is going; (Bloomfield).

Regardless of which order is used, deductive or inductive, a written generalization is usually only valid, i.e.. it says what the writer wants it to say, when it: 1)emphasizes what is important, 2)excludes irrelevant ideas, 3)generalizes on materials that support it, and 4)avoids confusing matters that should be developed elsewhere; generalizations tend to become strong assertions when they are supported by concise, forceful, meaningful details; (Bloomfield).

To express cause-effect relations validly, a writer must clearly show how one event or condition produces another event or condition as a form of explanation for phenomena or to justify decisions; to express cause-effect patterns validly requires: 1)not mistaking apparent causes or effects for real ones, 2)not mistaking an effect for a cause, 3)not presenting a circumstance or a coincidence as a cause, and 4)not mistaking an earlier event for a cause of a later event merely because it came first; (Kelley).

In general, if the purpose of a message is to emphasize how or why something happened, the effect should usually be expressed first, and the cause should be given second; (Morris).

Expressing effects after expressing causes tends to stress consequences or ends; (Morris).

Expressing a chain of causes and effects one step at a time, backward, (inverse order) tends to stress the importance of the original cause; (Morris).

Expressing joint effects before single effects calls attention to a common cause; (Morris).

Nouns which mean cause include synonyms such as origin, source, element, factor, principle, reason, tie; (Strunk).

Words that signal, "cause follows" to the reader include: because, since, as if, unless, for, on account of, due to, owing to, come from, stem from, follow from, attribute to, ascribe to, caused by, created by, started by, thanks to, can be traced to; (Strunk).

Nouns which mean effect include synonyms such as result, consequence, issue, outcome, conclusion, product, fruit, aftermath, outgrowth; (Strunk).

Words that signal, "effect follows" to the reader include so, therefore, hence, as a result, for that reason, consequently, so that, in order to, cause, produce, create, invent, discover, originate, institute, provoke, determine, set in motion, give rise to, result in, brought about by; (Strunk).

In deciding upon a useful order of information for problem discussion, the problem-cause-solution pattern has been found to be clear, interesting, and vigorous; (Johnson).

If alternate solutions are considered in writing,

the writer must reasonably explain why one or more solutions will work, and must discredit or dispose of the others by explanation or comparison; the last feature developed in writing is usually the one that is emphasized most strongly; (White).

Active voice verbs tend to be brief and more vigorous than passibe voice except when the subject of a sentence is unimportant or when meaning is focused less in cause than in results; (White).

Sentence length should be a function of the idea conveyed and the effect desired; long sentences relate ideas; short sentences impart vigor, and a mixture of long and short sentences avoids monotony; word count alone does not determine the length of a sentence; lenght of individual words, multiplicity of phrases and clauses, and complexity of structure add the feeling of communication bulk; judicious use of short sentences in contrast with longer sentences heightens the emphasis of the short sentence's point; (Klapper).

Accuracy in word choice relies on a writer's ability to distinguish formal and informal word choice (as illustrated in Figure 2-11), and to balance the following dichotomous language issues and qualities:

concrete - specific
vs
abstract - general

denotation - exact meaning
    vs
connotation - implication

technical - specialized meaning
    vs
jargon - esoteric meaning

short - vigorous
    vs
long - pretentious

candor - simple, direct
    vs
tact - euphemistic, evasive

reason - rational, factual
    vs
emotion - imaginative, biased

literal - matter-of-fact, objective
    vs
figurative - inductive, poetic

cliche - worn-out, stale, "stock"
    vs
original - fresh, graceful, new

important - main issue
    vs
trivial - weak, subissue

fact - verbal or statistical reality
    vs
opinion - personal valuation

Ending writing with a summary of what has been said helps to clarify and unify long complex composition; a lengthy, complex composition may also require partial,

summarizing statements at interim points in order to be emphatic; short, simple compositions usually do not require not summaries; (Baker).

Ending with a projection into the future is an effective device when the connection between the main idea and the suggested future action is clearly related to the theme of the composition; (Baker).

> In essence, vigorous writing is concise. A sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences, for the same reason that a drawing should have no unnecessary lines and a machine no unnecessary parts. This requires not that the writer make all his sentences short, or that he avoid all detail, and treat his subject in outline only, but that every word should tell.[36]

Administrators who are faced with the task of writing performance appraisals might argue that since the evocation of a particular frame of mind, that of increased motivation, is a prime consideration, the less structured dictates of literary writing rather than the more formalized strictures of expository writing should prevail. However, Bernstein's research with semantics has shown that for written documents in which instant clarity and quick comprehension are more important than literary value, the one-idea-to-a-sentence rule of business writing is desirable. Repeated research in professional communications has found a definite relationship between short sentence length and easy comprehension, while the general semantics research of Fowler discovered that

interesting writing usually springs from variety in both sentence length and sentence structure. A desirable economy of expression is obtainable, according to structural linguists, by avoiding unnecessary subordinate clauses, irrelevant digressions, meaningless repetitions, or inept, trite, and clumsy metaphors.

Hayakawa(1964) described "affective" and "directive" functions of leadership in the use of language:

> The language of science is instrumental in getting done the work necessary for life, but it does not tell us anything about what life feels like in the living. We can communicate scientific facts to each other without knowing or caring about each other's feelings, but before love, friendship, and communicating can be established among men so that we want to cooperate and become a society, there must be, as we have seen, a flow of sympathy between one man and another. This flow is established, of course, by means of effective language.[35]

Baker(1976) found that the total impression that a piece of writing makes on a reader comes not only from the substance of the communication, but also from the details of phrasing, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Attention to these details, as well as to the structure of the writing, conveys the message that the communication is saying something tht matters. Basic structure in persuasive writing usually begins with a clear, delineated statement of purpose, moves to an explication of appropriate, cogent evidence, and concludes with a logical, compelling interpretation of significant

consequences. The writer's style, tone, and attention to a specific "audience" indicate a deliberate intent to communicate reasonably and persuasively, to show the veracity of Aristotle's observation, "Language most shows a man; speak that I may know thee." [36] The concept of miscommunication is illustrated in Figure 2-12.

Very little documentation exists in the literature of evaluatiion or of motivation about the use of language which is specifically planned to elicit motivational responses. Moat of the literature on evaluation communication stresses the finding that a performance appraisal needs to be viewed not as a technique, but as a process; the "Achilles' heel" of the process is language that describes the "how," or the means of effective performance, as well as the "what" in performance. If effective communication of substance is the objective of the motivationally significant evaluation messages, the language content of feedback nessages needs to show a sensitivity to the formative purposes of performance documents, but content analysis studies on this issue do not exist to any significant extent. Nevertheless, it is possible, using Herzberg's categories, to classify the language of written performance evaluation documents as belonging to motivation-oriented communication. Brophy(1981) identified guidelines for effective praise, illustrated in Figure 2-14, which aims analysis in the direction of language choice.

Semantics, to Hayakawa, is the "study of human interaction through communication; and communication leads to cooperation."[37]   A writer's clear understanding of semantics underscores an essential commitment to:

1) the definition and development of important ideas;

2) the strategic relating of these ideas to the reader's own experiences;

3) finally, the transcendence of individual experiences to a larger motivational meaning.

The careful translation of an idea from an observable experience into a particular truth gives serious writing the depth and meaning required for genuine motivational effectiveness. Purposeful attention to semantics should ward off an recurrence of the scene with Plato's Eleatic stranger who considered "complacent ignorance" the worst deformity of the soul, since it leads a writer to think he is saying something when, in fact, he is saying nothing.

MAJOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GENERAL EXPOSITORY

WRITING AND PROFESSIONAL EXPOSITORY WRITING

GENERAL EXPOSITORY WRITING	PROFESSIONAL EXPOSITORY WRITING
Audience	**Audience**
most are addressed to broad groups	most are aimed at particular group or specific individual
Purpose	**Purpose**
usually to entertain; perhaps to instruct	essentially to inform, to analyze, to persuade
Style	**Style**
felicitous style usually important	flashy style subservient to solid content and lucid presentation
Ambiguity	**Ambiguity**
generalizations and random speculation usually encouraged as creative	observations and conclusions require supporting hard facts
Tone	**Tone**
no limit; choice depends on content and writer's skill	serious and sincere; simple directness but not simplistic air
Effect on Reader	**Effect on Reader**
no limit; writer may even strive to insult reader	human relations considerations impose common sense restrictions
Effect on Writer	**Effect on Writer**
accepted or rejected by publisher and/or reader	reputation, professional status, job may rest on effective communication

Figure 2-10

FORMAL AND INFORMAL WORD CHOICES IN WRITING

Formal	Informal
initiate	begin
we would like to ask	please
commence	start
for the reason that	because
terminate	end
are of the opinion	believe
utilize	use
for the purpose of	for / to
deem	think
prior to	before
assistance	help
despite the fact that	although / though
converse	talk
in view of the fact that	because / since
forward	send / mail
in order to	to
advise	tell
in the amount of	for
indicate	show
subsequent to	after
procure	get
with respect / reference	about
reside	live
on the occasion of	when
during the course of	during
along the lines of	like
succeed in making	make
make use of	use
have need for	need
give consideration to	consider

Figure 2-11

From: Stuart Chase. The Tryanny of Words.
New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co. 1938. p5.

LANGUAGE MISCOMMUNICATED

What Was Said	What Was Meant	What Was Heard
I'll look into hiring another person as soon as soon as I can.	We'll start with the interviews in a few weeks.	I'm tied up with more important concerns right now.
Your performance was below what I expected from you.	You're going to have to try harder which I think you'll do.	If you mess up one more time you're out of here for good.
I'd like that report as soon as you can get to it.	I need that report within about a week.	Drop everything and fill out that report right now.
We have a job opening in Los Angeles which would be great for you.	If you'd like the job, it's yours. If not, you're still appreciated here.	If you don't accept the Los Angeles job, your career is over.
I want you to look into the problem your people seem to be having getting their work out.	Talk to your staff to discover the problem. Then, jointly solve it.	I don't care how many heads roll, find out where the trouble is and get it fixed right away.

Figure 2-12

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE PRAISE

Effective Praise	Ineffective Praise
1) is delivered contingently;	1) is delivered randomly;
2) specifies particulars of the accomplishment;	2) is restricted to global positive reactions;. --
3) shows spontaneity, variety credibility;	3) shows bland uniformity;
4) rewards attainment of specified performance criteria;	4) rewards mere participation without consideration of outcomes;
5) provides information on competency or value of accomplishments;	5) provides no information on competency or value of accomplishments;
6) orients toward appreciation of self;	6) orients toward comparisons with others;
7) uses prior accomplishments as context for description of present accomplishment;	7) uses peers' accomplishments as context for description of present accomplishment;
8) is given in recognition of noteworthy effort at difficult task;	8) is given without regard to effort expended or difficulty of task;
9) attributes success to effort and ability which implies expectation of similar future success;	9) attributes success to ability alone or to an external factor such as luck or ease of task;
10) fosters endogenous motives such as satisfaction or ambition for growth;	10) fosters exogenous motives such as approval, reward, or winning in competition;
11) focuses attention on task-relevant behavior;	11) focuses attention on an authority figure;
12) fosters appreciation of desirable behavior after process is completed;	12) intrudes into ongoing process, distracting attention from task-relevant behavior;

FIGURE 2-13

Summary

Many attempts at reforming American education have been predicated on the assumption that the chief problem lies with teachers and their motivation to teach. The assumption is that in order to make education more effective, teachers need to be more effectively controlled. Such thinking provides impetus for traditional performance appraisals which are summative in nature and tend to imitate production- inspection type processes. Performance evaluations of the summative type, are inclined to encourage a dependency relationship between a teacher whose work is being assessed, and an administrator who dispenses "stock" impressionistic ratings. Findings in the literature of motivation and of formative evaluations urge the opposite approach.

Current motivation research, notably studies based on the work of Fredrick Herzberg, have discovered that teachers, as professional workers, seek and are stimulated by realistic, growth-oriented feedback. In summary, this approach to motivationally significant feedback has five important purposes: 1)to encourage continuous growth and job satisfaction through self-renewal; 3)to refine the abilities of each teacher to be analytical about his performance; 4)to refine and expand the strategies and methods of instruction; and 5)to provide a context and a set of criteria for determining good teaching practice. In order to assess the presence

and strength of motivational theory in teacher performance evaluation documents, Baker(1976) suggests that the structure of the whose composition first be considered to determine which of the three elements of form, content, and process are controlled. Secondly, the structure of the composition should be assessed to determine whether it: 1)responds to the task assigned to it with an appropriate complexity; 2)maintains a consistent point of view and a consistent, specified audience; 3)demonstrates a clear rhetorical strategy which includes an introduction and conclusion, several levels of abstraction, general statements, clarification, and support, and avoids lengthy repetitions; 4)understands the syntax of the English sentence and the conventions of Standard English; and 5)supports a logical focus with appropriate subordination and coordination including transitions to signal changes in purpose.

The key to motivationally significant professional communication centers on the writer's sound understanding of the nature of evidence; factual evidence marshaled to support definite points does not need to resort to distortion, worn-out cliches, pseudo arguments, sheer opinion, persuasive gimmickery, and fanciful conundrums. Looking at the written performance evaluation process is somewhat analogous to looking at the allocation of values that a school system displays in its documented actions. Recognizing performance that conforms to its

image de-emphasizes growth and sets standards of ready-made mediocrity which, "the second rate can do well because of their ability to grasp what is accepted and conventional."[38]

Communication psychology suggests that written messages tht fail to effectively communicate, usually fail because the writer tends to oversimplify human behavior; oversimplified communication fails because it points to ends without indicating how such ends are to be obtained, or why they shold be. Effective communication depends on a writer's sensitivity to the complex needs, aspirations, and personal dignity of his reader.

> The proper force of words lies not in the words themselves, but in their application. A word may be a fine-sounding word...and yet in the connection in which it is introduced may be quite pointless and irrelevant. It is not pomp or presentation, but the adaption of the expression to the idea that clenches a writer's meaning.[39]

Fundamental to any profession is the regualr review of the performance of its members. Even when evaluation processes are humanistic in spirit and purpose, administrators would do well to observe the advice of John Gardner that was directed to evaluators who would attempt to remold others:

> A free society will not specify too closely the kinds of meaning different individuals will find or the things about which they should generate conviction. People differ

in their goals and convictions, and in the whole style of their commitment. We must ask that their goals fall within the moral framework to which we all pay allegiance, but we cannot prescribe the things that will unlock their deepest motivations. Those earnest spirits who believe that a man cannot be counted worthy unless he burns with zeal for civic affairs could not be more misguided. And we are wrong when we follow the current fashion of identifying moral strength too exclusively with fighting for a cause. Nothing could be more admirable nor more appealing to a performance-minded people such as ourselves. But, such an emphasis hardly does justice to the rich variety of moral excellences that man has sought and occasionally achieved in the course of history.

A good many of the most valuable people in any society will never burn with zeal for anything except the integrity and health and well-being of their own families - and if they achieve those goals, we need ask little more of them. There are other valuable members of a society who will never generate convictions about anything beyond the productive output of their hands or minds - and a sensible society will be grateful for their contributions.40

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to audit written
teacher evaluations in order to determine whether a
discrepancy exists between the motivational purpose of
performance feedback, as described by Fredrick Herzberg,
and the actual use of motivational components in the
evaluation feedback that administrators write for Grosse
Pointe Public School teachers. The study is descriptive
in nature and focuses on the divergent nature of
motivational needs. The fact that this study examines a
subtle, human life force, namely man's incentive to act,
does not mean that it is concerned with manipulation; it
does not answer the question: How do we make people become
better workers? Rather, motivation is understood here to
mean recognition of the fact that improvement can only be
achieved by individual persons mobilizing their own higher
forces and faculties to become better teachers.

"What is not in a man cannot come out of him
surely."[41] (Goethe) If motivation comes from the individual

teacher, not from the administrator, an evaluation of a teacher serves, essentially, as a stimulator of what already exists in an individual teacher as a human being. The effectiveness of evaluation instruments, consequently, becomes, to a significant extent, a function of the choice and content of language administrators use in writing them. This study examines the language component of written performance evaluations in order to determine the strength and type of motivational messages that school administrators are sending to teachers in performance evaluation documents. Specifically, the study is concerned with written references to the Herzberg-identified motivators of achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, and the work itself, as well as with the hygiene factors of school provisions, supervisory practices, and work conditions.

Aristotle defined choice as a rational act: the deliberate reaching out for things within an individual's power. This inquiry concerns the administrative use of language to enhance individual teachers' understanding of the choices available to them. The study is offered as a description of how things are, which is understood to be an essential prerequisite to influencing how things ought to be.

Research Question and Hypothesis

Content analysis attempts to identify the components of written communication as a vehicle for identifying the writer's intent. The research questions asked in this content analysis are:1)What is the type and strength of motivational theory in the written evaluations that Grosse Pointe administrators write about Grosse Pointe teachers' instructional performance? 2)What is the difference between male and female administrative use of motivational theory in written teacher performance evaluations? 3)What is the difference between male and female teachers in their rate of reception of motivational messages in written performance evaluations? 4)What is the difference between high school, middle school, and elementary school administrators in their use of motivational theory in written teacher performance evaluations? As the focus of the research of question 1, the following hypothesis is made:

> There is no relationship between the performance feedback school administrators write on teachers' evaluations and the Herzberg-identified motivational purposes of performance evaluations.

As the focus of the research of questions 2, 3, and 4, descriptives statistics are used to examine the content analysis data.

Population and Sample

Of the approximately 500 male and female teachers employed in the Grosse Pointe Public School System, 300 were evaluated in writing during the 1985-86 school year by 23 building administrators. Sixteen of the administrators were male, 7 were female. As a preliminary level of classification, all 300 evaluation documents were coded into four categories:

> A) male administrator / male teacher;
>
> B) female administrator / male teacher;
>
> C) male administrator / female teacher;
>
> D) female administrator / female teacher

In order to protect the anonymity of both the evaluators and evaluatees, the preliminary classification of documents was made by Dr. Roger A. McCaig, Director of Research for the Grosse Pointe Schools. Under his control, all names and identifying references were removed from each of the evaluation documents and replaced by codes (A, B, C, or D); each evaluation was then assigned a three digit identification number by Dr. McCaig. Using random numbers supplied by a computerized random number generator, 50 evaluations were pulled from each of the preliminary categories, 200 in total, and used as the sample for this study. None of the administrators in the study had fewer than five years of administrative

experience; most had over ten years of administrative experience. None of the evaluated teachers were new or non-tenured personnel. First or second year teacher evaluations might have contained a unique emphasis which could have confounded the study: the dynamic is well-established that new employees, those who have not been formally evaluated at least twice by school administrators, may have special motivational needs for encouragement either to remain in or to leave the teaching profession. Emphatic messages of this type tend to be outside the normal flow of evaluation messages prepared by school administrators.

An analysis of communication content was then performed to determine the nature and strength of the written stimuli being sent to the evaluated teachers. The analysis centered on the semantic character of the language used in each evaluation and the frequencies of the various types of Herzberg-identified characteristics found in each category. The content analysis strategy of the study was designed to yield data relevant to the null hypothesis.

The recording unit used to code motivational references in the analysis is the phrase which is defined as a single word or cluster of words containing a motivational message. Each phrase is considered motivational as it is relevant to the Herzberg two-factor theory, within the context of the evaluation as a whole.

Each occurrence of a relevant phrase is enumerated separately in one of eight categories:

achievement,

recognition,

responsibility,

growth,

the work itself,

school policies,

supervisory provisions,

work conditions.

The point of coding separate instances of motivational elements is to determine the orientation of school administrators toward Herzberg-defined motivators or hygienes. Analysis of what is said, and how frequently it is reiterated, reveals the focus, intensity, and direction of school administrators in relation to the motivational purpose of teacher evaluation.

Fundamental to the coding system is an understanding that even though motivational language is countable by individual references, it is not defined as mechanical by administrative use. Rather, frequency counts, which assist the portrayal of observed reality with theoretical constructions, are aimed at an increased comprehension of the paths to harmonious human behavior. In essence, Herzberg's theory emphasizes the synthesis of eight variable lines of controlled thought.

Instrumentation: Validity and Reliability

The nominally scaled data produced by the frequency counts of this study indicated that the Chi-Square One Variable Test (X^2) was the appropriate test from which to draw inferences about the probable significant differences between expected motivational references and observed motivational references. As a nonparametric test of significance, the Chi-Square measures discrepancy inferentially and makes no assumptions concerning the shape of the population. The sample size of 200 used in this study was large enough to remove any doubt concerning the normality of the underlying population distribution.

The eight Herzberg-identified motivational categories of achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, the work itself, school policies, supervisory provisions, and work conditions were then arranged into a two-by-two matrix of pre-coded, independent frequencies for computer analysis using the Standard Package of Social Science (SPSS) program. Data were assigned to cells in a grid designed to allow crosstabulation by:

A)male administrator - male teacher;

B)female administrator - male teacher;

C)male administrator - female teacher;

D)female administrator - female teacher.

Frequency counts of motivational theory use by

three levels of administration were also kept: senior high administrators, middle school administrators, and elementary school administrators. Descriptive statistics were used to present these counts.

A pilot study of ten evaluations was performed and replicated to establish the feasibility, validity, and reliability of the study. Using one analyst, a reliability construct over time was established when the same results were produced by the same coder, twice when applying the same set of categories, to the same evaluations, approximately 45 days apart. Berelson(1960) reports a uniformly high degree of validity for content analysis when: 1)the categories are simple; 2)the categories are fewer than ten, and when the coder: a)is experienced, and b)understands the standarized coding rules.

This research employed eight, pre-defined categories. The analyst has a masters degree in reading theory and 21 years of content analysis experience in the teaching of secondary English. Based on the Herzberg model, each motivational category serves as an informative source of how different components affect the motivational character of the Grosse Pointe Public Schools' teacher evaluation system. In addition to a satisfactory confidence level in the skill of the researcher, a valid interpretation of the results of this study is predicated on the theoretical formulation that the research design is

a straightforward depiction of the process by which the variables under study actually operate.

Barzun(1986) warns content analysts about misplaced regard for trivial details: "as long as the date of birth and middle initial are correct, some analysts feel they can indulge with impunity in the most whopping errors of sense and judgment." [42] Barzun also noted that the content analyst, who exists outside the flow of the communication, must also guard against developing a bias: a reader's vigilence can breed suspicion in which the writer is the suspect. Thus, what is written can become, ipso facto, questionable and incomplete. Realistically, an analyst must allow that every writer is liable to lapses, an ambiguity, a false linkage, or a bit of nonsense.

The pilot study produced empirical indications about the ratio of use of each one of the eight Herzberg categories. The pilot observations were later useful in specifying the expected number of frequencies of the theoretical chi-square distributions, and, subsequently, to test the null hypothesis.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

From a behaviorist's point of view, control and communication of information are intricately related at the focus of all knowledge. Communication theory or information theory is a very general and rigorously

derived branch of probability theory. Communication theory introduces the idea of an information source and a message which is transmitted, by any of the possible means, to a receiver that picks up the message. Interference or delay of information transmission is usually called "noise." When information is sent in language, coding it requires interpretation with respect to its meaning. In a sense, language is the code itself for ideas and concepts. The amount of information that is transmitted can be measured by frequencies of occurrences which gives it the properties of statistics or probable character.

This study is based on the premises that by definition, written teacher performance evaluations clearly indicate a teacher's level of performance in language that motivates the teacher to improve that performance and that by hypothesis, performance effectiveness is measured by assessing the proximity between observed instructional performance and the objective criteria established as the valid goal for the observed instructional performance. Analysis of data is based on the final idea that by conclusion, written teacher evaluations which are motivationally significant indicate, by language choice, what is clearly observed to occur in an instructional performance, and what change is specifically needed in order to improve instructional performance, why the designated change could result in

performance improvement, or how the designated change could result in performance improvement.

Data analysis of the findings of this study proceeds on the inductive proposition that since the assessment and communication aspects of the written teacher evaluation process are interconnected, acquiring data about the written language used by an administrator, validly leads to acquiring knowledge about the probable value of motivational theory to administrators. Analagous to investigating a process by studying the concrete evidence of its product, understanding the form of communication as indicated by frequency counts, inferentially leads to understanding the substance of motivational theory usage in the administrative communication of evaluation information to teachers. The emphasis in this analysis is on breaking down written communication, on the basis of language content, in order to identify the type and strength of the motivational messages that Grosse Pointe Public School administrators are sending to teachers in their written performance evaluations.

The primary step in the analysis of data was an investigation of frequencies of occurrences, central tendencies, and dispersions. Frequencies were presented as both counts and percentages during the course of analysis. The Pearson Chi-Square (X^2) corrected for continuity by the Yates Correction was chosen as the

appropriate behavioral statistic because of its usefulness with nominal data. A risk level, Alpha, of .05 probability was selected as the basis for rejecting or not rejecting the null hypothesis. Degrees of freedom equal one.

The structural approaches to data analysis involved: 1) examination of the frequencies of the eight motivator-hygiene categories in both their simple form and crosstabulated with each of the four pre-determined evaluator-evaluatee categories; 2)determination of homogeneity of motivational character for each evaluation document. For this determination, Formative evaluations were defined as those in which 50% or more of identified motivational phrases serve as Herzbergian motivators rather than as hygienes; Summative evaluations were defined as those in which less than 50% of identified motivational phrases serve as Herzbergian motivators. Interpretation of the quantitative evidence focused on patterns of emphasis, administrative orientation toward motivational theory and the practical significance of the evaluation language used by administrators. A sample of the content analysis procedure is contained in Figure 3-1-a and 3-1-b; a code book and Fortran coding form appear in Appendix B.

Science has shown repeatedly that even the best established theories can be corrected; a theory always remains a hypothesis, a conjecture. One potential

limitation of Herzberg's theory of motivation is suggested by its apparent inability to distinguish between motivationally significant communication messages relative to purpose. Statistical treatment of data serves usefully as a mathematical device to signify the probability of theoretical phenomena, in this case, the presence and strength of motivational messages. However, analytical interpretation of the content of the observed data is also required in order to determine the probability of motivational effectiveness. In other words, a foundation of quantifiable motivational communication is insufficient; the question must be answered: motivation for what purpose?

The qualitative significance of the research findings indicate what degree of significance motivational criteria have for public school administrators in Grosse Pointe when they are preparing written performance evaluations of Grosse Pointe techers. The illustrative nature of the study is intended to contribute sound documentation concerning the extent and importance of the theoretical foundation of written teacher performance evaluations. The study's conclusion is intended to encourage more extensive use of a theory based foundation for teacher performance evaluation writing by other populations of school administrators.

Summary

·The methodology used in this study attempts to follow clear lines of logical simplicity. Employing content analysis as the empirical basis to determine the observed scope of motivational communication, and the chi square statistic as an inferential test to measure the significance of the motivational content, this study essentially relies on theory, specifically, that of Fredrick Herzberg, for its meaningful interpretation. Because of the selective nature of content analysis, knowledge gained from this study is aimed at an understanding of the perceptual and cognitive components of achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, the work itself, school policies, supervisory provisions, and work conditions as they appear in written communication.

In summary, analysis proceeds in four steps:

1) selection of phrases;

2) determination of way phrases are used;

3) classification of phrase usage;

4) interpretation of the phrase meaning;

Since motivational tension is inherent in motivational language, separate phrases tend to lose little or nothing when pulled out of context for purposes of counting and interpreting. By observation, written teacher evaluations tend to be series of loosely strung together comments; motivational elements found in them are almost always independent of the structure in which they

are found. The fact that so little contextual form is observable in evaluation documents facilitates the frequency counting process and suggests a diffusion of purpose in their preparation. Contextual form helps unify written communication; a lack of form suggests a loss of unity with a possible concomitant loss of motivational character.

Essentially, linguistic analysis begins with concrete evidence and ends with abstract vision. With language as the pivotal point of the research design, this inquiry searches for a clear formulation of the issues of: in whose terms are the teacher evaluation documents written; in whose interests are administrative efforts at communication pursued? Linguistic analysis offers the advantage of considering the two issues in relative terms rather than as two distinct discussions.

Properly understood, motivation is not just a collection of statements, a catalog or unrelated findings. As a process underpinning all action, it is a generic component of the human mind which orders the probability of human behavior. The essential justification for this study is the belief that a concrete link can be described between motivational theory of human behavior and observed communication behavior of educational administrators.

A straightforward synthesis of all frequency counts of the study with Herzberg's theory suggests: 1) the magnitude of effect of each of the Herzberg

components, and 2) the probability of theory-driven communication in the evaluation documents prepared by Grosse Pointe administrators. Conclusions of the study could also lead to an understanding of the practical problems associated with using written performance evaluations as instruments of motivation. The focus of this study, therefore, centers descriptively on the recording of relevant observations concerning the Grosse Pointe administrators' commitment to motivationally oriented teacher evaluations. In essence, the study is aimed at documenting the Grosse Pointe administrative congruence with a finding of communication psychologist Morrow (1982), "The purpose of all writing is to stimulate mental activity."43

SAMPLE
CONTENT ANALYSIS OF TEACHER PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Purpose of Analysis: The purpose of this analysis is to
audit a teacher performance evaluation in order to
identify the presence and strength of any motivational
elements within the written content.

Definition of Variables: Motivation is defined according
to the Motivator-Hygiene Theory of Fredrick Herzberg.

    A. Achievement - refers to the successful attainment
of a goal or goals;
    B. Recognition - refers to the approval one earns by
achieveing desirable goals;
    C. Responsibility - the sense of commitment a person
displays in the accomplishment of his work;
    D. Growth - refers to the various forms of
professional enrichment a person seeks as stimulation to
expanded growth;
    E. School Policies - refers to a school's climate of
order, reliability, predictability, and the methods a
school uses to obtain these;
    F. Supervisory Practices - refers to a school's
authority structure and its formal and informal control
methods;
    G. Working Conditions - refers to the presence or
absence of support in clerical help, class size
limitations, materials, and physical comfort;

Relevant Literature: The literature of motivation is
extensive in organizational studies and in psychological
studies. Essentially, the concept of motivation is a
psychological term for a process that deliberately impels
and organism toward active, integrated, directed behavior.
First expressed in The Motive to Work in 1959, Fredrick
Herzberg's two factor theory holds that man has two sets
of needs which are mutually exclusive: the need to avoid
pain (hygiene) and the need to grow psychologically. The
literature of evaluation has moved increasingly away from
a simple assessment of achievement against objectives and
now suggests focusing on understanding the causes of
people's behavior in order to influence (motivate)
performance growth. Analyzing the content of a sample
teacher's evaluation on the basis of its motivational
categories should yield an indication of whether current
evaluations are indeed motivational in nature.

Research Question: What is the type and strength of the
motivational message that Grosse Pointe Public School
administrators are communicating in their written
performance evaluations of Grosse Pointe teachers?

Research Design: Recording unit - a phrase which could be
a single word or a group of words which convey an idea;
Context unit - the entire evaluation document; Unit of
classification - the identified elements of
motivator-hygiene theory; Unit of enumeration - the number
of references identified in each of the categories;
Sampling - random selection by numbers drawn from computer
generated random numbers following numbering of
evaluations and coding for male/female evaluator/evaluatee
by outside source;

Reliability - Validity: Reliability of content analysis
by single analyst determined by repeated analyses of same
evaluation document at different times; validity of
content analysis determined by expertise of analyst in
understanding evaluation purposes and motivator-hygiene
theory.

FIGURE 3-1

Sample content analysis of teacher performance evaluation,
part 1.

SAMPLE
CONTENT ANALYSIS OF TEACHER PERFORMANCE
EVALUATION

Sample Teacher Evaluation

Teacher X is an unusually effective English   *Recognition*
teacher who has a carefully thought out series   *Achievement*
of English language objectives (reading,
writing, thinking, speaking) for teaching the
literary works in X's courses. X does not
merely put these objectives in writing but   *Responsib.*
actively pursues them in teaching specific   *Achievement*
workds. Rather than attempting to do all   *Recognition*
things in a given work, X very wisely   *Recognition*
concentrates on one or a small number of
skills and treats these in detail. X is quite *Achievement*
successful in establishing these limited   *Recognition*
objectives with students and in moving
students to consider questions such as the   *Achievement*
following: What details are highly important?
What details can we concern ourselves very
little with? What is the author's tone?
Teacher X is relaxed as a teacher, operates in *Work Itself*
low key, asks interesting, thought provoking *Work Itself*
questions, and involves students heavily in   *Growth* 0
classroom discussions. X stresses note-taking
and study skills, and since X works with such *Responsibility*
snarly focused, limited objectives for   *Achievement*
individual works, and questions economically, *Recognition*
there is usually time within a period to allow *Recognition*
students to read ahead.   *Work Itself*
                                                        0

Coding of Sample Evaluation

        Achievement: 5 phrase
        Recognition: 6 phrases
        Responsibility: 2 phrases
        Work Itself: 3 phrases
        Growth: 1 phrase
        School Policies: 0
        Supervisory Practices: 0
        Working Conditions: 0

Interpretation of sample coding

This sample teacher evaluation is heavily skewed toward
motivational theory in that it incorporates all of the
Herzberg-identified motivators and none of the
Herzberg-identified hygiene factors. It is noteworthy
that this evaluation in recognizing Teacher X's strong
teaching performance (Recognition is the most frequently
occurring category.), makes minimal use of the Growth
motivator which might have addressed potential growth
areas. A teacher as skilled and flexible as this teacher
appears to be, might benefit more from professional growth
and advancement rather than simple praise and approval.
For example, the mention of this teacher's ability to ask
penetrating questions, might be an opportunity to
encourage the teacher to attempt an inquiry approach in
the future. The frequent repetition of Teacher X's name
is, in itself, a positive recognition factor. No
supervisory practices are mentioned, but an administrative
appreciation of order and time management are apparent.

FIGURE 3-1

Sample content analysis of teacher performance evaluation,
part 2.

Chapter IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

For purposes of this study, a content analysis of 200 Grosse Pointe written teacher performance evaluations was conducted; the object of the content analysis was a determination of the current status and the extent to which Grosse Pointe administrative motivation of teachers serves as a function of administrative evaluation of teachers. Based on the language used in the written evaluations of the 200 Grosse Pointe teachers, frequency counts of the eight Herzberg-defined components of motivation: achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, the work itself, school policies, supervisory provisions, and work conditions, were made which served as the foundation and the parameters for the content analysis.

Analyzing content for an intangible condition, such as motivation, was facilitated by the use of the categorized frequency counts because, through this method

of organizing nominal data, highly hetrogenous concepts were brought together in clear-cut juxtaposition. Fredrick Herzberg's theory of motivation provided a systematic format for the content analysis which allowed the study to reveal more than simple frequency counts; the theory illuminated the evaluation process by defining written language as a significant motivational variable of administrative patterns of response to the performance feedback needs of teachers.

Analysis of data was first conducted in a micro mode by separately studying the results of the frequency counts from each one of the eight Herzberg components of achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, the work itself, school policies, supervisory provisions, and work conditions. Processing frequency counts separately revealed important points of administrative emphasis; motivation, while certainly not reducible to a numerical "bottom line," is, nevertheless, definable in terms of terse mathematical observations about communication content.

Next, a macro analysis of the data from the cumulative results across all eight frequency counts was conducted to ascertain distinct patterns of communication in the overall written communication of administrators to teachers in the evaluation process. Processing frequency counts as integrated patterns revealed important relationships in administrative emphasis; motivation,

while impossible to quantify, is, nevertheless, definable in terms of relative mathematical statements about observable evaluation focus.

Finally, an observation of the word choice, grammar, and diction used in the written evaluations was made in order to discover any inferential messages communicated by these factors. The purpose of analyzing what specific words mean, and how they work together in written messages is to gain a knowledge of what the written language is actually communicating.

By analyzing both the substance and the form of written evaluation documents, this study attempted to measure actual administrative behavior against stated administrative aspirations. The study's purpose is not a discussion of remedy for deficiency, but a clear description of what conditions already exist. Ultimately, teacher performance improvement is definable as a matter of attitude; the thesis of this study is that written teacher evaluations, if properly planned, can serve as a measurable point of leverage in the administrative encouragement of the development of enduring, productive, teacher performance improvement attitudes. An overview of the findings of this study are first presented numericaly and graphically (Figures 4-1,2,3,4,5,6,7). A breakdown of the study's findings by Herzberg-defined components is then presented.

The total frequency count of all 8 components

observed in the 200 documents of this study was 3,200.

The individual frequency counts of the 8 components studied were:

Achievement	587	18%
Recognition	1224	38%
Responsibility	420	13%
Growth	143	5%
Work Itself	206	6%
School Policies	232	7%
Supervisory Provisions	246	8%
Work Conditions	142	5%

The mean number of individual Herzberg-identified component references were found to be:

per evaluation	16 references
per component	400 references
per male evaluator	204 references
per female evaluator	196 references
per high school	172 references
per middle school	113 references
per elementary	115 references
per male teacher	178 references
per female teacher	222 references

The observed mode of communicated Herzberg-identified

motivational elements was found to be:

per component	1224	references
per male evaluator	269	references
per female evaluator	429	references
per male teacher	269	references
per female teacher	429	references

By individual component categories the approximate frequency count ratio of component frequency to mean frequency was found to be:

Achievement	3:1
Recognition	5:1
Responsibility	2:1
Growth	1:1
Work Itself	1:1
School Policies	2:1
Supervisory Provisions	1:1
Work Conditions	1:1

By school level of administrative use of motivational components in writing were found to be:

High School	1375	43%
Middle School	905	28%
Elementary School	920	29%

By gender of administrator, use of motivational components in writing were found to be:

Male administrator   1632   51%

Female administrator 1568   49%

By gender of teachers, reception of motivational components in writing was found to be:

Male teachers   1421   44%

Female teachers   1779   56%

By evaluation type, evaluations documents were found to be:

Formative   3183   99%

Summative   17   1%

HERZBERG COMPONENT FREQUENCY PERCENTAGES
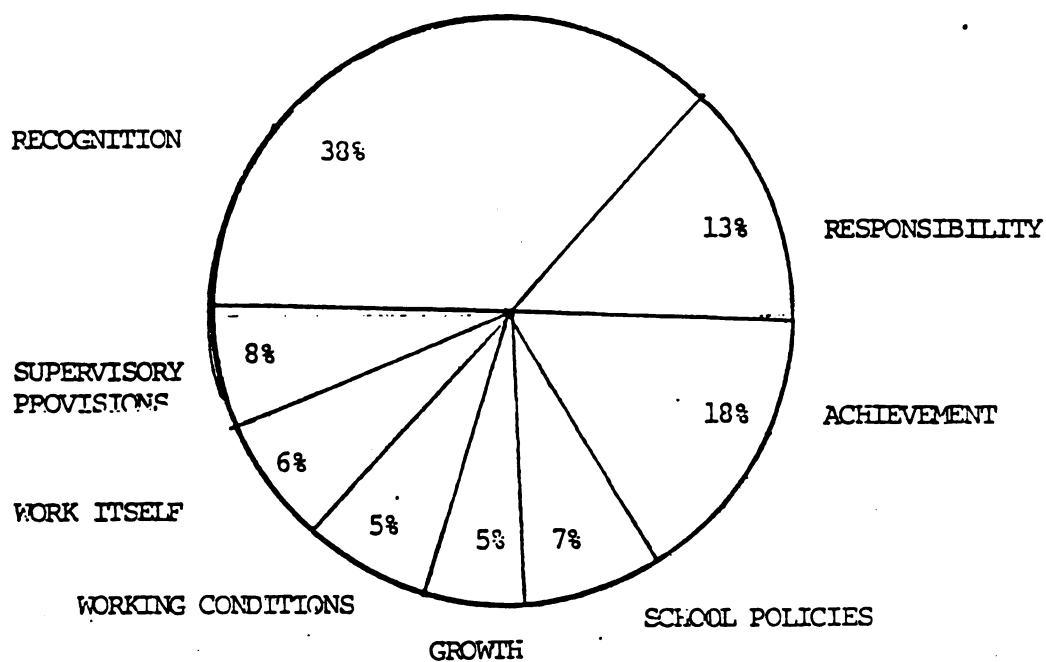
Achievement	587	18%
Recognition	1224	38%
Responsibility	420	13%
Growth	143	5%
Work Itself	206	6%
School Policies	232	7%
Supervisory Provisions	246	8%
Working Conditions	142	5%

FIGURE 4-1

MOTIVATIONAL MESSAGES FREQUENCIES BY COMPONENT

Achievement	587
Recognition	1224
Responsibility	420
Growth	143
The Work Itself	206
School Policies	232
Supervisory Provisions	246
Work Conditions	142

Figure 4-2

Figure 4-3

Component	M	F
Achievement	323	264
Recognition	588	686
Responsibility	194	226
Growth	103	40
Work Itself	29	177
School Policies	132	100
Supervisory Provis.	134	112
Work Conditions	70	72
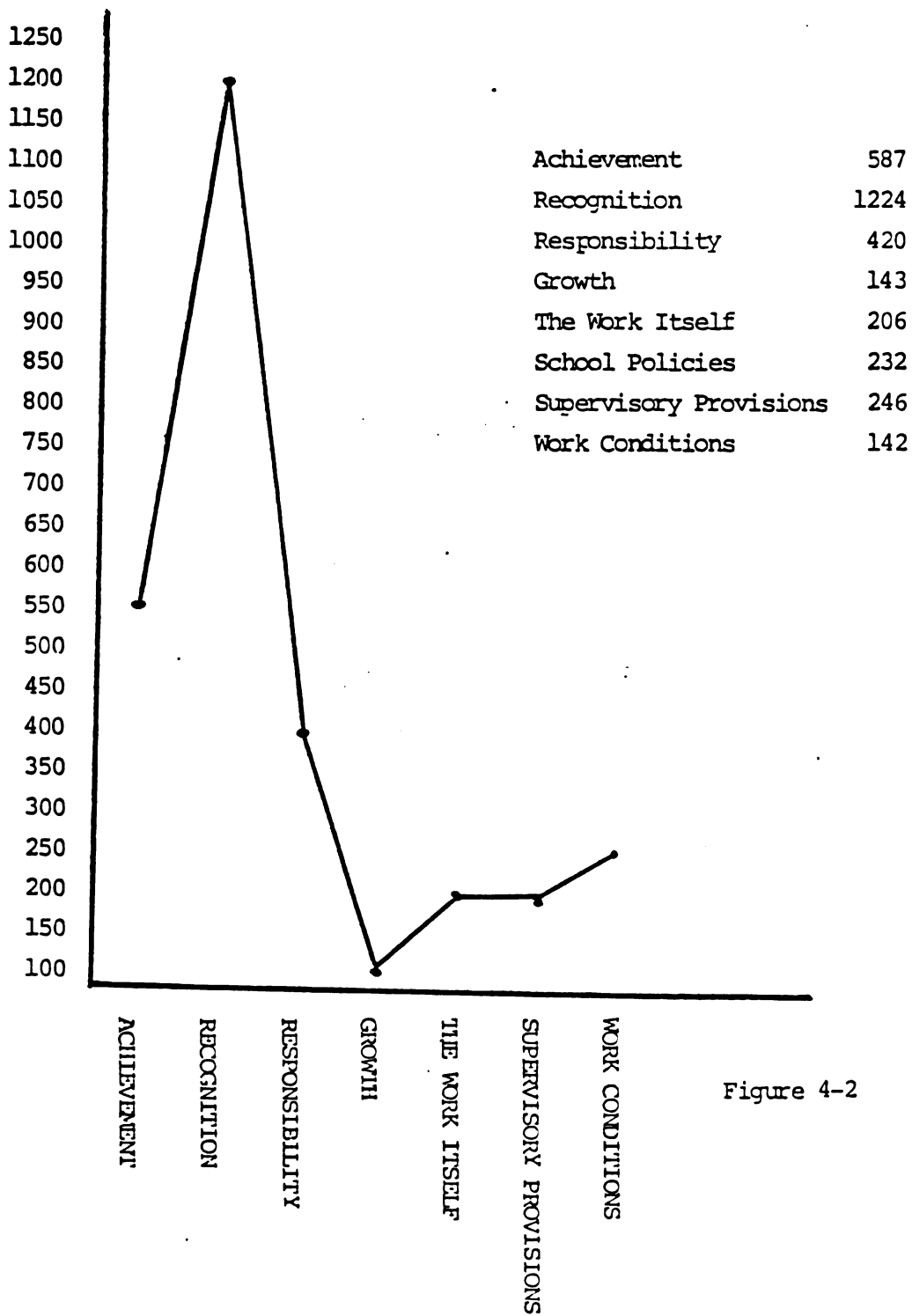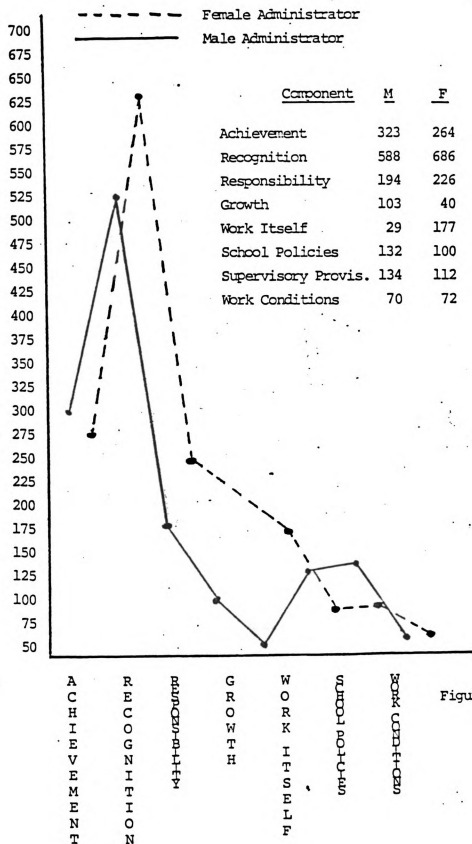
HERZBERG COMPONENT FREQUENCIES BY
· ADMINISTRATOR / TEACHER CATEGORY

Category A Male Administrator / Male Teacher   (50)
Category B Female Administrator / Male Teacher (50)
Category C Male Teacher / Female Administrator (50)
Category D Female Teacher / Female teacher   (50)

CATEGORIES	A	B	C	D
	M/M	F/M	M/F	F/F
Achievement	138	117	188	147
Recognition	269	257	269	429
Responsibility	97	100	97	126
Growth	40	20	63	20
The Work Itself	0	60	29	117
School Policies	58	63	74	37
Supervisory Provisions	67	67	67	45
Working Conditions	35	36	35	36
TOTALS	701	720	822	957
PERCENTAGES	22%	23%	25%	30%

HIGHLIGHTS: Most frequent component: Recognition, 1224, 38%
   Most frequent administrator use of Recognition: F
             Most frequent teacher recipient of Recognition: F
             Most frequent motivational use category: D F/F

FIGURE 4-4

USE OF HERZBERG MOTIVATIONAL COMPONENTS

BY ADMINISTRATIVE SCHOOL LEVEL
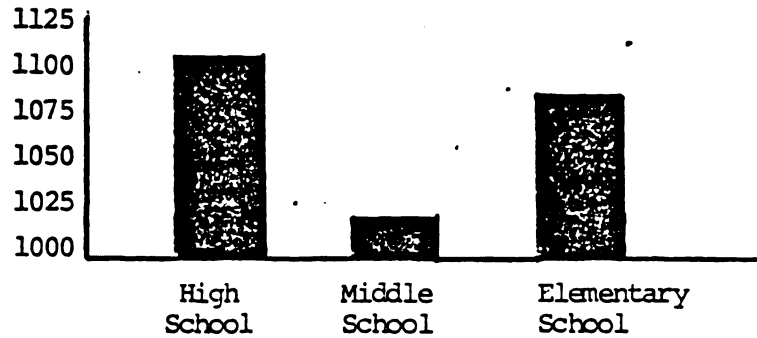
High School	1109	35%
Middle School	1011	31%
Elementary School	1080	34%
TOTALS	3200	100%

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION BY TYPE:

FORMATIVE OR SUMMATIVE

Formative
3183
99 %

Summative
17
1%
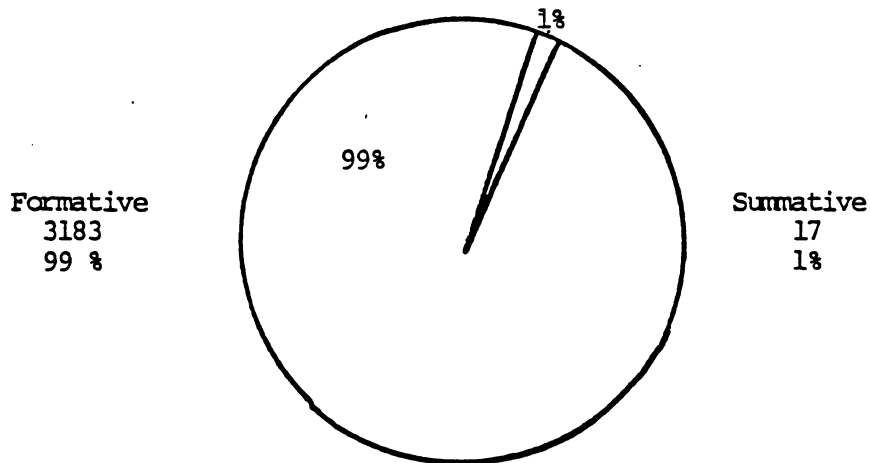
FIGURE 4-5

MALE ADMINISTRATORS (A + C)		FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS (B + D)
323	ACHIEVEMENT	264
588	RECOGNITION	686
194	RESPONSIBILITY	226
103	GROWTH	40
29	WORK ITSELF	177
132	SCHOOL POLICIES	100
134	SUPERVISORY PROVI	112
70	WORKING CONDITIONS	72
1523	TOTALS	1677
48%	PERCENTAGES	52%

MALE TEACHERS (A + B)		FEMALE TEACHERS (C + D)
252	ACHIEVEMENT	335
526	RECOGNITION	698
197	RESPONSIBILITY	223
60	GROWTH	83
60	WORK ITSELF	146
121	SCHOOL POLICIES	111
134	SUPERVISORY PROVI	112
71	WORKING CONDITION	71
1421	TOTALS	1779
44%	PERCENTAGES	56%

FIGURE 4 6

Achievement Content

Achievement was found to be a major point of emphasis in the written evaluations that Grosse Pointe administrators prepared for Grosse Pointe teachers. Every one of the 200 evaluations that were surveyed for the study contained multiple references to positive achievements of teachers; an average of 587 achievement descriptions per evaluation were counted. Approximately two-thirds, or 390, of these, achievement references described instructional behavior; the remainder of the counted achievement citations ranged in content from building and staff responsibilities to professional organization membership. Of the 200 documents, 2% or 12, contained no references to instructional achievements of teachers. Of the 3200 counted references, only 5 which is less than 1%, contained a negative achievement denotation. The most frequently counted instructional achievement topics were confined to:

1. observed accomplishments of specific instructional tasks such as planning, reporting, and testing;

2. effective implementation of traditional teaching methods;

3. satisfactory coverage of district curriculum guidelines;

4. demonstrated use of appropriate instructional materials. No significant differences between expected

achievement frequencies and observed achievement frequencies was found.

ACHIEVEMENT FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	135	23%
B (f/m)	117	20%
C (m/f)	188	32%
D (f/f)	147	25%

administrative gender

Male (A + C)	323	55%
Female (B + D)	264	45%

teacher gender

Male (A + B)	252	43%
Female (C + D)	335	57%

school level of administrator

High School	297	50%
Middle School	149	26%
Elementary School	141	24%

ACHIEVEMENT CONTENT SAMPLE REFERENCES:

A typical achievement reference used language such as:

"showed improvement in organizing lessons"

"was able to make good progress in new area"

"used the technique of questioning"

Achievement references occasionally sounded like "product"
statements such as:

"developed written philosophy on computers"

"organized new unit on motors"

Evaluative statements about teacher achievement were
occasionally made by association with student achievement:

"one of his students won a prize in a

national contest"

"her students achieved success in art"

Achievement references sometimes focused on
non-instructional teacher accomplishments such as:

"she took a computer course at Wayne"

"she wrote a news article on a class project

for The Grosse Pointe News

Recognition Content

The study found that no other Herzberg-identified single component of motivation had greater frequency of use in teacher evaluations than recognition. Grosse Pointe administrators quantitatively stressed recognition as the primary focus of 1224 appraisals. While occurring infrequently, negative recognition content also was observed and counted in the study. The most frequently observed recognition topics paralled the instructional achievements topics closely such as: 1)specified classroom tasks, 2)traditional teaching methods 3)district curriculum guidelines 4)appropriate instructional materials.

As a motivational factor, recognition communication differs markedly from achievement communication. The chief difference between recognition and achievement language concerns the focal point of the communication: achievement statements describe behavior empirically; recognition statements describe statements that administrators used to describe behavior judgmentally. The recognition statements that administrators used to describe a teacher's performance behavior focused either positive or negative attention in the form of the language of praise or criticism for administratively approved behavior.

The fact that Recognition statements exceeded

achievement statements in frequency of appearance in the Grosse Pointe administrators' evaluations of teachers was due to either repetitious praise for the same achievement by a teacher, or praise that was general in nature for such things as a teacher's positive attitude or commitment. Qualitative research, especially studies focused on characteristics of traditions, have found that institutional standards, determined by behavior recognized by institutions, exert a powerful but not totally determining influence on behavior within the institution. A significant difference between expected recognition frequencies and observed recognition frequencies was found.

RECOGNITION FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	269	22%
B (f/m)	257	21%
C (m/f)	269	22%
D (f/f)	429	35%

administrative gender

Male	(A + C)	538	44%
Female	(C + D)	686	56%

teacher gender

Male	(A + B)	526	43%
Female	(C + d)	698	57%

<u>school</u> <u>level</u> <u>of</u> <u>administrator</u>

High School	367	30%
Middle School	416	34%
Elementary School	441	3%

RECOGNITION CONTENT REFERENCE SAMPLES

Recongition outnumbered all of the other 8 motivational components of the study. A typical recognition reference used language such as:

> "doing a fine job"
>
> "shows good potential"
>
> "uses quality processes"

Recognition references occasionally appeared to focus on the evaluator as much as the teacher:

> "X surpassed my expectations"
>
> "I am fortunate to have X on my staff"
>
> "I enjoy X's pleasant disposition"

Recognition references occasionally focused on characteristics of teachers which could arguably be considered "givens" of instructional performance:

> "X is an experienced teacher"
>
> "X is stable"
>
> "X is known as a solid-thinker"

Sandwhiched in between positive remarks, were occasional negative Recognition references:

> "X was observed smoking in view of students"
>
> "X is possessive about audio-visuals"

Responsibility Content

As a quantified reference, responsibility was found to be a relatively minor factor in the teacher performance evaluations that Grosse Pointe administrators wrote. In a motivational sense, responsibility is a crucial factor in performance improvement. Psychologists' studies have indicated that if a person thinks he has the responsibility of even modest personal control over his destiny, he will become more committed to top performance. The question of responsibility speaks to the very heart of motivation, because it addresses the subject of control; Herzbergian evidence has shown that with self-control, as opposed to administrative control, a worker is much more likely to be motivated to improve his performance.

Responsibility as a motivational component also speaks to the relationship between administrators as evaluators and teachers as performers. Ideally, the teacher as a professional performer is most observably motivated when his independence from authoritative control encourages a predisposition to explore alternative instructional strategies. However, few written evaluations in this study portrayed frequent references to independent teacher responsibility. On the contrary, most observations of the Herzberg-identified responsibility component simply mentioned a teacher's noticeable initiative in "self-starting" conventional achievement practices. The difference between individual

responsibility for taking action, and administrative responsibility for taking action is the factor of control; with little evidence of responsibility-encouraging language in the documents of this study, the suggestion of administrative control rather than administrative support for teacher self-control is implied. No significant difference between expected Responsibility messages and observed Responsibility messages was found.

RESPONSIBILITY FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	97	23%
B (f/m)	100	24%
C (m/f)	97	23%
D (f/f)	126	30%

administrative gender

Male (A + C)	194	46%
Female (B + D)	226	54%

teacher gender

Male (A + B)	197	47%
Female (C + D)	223	53%

school level of administrator

High School	151	36%
Middle School	118	28%

Elementary School   151   36%

. RESPONSIBILITY CONTENT SAMPLE REFERENCES

A typical Responsibility reference used such language as:

       "manifests a caring attitude"

       "kind and helpful nature"

       "willing to contribute"

Responsibility references occasionally referred to professional actions peripheral to instruction such as:

       "took charge of meeting arrangements"

       "earned respect of department colleagues"

       "responds to identified learning needs"

Responsibility references occasionally focused on determination or self-starting abilities:

       "persisitent efforts to reach all students"

       "single-handedly developed new approach"

       "willing to search for best materials"

Responsibility references occasionally attributed compliance to a sense of responsibility in messages such as:

       "always cooperates cheerfully"

       "makes every effort to cover curriculum"

       "has an internal clock for on-task classwork"

Responsibility references occasionally were described as the apparent absence of need for external control:

       "needs few reminders"

       "never missed important deadlines"

       "acts without prompting"

Growth Content

Quantitative results of teacher performance appraisals indicate that, as a motivational process, written evaluations do not substantially serve Grosse Pointe teachers in a growth-oriented function. Grosse Pointe administrators could be said to perceive the power of growth messages according to the reinforcement rule that a stimulus may be more valuable by its relative rarity of use. The usefulness of the written messages of the study appeared to be primarily centered in recognition of apparently approved teacher behaviors rather than in involvement with behavior improvement articulation. Common growth areas that might be expected to be present in teacher evaluations, but rarely were, included increasing teaching effectiveness, appraising learning problems, understanding curriculum goals, reviewing materials selection, or improving individual standards.

Growth, as a motivational component of evaluation, specifically refers to insightful knowledge of results. Usually a teacher can tell whether a particular cycle of activity has worked, but often the teacher also needs critical information about whether this completed cycle is leading to the overall goal of the instruction.

Growth in performance has been shown to occur when a performer has reason for change; identifying needs and promoting opportunities for growth in the instructional performance evaluation process means

communicating meaningful reasons for change, in writing.
The tendency to write a quick "relief" form of praise
instead of the insightful feedback needed for regenerative
growth may be symptomatic of an administrative ethos of
apogee of confidence in instructional reformation. A
significant difference between expected Growth frequencies
and observed Growth frequencies was found.

GROWTH FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	40	28%
B (f/m)	20	14%
C (m/f)	63	44%
D (f/f)	20	14%

administrative gender

Male	(A + C)	103	72%
Female	(B + D)	40	28%

teacher gender

Male	(A + B)	60	42%
Female	(C + D)	83	58%

school level of administrator

High School	62	43%
Middle School	62	43%
Elementary School	19	14%

GROWTH CONTENT REFERENCE SAMPLES:

A typical growth reference messages used language such as:

"selected 5 major goals for next year"

"plans to use more class discussions"

"hopes to involve more students in program"

Growth references occasionally appeared to use administrative expectations as a growth motivator:

"I would like to see..."

"I fully expect more improvement in..."

"My expectations for X include..."

Most growth references gave no specific indication of how change was to occur:

"needs to slow lectures down"

"might try alternative methods"

"should offer more types of practice"

Growth references occasionally appeared to encourage beneficial change by describing what behavior should not occur:

"needs to eliminate some of the overlapping units next year"

"must avoid having every student do same drills"

"should not expect LD kids to learn at same rate as the majority of the class"

The Work Itself Content

An analysis of the frequency of references to teaching work itself in the 200 performances appraisal documents studied here provided a basis for the finding that a significant discrepancy seems to exist between the Grosse Pointe espoused purpose of evaluations and the "real" purpose. Rarely was information offered in any of the written evaluations that identified significant factors of the work itself such as references to: teaching systems, teaching environments, or teaching behavior. Without feedback on the performance quality of observed interaction with any identified components of the work itself, the probability of growth in a teacher's instructional skill development is difficult to predict or to motivate.

Herzberg's definition of the work itself as an important motivational factor referred to the instrinsic rewards inherent in effective performance that a successful teacher could expect to receive. For administrators writing teacher evaluations, using language to express the work's intrinsic significance means grasping the power of communication to translate a teacher's personal scale of inherent teaching values into concrete language that sends the transference of positive feedback concerning future instructional behavior. No significant difference between the expected Work Itself frequencies and the observed Work Itself frequencies was

found.

THE WORK ITSELF FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	0	0%
B (f/m)	60	29%
C (m/f)	29	14%
D (f/f)	117	57%

administrator gender

Male	(A + C)	29	14%
Female	(B + D)	177	86%

teacher gender

Male	(A + B)	60	29%
Female	(C + D)	146	71%

school level of administrator

High School	206	100%
Middle School	0	0%
Elementary School	0	0%

THE WORK ITSELF CONTENT REFERENCE SAMPLES

A typical reference to the work itself used language such as:

"love for kids"

"enthusiasm about math"

"intellectually   motivated   by
scientific method of thought"

References   to   the   work   itself   occasionally
described   the   apparent   effect   that the presence of this
motivational   factor   had   on   the   evaluated   teaching
performance:

"promotes excitement about French"

"encouraged many students to consider
jobs in business"

"has   been   successful   in   promoting
interest in new physics course"

The   work   itself   was   referenced   in   several
negative critical observations:

"appears to have lost the spark"

"does   not   radiate   love   for   all
aspects of the subject"

"displays   no   interest   in   new
developments in social science field"

Since   the   work   itself   is   a primary indigenous
factor   of   professional   performance,   its   use   as   a
motivational   force   might   be expected to be more profound
than   the data evidenced in the fairly low frequency counts
of this study.

School Policies Content

As a hygiene element, school policies have been shown to serve only a maintenance factor in stimulating teacher satisfaction, not as an enhancement stimulating improved performance. In the 200 written evaluations studied for this project, school policies, defined as the set of behaviors that are administratively important to the district, served a relatively infrequent role in written communication.

Theoretically, school policies serve as motivation to the extent that they supply information leading to the modification of a teaching assignment, such as placement in more appropriate educational positions, or that lead to promotions, or terminations. In actual practice, evaluated performers in many different fields, have been found to use organizational policies as a listening post or a measuring stick which indicates what evaluators really want. In the light of employment survival, a conclusion employees have frequently come to about school policies is that administrators chiefly want order, tidiness, punctuality, deadline observance, and exact compliance with rules and procedures. School policies, in this capacity, are only capable of maintaining authority control, not motivating performance improvement. A significant difference between expected School Policies frequencies and observed School Policies frequencies was found.

SCHOOL POLICIES FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)	58	25%
B (f/m)	63	27%
C (m/f)	74	32%
D (f/f)	37	32%

administrative gender

Male	(A + C)	132	57%
Female	(B + D)	100	43%

teacher gender

Male	(A + B)	121	52%
Female	(C + D)	111	48%

school level of administrator

High School	84	36%
Middle School	64	28%
Elementary School	84	36%

SCHOOL POLICIES CONTENT REFERENCES SAMPLES

A typical school policies reference used language such as:

"acceptable standards"

"implements rules"

"uses appropriate techniques"

School policies references occasionally described characteristic teacher actions as if there were uncharacteristic and worthy of special attention in writing:

"desires worthwhile instructional conditions"

"waits for opportune moment to begin"

School policies seemed to be a communication area especially vulnerable to the use of language expressions such as:

"runs a tight ship"

"knows when to put foot down"

School policies serves essentially as a hygiene factor in human organizations. The absence of frequent reference to this component, suggests only its apparent lack of importance as a source of teacher or administrator dissatisfaction.

Supervisory Provisions Content

School administration, like business management, has historically divided itself by actual practice into two forms of action: 1)problem prevention, and 2) environmental shaping. Problem prevention refers to the flagging and control of organizational disruptions, while environmental shaping describes positive motivationsl strategizing. The Supervisory provisions of a school district serve as a clearly observable model of which form of action the district seems to promote. Of the 200 evaluation documents analyzed in this study, Supervisory provisions were referred to 246 times, and then, almost always, in a problem prevention role.

The infrequent mention of Supervisory Provisions found in this study seems to indicate this factor's minimal presence in the work environment of Grosse Pointe teachers and seems to point to the probability that for Grosse Pointe administrators, Supervisory provisions is a problem prevention tool. An evaluation system which claims to have performance improvement as its objective, probably requires a stronger activation role than simple problem control. Operating as a maintenance function rather than as an environmentally stimulating function, the component of Supervisory provisions, in Grosse Pointe, seem to be describable as more of a rationale for administrative control than as a force for instructional improvement. A significant difference between expected Supervisory

Provisions frequencies and observed supervisory provisions was found.

SUPERVISORY PROVISIONS

administrator/teacher category

A (m/m)   67   27%

B (f/m)   67   27%

C (m/f)   67   27%

D (f/f)   45   19%

administrative gender

Male   (A + C)   134   54%

Female (B + D)   112   46%

teacher gender

Male   (A + B)   134   54%

Female (C + D)   112   46%

school level of administrator

High School   172   70%

Middle School   25   10%

Elementary School   49   20%

SUPERVISORY PROVISIONS CONTENT REFERENCES SAMPLES

A typical Supervisory provisions reference used language such as:

"invited   principal   to   observe   different sections"

"kept an open door policy"

"prepared a summary of the year's achievements"

Supervisory Provisions references occasionally focused on both the administrator and the evaluated teacher:

"I appreciate his use of quality methods"

"is an asset to any building principal"

Supervisory provisions occasionally used negative content language such as:

"never responded to my suggestions for bulletin boards"

"had several conferences with principal about grading standards"

Work Conditions Content

For teacher evaluation purposes, Work conditions are often synonymous with evaluative observation practices. The method of collecting data about a teacher's performance is a work conditional situation that, in Grosse Pointe, seems to mean the sum of common administrative procedures used for providing teachers with a required statement of where they stand or how they compare with other teachers on each of a set of pre-determined performance criteria. An analysis of the data of this study appears to indicate that the same set of procedures was used with all observed teachers regardless of their training, their experience, or their particular situation. On a quantitative basis, Work conditions, defined as part of the evaluation process or as any other part of working operations, did not appear to be a major point of emphasis in the 200 written evaluations studied. Frequency counts of references to Work conditions were apparntly more significant as a primary indicator of the mechanistic approach written evaluations tended to use, in practice and in language, in communicating standardized appraisals of Grosse Pointe teaching performance. A significant difference between expected Work conditions frequencies and observed Work conditions frequencies was found.

WORK CONDITIONS FREQUENCY COUNTS

administrator/teacher category

A	(m/m)	35	25%
B	(f/m)	36	25%
C	(m/f)	35	25%
D	(f/f)	36	25%

administrative gender

Male	(A + C)	70	49%
Female	(B + D)	72	51%

teacher gender

Male	(A + B)	71	50%
Female	(C + D)	71	50%

school level of administrator

High School	36	25%
Middle School	71	50%
Elementary School	35	25%

WORK CONDITIONS REFERENCE SAMPLES

A typical Work conditions reference used language such as:

"maintains an atmosphere of relaxed order"

"managed an increased load of students"

Work conditions references occasionally mentioned efficient behavior without specifying whether such efficiency was instructionally beneficial:

"used consumable workbooks"

"displayed good stewardship of supplies"

Work Conditions as a hygiene factor of teacher "burnout" was occasionally mentioned:

"really feels the frustrating shortage of instruments"

"dislikes working in a room without windows"

Work conditions is a maintenance factor of motivation that generally causes concern only when it generates dissatisfaction. Discussions of equipment shortages, workbook consumption rates, or windowless rooms is hardly likely to prompt reinvigorated performance responses, but might lessen dissatisfaction if these areas were of hygienic concern to the individual teacher whose performance was being appraised.

Evaluation Language Content

Because the process of motivating is largely the process of building confidence, written evaluation language, and motivation are all of a piece and must be treated as inseparable, related parts; the manifest way a message is phrased and set down is, to a great extent, the manifest idea being communicated. Thus, an analysis of written confidence-building begins with an analysis of written exposition.

In most of the 200 evaluation documents of this study, predictable phrasing and mechanical expression appear to reflect an institutional evaluation attitude of systematic behavior reinforcement. What most of the studied evaluations seem to do was to simply retrace, in carbon copy fashion, a list of behaviors that a teacher was observed to perform during an evaluation period. Communication which merely tells a person information that he probably already knows about his own behavior has been found to be helpful in increasing the efficiency of that person's behavior, but because of limited supporting content, is usually incapable of enriching an individual's personal understanding about performance improvement.

Linguistic analyst, S.I. Hayakawa, explains that understanding the relation between language and reality, requires an understanding of the fact that the meaning of individual words is not in the words themselves, but in the context of their use: in the distinct thoughts and

relevant emotions, and related experiences of both the writer and the reader. Analyzing written evaluation content thus means analyzing administrative thought by studying the verbal strategms used to convey meaning. While oral language has a personal tone, rhythm, and volume, to enhance a communicated message, written language is largely dependent on word choice, sentence structure, and chosen event to symbolically convey important insight and meaning.

Two factors of communication which are capable of conveying a secondary layer of meaning to a reader are the grammar and visual presentation elements of written language. Many of the 200 evaluation documents studied in this project tended to convey a lack of pre-writing; they often appeared to be rough drafts rather than polished compositions in terms of their general lack of editing, proofreading, and professional typing. The following frequency counts of these factors were observed:

<u>Grammar Errors</u>

107 sentence fragments

63 run-ons/comma splices

19 subject-verb agreement

24 pronoun-referent agreement

<u>Mechanics Errors</u>

37 punctuation

22 spelling

18   usage

21   typos

Writing Style Flaws

35   parallel structure

163   passive voice

14   illogical tense shifts

12   illogical pronoun shifts

18   redundant phrasing

Grammar Error Content

Sentence incompleteness usually was caused by incorrect writing of subordinate clauses (e.g. "Since the knowledge was gained last year."), gerundial phrases (e.g. "Using computer resources wisely."), and appositives (e.g. "This veteran, a model of how science teachers should conduct labs."). Run-ons and comma splices sometimes seemed to be purposely incorrect when the missing subject of the problem sentence would frequently have been the evaluated teacher's name (e.g. "Lesson plans offered a variety of activities showing an awareness of many student interests."). Basic errors in agreement usually stemmed from problems in person, number, and gender mismatches.

Mechanics Error Content

Comma and period functions as separators of ideas were the most frequently observed mechanical problem. At the elementary level, the misuse by overuse of the

exclamation point was especially noticeable; sometimes two or three exclamation points in a row were used at the end of a single sentence. Spelling commonly presents a problem in written language not because English lacks a system for correct spelling, but because it has so many systems operating at once; spelling was another problem, but not a serious one. Usage problems, ranging from the excess use of the word VERY to a puzzling tendency to use nouns as verbs, appeared on a small, but regular basis (e.g. to emphasis, to conference, and the trendy, ubiquitous preposition INTO as in, "He is into writing."). Typos seemed to occur more often in documents prepared on portable typewriters which suggests they were probably written outside the evaluator's office. In summarizing the grammatical effects of the documents of this inquiry, Ben Jonson's words(1623) come to mind, "Neither can his mind be thought to be in tune, whose words do jarre; nor his reason in frame, whose sentence is preposterous."[44]

Writing Style

Most sentences observed in this study followed the so-called natural or simple order of thought: subject - verb - object. Only occasionally did an administrative writer use periodic form in which an idea is not completed until the end. This observed use of simple declarative mode appears to be appropriate to the evaluation writer's task of making an important point rather than creating an impressive effect. However, the use of many short

declarative sentences tends to grow tedious for the reader in terms of communicating motivation.

The fact that clarity of writing reflects clarity of thinking is probably most evident in the use of parallel structure. A tendency toward lack of appreciation of this stylisitcally important technique was evident in the studied documents (e.g. "The hand-outs were explicit, incorporated hands-on techniques, and timed to end at the bell."). Passive voice was a significant factor in the frequency counts of flaws even though the passive is known to be characteristically lifeless and more difficult to interpret than the active voice. (e.g. "topics are generated...time is permitted). Shifting verb tense hapazardly from present to past tends to distract meaning and distort linguistic emphasis which is also true in the illogical shift from he or she to you which was observed in reference to the same person in the same paragraph. Redundant expression, which is somewhat understandable in rough drafts, seems inappropriate, if not somewhat comic, in a final draft (e.g. "The reason is because...our world around us").

An investigation of what the language of 200 performance evaluations reveal about Grosse Pointe administrative thought is intended by both form and substance to generate a set of predicitions of how evaluative documents can be prepared that linguistically encourage meaning, confidence, and therefore, motivation,

in a teacher's professional performance growth. The observed language of the documents of this study prompts the suggestion that the teacher performance evaluation system is not given the margin of importance that letter-perfect, "professional" documents are normally given.

Conclusion

The results of this investigation support the argument that the written evaluations under study appear, on a quantitative basis, to be motivationally grounded, but may, in fact, be inadequate because of an apparent lack of a growth-oriented standard of judgment; the standard of performance measurement, observed in this study, pointed to adherence to traditional practices that maintained a longstanding Grosse Pointe conservative image. Large abstractions, incomplete information, and the use of trivial data, as well as language errors are all examples of writing problems found in this study which seem to be responsible for the production of written evaluations which tend to serve as behavioral summaries more than as motivational tools.

The incongruity between the philosophic preamble on each written evaluation concerning instructional improvement, and the actual communication observed in each evaluation concerning standard behavior appears to be self-contradictory. In the face of a preponderance of

recognition factors, the Grosse Pointe teacher performance evaluation system could be described as motivationally significant as a maintenance system, with traditional teacher behavior as the focus of maintenance. Formative phraseology, notwithstanding, the 200 written Grosse Pointe evaluations emphasized inference judgments about the kinds of things teachers were doing without actually stating how that data might be used to enhance or improve instructional performance. An analysis of the cumulative data reinforces a primary conclusion that Grosse Pointe teacher evaluations chiefly promote administrative maintenance purpose, not instructional growth purposes.

Taken together in writing, the eight Herzberg components should add up to a personally meaningful, clearly communicated mission. While no guaranteed linear path to motivated improvement exists, the evidence present in this study points to an administrative tendency toward communication entropy rather than disciplined use of motivational theory for teacher improvement. As motivational tools, Grosse Pointe evaluations seem to be designed to maintain rather than to stimulate; as a group these evaluation documents tend to address relatively general areas of competence, deal with ambiguous descriptions, and address a limited set of standardized instructional traits which, presumably, are important in most instructional settings. As such, the findings of this inquiry suggest that during the Grosse Pointe teacher

performance evaluation process, nothing significant occurred in relation to performance change. In studying communication methods, American sociologist Rose Goldsen(1977) noted, "All educators teach who they are and how they think much more than what they know."[45] The basic premise of Grosse Pointe evaluation of teaching seems to be that all instructors in the district, regardless of a multitude of contextual conditions, can be motivated with the same form of communication language.

Findings in the "client-oriented" learning research of Carl Rogers(1961) and others suggest that an exposure to supportive change messages should provide a person with more than an accumulation of facts, an accretion of knowledge; it should also present a pervasive personal experience that produces changes of a definite sort in which a person:

1) sees himself differently;

2) accepts himself more fully;

3) grows more self-confident and self-directing;

4) becomes more flexible, less rigid;

5) adopts realistic goals;

6) becomes more accepting of others;

7) becomes more open to evidence.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Interpreting the results of a content analysis essentially means choosing a comprehensive perspective from which to assess the complexity and importance of the study's findings. The process of determining an appropriate perspective begins with an understanding that a content analysis produces a varied collection of separate frequency counts. However, the separate frequency counts, do not exist in a vacuum; each count exists as a piece of a paradigm. In this inquiry, each separate count reveals in its pattern of accumulated use, an emerging vision of the particular role that a professional evaluation process has in the larger context of a school district's overall purpose. For this study, the frequency counts of observed references to the components of Herzberg's theory of motivation, are the pieces in the context of Grosse Pointe administrative use of motivational theory in written teacher performance evaluations.

As a study of control, few issues in education are more controversial than the administrative evaluation of teachers. Even when a school district like Grosse Pointe declares, in print, that improvement of the quality

of its instruction is the major purpose of its teacher evaluation program, this administrative issue continues to be troublesome, in part, because the written apparatus that Grosse Pointe administrators collectively use, tends to impose external control rather than elicit internal improvement motivation. Current literature on teacher evaluation, especially that of McGreal(1983) and Sergiovanni(1986), calls attention to the maxim that a school district's teacher evaluation messages reflect its administrators' priority systems. In that context, the 200 evaluation communications written by Grosse Pointe administrators, which were studied in this project, reveal conclusively, by their similarity of both substance and form, a commonly held priority system in which teacher evaluation seems to serve a conservative, tradition-maintenance role rather than the purported instructional performance improvement role. Communication which claims to improve, but, in practice, tends to control externally, implies unstated directions about the district administrators' perceived need for teacher compliance and passivity rather than teacher growth and active decision making.

Any discussion of evaluation behavior begins with the question: What is the proper domain of the evaluator? For teacher performance evaluators, the answer must be that the proper domain is in the actual practice of teaching; specifically it is involved in 3 processes:

1) the gathering and accumulating of performance-relevant observations;

2) the selecting and discarding of observation data based on its value in predicting performance improvement;

3) the writing and polishing of effective communication about observed behavior relative to performance improvement.

Failure to satisfactorily complete any one of the three sequential processes impedes the administrator as evaluator from sending motivationally significant written appraisal messages to teachers. The findings of this study indicate that Grosse Pointe administrators are apparently accumulating sufficient observation data, but tending to follow no definite pattern in ordering the data into purposeful, carefully culled, planned arrangements of supportive written messages.

One common reason for motivationally inadequate written evaluations is a general lack of understanding of the nature of criticism. Professional criticism does not merely mean a search for flaws; it means the making of discriminating judgments using a valid set of standards. The judgments produce an opinion which may be favorable or unfavorable, or a little of both, but it must be an opinion. Professional criticism is not a statement of fact or an emotional, spur-of-the-moment reaction; rather, it is arrived at through informed thought, and genuine

analysis. Crucial to professional criticism is the support .of well-chosen evidence by a writer who remains a caring but emotionally detached appraiser. Reading a well-ordered evaluation, a teacher can sense, behind the supportive words, a real person, a human being trying to speak to another human being about something both people consider worth sharing.

Achievement Conclusions

Among workers in many types of organizations, evaluation of human performance is popularly interpreted as something that "others do about you." This gravitational direction away from a worker's participation in his own evaluation is common in the field of education, and is clearly in evidence in this study's findings about achievement reporting. The "something that others do about you" is reflected in the ironic fact that the evaluation messages Grosse Pointe administrators prepared about the instructional behavior of teachers listed numerous capsulized references to professional achievements of teachers, in the past tense. The most frequently mentioned achievements observed in written evaluation documents were brief general descriptions of an individual's accomplishment of various teaching goals, learning problem solutions, program goals, or administrative goals. The emphasis on past achievements depicted in cursory descriptions marked the Grosse Pointe evaluation process as significant for its memoralizing of scattered instances of teacher effectiveness rather than as important for its support of performance growth orientation.

While education itself has the task of preserving and passing on what has been learned in the past, the evaluation of educational instruction has a different task, and in many ways, a more difficult one. An

evaluation must also add something to the recognized achievement of a teacher's performance; it must discover in the observed teaching performance the knowledge of how to positively influence future teaching practice. As an evaluator, an educational administrator must, therefore, understand the goals of teaching, and also understand how to linguistically influence others to improve their efforts to obtain these goals. However, many observed written evaluation comments, such as the following, tend to be unwritten "place markers" rather than stimulators because their incompleteness; direction for growth are missing making the communication motivationally inadequate:

> "Teacher X made very effective use of learning centers."

What kind of use is made of learning centers is not specified nor is the endeavor in which the effective use was observed. The lack of completeness tends to make this reference an insufficient springboard for potential performance growth.

> "Teacher X's reinforcement of students as they contribute is contagious."

What form of reinforcement of what behavior, and how did this action stimulate the students' excitement over what are some of the unanswered issues of this evaluation message. What growth potential might stem from this observed performance skill is not made clear.

A noteworthy aspect of evaluations which stress achievements is their unique, indirect unnammed "audience" character; achievement-oriented evaluations in Grosse Pointe appeared to be written less for the motivational assistance of the evaluated teachers, as for the informational benefit of unnammed third party, probably Board Office administrators responsible for teacher contract continuation. Of the 200 written evaluations studied, 95% of the messages used the third person pronouns, he or she, him or her, in reference to the evaluated teacher, even though the written evaluations were supposedly a direct comunication from an administrator to a teacher for the latter's instructional improvement guidance. In some instances, third person pronouns, apparently referred to outside third parties, while second person pronouns, apparently referred to the evaluated teacher. The usual result of messages addressed to an ambiguous audience is that no single reader feels personally communicated with, which means that no one feels personally motivated to respond. Approximately half of the messages further diluted the communication impact by using pronouns with three different antecedents in the same message: first person pronouns, apparently in reference to the writers themselves, second person pronouns, apparently referencing the evaluated teachers, plus third person pronouns, apparently addressed to an unnamed reader who seem to require not growth messages,

but employability rationale.

"I think it is important to remember that Teacher X inherited a class achieving significantly below grade level in several subject areas, and a year later most of your students are now achieving at grade level."

Confusing pronoun shifts of this message obscure the targeted teacher; the product emphasis on quantity gains without any explanation of how, why, or what exact instructional behavior was laudable, or how this quality might be extended makes this evaluation reference subtly communicate that a performance is measured by output, rather than by instructional actions. The message tends to be deficient in both communication form and motivational content.

Achievement, which David McClelland(1961) called the sin qua non of motivation, should, by definition, appeal to a teacher's urge to improve and to do things better. However, a history of strictly past performance achievements, which is what the Grosse Pointe documents communicate, tends to promote a record-keeping tone in a writtten appraisal as opposed to a motivationaly significant stimulant which translates achievement into future growth by positively discriminating between acceptable past effort and desirable future direction. As a mirror of purposes, written evaluations need to serve as assistance for achievement activation rather than just

monuments for past effort. Perhaps the most obvious form of the problematic past tense appraisals observed in this study was the exaggeration statement, particularly an exaggerated statement of the obvious.

"Teacher X's goal to develop cognitive skills is progressing splendidly."

Without further explanation of just what achievement is being referenced, kudos for the development of cognitive skills which is the exegesis of daily instruction, borders on the absurd; the question is not answered: what is the growth potential for this instructional behavior?

"His teaching methods are endless."

If praise can kill by faintness, it can probably murder by hyperbole. Exaggerated ambiguity is place of clear and complete statement seems to reveal a common administrative writing dilemma: messages that are not really what the writer intended.

The varied collection of written achievement references counted in this study included many of a trivial or non-instructional nature. Use of such unimportant data in a professional evaluation recalls Charles Silberman's classic comments in <u>Atlantic Magazine's</u> essay, "Murder in the Classroom." "What is wrong with elementary and secondary education, or, for that matter, higher education, has less to do with incompetence or indifference or venality than with

mindlessness." [46]

"She is a member of AAUW and serves as its corresponding secretary."

"She wrote an article on her history unit that was published in the paper."

"He attended a Michigan history workshop this year."

Apparently these three efforts are praiseworthy achievements, but exactly why they are or exactly how they might help performance improvement is left unstated. By themselves, these remarks seem to be attempting to mention professional achievements, but left incomplete, they communicate that the achievements are remarkable de facto and have no meaningful relationship to growth in instructional performance.

Achievement is usually defined as the accomplishment of a worker's goal. Implicit in this definition is the conscious effort or deliberate improvement a person must make in order to achieve. Not included in this definition of achievement are the routine and ordinary tasks which accompany specific effort to achieve a definite goal. However, an evaluation which chooses to describe the ordinary work actions of a person as if these actions were the achievements themselves, in effect, confuses means with ends. The end is clear enough: improved instructional performance; the evaluation process is a question of means: how to improve

instructional performance. Documents which emphasize the actions of instructors as if they were the completed ends appear to communicate displaced evaluative process goals.

"Diagnostic testing is done in every basic subject area."

What is assumed here is that the mentioned testing is necessary, unique, especially effective, or particualrly note-worthy. Why else mention a standard function of instruction? No potential for performance improvement is apparent in citing this behavior. The use of the passive voice and the ambiguous "every basic" increases the stress on diagnosis as an end, something to be done, rather than as a useful means toward a specified end.

"Sets realistic goals that students can obtain."

Such a comment might be appropriate for a novice teacher, but descriptions of achievement of a basic teaching skill as if it were a final outcome appears to be an exercise in empty expression. Communication that lists an action without describing it as an important part of a whole, has the hollow ring of fact and not the resonance of informative stimulation. Evaluation messages about basic, daily behavior tend to be lists of facts unless the evaluator extends their meaning and their motivational impact. Such communication as this observed evaluation is

reminiscent of T.S.Eliot's beatitude, "Blessed is the man who, having nothing to say, abstains from giving us worldly evidence of the fact."[47]

Implicit in evaluation communication that calls attention to the use of methods of teaching as if they were the achievements of teaching, is the insinuation of approval and encouragement for continuation of the cited behavior. Not only are ends and means confused by such references, but potential direction for improvement is obscured.

"Teacher X is a good lecturer."

Using a particular method well implies, cryptically, that lecturing is an appropriate and desirable activity; the omission of any explanation of how or why good lecturing is admirable reduces this achievement reference to the level of contextual vacuity. The communication lacks definite information about how this skill in lecturing might be related to instructional performance growth.

Recognition Conclusions

Used in the evaluation process, recognition, as a component of motivation, is an effort to assist or to shape growth using words or symbols for two purposes: to increase a person's self-consciousness of what he has done; and to enhance a person's conceptualization of what more he might do. Jerome Bruner noted that people,

> Go about the task of searching for information...that reflects recognition of the complex environmental regularities of their work world, or that sensitively recognizes their own limited capacities for processing mitotic information, and finally, recognition of the hidden risks involved in making certain kinds of behavior choices.48

A motivational analysis of the evidence of Grosse Pointe administrators' evaluation language indicates nearly uniform treatment of teacher evaluations as a recognition process. While Fredrick Herzberg clearly identified recognition as a primary motivational force in human behavior, the impetus of the recognition communication observed in this study, i.e. recognition that quantitatively overshadows the seven other Herzberg factors by a 5:1 ratio, suggests that the recognition factor is serving as motivation for teachers to simply maintain and exhibit an approved set of teacher performance behaviors. Limiting recognition to a set of conventional, closely defined performance characteristics, limiting the use of motivational theory to one single component of recognition, and limiting the addressing of recognition communication primarily to an external third

party, points to Grosse Pointe written evaluations which function more as justifications for salaried teaching positions than as actual professional behavior appraisals designed for improvement purposes.

Recognition that lacks specificity serves primarily as acknowledgment rather that as motivation for greater effectiveness. The following observed commments mention instructional artifacts without discussing their purpose or utility or significance.

"Counselor X has drawn up a new senior check list."

"Teacher X has been working on a weekly progress reporting system this year."

Without any elaboration of what, why, or how, these recognition statements lack susbstance or direction for growth. As a psychological principle, recognition of an action is generally sufficient as a basis for motivating greater effort toward repeating that action, but not toward refining it.

Recognition that draws attention to the inherent behavior of a profession indicates an assumption that this inherent behavior might not actually be a professional "given" or that other evaluation data is not deemed as worthy as this observation.

"Teacher X prides himself on not discussing other students with students or the methods of fellow teachers with students."

"Teacher X reacts with maturity to a variety of parents."

"Teacher X is able to distinguish between developmental behavior and misbehavior."

The message in communications that state the obvious or that highlight behavior usually considered basic is that the evaluation has nothing important to say. This unfortunate practice carried to the extreme results in recognition statements as logically absurd as the following:

"Yes, there is much of Teacher X present in what he does."

"Teacher X has a good sound program."

"Teacher X's transmittal of work is of a remarkable nature."

Dramatic statements of recognition which show an equally amazing tendency toward the absurd appeared in several teacher evaluations:

"The LRC consists of two blind or partially sighted students. Teacher X outlines the daily individual goals for the students on the chalk board."

"With at least four wild Indians in her classroom, Teacher X has worked miracles."

"Teacher X is a basic skills teacher with a flair for basic creativity."

The potential for misleading, damaging, or

disheartening communication influences was also found to be significant in recognition messages that fail to clearly specify what the behavior is that is being evaluated and why. Missing links in communication tend to suggest negative or critical judgments which may not be the writer's intention.

"I am not aware of any unfavorable reactions by parents or students to Teacher X."

"Her bi-monthly newsletter up until February was appreciated."

"Teacher X is highly anxious to be involved with students."

To avoid evaluation or judgment is to simply react; language, such as the references observed in this inquiry, implies, "I don't like what you're doing." A reaction of dubious implications is subtly, but significantly, different from language which says straightforwardly, "What you are doing may not be as helpful or as effective as it could be. Let's analyze what might be done instead."

Internal logic is not only lost but communication becomes exceptionally difficult when language structure is noticeably awkward or literally nonsensical.

"A student who has difficulty communicating and lacks in appropriateness of response was so well dealt with by Teacher X that the student himself was extremely happy with himself and was most accepted by

his classmates."

"Teacher X's students achieved appropriate knowledge and skills in a superior manner."

"A system of teacher correcting student work followed by correcting of mistakes by students has been instituted in the classroom."

In any reading task, a reader essentially wants to see what a passage indicates without getting lost or delayed by the language used. Meaning in language emerges from a reader's comprehension process whereby words are built into sentences, and sentences are built into paragraphs. When a reader is forced to examine the language of communication itself, his need for clarification can reduce or cancel any motivational effects the passage might have. In the last quoted observation, the word "correct" has two different meanings; the passage also tends to cause confusion by its lack of parallel structure.

The central problem of this and many other observed evaluation messages is not the use or the omission of motivational theory; the dilemma appears to the be non-judgmental basic character of the performance evaluations. Recognition of traditional Grosse Pointe values and priorities seems to be the major projection of the studied documents.

While it is indisputably in the best interest of every teacher to adapt to the school's working climate,

the tendency of recognition for tradition maintenance messages is in encouraging the school district to value form over substance because in such communication greater attention is paid to image rather than to genuine achievement.

"Teacher X is a high quality teacher who helps the Grosse Pointe image of quality in education."

"Teacher X has been learning the Grosse Pointe writing model."

"X is a very ethical Grosse Pointe teacher."

The use of Grosse Pointe as an adjective with no extenuating explanation of why or how this name is a standard of ideal behavior conveys the implicit message that how something is done is more important than what is done. The emphasis on form over substance is, in many ways, symptomatic of the problem some school administrators have in developing genuine employee involvement and participation. The implication is, "You must work to participate with us in our (unofficially) presecribed style; if you don't understand, it's your fault."

Negative recognition which was occasionally observed in the Grosse Pointe evaluation documents has been found in the literature of mental measurement to be logically usable, but psychologically useless information. In the cognitive sphere, there is an impressive body of

evidence that indicates that negative feedback, data which describes performance shortfalls, is peculiarly unhelpful to a person seeking performance improvement.

"Teacher X's statement of goals was not up to her usual quality."

"An undue amount of time was spent on handwriting at the expense of more critical areas of instruction."

The qualifiers "appears," "tends," "seems," often imply negative criticism especially if imbedded in large abstractions and vague cliches. W.H. Auden once noted,

> You do not educate a person's palate by telling him that what he has been in the habit of eating - watery, overboiled cabbage, let us say, - is disgusting, but by persuading him to try a dish of vegetables which have been properly cooked. With some people, it is true, you seem to get quicker results by telling them - 'Only vulgar people like overcookd cabbage; the best people like cabbage as the Chinese cook it' - but the results are less likely to be lasting.[49]

C. S. Lewis suggests, "most people are more anxious to express their approval of disappointment of things than to describe them."[50] However, without description, negative recognition messages appear to be enticing the reader into accepting "prefabricated" opinion. A particularly unhelpful form of negative recognition occurs when evaluation messages themselves lack internal logic.

"Teacher X has frequently used the computer in the classroom... The problem of Teacher X's lack

of organization does not seem to be caused by lack of knowledge, but lack of ability to think sequentially, and to get ideas across to students in a sequential manner."

Since the essence of computer thinking is sequential ordering of ideas, the claim in this negatively critical message, i.e. that Teacher X fails to use sequential organizational skills, seems to lack logical integrity. The evaluation probably confuses Can't for Won't, and may have intended to communicate that Teacher X refuses to plan ahead, or to think through the day's lessons. Theory suggests that evaluators who are faced with Won't problems might approach motivational improvement messages using a logically structured problem-solving process that involves communication about: 1)clear specification of the problem; 2)analysis of the problem in terms of instructional behavior; 3)definition of alternative solutions; 4)selection of a solution to the behavioral system of this individual teacher, in order to encourage X to fully utilize his observed abilbity (with computers) to break down a learning concept into sequential steps.

Historically, school administrators have been relatively negligent in recognizing and rewarding school people for jobs well done. Oftentimes, the sheer size of a school organization prevented individual teachers from gaining the recognition that motivationally strong

behavior usually thrives on. However, the abundance of recognition references observed in the written evaluations of Grosse Pointe teachers concomitantly with the relatively sparse number of references to all other Herzberg-identified elements of motivation suggests the need for defined parameters of frequencies for recognition messages in the instructional evaluation process.

Recognition is a motivational component which only signals action; recognizing a behavior does not replace the need for communicating how to refine that behavior. Recognition language that is incomplete or unclear, tends, by its ambiguity, and obscurity, to serve as an obstacle rather than a support for motivationally significant evaluation communication. The fact that so few observations of performance weaknesses were noted in this study probably does not indicate a lack of performance weaknesses, but an administrative avoidance of the difficulty of supportively discussing performance weaknesses in writing. Teachers, who are not informed of observed problems, fit Carlyle's words, "The greatest of faults, I should say, is to be conscious of none."[51] Figure 5-1 delineates the typical characteristics of people who have strong human need for recognition.

A key element in the psychological research of Abraham Maslow on human motivation is the discovery that once a goal is achieved by a human being, that goal loses its motivational power and can no longer move a person to

achieve more. By describing a teacher's maintenance of accepted, traditional behaviors as if this were an accomplishment worthy of written recognition, Grosse Pointe instructional evaluation documents effectively communicate a sense of finality or completeness that motivational theory has shown to be growth limiting rather than growth stimulating. The fact that almost all of the evaluation documents in this study identified a standard collection of recognized teacher achievements, illuminated the shared difficulty Grosse Pointe administrators apparently have in using written messages as actual propellants of improved teacher performance rather than simply as approval mechanisms.

Responsibility Conclusions

Accepting responsiblity for a behavior essentially means understanding the reasons for performing the behavior and making a personal commitment to positive action. Part of the administrative task of evaluating professional performance involves communicating persuasive reasons for teachers to accept the responsbility for their own professional improvement. Another part of the administrative task is in exhibiting an understanding that commitment is not a one-sided affair. Mutuality of responsibility means that two parties are involved: administrators as exhibitors of trust and confidence, teachers as encouraged performers who accept the contention that significant contributions are possible.

SATISFYING INDIVIDUAL HUMAN NEEDS

The man or woman with a strong need for recognition
is often characterized by the following traits:

likes to be the center of attention - talks loudly

welcomes opportunities to gain new recognition

avoids situations where achievements cannot be recognized

needs reinforcement of recognition on a regular basis

seeks praise consistently - readily accepts praise

needs to feel appreciated - strives for fame

seeks rewards for personal accomplishments

likes to display status symbols in an ostentatious way

is consciuos of appearance - wears clothes for recognition

needs to believe that accomplishments are considered important
by others

welcomes job assignments that provide recognition

sets specific goals which, when achieved, will provide
recognition

From Vincent W. Kafka and John H. Schaefer. Open Management.
New York: Peter Wyden, Publisher, pages 48-49.

Figure 5-1

In this study of 200 evaluation documents, Grosse Pointe administrators, by their stated objectives, apparently believe Grosse Pointe teachers should accept a responsibility for instructional improvement, but the evaluations they write rarely communicate insightful remarks on how or why teachers might improve. Without an articulation of the specific grounds on which to affirm responsibility for improvement, evaluated teachers are, in effect, apparently expected to trust administrative generalizations about the purposes of the instructional world in which they are asked to be responsible.

In 1974 social psychologist Stanley Milgram's findings on human compliance revealed that for a person to feel responsible for his actions, he must sense that his behavior originates from his own decisions:

> When a person comes to view himself as the instrument for carrying out another's wishes, he no longer regards himself as responsible for his actions. The most far-reaching consequence is that the person feels responsible to the authority directing him, but feels no responsibility for the content that the authority prescribes. [52]

Even when evaluations are aimed at motivating improvement, rather than at increasing adequacy or obedience, communication can be stymied by administrative concern for loss of management authority. As a control mechanism, a performance evaluation can encourage individual personal control in many ways that do not have to come at administrative expense. For example, communicating a clear direction on how to improve one's

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performance of a specific instructional task is likely to
motivate growth without any administrative goal
displacement. Evaluations which appeal to the human
ability to reason logically and philosophically, tend to
motivate personal responsibility to create order and
meaning in professional work. However, evaluations which
assume that a teacher will enlarge his sense of
professional responsibility primarily on the basis of
trust of administrative authority were the most commonly
occurring condition discovered in this study.

> "Last tear I suggested that X take the
> responsibility to set up meetings with his
> mmiddle school colleagues. Although one meeting
> was held, some golden opportunities were lost.
> Try again."

The language of this evaluation message is
remarkably ambiguous; while X apparently followed through
once on last year's suggestion for a meeting, the motive
for his one "responsible" action is unclear. The motive
for his lack of further action in "responsibly" organizing
more meetings is equally unclear. No purpose for holding
a meeting is stated, nor is any evidence given that X
personally valued the idea and therefore, took
responsibility for its enactment. Inferred in this phrase
"golden opportunities were lost" is a documented lack of
professional responsibility on X's part, but no written
evidence supports either the "golden opportunities" of the

implied motive for the "loss."

Exacerbating the communication weakness of this evaluation message, is the shift from third person, talking about X, to the second person, talking to X. The infusion of first person, I, at the opening of the message, further confuses the issue of whether this message is intended to be a supportive dialog or a formal professional description. The trite phrase "golden opportunities" and the rather flippant phrase, "Try again," tend to obscure rather than clarify the point of this message.

The use of "left-handed" or awkwardly circuitous wording of responsibility phrases was observed in a significant number of teacher evaluation documents.

"X does not shy away from parent conferences."

Saying that X welcomed or was agreeable or receptive to parent conferences states the same opinion but in less ambiguous, "backhanded" fashion.

"X is very amiable to finding a solution in the best interests of students."

"children are challenged and produce to their capabilities."

Aside from the misuse of amiable, i.e. friendly, warm, for amenable, i.e. open, willing, these responsibility messages are of questionable value; reference to a teaching action that was taken in the best interests of students or that challenged are, by omission of explanatory detail, non-information. They express only

the obvious and draw no further lesson or direction. While the written messages apparently are intended as compliments, their lack of refinement conveys rather nebuous support for an evaluated teacher's growth in professional responsibility.

Since responsibility, by definition is individual and self-generative, the broad motivational appeals to categorical, impersonal instructional skills frequently found in the written performance evaluations of Grosse Pointe teachers, tended to be motivationally inadequate and generally useless, and to reflect an administrative attitude of manipulative control in regard to instructional improvement

Growth Conclusions

The ethical baseline of the medical profession, "Do no harm," seems to be the same uncertain rationale used by educational administrators in preparing written teacher evaluations. The fact that communication, in writing, about performance growth sometimes causes defensiveness in those being evaluated is apparently a psychological concept carefully respected by Grosse Pointe administrators; few direct statements concerning areas of professional performance growth were observed among the 200 evaluations studied in this project. A confusion of problem with solution also appears to be part of the explanation of the nearly complete lack of specific communication regarding movement toward increased effectiveness in teaching skills that was found in this study. In fact, the written concern with means such as grades, credits, etc. tends to limit growth incentives for defensiveness, adaption, self-preservation, and systematic enculturation.

Simply mentioning growth as the purpose of the evaluation document does not, ipso facto, stimulate growth. Describing a teaching performance as a behavior that is fixed and stable rather than as an action whose value depends on its readiness to revise at a moment's notice, suggests an evlauation process that is a traditional, formalized set of platitudes and cliches. Part of the difficulty of addressing growth messages to

teachers is the administrative dilemma of discerning individual performance needs ranging in seriousness from reflections on self-actualization through "first-aid" to profound "re-education." In any case, providing conscious thinking in writing and even verbal insights about a growth need have been found to be insufficient without added documented attempts to begin a "re-conditioning" of instructional performance behavior.

Rather than supportive messages about refinement of instructional presentation, limited communication regarding avoidance of inappropriate behavior appears to be the extent of administrative ability or willingness or obligation to assist teacher performance growth. From the information conveyed in the 200 documents of the study, it might be concluded that the achievement of instructional efficiency and institutional preservation rather than instructional effectiveness was the primary goal of Grosse Pointe administrators.

References to growth that were observed in the written evaluations of Grosse Pointe teachers tended to be ambiguous in both topic substance and language form.

"Continue to work to strengthen yourself."

"X should take more time to prepare lessons."

The use of convoluted language apparently written in support of performance growth was occsionally pbserved in the 200 documents of the study.

"X must make every effort to treat each

individual equitably and not single out certain students and give up on them prematurely. Recognize that you can expect only small givens from some."

"When the class as a whole fails to be courteous X should stop teaching and use good group measures to win their attention and absorb their attention on important matters."

The message in awkward, confusing phrasing is that the evaluating administrator is either an incompetent writer, or that the message his is communicating is not important enough for clearly defined, planned composition.

In order to convey meaning, abstract words require a necessary reference; the omission of informative details from most of the growth statements that were made to evaluated teachers rendered the statements practically useless in terms of change. Evlauators support growth by promoting performance changes that help teachers conduct more instructionally effective classrooms.

The absence of a significant number of growth-oriented messages in the Grosse Pointe teacher evaluation documents appears to be a subtle message that says to teachers, "We really don't expect you to change." The omission of expected growth references in written performance evaluations signals a cutting off of all but one connection to growth: a recognition of conformity to pre-set values suggests a growth of teacher security of

the status type documented by McMurray(1954), and points to an observable disparity between growth, as the stated goal of the Grosse Pointe performance appraisal system, and the absence of growth messages in the actual Gorsse Pointe performance appraisal documents.

> "X should continue to participate in school activities."

> "X would do well to attend more system-wide in-service workshops."

In similar fashion, encouraging messages of growth in professional areas outside of instruction were weakly supported by the same vagueness as observed messages about instruction. This lack of significant administrative attention to predictable teacher growth needs seems to signal an administrative perception of professional growth as a simple matter of control: encourage growth by telling someone to grow. By contrast, professional growth, as a matter of motivation, involves stimulating a reasoned response based on a systematic, guided, personalized communication process. When evaluation promotes change through purposeful language, it explores the concrete experience of observed behavior and tends to formulate a challenging, reasoned, new vision that promotes and inspires improvement.

The lack of growth mechansims in the standard teacher evaluation process was probably most evident in the omission of references to the school system's mission,

its reason for existence. From the emphasis on recognition rather than on growth, it would be logical to surmise that the objective of the Grosse Pointe School System is the maintenance of tradition-bound homeostasis. Emerson's poetic description of the unending thirst for perfection might help to guide administrative decisions on the scope and content of instructional improvement messages that are actually aimed at growth:

> Our life is an apprenticeship to the truth that around every circle another can be drawn....that there is no end in nature, but every end is a beginning; that there is always another dawn rising on mid-noon and under every deep a lower deep opens.[53]

In displaying growth as a fundamental of cooperation and a form of security, evaluation documents reinforce precisely that quality which probably least needs to be emphasized: adaptability, at the expense of the indispensable support: individual imaginative judgment to choose finer alternatives in teaching. As such, the Grosse Pointe administrative use of motivational theory tends to serve not as a primary motivator for improvement, but as a reinforcement of a perceived satisfactory status quo.

The Work Itself Conclusions

Written communication about the work itself is based on a recognition of the interdependence between professional service and professional energy. In the autonomous work life of a classroom teacher, the role of systematic, reasonably reliable, stimulating feedback on performance is crucial if instructional improvement is a serious objective. Herzberg's identification of the work itself as an important component of motivation pointed to the role, in the evaluation process, that meaningful instruction itself can have in encouraging a teacher's commitment to performance improvement efforts as a satisfying form of self-expression. Capitalizing on the motivational value of teaching work itself, within the framework of a written evaluation, means purposefully defining the potential of an individual teacher's positive perception of his personal teaching efforts in precise enough language that the motivationally energizing aspects of these instructional contributions become visible and appealing.

The fact that so few references to the element of the work itself became apparent in the content analysis of Grosse Pointe teacher evaluation documents seems to point to either the lack of administrative appreciation of this component as a significant improvement motivation tool, or else the lack of administrative understanding that Grosse Pointe evaluation documents tend to be incongrous with

Grosse Pointe evaluation aims. A focus on the work wtself, as both technically and artistically worthy of evaluation documentation calls for administrative attention to the expressive character of actual teaching events so that the evaluated teacher who is, in a sense, too closely involved in the work, is enabled to recognize the significance of teaching behavioral improvement possibilities.

A sense of humor expressed in writing about the inherent frustrations of the work itself is one way to extrapolate motivationaly elevating features from problematic situations and aim them, in writing, at performance growth expectations. Dorothy Parker (1931) observed that:

> The possession of a sense of humor entails the sense of selection, the civilized fear of going too far. A little humor leavens the lump, surely but it does more than that. It keeps a writer from making a dull jackass of himself. Humor, immagination, and manners are interchangeable. 54

However, under the best circumstances, humor is difficult to write; in a teacher evaluation document the necessary timing and tone of motivationally positive humor might be nearly impossible to achieve. The few attempts at humor noted in the documents of this study do not seem to be of "lapel-grabbing" quality, and could hardly be considered to elevate the reader's thoughts about Tthe work itself.

"X is highly reliable and loves her work even

when her students don't love it."

"X has what it takes!"

"X adds brightness to our little schoolhouse!"

The weakness of these references to the
motivational power of the work tself speaks of evaluations
as insignificant, possibly insincere, tools of
administrative support for instructional performance.
Ill-conceived attempts at humor may be more damaging
communication than the dullness mentioned in Ms. Parker's
words: false attempts may reiterate the message that
teacher evaluation is another form of teacher control.

> "The real challenge for X is to realize his
> knowledge, his presence, his personality, and
> his enthusiasm for wood to take students into
> the math, the blueprint reading, and other
> relationships which have the potential for
> making mechanics rather than people with an
> avocation."

A message such as this appears to be directly
addressed to the work itself motive, but its unfortunately
tortured grammatical structure make it nearly impossible
to comprehend. Administrative writers might do well to
note the old adage that clear writing is synonymous with
clear thinking.

Ultimately, references to the work itself
increase the probability of motivating improvement when

they acknowledge the underlying special quality of a performer's vision of his job, while helping the performer accept the negative features of it, and reflect on how performance behavior of the work itself could be improved.

Infusing motivational theory into written teacher evaluation essentially means infusing a personal sense of meaning into the teaching enterprise; the question of teaching Johnny arithmetic becomes an answer to, Why teach Johnny? In discussing the motivational dimension of the work itself, Mother Teresa of Calcutta(1983) once commented,

> There is always the danger that we may just do the work for the sake of the work. Understanding where the respect and the love and devotion come in explains why we try to do it as beautifully as possible.[55]

Evaluation language that provides information on the higher order relevance of a teacher's efforts can be said to be effectively addressing the motivational component of the work itself.

School Policies Conclusions

School policy, in its most desirable form, might be described as an organizational framework which strategically influences and shapes school life without being an overt control mechanism. School policy usually becomes a component in the teacher evaluation process when an organizational guideline, purportedly intended to assist school operations, becomes, instead, an obstruction or an intrusion in a school's instructional processes. The fact that the School policies component is infrequently mentioned in the 200 evaluation documents studied in this project, seems to indicate that, for teaching purposes, Grosse Pointe School policies are reasonably non-obstructive and generally inobtrusive. At the same time, exclusion of information about School policies as a possible means of improving individual teacher performance, might also be interpreted as a lack of administrative understanding of how specific policies might help to promote instructional improvement. For instance, the possibility that specific use of "prime" classroom instructional time which research has found to occur at the open and close of a class period, for instructional purposes rather than for classroom management tasks might, be noted as a policy route to improved instructional practice.

The school policies that are mentioned in the 200 studied evaluations tended to play a traditional role of

maintaining established school order. As a maintenance rather than a motivational tool, school policies have been found to encourage and facilitate reliable but not necessarily outstanding teaching performance. However, as a motivational tool, school policies provides a practical yardstick for administrators to identify and connect the many necessary operational demands of a school without sacrificing instructional goals.

> "A great amount of paper work takes place within her classroom and X needs to be organized to keep abreast of it and return school work to students in a timely manner."

The emphasis in this message seems to be on improving efficiency in operations which are fundamentally necessary in classroom management. The question of what the school work is that needs returning to students is not addressed which makes a rational decision about when it should be returned logically unanswerable.

> "Few students are sent to the main office for discipline."

Without a discussion of the circumstances which necessitate sending students to the office, this message is a rubuke to the use of school policies as a motivational tool. This message might be intended as a criticism for failure to consistently observe school policy, or it might be read as congratulations on such effective management that few student behavior problems

arise that must be sent to the office for correction.

"X organized a field trip for learning disabled students where each earned a specified level of 'good behavior' points."

A reader unfamiliar with the vagaries of some administrative minds might conclude that the purpose of this documented instructional endeavor was for students to earn 'good behavior' points. No information is provided on the instructional value of the trip that the point system apparently controlled so servicably.

School policies, as a motivational element, is intended to help a school avoid both the the functional fixedness of rigid instutional thinking and the limited vision of uniform, "carbon copy" control of people.

School policies that have been found to activate improved performance are closely related to a school's mission; motivationally significant school policies avoid the temptation of expediency, and instead, attempt to usefully provide the supportive type of structure and sequence in school life that not only reduces the difficulty of obtaining performance success, but stimulates the acquisition of further instructional achievements.

Supervisory Provisions Conclusions

Supervisory provisions as a motivational component involves the use of the evaluation process as a rational, purposeful propellant of performance meaning. The form and substance of motivationally significant written communication, involving supervisory provisions, speaks to the building of trust in a teacher-evaluator relationship of mutual respect.

Psychological studies at the University of Chicago by Bloom and Broder(1950) along with Goodnew and Pettgrew(1955), reveal the striking importance of supervisory provisions as a cognitive stimulator or behavior improvement. The Chicago research showed that the acts of a person who thinks that he has an intelligence performance problem to be solved, differ markedly in motivational intensity from the person who perceives that his performance problems are controlled by random forces.

Supervision that is aimed at assisting performance improvement assumes that:

1) the teacher is a source of perceptive, emotional, and thought processes;

2) teaching is an intellectual process involving a continuing series of decisions made before, during, and after an instructional performance;

3) learning to refine existing teaching behaviors or acquiring and applying new teaching bhaviors involves

engagement, alteration, or installation of pre-requisite mental processes.

As a component of motivational theory, appplied to written teacher evaluation practices, supervisory provisions should reflect administrative skill in activating improvement problem finding and expression. That skill might also include the element of charm, a factor sometimes described philosophically as, "the quality in others that makes us more satisfied with ourselves."

The administrative dilemma of serving as a critic while attempting to stimulate is touched on in research on right brain vs left brain activities. Mueller(1954) identified right brain subjective cognitive processes such as imagination and intuition and left brain objective rational processes such as analysis and learning. Hunter (1980) reported that most people process information sequentially in their left hemispheres which is temporal, analytical, and logical. As evaluators, administrators sometimes deal with hemishpericity by choosing between communicating in the forms of a subjective "rubber stamp" or an objective meticulous judge which means choosing between giving unconditional, prima facie acceptance to a teaching performance (right hemishpere) or offering conscious acceptance or rejection of action based on authoritative evidence (left hemisphere). Neither hemisphere is more powerful; messages that integrate

hemispheric processing focus on reason and illustration to encourage instructional improvement.

"I look to X to take an active role in supervision between classes in the adjacent lavatory. Everyone working together can be helpful."

"X gives a good accounting of himself in using established lines of communication."

As an administrative tool, supervisiory provisions is concerned with providing teachers with information about what is expected of them. Many organizations seem to persist in applying McGregor's Theory X approach which postulates that the average employee must be directed, controlled, coerced, and sometimes threatened with punishment to make sure he or she puts forth maximum effort. By contrast, advocates of Theory Y hold that the average employee is capable of assuming responsibility, possesses great potential, and will act responsibly if treated well and expected to perform effectively. Supervisory provisions messages that address control issues rather than teaching or learning issues suggest the prevalence of Theory X thinking.

"While X is very knowledgeable of each student's personality, his teaching style is not to get close personally to his students, but to set high standards for students to attain."

In addition to the convoluted sentence structure caused primarily by the unfortunate placement of the "not," the content of this evaluation statement befits the label, "Doublespeak." Exactly what knowledge X has of each student's personality is not clear. While this knowledge is related to learning, it is also unclear if it is a noteworthy achievement that X has acquired this knowledge. The meaning of does, "not get close to," is left unstated. High standards relative to an undefined scale are set by X. How these standards help students to gain is not specifieded. The quality that is being evaluated here remains ambiguous to the reader.

> "X seem to have a good relationship with individual children in class. Classroom management needs to be improved and this will be accomplished when X is able to plan work and adhere closely to plans. The children will gain a sense of security when they know what is expected and when expectations are consistent. This will decrease the number of teacher interruptions for disciplinary purposes."

The first sentence might be read as a "sop" or as genuine praise, but the reader might find it impossible to tell which interpretation to make because of the brevity, vagueness, and lack of transition to the rest of the written evaluation. If the praise is genuine, it is not used as a solid basis for building improvement. What

exactly X should do to improve classroom management, in view of his apparently positive relationship with the class, is not suggested. The simplistic tone at the conclusion suggests that the real agenda of this teaching performance evaluation is administrative control, not instructional performance growth.

"In the area of discipline, I do not see X's students; and this is understandable when one is present in his classroom to view how interested students are in what is happening."

The language and structure of this message are so jumbled that logical communication is impossible; apparently it was not planned or edited. What the statement seems to convey is a weak attempt at praise; effective instruction is apparently guaged here by the measure of how few students are sent out of class for administrative behavior control. Communication of this nature of control suggests why the instructional evaluation process is often viewed by both teachers and administrators as occasions of mutual suspicion.

Dougals Strains, developer of the matrix organizational structure, defined supervisory provisions methaphorically as a lens whose function is helping people to focus their energies in a common direction. Rather than focusing on a common esprit de corps, the 200 documents of this study seem to suggest that supervisory provsions in Grosse Pointe are chameleon-like in

encouraging adaption to administrative control rather than growth in instructional performance. Supervisory provisions, as a motivational component, sometimes prompts improvement by shedding light on a performer's individual potential in a manner immortalized by Johnathan Swift:

> Although man are accus'd
> for not knowing their own Weakness,
> yet perhaps as few
> know their own Strength.
> It is in Men as in Soils,
> where sometimes there is a Vein of Gold,
> which the Owner knows not of.56

Work Conditions Conclusions

An integral part of work conditions for most public school teachers is the isolations of the profession. Teaching, in buildings usuallly patterned after turn-of-the-century factory models, is often characterized by self-containment and by a relatively low level of cooperative ventures undertaken with other adults. Toffler described the institutional effects of school in Futures Shock:

> The whole idea of assembling masses of students (raw material) to be processed by teachers (workers) in a centrally located school (factory) was a stroke of industrial genius. The whole administrative hierarchy of education, as it grew up, followed the model of industrial bureaucracy. The very organization of knowledge into permanent disciplines was grounded on industrial assumptions.57
> Collegiality, in the form of collaborative

efforts to construct curricula, develop materials and ideas and share experiences is something of a rarity. Organizational behavior research involving work conditions has shown that the relative solitariness of an occupation serves as a reliable indicator of its members' job-related affiliation needs. McClelland(1953) first defined the affiliative influence on work as a person' need for human interaction and support in order to perform his job with satisfaction. As an attribute of the evaluation process, work conditions centers on the quality of the relationship that exists between an administrator as a sensitive evaluator, and a teacher as a professional performer whose spiritual need for meaningful job feedback is indispensable.

The key question in analyzing administrative motivational tactics centers on the issue of control, specifically: control for what purpose? Work conditions as an attribute of the working relationshop between administrator and teacher is largely a matter of intent. An authoritative exercise of control is generally based on a view of man as a machine who simply processes information and acts on it in a fairly mechanistic, manipulated fashion. However, an exercise of control by an administrator whose paramount concern is personal performance growth, tends to be more subtle and responsive to an individual as a professional partner who shares

similar values. As a human relationship issue, work
conditions might be defined as a bellweather structure of
external conditions which signal administrative control by
authoritative power, or administrative control by
supportive self-government.

The challenge in preparing motivationally
significant written teacher evaluations is the search for
language that displays an evaluator's and a teacher's
shared vision of schooling and learning in terms that
distinguish professional approaches from the surface
issues of work conditions. Unfortunately, work
conditions, even though mentioned infrequently in the
total count of the documents of this study, usually
appeared to address teachers as functionaries who
implement standardized curricula in orderly ways.

Operations research, particularly in
decision-making systems has documented the dynamic that
the minute an administrator as an evaluator is introduced
into the teaching situation, that situation changes.
Written language displaying the type and quality of how
the teaching situation has changed constitutes the
motivationally significant element of work condidions
being studied in this part of the project.

"X keeps a structured classroom environment so
students are familiar with the daily academic
routine and can expect positive reinforcement
for appropriate behavior, and consequences for

inappropriate behavior."

"I rarely see X without a briefcase carrying plans from one school to another."

"The implacable attitude X takes toward students who fail to observe class policies accounts for the fine cooperation evident in the room."

Evidence of whether the administrative-teacher relationship tanscends the traditionally autonomous professional environment is not apparent in the quantitative analysis of motivational elements observed in the communication content of Grosse Pointe written teacher performance evaluations. Successful communication of work conditions messages means successful integration of the essential idealism of organized instructional performers with the necessary pragmatism of organized school administration.

Because work conditions is a hygiene component, the fact that successful communication of work conditions messages, which appears to be a function of well-developed, perceptive communication skills, is not apparent in the frequency counts of this inquiry, does not, of itself, indicate motivationally deficient written evaluations. No guaranteed linear path to motivationally effective performance evaluation exists. However, a cooperative spirit of personal communication appears to be the required frame of reference for a writer to have in order to recognize the thousand unique vulnerabilities of

all the participants in a school's work environment when attempting a meaningful selection of activation language.

Evaluation Language Conclusions

Ambiguity was found to occur in evaluation language that was vague, oversimplified, truncated, disorderly, or so awkwardly complex that a teacher as a reader would be assumed to experience confusion rather than enlightenment.

"Mathematics instruction is an area in need of increased attention."

"X maintains an upbeat attitude that exictes students."

"Teacher X has much information about the curriculum."

The use of unqualified superlatives, which are known to be ambiguous by their obvious hyperbole, tends to set a tone of insincerity; this practice was frequently observed in the evaluation documents of this study. It seems that evaluators feel that positive comments are not always convincing unless couched in excessive, glittering praise.

"Teacher X always demonstrates the knowledge of an encyclopedia and the artistry of a Picasso in teaching students to fully enjoy science."

"X is an extremely well-informed individual."

"X is the consumate health teacher who lives in complete accordance with the doctrines he instills in his kids."

By contrast, the evaluation language of the study sometimes subtly conveyed the most damaging communication by saying the least; messages that say nothing beyond the obvious tended to sound cold and reserved. Ambiguity was apparent in this type of message because of the apparent, but unstated administrative indifference to this individual's teaching performance.

> "X presents the prescribed curriculum and assigns the usual amount of work."

> "X establishes a work schedule that allows him to prepare for his various classes."

Coded, "buzz," "doublespeak," or "loaded" language which can cause an Orwellian ambiguity by obfuscating an issue with emotional judgments, vague circumlocutions, or misleading inference was found in the evaluation documents of this inquiry.

> "X is a good lecturer."

> "X's conduct is professional; he observes all the rules."

> "X observes ethical standards in his own way."

One sign of a skilled evaluator, according to Richard Pascale(1978) of the Harvard Business School, is an evaluator's ability to give usable feedback with the subtle nuance of the Japanese "Zen" or "face-saving" arts:

> Ambiguity has two important connotations for management. First, it is a useful concept in thinking about

> how we deal with others in writing.
> Second, it provides a way of
> legitimitizing the loose rein that a
> manager permits in certain
> organizational situations where
> agreement needs time to evolve or
> where further insight is needed.58

Inept allusion caused unnecessary ambiguity in a few of
the written evaluations of this study. This form of
ambiguity not only confuses, but rebukes the intelligence
of the reader.

> "X is a real pro. She is a Pandora's box of
> teaching tricks."
>
> "X runs his classroom like a champion. He is
> Casey at the bat."

If all writing is actually a self-portrait of the
mind of the writer, some evaluation writers apparently
think with the assistance of glass balls; several
evaluations displayed the unmistakable Delphic
inscrutability of astrologers:

> "Some misunderstanding with the offering and
> accepting of help keeps surfacing. Attempt to
> clear up what may be a big misunderstanding.
> There may yet be time to lend assistance."
>
> "Your admission to being very frustrated will
> help you better appreciate the LRC. Keep your
> eyes and ears open."

Jacques Barzun's terms of evaluating written ambiguity are
moral not aesthetic:

> What is execrable is what misleads, what
> traduces, what injects error, what cloaks the

absence of thought or feeling, what pretends to
be something other than it is, what is false.[59]

Pronoun usage in the 200 documents of this inquiry were revealing in both their communication focus and their grammatical usage. The evaluator as a writer has the delicate problem of addressing a reader in language that will help him to listen with an open mind. The evaluator must, as Hamlet said, "Suit the action to the word, the word to the action." However, the use of the first person, "I" which shifts attention away from the teacher to the administrator was observed in at least 50% of the written evaluations. Piaget's(1923) Model of Human Development first suggested that placing self, the "I," in the centrality of a message reveals the writer's difficulty in understanding a situation independently from himself. The frequency of embedded "I" statements in the studied evaluation documents seemed to reduce the teacher from the most important component of the evaluation process to a secondary role.

"I was impressed by..."

"I noticed..."

"I liked..."

"It was interesting to me that..."

Authority control and egocentrism are the messages of "I" usage; one evaluator even referred to himself as "I, the Principal" which suggests the serious intellectual impropriety of solipsism, the treatment of

one's experiences as the only form which can be real or valid. However, linguists do not all agree with the time-honored stricture which puts "I" or "me" off limits in evaluation writing. "Many people have come to think that subtracting the self makes for objectivity and validity, but depersonalization is not impartiality."60 However, the "I" usage in these observed documents did not indicate a lack of objectivity, but a control orientation toward paternalism: the person behind the "I" appeared to be as central to the observed performance as the evaluated teacher. In light of the fact that the "audience" for written teacher performance evaluations includes central office personnel, the inclusion of "I" in refernce to the evaluator, in messages of praise about a teacher, have the distinct tone of self-congratulations that comes from clling attention to oneself. In the Sixth Century, B.C., a venerable Chinese sage, Tao-ti Ching was recorded as advising:

> As for the leader at the top, it is best if people barely know he exists. As he says very little, his words have more value; and when the work is done, the people are pleased, because they think they did it all themselves.61

Shifts from first person "I" to second person, "you" pronouns, in reference to the same person, occurred rarely in the evaluation documents. When "I" was used, the teacher being evaluated was usually referred to as Teacher X. The use of "you" became illogical when it interchanged with the third person, "He/She" or Teacher X

in the same context. Describing Teacher X to someone else and then addressing Teacher X in the same message caused the thrust of direction for change to sound more like a routinized order than a stimulating suggestion.

> "X is improving in planning; you should try to use the lab more next year."

> "Most of Teacher X's students are working at grade level. You need to plan ways to help the slower students to catch up with the class."

A Yale study(1961) once determinied that the twelve most persuasive words in English began with the word, "You," which suggests that "You" could serve well in motivational communications if the "You" were communicated as a specified person in a specified person to person dialogue.. (The remaining eleven words were: money, save, new, results, health, easy, safety, love, discovery, proven, guarantee.) Probably the most unctious reference to evaluated teachers occurrred in the regular use of fragmented sentences which omitted both the teacher's name or the term, "You."

> "Working well with slow children."

> "Keeps in touch with the latest research."

> "Always uses kindness..."

Pronoun misuse infers a communication message of randomness or administrative carelessness which tends to impart a lack of importance to the whole evaluation process. The observed disparity between inherent

administrative claims to literate communication skills and the mistakes discovered in the evaluation documents suggest the probability of the evaluated teachers' diminshed confidence in administrative judgment and ability to motivate performance improvement.

Passive Voice and Parallel Structure

An extensive use of passive voice verbs was observed in the studied evaluation documents. Theodore Bernstein saw a vast diffence between active and passive voice: "The active voice, in which the subject does the acting, creates a forceful conviction that leaves no doubt about who did what, but inverting the sentence into the passive voice weakens the action and produces a less compelling picture in the reader's mind." [62]

"Five major goals were selected..."

"X was observed to..."

"Time is permitted..."

The passive voice as an undesirable stylistic element in writing is not the same quality as John Stuart Mill's desirable state of "passive susceptibility." Mill's condition of passivity referred to a person's deliberately acquired capacity to entertain new and enriching ideas. It was Mill's theory that human passive sensibility needed to be cultivated, nourished, and guided just as carefully as human active capacities if mental wants were to be satisfied in a lasting rather than a transitory fashion. While passive voice treats the

subject of a composition as a simple receptor of action, passive susceptibility assumes tht the subject has an inexhaustible need to receive powerful, stimulating, personal ideation.

Parallel structure, which means the purposeful repetition of grammatical structure in presenting more than one idea, was occasionally abused in the studied evaluation documents causing an unnecessary loss of clarity and meaning.

> "X speaks to parents daily, personally and on the phone."
>
> "Topics are generated, and X lists assignments before students are allowed to discuss problems."
>
> "Everyone enjoys the word searches, and to take crossword puzzle quizes."

Composition errors involving passive voice and parallel structure tend to reduce the authority directness of communication and could easily be avoided by more careful editing practices. Writing that attracts and holds a reader's attention is re-written prose. Purposeful re-reading and re-writing by a writer reduces stylistic errors, while it prunes unnecessary wording, tightens ambiguous language, and eliminates pointless, witless statements. As Barzun has noted,

> No one should complain of the trouble of revising. Writing is a social act; whoever claims his neighbor's attention by writing is

duty bound to take trouble. In any case, what
is life for unless to do at least some things
right? 63

Use of Trivia

Loss of teacher trust in the evaluation process
is probably most surely attained by the inclusion of
trivia in evaluation documents. Since there is an obvious
limit to the number of points that can be made in written
evaluations, an administrator must discover the major
points and eliminate those that are unnecessary. While
infrequent mention of trivial items was observed in the
studied Grosse Pointe evaluations, the fact that any were
used is a disquieting indicator of the presence of an
apparent lack of serious, thoughtful pre-planning.

"X likes to wear fun colors."

"Keeping his desk clean is important to X."

"X can usually be observed near the bulletin
board."

Written references to cosmetic, non-essential, or
irrelevant data tends to turn descriptions of serious
behavior into parodies of serious behavior. Omitting
trivia is ordinarily considered a thinking skill; in
compostion preparation, it is considered an important
pre-writing determinant based on a thorough understanding
of what constitutes the important issues of instructional
performance. Steinbeck noted,

> There is already a pretty general
> temptation to consider the conductor more
> important than the composer, the cellophane more
> desirable than the goods, the sun tan more

appealing than the face.[64]

Redundancy

Even though the unnecessary repetition of descriptive elements in written communication tends to be grossly illogical, evidence of redundant phrases were occasionally observed in the documents of this inquiry. The presence of such absurdities suggest either a failure of administrative writers to properly revise their original drafts, or an insensitivity to language choice and meaning.

> "Good positive use of behavior modification techniques..."
>
> "X's concerns are real and genuine..."
>
> "Her transmittal of work to parents is of a remarkable, outstanding nature."
>
> "....operates well and effectively."

Inappropriate, clumsy, or sloppy language use tends to make communication both callous in form and elusive in purpose. Correct usage comes from careful re-working and cannot be "spooned like hot fudge over ice cream." There is no substitute for treating writing as a sequential, process-oriented activity that deals with difficult material through am active, perceptively thoughtful pattern of linguistic responses.

> Writing produces both visible thoughts and a record of how we arrived at that thought. It yields a document that enables us to see what we know. Existence of this record thus permits us to stand off from our thoughts and to reflect on them, to test our inferences against relevant

data, and to check the validity of our
assertions. In other words, writing leaves a
trail by which we can analyze how we came to
build new meanings of significance, to develop
new generalizations, and to invent or find new
relationships. The process of writing actually
ends in a product which helps us refine our
thinking and create new learning.65

Grammatical Errors

Primary instances of bad grammar in the

evaluation documents of this study involved, in descending

order of their observed frequencies:

Sentence fragments

("Likes kids...")

("With all the responsibilities and demands of

a new assignment.")

Subject-verb agreements

("This exercise of yours continue to

support....")

("The book of suggestions list.")

Pronoun-referrent agreement

("Everyone wants to use their....")

("A teacher must use their best judgment.")

Punctuation, particularly the exclamation point.

("X accepts students of all abilities!!!")

("The lessons on Australia were masterful!!!")

Sentence run-ons/Comma splices

("He uses praise and encouragement, support

for all efforts is given.")

("Many others have learned to count on him he

never fails to help.")

. Use of "however" as a coordinating conjunction.

("Students keep notebooks, however X expects more than just filled pages."

("The child agreed however he didn't follow through.")

The incorrect practice of using extra exclamation points as acceptable end punctuation was only noticeable in administrative writing at the elementary level. Such an obvious mistake might be attributable to the evaluation writer's poorly conceived attempt to emphasize a point of praise. The use of the exclamation point as a self-serving, authority-centered device has long been recognized and deplored by professional writers, as in this advice from Lewis Thomas,

> Exclamation points are the most irritating punctuation mistake of all. Look! they say, look at what I just said! How amazing is my thought! It is like being forced to watch someone else's small child jumping up and down crazily in the center of the living room shouting to attract attention. If a sentence really has something of importance to say, something quite remarkable, it doesn't need a mark to point it out. And if it is really, after all, a banal sentence needing more zing, the exclamation simply emphasizes its banality! [66]

Bad grammar suggests carelessness or ignorance, neither of which correlates with motivationally effective communication. Kilpatrick once warned serious writers, "The notion that a person can be a good writer and turn up his nose at rules of correct grammar and spelling is false. Bad grammar is like fingers across a blackboard. A reader won't stick with the writer very long." [67]

At the outset of _On Interpretation_ Aristotle describes words as symbols or signs that something is happening inside the writer. Aristotle's correspondence theory simply means that word choice may vary with the individual writer and his intended receiver, but the inner experience that the chosen words represent have the same meaning for everyone. Linguistically, as well as psychologically, motivation means motion in the direction of a desired end. In the numeric pattern of Herzberg-identified language usage by Grosse Pointe administrators, in writing teacher performance evaluations, descriptions of How Things Are, which is recognition of aceptable teaching behavior, rather than How Things Ought To Be, seem to constitute performance improvement. The distinctive gap between observed action and improvement action seems to indicate an apparent motivational deficiency in the study of Grosse Pointe evaluation documents.

Summary

Writing, which is itself an arduous task, could be described as a linguistic form of cognitive reinforcement. By design, evaluation writing purportedly is aimed at reinforcing an individual's tendency for self-initiaated performance improvement, which makes the practice of writing lock-step, "cook book" performance evaluation content, as was frequently observed in this inquiry, both ineffective for administrative practice means, and inadequate for teacher improvement ends. The problem of evaluation writing must, in other words, not be fitted to the limitations of the writer. Hazlitt described writing that avoids a "pre-wired" pronunciamento tone as, "more like the remarks which occur in a sensible conversation and less like a lecture; something is left to the understanding of the reader." [68]

Freud(1905) introduced the concept of psychosexual stages of human development (oral, phallic, oepidal, latency, genital), and noted that when meeting another human being, the first distinction a person tends to make is, "male or female?" [69] The frequency counts of this study appear to indicate that his remark applied to administrative thoughts about teachers as receivers of motivationally significant written evaluations. Administrators themselves were almost equally divided by gender as writers, but seem to perceive widely varying needs between male and female teachers as receivers of

motivationally supportive communication. In the 200
documents of this study, male teachers received 76% fewer
motivational comments than female teachers: only the
maintenance factors of school policies and supervisory
provisions showed a slightly higher (average: 6%) male
audience.

Why the observed female teachers received so much
greater motivational attention is a debatable issue that
would appear to have its genesis in the issue of whether a
leadership style or a control style characterized the
administrator writing of performance evaluations.
Analyzing leadership-control functions in terms of the
communicative relationship a school administrator displays
in his or her written evaluation messages to teachers
means focusing on the needs-satisfaction language that the
administrator seems to be using. The documents of this
study of Grosse Pointe administrators appear to reveal
that female school administrtors perceive female teachers
as needing recognition, particularly as approval, in the
individual written performance documents at a rate 75%
higher than male teachers. Male administrators especially
seem to perceive female teachers as requiring a higher
rate of documented motivational mesages; male
administrators wrote 4% more motivational references in
individual female techer evaluations than in male teacher
evaluations. As a study in control, written communication
of motivational messages to females at a rate almost three

times higher than that of male teachers suggests the possibility of female dependency and attachment to administrative support, while the lower frequency of 12% fewer messages at which male teachers received motivational messages from both male and female administrators suggests an administrative perception of greater male teacher autonomy and detachment from administrative support.

Communication practice stressing motivational attention to female teachers who, as a gender, seem to identify more with motivationally defined components, particularly the work itself, seems to be one definite conclusion from the frequency counts of this study which showed that 72% of female administrators addressed 42% of the work itself messages to female teachers. However, a dichotomy in male/female teacher motivational needs may not be sufficient explanation; not a single male administrator addressed the work itself component to male teachers, although 29 male administrators addressed the work itself component to female teachers. Both male and female administrators appear to understand the importance of motivational systems as a whole in affecting teaching performance, but by relying heavily on any single aspect of suppportive communication, or by omitting coordinated use of any single aspect of motivation, some administrtators may be approaching the use of theory in writing performance evaluations with a perspective too

narrow for effective, motivationaly significant messages.

No obvious conclusion can be drawn from the varying frequency of use of motivationally significant language by different school level administrators as performance evaluators, primarily because Grosse Pointe administrators tend to rotate to different level administrative posts and cannot easily be identified as clearly elementary, middle, or high school administrators either by experience or personal philosophy. What seems to be apparent from the frequency counts of this study is that, no matter what the school level is, school administrators as evaluators have differnt perceptions of female and male teacher needs for written motivational communication about instructional performance improvement effort. Patterns that appear to be most discernible in the Grosse Pointe administrative use of motivation theory are:

1. the dominance of high school administrative use of motivational elements in teacher performance evaluation documents;

2. the dominance of female teachers in motivational communication receiver roles;

3. the dominance of recognition as the primary motivational component used by Grosse Pointe administrators in addressing performance evaluation tasks.

To say that means must not be confused with ends,

in the context of this study, is to say that using language is not always communicating. A discussion of performance improvement necessarily involves a discussion of change. In the evaluation process, motivation is a practice based on an understanding of predicted and desired behavioral change. However, as means, motivationally significant evaluations which stress recognition and fail to explain change, tend to serve as ends, facilitating maintenance of past, approved actions rather than stimulating change toward improved future instructional behavior. Applying motivational theory productively implies using performance feedback as a referential means to increase a performer's understanding of growth which is the clear end; recognizing teaching achievement is recognizing progress toward a goal, but should not itself be confused with the goal. Jerome Bruner(1964) explained, "The reward of deeper understanding is a more robust lure to effort than we have yet realized." [70] Motivation, in other words, increases with understanding, and understanding increases with knowledge. The informative feedback administrators can communicate promotes motivaton by providing teachers with cogent, useful knowledge aimed at renewed instrucitonal performance.

In defense of the practice of writing many evaluations which communicate the same message, i.e. behavior recognition, to many different people, it might

be said that successful people usually achieve success for the same reasons; the success of one high performance teacher probably paralles the success of many others. In a school system like Grosse Pointe where "success," as traditionally defined by high standardized student test scores, has remained characteristically consistent for many years, it is somewhat understandable that instructional evaluation processes and communication procedures have also remained virtually static. Using the traditional results of apparent experienced success seems to indicate little need for improvement modifications. Goodlad(1985) cautions that when comparing the quality of schools, by looking at achievement test scores of students still in them, the data on dropouts and those pushed out of organized education programs should also be considered.

Underlying administrative reliance on student learning achievement is the apparent assumption that institutional improvements such as curriculum or schedule changes, by themselves, will adequately satisfy Grosse Pointe's instructional growth requirements. As a result, the professional performance feedback on instructional effectiveness that was observed in this study, seems to be predominantly status maintenance of a traditional success formula rather than a learning, growth-oriented system of informed teaching behavior.

Part of the problem of preparing motivationally effective written appraisals is a rationale of civility;

many administrators, probably with the best intentions, seem to desire not to hurt the feelings of others or to upset anyone. Toynbee(1973) noted that:

> As a civilization, we have become more sensitive to the evil of cruelty than any historical epoch before us. For us, cruelty is the cardianl sin as pride was the cardinal sin of traditional Christianity. [71]

Unfortunately, when negative messages about instructional problems are not clearly sent to the involved teachers, or important facts about teaching are not definitely stated, candor is lost, communication sufers, and civility tends to become an organizational liability. Communication psychology has discovered that the avoidance of unhappy consequences, or conflict irresolution, may be a deeply ingrained habit that can be difficult to recognize and "unlearn." Without the ability to see professional criticism as a source of enlightenment, not condemnation, and the capability to write sensibly and honestly with a view that is personal without being overly familiar, evaluators are limited to writing messages that are delusory about the growth decisions of professional motivational needs. The similarity of content and form observed in many Grosse Pointe evaluation messages seems to indicate that writing non-judgmental performance appraisals which only claim to assist improvement appears, from the results of this study, to be less of a conflict problem, than a communication breakdown and an administrative failure to

understand that motivation arises from the healthy stress of positive stimulation and the challenge of unsatisfied needs.

Psychological studies have shown that a tensionless state, or the relieving of tension at any cost, is not a source of motivation; rather, it is the potency of meaningful actualization that has been found to be man's source of new energy and improvement. "The most significant changes occur when two cultures bump up against one another." [72]   The lack of tension observed in the studied Grosse Pointe documents seems to indicate administrative paternalism, the apparent desire for teacher fealty, instead of administrative support for individual teacher decision making. By comparison, research has shown that writing performance-evaluations, assists responsible, growth-oriented decision making and avoids the "narcotic" effects of dependency associations or the behavioral control quintessentially associated with the Protestant Ethic. Taken to its worst conclusion, what non-motivational evaluations appear to do is to rebuke the ideal of teaching as a professional activity which sets its own standard of performance conduct, and requires administrative assistance primarily for the formal managment of lower order employee needs.

A further problem of writing motivationally effective performance appraisals is a general administrative reluctance to invest supportive energy into

writing teacher evaluations when the instructional evaluation process overall tends to offer results that aren't easily measured. The continuing lack of a sound performance measurement system, in place, to accurately judge what good performance is, and to compare performance among professional teachers means that administrators have little reliable evaluation data on which to make performance assessments. However, current educational research, particularly in "effective schools" (Hunter,1980) and cognitive psychology (Bloom et al.,1956) are identifying instructional practices that, when performed well, have been proven to make a difference.

The evaluation process, of itself, has no dynamism; it is the school administrator, in aggressively integrating motivational theory with both educational research and communication psychology, who transcends the simplicity of acquiescence-seeking appraisals messages. Preferring the monotony of uniformly written performance documents, in some ways, is similar to an institutional clinging to known disadvantages rather than risking the anarchies of change. However, Sizer(1972) noted, with frustration, education's persistent unwillingness to respect and use the benefits of theory as a basis for change.

At a more abstract level, administrators may resist writing motivationally oriented teacher evaluations because of longstanding institutional divseveness.

A classic difficulty faced by programs whose goal is to deliver services to teachers is teacher cynicism - teachers have seen many programs come and go, but schools stay the same. Such cynicism is the result of years of frustration from failure in attempts to make things work better, because the system is unresponsive in important ways. The reasonable reaction to continual frustration is anger, apathy, and cynicism much of which gets focused against the school administration. 73

A. N. Whitehead(1953) once noted that any groove of abstraction is bound to be an inadequate way of describing reality. What educators, as a group, may tend to overlook in evaluating their institutional efforts is the immutable reality that substantial performance improvement changes are usually long range projects. The exponentially greater use of recognition as a motivational tool belies the complexity of the entire teaching process and, in oversimplifying, addresses improvement change as if it were a given.

Maslow(1954) terms the practice of writing non-judgmental appraisals, "rubricizing," and notes that this form of nominal recognition is far less fatiguing for administrators to do than to write messages that encourage new thought.

All reactions that may be labled, "rubricized," may then be redefined as efforts to freeze or staticize or stop the motion of a moving, changing process in order to be able to handle it. 74

Similar to the old adage that human friendship is possible only with a particular

individual, a true motivational spirit can only exist which is localized; hence, the narrowing of this study to a particular school district, Grosse Pointe. In a sense, understanding Grosse Pointe's use of motivational theory means understanding that this system's long history of academic excellence may be serving it as a form of inertia: the tendency of a body in a state of self-satisfaction is probably to remain content. Another way to analyze the contributions of Grosse Pointe's present homeostasis-oriented teacher evaluations system is to consider the consequences of not having it. Organizational development studies have found that in an environment which is turbulent and a work force that is skilled, greater improvement is encouraged when administration is democratic, rather than control-oriented. Hypothetically, it appears likely that administrative control-orientation probably would invite a new flexibility in teacher decision making, which, although time consuming and slow, could bring with it a concomitant increase in teacher responsibility for performance strengthening. Traditional wisdom holds that when something is gained, something else is lost. What Grosse Pointe probably would stand to lose by increasing its application of motivational theory in written teacher evaluations, might be the consistency, stability, and low-risk predictability of a control system which is logically and politically well-matched to its relatively

old, conservative, slow-to-evolve school system. However, the cost of growth in any human enterprise is the increased vulnerability of change. "Progress," said William James, "is a terrible thing." [75]   The purpose of this study, like the purpose of education itself, is to provide a sound basis for developing a better understanding of motivatonal behavior in order to realistically assist a transcendence of a seeming contradiciton between the advantages of continuity and the disadvantages of change, without compromising a loss of the benefits of either. A school system's process of written teacher evalation is one part of its improvemet program. For substantial growth, the whole school system must be improved, not just adminstrators or teachrs, or curricula.

> Efforts at improvement must encompass the school
> as a system of interaacting parts, each
> affecting the other. [76]

In observing the lessons of history, Lewis Thomas suggested that information serves as a motivational tool when it informs a person about himself in terms that encourage him to motivate himself, especially when that improvement information is crucially needed. The findings of this study suggest that the greatest difficulty in providing that information is the difficulty of using language to express ideas so overwhelmingly complex that at times they seem nearly inexpressible; still, our

language is the only one we have. In <u>The</u> <u>Medusa</u> <u>And</u> <u>The</u> <u>Snail</u>, Thomas noted,

> These ought to be the best of times for the human mind, but it is not so. All sorts of things seem to be turning out wrong, and the century seems to be slipping through our fingers unfulfilled. I cannot begin to guess at all the causes of our cultural sadness, not even the most important ones, but I can think of one thing that is wrong with us and eats away at us: we do not know enough about ourselves. We are ignorant about how we work and about where we fit in, and about how we should begin to answer the uncomfortable questions of civilization. We need to know more. 77

RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

In November, 1986 a report entitled "Teacher Evaluation: Five Keys To Growth" was released jointly by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators following a United States Department of Education sponsored survey of several hundred teachers on their evaluation experiences. The report argues that teacher evaluations should be designed to promote professional growth. "The key to excellence in schooling is enlightened, effective evaluation."[78] The NEA-AASA report claims that evaluations which serve a significant role in improving instruction tend to use positive strategies that support teacher improvement and is congruent with the findings of this study on "The Use of Motivational Theory in Teacher Performance Evaluations." Both works are based on the understanding that most useful administrative evaluations of teachers focus on personal classroom performance improvement rather than on routinized classroom performance techniques. The thesis of both works is that increasing learning itself is a difficult area for anyone to control, but increasing learning by improving a teacher's instructional performance is an area that can be controlled by aministrators, particularly through the wise use of written teacher evaluation.

Implications arising from this study focus on the need for further articulation of the principles of effective evaluation language in order to continue efforts to incorporate theory-based performance improvement decisions into professional behavior. The findings of this study as well as the findings of the NEA-AASA report on administrative evaluations of teachers suggest that educators are equipped to improve their performance decisions: 1)when they know which instructional acts they do succeed, 2)why these acts succeed, and 3)when they are shown a number of effective alternatives to replace less successful behavior.

Focusing on growth in instructional performance essentially means focusing on learning as a factor in behavior change. One of the implications of this study is the obvious need to combine relevant and well-documented tenets of learning theory with the newly researched tenets of the teacher evaluation process. Instruction, for example, according to Effective Schools Research, is defined as the teacher's deliberate decisions and actions to increase the probability of learning. One of the prime tenets of this theory of learning is that everyone can learn the next thing beyond that which he already knows, and that is the only thing anyone can learn. If the new objective is too difficult or too easy, learning will not be efficient and probably not effective. The critical development of effective teacher performance evaluation

systems is an inherently evoluationary process as Herbert Simon once explained:

> Organizing a professional system is very much like mixing oil with water. It is easy to describe the intended product, less easy to produce it. The task is not finished when the goal has been achieved. Left to themselves, the oil and water will separate again. So also with the disciplines and the professions. Organizing, in these situations, is not a once-and-for-all activity. It is a continuing administrative responsibility, vital for the sustained success of the enterprise.[79]

As a consequence of combining findings about learning with findings about teacher evaluation needs, an administrator should be able to understand the need to individualize his improvement communication so that it focuses on the "next" thing each teacher is able to grasp and utilize in actual instructional practice. The communication shortcomings discovered in the performance evaluations studied in this project points to the reason why many educators have developed a habitually critical attitude toward evaluation language; concomitantly, the findings of this study may encourage, in educators, a self-revealing, needs-assessing attitude toward performance evaluation.

Suggestions for Further Research

A central question of knowledge is its validation; perhaps the best way to conclude a study is to suggest the need for further study. Needed now are additional systematic data from studies of professional behavior which will result in the further refinement of

motivational concepts and principles. A specific intent to improve instruction should guide further attempts to predict and control professional action. Administrative evaluations of teachers as an evolutionary process could benefit from the following inquiries:

- a study of veteran teachers of perhaps 20 or more years of service to determine what special motivational needs might be evident for people whose performance expectations are probably already high;

- a study of first and second year teachers to determine not only how what distinctive motivational needs they, as a group, might have, but also what special limitations their evaluations should have;

- a study to isolate distinctive areas of professional growth in order to determine objective measures of growth and effective means of communicating about growth;

- a study to detrmine how to mesh instructional peformance feedback with variable instructional performance contexts so that feedback becomes more meaningful and more accurate;

- a study of why non-relevant material is sometimes found in teacher performance evaluations; such non-relevant concerns include discussion of coffeee habits, smoking habits, parenting styles, clothing, and personal hobbies, all of which seem to substitute for teacher evaluation and seem to suggest that sometimes

administrators "take the path of least resistance" rather than evaluate actual instructional performance

- a study of how task interference might be reduced for administrators who require minimum time interruptions in order to effectively assess individual teacher's performance strengths and motivational needs;

- a study of how meaningful reform is accomplished in monololistic or bureaucratic organizational structures;

- a study of how diversity of teaching method is understood, described, and encouraged in monolithic structures such as schools;

- a study of the common assumptions school administrators tend to have about "what they want" when assessing teaching performance;

- a study of the extent of continuity and consistency in educational systems' personnel policies;

- a historical study of the use of legal or financial solutions rather than human resource solutions to teacher motivational problems;

- a study of panel data concerning longitudinal effects of consistent, motivationally inadequate performance evaluations on teacher effectiveness;

- a study of how to match evaluation procedures to varied instructional models;

- a study of attempts to personalize teacher evaluations without invading teacher privacy;

- a study of why vague, indistinct, and trite categories of language which impede meaningful communication, are sometimes used in written teacher evaluation. Such terms include wonderful teacher, nice lesson, good relationship, fine job, and top grade.

- a study of why administrators encounter difficulties with using motivational processes in preparing written teacher evaluations; the study might attempt to find ways these identified difficulties might be avoided;

- a study of what factors influence the use of evaluation data, particularly motivational communication; this study could focus on factors affecting the nature of evaluation use such as teacher receptiveness;

- a study of congruence of evaluation data with expressed values of teachers and documented expectations of school districts; this study might also examine consistency of communication of these areas;

- a study of the complex challenges of the change that "innovative learning" instead of "maintenance learning" would have on disciplinary structures in schools;

- a study of the way in which specific content and instructional procedures engage psychological processes and previous knowledge structures so that desired learning outcomes are more likely to be achieved achieved;

Summary

We mark with light the memories of the few interviews we have had, in the dreary years of routine and sin, with souls that made our souls wiser, that spoke what we thought, that told us what we knew, that gave us leave to be what we inly were. [30]

Action, according to an old adage, is the proper fruit of knowledge. Implications arising from this study include action in the direction of continued inquiry into the nature of motivational language. This inquiry attempted to study relational issues as they impact school organizations and to pursue answers to the questions of what might be and why it isn't. If the study is not to serve as an end in itself, it must promote a clearer understanding of how a written performance evaluation can serve school administrators as a motivational device for instructional improvement rather than as a rote quality control measure. The study suggests that improvement stimulation most effectively occurs when teachers are treated as individuals and are allowed to suggest solutions to problems and analyze information in a number of flexible, alternative, self-managed ways. The message: evaluations as if teachers themselves mattered, reflects Albert Einstein's words, "In an age of large scale events and organizations, the greatest single issue of importance apart from the question of peace or war, is for the individual to feel that he counts." [31]

In terms of evaluators, Einstein's wisdom could

be interprered to mean that the purpose of administrative evaluation of teachers is to assist teachers in modifying their attitude toward their existing patterns of instruction in personalized, positive ways and, in the process, to understanding individual human limitations. Evaluation processes that stress improvement as their goal, as the Grosse Pointe process did in this study, have an execution problem not a conceptualization one when their docuemented procedures simply do not match their stated goals. Administrative influence stems from the ability to communicate clearly and effectively on issues of importance to instructional improvement in a collegial rather than authoritative way.

Marshall McLuan's work with communication in the twentieth century revealed that the message is often the medium itself. As a medium, written evaluations of instructional performance contain both direct and indirect messages that are capable of either stimulating or limiting a teacher's motivation for professional growth. McLuan's work showed that the visual effect of a written document can increase the impact of carefully planned thought transmission. Communicated meaning involves the double transformation of thoughts into words and words back again into thoughts, or as Aristotle explained, "Spoken words are the symbols of mental experience, and written words are the symbols of spoken words."[82] In a sense, understanding the limits of human information

processing helps understand the limits of single-perspectives views of messages that address people as uncomplicated, reward-driven performers. The knowledge gained in this study of how communication affects individual behavior in organizational settings attests to the belief of Swiss philosopher Henri-Fredric Amiel that management within groups is not necessarily group management.

> Each person's experience starts again from the beginning. Only institutions grow wiser. They acculumate collective experience; and, because of this experience and wisdom, people who accept commmon rules find that while their own nature remains unaltered, their behavior is gradually transformed.883

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Information Feedback Systems

Information about the state of a system is the ingredient from which decisions are generated. All system decisions implicitly or explicitly contain the concept of a desired state of affairs. The process whereby decisions attempt to adjust to actual conditions defines an information-feedback system; a decision function is deficient unless it is working toward some objective within the framework of the information system.

Smoothing of Information

The effort to detect underlying significant changes in information, while ignoring the superimposed, meaningless fluctuations is called smoothing or averaging. Smoothing of incoming information occurs at every decision-making point in the system. Intuitive smoothing is introduced by a Wait and See attitude in reaching decisions. Full and immediate action is seldom taken on a change of incoming information; this tendency to delay action is introduced by a judgment, or procrastination, or indeciveness.

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Noise

Random disturbances in information flow due to erratic signals are known as noise and serve as a problem to information accuracy to the extent that the system is sensitive to disturbance and cannot control or filter it.

Descriptive Knowledge

Verbal information which appears in the form of non-numerical data is known as descriptive knowledge which can be easily translated into quantitative form. Descriptive information almost always implies relative magnitudes and assumptions; attributing arbitrary scales and quantitave values to these concepts can provide orderliness without carrying any implications about accuracy. Descriptive information is rich in data about the probable form of decision functions under limiting conditions. Reluctance to use descriptive knowledge usually indicates a reluctance to create precise definitions and to set up arbitrary scales of measurement for the descriptive quantities; crystallized and clarified terms are essential.

Perceived versus Actual

The decision maker acts on what he perceives to be the state of affairs. This perception is usually not identical with the actual state of affairs, but depends on the sources of information used and the amount of prejudice and distortion with which the information is viewed. If a situation is viewed with preconceived judgments or "blindness," the system he analyzes may be the one he initiailly thought to be present or which he wished were present. A system image is apt to become a reflection of how the participants hope the system operates rather than a picture of how it does operate. Wishful thinking and strongly formed past prejudices are both hazards to successful appraisal, evaluation, and analysis.

Distortion

A fascination with methodology is apt to lead to a disproportionate amount of attention to peripheral questions of technique, a case of distortion of ends with means, or form with substance.

Performance Objective Model

Redfern(1963), Armstrong(1973), Iwanicki(1981) and others indicate that the most useful personnel evaluation programs will:

1. Engender cooperative efforts between the person being appraised and the ones doing the evaluating;

2. Foster good communicatiion between the parties;

3. Put premiums on identifying what needs improving, planning how to achieve the needed improvements, and determining how the results will be evaluated;

4. Promote professional growth and development of the person being appraised;

5. Stress the importance of evaluators becoming insightful and skilled in the art of evaluating;

6. Make a commitment to the proposition that the bottom line or the desired result is greater effectiveness in the teaching/learning/supervising process.

Management By Objective

Management by Objectives (MBO) is an administrative process in which all the efforts of the school system are organized to achieve specific results by a predeterminied date. These specific results must contribute to achieving the clearly stated long-range objectives of the school system. Odiorne(1965) described MBO as, "a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members." The goals to be achieved dictate almost everything that occurs in the system which tends to give MBO a strong accountability orientation.

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision takes its label and the assumption behind the concept from the initial work of Cogan(1973) and Goldhammer(1969). It is defined as the rationale and practice designed to improve a teacher's classroom

performance through a collegial professional relationship between a teacher and a supervisor who takes detailed observational data from the events of the classroom. Clinical supervision assumes that most teachers, when supplied with adequate information and allowed to act on it, can analyze, interpret, and decide in a self-directed and constructive manner. Most studies of Clinical supervision deal with the concept as a supervisory model rather than an evaluation procedure.

Organizational Design

Formal organization is distinguished from other social systems by the fact that it is designed to accomplish objectives. It is justified on the basis that it can accomplish goals more efficiently; that is, optimum behavior is more likely in formal organizations than it is in social groups that have no design. The purpose of design is to provide conditions which facilitate optimal attainment of objectives. Carzo and Yanouzas(1967) note that, "The organizational design, as well as the obectives which it is supposed to attain, must produced balanced values; balanced in the sense that they provide sufficient incentives to sustain cooperation from all participants."

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is persistent affective state which has arisen in the worker as a response to the total job situation. This affective state varies along a liike-dislike or an evaluative dimension. Satisfaction tends to depend on a worker's actual job situation, his perception of the situation, his expectations, and frames of reference for judging what constitutes adequate and inadequate rewards. Job satisfaction, as used in motivator-hygiene theory, refers not only to feelings of fulfillment and well-being, but also to a stron orientation about doing the job.

Input / Output Analysis

Input / Output analysis is a science that considers a system as a "black box" or an entity, and assumes that all that can really be known about the entitiy is what goes into the system and what comes out of it. An analysis of what goes in and what comes out can produce certain propositions: what comes out is a function of what goes in or the inputs to a system affect the outputs.

Power Relationships

The power relationships in a system are means by which things are altered and changed. Intra-organizational conflict is an example of bad adjustment and is often measured in terms of morale and satisfaction. Adjustment to conflict is often attempted by altering the styles of supervision used by administrators, or by reallocating reward and punishment systems, or by training, or through priority setting.

Other forces influencing power relationships within a system include:

unions - as channels of information adjustment from the lowest system levels to the highest;

computers - as speed and amount of information processing agents; their proper use can facilitate power adjustment;

organizational chart restructuring - as an alteration in the internal information network may adjust power relations;

THE GROSSE POINTE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM
TEACHER EVALUATION WRITTEN FORM

The purpose of the evaluation process is to regularly assess the performance of the professional staff in order to foster self-improvement, increase the effectiveness of instruction, and fulfill the contractual provisions between the Grosse Pointe Board of Education and The Grosse Pointe Education association - Local One.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Promotes achievement

Promotes personal growth of students

Uses quality processes

Manages student behavior fairly and

effectively

Uses sound evaluation procedures

Implements curriculum

Prepares and organizes effectively

Is knowledgeable in area of

responsibility

Contributes to school and departmental

activities

Communicates effectively with parents

Observes professional ethics

Follows established procedures

Optional goals and evaluation

Other

CODE BOOK

Columns 02-08   Code Number of each evaluation

Columns 09-13   Code Type of each evaluation:

> A male administrator/male teacher
> B female administrator/male teacher
> C male administrator/female teacher
> D female administrator/female teacher

Columns 14-20   Order of evaluation
analysis(1,2,...200)

Columns 21-25   Overall character of each evaluation:

> F formative evaluation (more than 50%
> of identified phrases serve as motivators)
> S summative evaluation (less than 50%
> of identified phrases serve as motivators)

Columns 26-31   Achievement motivator phrase frequencies

Columns 32-37   Recognition motivator frequencies

Columns 38-44   Responsibility motivator frequencies

Columns 45-49   Growth motivator frequencies

Columns 50-55   Work Itself motivator frequencies

Columns 56-61   School Policies hygiene frequencies

Columns 62-67   Supervisory Practices hygiene frequencies

Columns 68-73   Working Conditions hygiene frequencies

Code book for content analysis of teacher performance evaluations: frequencies of motivator-hygiene phrases.

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Coding Form: frequency counts of motivational components of teacher performance evaluations.

FOOTNOTES

FOOTNOTES

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