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The Development and Implementation of an Autonomy-Supportive Professional Development Model: Does it Affect Teachers' Intentions and Motivations to Provide Autonomy-Supportive Education?

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The Development and Implementation of an Autonomy-Supportive Professional

Development Model:

Does it Affect Teachers' Intentions and Motivations to Provide Autonomy-Supportive
Education?

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University of Missouri-St. Louis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
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This Dissertation in Practice (DIP) is the result of a three-year-long journey that began when a group of thirteen students and four mentors came together to deeply study the topic of Character Education and Democratic School Governance (CEDSG), hence the name of this cohort group. It became evident during the journey, somewhere around year two, that groups were beginning to cluster around common interests that would later evolve into our DIP research groups. As we prepared to enter the dissertation phase of our program, our mentors would often speak to us about finding a research topic that “sings to our hearts,” one for which we felt a connection and passion. For some of us that passion is centered on creating and sustaining elements that support empowerment in schools.

While the empowerment group has changed and evolved this past year, we have worked collaboratively to support each other during this process. This began at the end of year two as we met weekly with our mentors, Dr. Brenda Bredemeier and Dr. David Shields, to cull through the literature surrounding empowerment in schools. During this initial process, we shared research and resources, and worked on various pieces of our literature review sections collaboratively. As time progressed, it became apparent that the original members of our group would work more individually to define their research topics, leading to the individual literature reviews for the DIPs of the empowerment group members.

I completed a review of the literature based on Self-determination Theory for the professional development model introduced in this study. Phillip Boyd helped me develop and implement the PD sessions, based on that research, that were done at the experimental school. Phillip and I met with administration to discuss the study, met to

plan the PD, and collaborated before and after each PD session. We also worked together on the qualitative data analyses.

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Table of Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	2
LIST OF TABLES.....	10
LIST OF FIGURES.....	11
ABSTRACT.....	12
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	14
Introduction.....	14
Research Problem.....	16
Literature Review.....	17
Self-Determination Theory (SDT).....	17
Autonomy.....	18
Relatedness.....	21
Competence.....	22
Autonomy Supports: Educational Aims.....	24
Youth empowerment.....	25
Power-sharing.....	28
Democracy in education.....	30
Autonomy Supports: Classroom Practices.....	33
Developmental Discipline.....	33
Voice and choice.....	37
Class meetings.....	43
Autonomy Supports: Professional Development.....	47

Autonomy Supports: Enhancing Autonomy, Relatedness, and Competence for Teachers.....	49
Summary	52
Purpose Statement.....	53
Research Questions.....	54
CHAPTER TWO: AUTONOMY-SUPPORTIVE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (PD) MODEL.....	55
Research Team.....	55
Conceptual Description.....	56
Understanding and Alignment.....	56
Realization (Autonomy-Supportive Teaching Benefits Teachers & Students).....	60
Understanding and Refinement of Autonomy-Supportive Instructional Behaviors.....	61
Implementation.....	69
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS.....	87
Introduction.....	87
Setting, Sampling and Participants	88
Data Collection	93
Measures	93
Quantitative Measures.....	94
Demographics	94
Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS).....	95
Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS).....	96
Qualitative Measure	98

Procedures.....	100
Data Analysis.....	103
Quantitative.....	103
Qualitative.....	104
Quality Standards.....	106
Quantitative Quality Standards: Scale Reliabilities.....	107
Qualitative Quality Standards.....	108
CHAPTER FOUR: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS.....	111
Intentions to Use Autonomy Supports: Preliminary Analyses.....	111
Demographics.....	112
PBIS.....	114
Intentions to Use Autonomy Supports: Main Analyses.....	115
Motivations to Use Autonomy Supports: Preliminary Analyses.....	115
Demographics.....	117
PBIS.....	119
Motivations to Use Autonomy Supports: Main Analyses.....	119
CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE RESULTS.....	122
Category 1: Intrinsic Motivation.....	125
Trust in Student Competence.....	126
Social.....	126
Academic.....	127
Democratic.....	128
Letting Go of Control Model of Schooling.....	129

Teacher Experiences and the Awareness of the Need to Let Go of Control Model	
.....	130
Dependence on Rewards.....	131
Parents as Partners.....	134
Systems of Rewards and Consequences.....	134
Category 2: Trusting Adult Culture	135
Risk/Safety	136
Conversation/Sharing Out.....	137
Peer Observations.....	138
Relationship Building	140
In and Outside School.....	140
Category 3: District and Building Alignment.....	141
Shared Mindset	141
Staff Buy-in.....	142
Training.....	143
Policies and Practices.....	143
Curriculum.....	144
Leadership.....	145
Accountability.....	145
Category 4: Dealing with Diverse Needs.....	146
SES/Class.....	146
Empathy	148
Student Accountability.....	148

Social Background.....	149
Professional Development (PD) Model.....	150
Strengths.....	150
Suggested Improvements.....	154
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION.....	157
Summary.....	157
Research Question 1: Was the PD Effective?.....	158
Quantitative Results.....	158
Quantitative Limitations.....	159
Sample Size.....	159
Time.....	160
Conflicting Approach (PBIS versus Autonomy Supports).....	162
Structural Incongruences.....	165
Qualitative Results.....	165
Adoption of New Practices.....	165
Interest in Further Development.....	166
Research Question 2: What Insights Were Gained?.....	166
Intrinsic Motivation.....	168
Adult Culture.....	169
Need for Alignment.....	170
Dealing with Diversity.....	173
Summary: Content and Process.....	174
Research Question 3: What Recommendations were Offered?.....	175

Implications for Future Directions: Research	1758
Implications for Future Directions: Practice.....	181
REFERENCES	1844
Appendix A: PD Exit Slip.....	200
Appendix B: Online PD Supports: Bibliography and Other Information.....	201
Appendix C: Teacher Preferences: PD Topics and Learning Style.....	205
Appendix D: Focus Group Protocol.....	207
Appendix E: Demographic Survey Information.....	208
Appendix F: Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports.....	210
Appendix G: The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS).....	212
Appendix H: Informed Consent: General	217
Appendix I: Informed Consent: Focus Group Interview.....	219
Appendix J: Complete Coding Chart.....	221

List of Tables

Table 1: Number of Study Participants.....	90
Table 2: Demographic Description of Participants: Age.....	91
Table 3: Demographic Description of Participants: Gender.....	91
Table 4: Demographic Description of Participants: Experience.....	91
Table 5: Demographic Description of Participants: Racial Identity.....	92
Table 6: Novice Teacher Focus Group.....	93
Table 7: Veteran Teacher Focus Group.....	93
Table 8: Study Timeline.....	101
Table 9: Regression of Gender and School on Teachers' Intentions.....	113
Table 10: Regression of Age and School on Teachers' Intentions.....	113
Table 11: Regression of Experience and School on Teachers' Intentions.....	114
Table 12: Regression of PBIS (Always Use) on Teachers' Intentions.....	115
Table 13: TIPSAS Mean Scores and T-Test Results.....	115
Table 14: Regression of Gender and School on Teachers' Motivations.....	118
Table 15: Regression of Age and School on Teachers' Motivations.....	118
Table 16: Regression of Experience and School on Teachers' Motivations.....	119
Table 17: Regression of PBIS (Always Use) on Teachers' Motivations.....	119
Table 18: PIS Mean Scores and T-Test Results.....	120
Table 19: Distribution of Scores: PIS.....	121
Table 20: Focus Group Interview Protocol.....	122
Table 21: Coding Chart: Structures.....	123

List of Figures

Figure 1: Average Scores on TIPSAS.....112

Figure 2: Average Scores on PIS.....117

Abstract

Structures in schools often fail to support and encourage students to be active agents in their own learning. Self-determination theory (SDT) provides a theoretical framework for educational reform intending to encourage empowering supports for teachers and students. The purpose of this Dissertation in Practice (DIP) project was to design and implement an autonomy-supportive professional development (PD) model and to test the efficacy of this PD model to enhance teachers' intentions and motivations to support their students' autonomy. This dissertation presents a quasi-experimental study utilizing two intact groups of teachers at two different elementary schools.

The PD model was intended to be need supportive of the teachers (process) in terms of delivery and aimed to increase teachers' knowledge and understanding (content) of providing students with autonomy supports. Teachers in the comparison group participated in standard PD. This autonomy-supportive PD model aimed to increase teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students with autonomy supports in the classroom. Self-reports from teachers were gathered in the form of interviews and surveys to learn about the teachers' understanding of autonomy-supportive schooling and their experiences during the PD. While the survey results were not conclusive, an analysis of the interview data revealed four categories impacting the teachers' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy-supports for students: (1) intrinsic motivation, (2) trusting adult culture, (3) district and building alignment, and (4) dealing with diverse needs. Furthermore, a content analysis was conducted of participants' statements about and appraisals of the professional development (PD). The qualitative data analyses shed

light on how the PD impacted the teachers and provided anecdotal evidence of their intentions and motivations to become more aligned with autonomy-supportive practice. Importantly, these teachers were motivated to learn and practice pedagogy aligned with autonomy-supportive processes along with an openness and willingness to become more autonomy-supportive in their classrooms.

Chapter One: Introduction and Review of the Literature

Introduction

The following section reviews scholarly literature related to autonomy-supportive schooling. Self-determination theory (SDT) provides a theoretical framework for the exploration of basic human needs and how those needs can be met within the context of a school. According to SDT, humans seek to fulfill three basic needs: competence, relatedness (belonging), and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2002). These “human needs specify the necessary conditions for psychological health or well-being and their satisfaction is thus hypothesized to be associated with the most effective functioning” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 229). An educational setting or a school culture that is supportive of basic need satisfaction helps provide the nutrients that aid in the flourishing of all members of the school community (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014). In particular, research will be presented that describes an autonomy-supportive learning environment and the impacts on teachers and students.

Dewey & Dewey (1962) wrote, “We have been concerned with the more fundamental changes in education, with the awakening of the schools to a realization of the fact that their work ought to prepare children for the life they are to lead in the world” (p. 288). However, school structures often lack a democratic purpose; instead they disempower young people and disregard student voice and choice, failing to see students as contributing members of the school community. Throughout the school day, young people are told by adults what to do, how to do it, and when to do it. More importantly, disempowering school structures fail to support basic psychological needs for human growth. Policy makers, administrators, and educators through the hierarchal nature of

schools reinforce societal and cultural assumptions about young people. “Decisions about power, voice, and decision-making connected to young people...are determined by societal expectations and structures rather than biological differences” (DeJong & Love, 2013, p. 535).

An autonomy-supportive environment describes a climate where those helping to facilitate learning provide relevant information, while taking the perspective of the learner into account, and find opportunities for choice and meaningful interaction thereby minimizing control (Reeve, 2006, 2009; Williams, 2002). This autonomy-supportive environment helps to enhance the needs for relatedness and competence as well (Deci & Ryan, 2013). “Not only does a psychological-need-supportive environment enhance learning outcomes, but it also facilitates holistic health development, and the overall well-being of the growing person” (Ryan & Deci, 2013, p. 203). Furthermore, when basic needs are met, individuals are more likely to “internalize and integrate the materials being presented” (Williams, 2002, p. 238). Teachers that understand autonomy-supportive schooling encourage and support students’ need satisfaction and provide an empowering classroom environment. Literature reviewed will describe empowering classroom practices that autonomy-supportive of students.

A professional development (PD) model that is both need-supportive of the adult members and aims to increase teachers’ knowledge and understanding of providing students with autonomy-supports can help teachers learn ways to support students with developmentally sensitive practices that both respect and empower young people. Thus, throughout this dissertation, the autonomy-supportive PD model refers to both content

and process. Additionally, in this study teachers' motivation orientation and intentions to provide students with autonomy supports will be explored.

Research Problem

Young people in schools across America are immersed in a system that, by its very structure, fails to recognize them as active agents who partner in learning. “[T]oo often educators introduce external controls, close supervision and monitoring, and evaluations accompanied by rewards or punishments into learning climates” (Niemi & Ryan, 2009, p. 134). Sadly, when educators rely on external models to interpret the behavior of young people, they fail to recognize the underlying causes of acting-out behaviors such as learning difficulties, abuse or neglect, children harassed for being different, or children behind academically adding to the marginalization of the neediest of students (Noguera, 2003).

External models of control in schools reinforce the disempowerment of young people and fail to support basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Young people often have little voice and choice in terms of their daily experiences at school. Research has shown that autonomy-supportive education is conducive to students' intrinsic motivation that in turn supports creativity and leads to greater student learning (Ryan & Deci, 2013). There is a need for teacher education aimed at helping teachers understand school structures that support basic need satisfaction so that teachers can rethink practices to be autonomy-supportive of students and empower young people to reach their fullest potential.

Literature Review

The tenets of Self-determination Theory (SDT) including the basic human needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, as well as their impact on educational settings, will be explored in detail. This will be followed by a review of research surrounding autonomy-supportive practices for both students and teachers.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Self-determination Theory (SDT) provides a theoretical lens that helps educators reflect upon and evaluate practices and processes within educational settings. “SDT begins by embracing the assumption that all individuals have natural, innate, and constructive tendencies to develop an ever more elaborated and unified sense of self” (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 5). Young people, as well as adults, are viewed as growth-oriented, active participants in their environment who seek to fulfill three basic needs: competence, relatedness (belonging), and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2002). When these three needs are met, young people and all human beings will be intrinsically motivated to learn (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

SDT “assumes a fundamental human trajectory toward vitality, integration, and health, and further assumes that this organismic tendency will be actualized so long as the necessary and appropriate nutrients are attainable but will give way to the emergence of nonoptimal psychological outcomes under conditions of threat or deprivation” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 229).

Specifically, when applied to young people, “SDT is of much import in the domain of education, in which students’ natural tendencies to learn represent perhaps the greatest resource educators can tap” (Niemi & Ryan, 2009, p. 134). SDT helps to provide a theoretical framework for applying developmentally appropriate strategies to

the classroom that help teachers honor the innate desire of young people to learn. If you believe one of the key goals of education is for the development, flourishing, and learning of young people for the good of each young person, then SDT and psychological need satisfaction (PNS) is foundational in understanding how to create healthy school environments that support individually-perceived PNS (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014).

Autonomy. According to SDT, autonomy is one of three basic psychological needs that all people require for healthy development and functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2002; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Educators who understand SDT support psychological need satisfaction (PNS) for autonomy through classroom structures and processes. In a study of teachers' autonomy-supportive versus controlling style, Reeve & Jang (2006) defined autonomy support as "the interpersonal behavior one person provides to involve and nurture another person's internally focused, volitional intentions to act, such as when a teacher supports a student's psychological needs (e.g., autonomy, competence, relatedness), interests, preferences, and values" (p. 210). "When autonomous, individuals experience their behavior as an expression of the self, such that, even when actions are influenced by outside sources, the actors concur with those influences, feeling both initiative and value with regard to them" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 8).

In SDT, autonomy relates to experiences of freedom and self-integration rather than being defined in terms of perceived locus of control or independence (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2002). Autonomous regulation means to be self-governing. In SDT, one can be autonomously dependent on another such as in the case of needing help or support from

someone else (Deci & Ryan, 2013). The key is that the individual is seeking the person's support on his or her own volition.

Individual needs for autonomy can be supported by significant people in the person's environment such as teachers' and their autonomy-supportive behaviors in the classroom (Leptokaridou, Vlachopoulos, & Papaioannou, 2014). Teachers within the social context of the classroom are autonomy-supportive when they "recognize students as unique volitional beings by acknowledging their perspective, providing meaningful rationales for performing less interesting activities, and offering opportunities for making meaningful choices" (Ratelle & Duchesne, 2014, p. 396). For example, when students are given a say in classroom management and academic decision-making (voice) and when they are allowed to do the things that are important to them (choice), then autonomy is greatly enhanced (Watson & Benson, 2008; Watson & Ecken, 2003), intrinsic motivation is more likely to occur (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001), and students will view themselves as responsible (Watson & Benson, 2008). In SDT, *responsible* refers to the individual as the source of autonomous self-regulation and self-motivation (Reeve, 2009).

School and classroom environments that are supportive of psychological need satisfaction (PNS) encourage intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and enhance learning outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2013). "Intrinsically-motivated behaviors are those that are freely engaged out of interest without the necessity of separable consequences, and to be maintained, they require satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and competence" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233). Teachers that are autonomy-supportive motivate through student interest while supporting students' needs for competence and relatedness (Reeve, 2002). These teachers provide students with opportunities for autonomous exploration in

the classroom and work to relate learning goals and objectives to students' interests to foster relevance that leads to intrinsic motivation. "Autonomy-supportive teachers first and foremost consider their students' frame of reference in designing and motivating learning tasks. They minimize the sense of coercion, evaluative pressure, and control, and they maximize a sense of choice and volitional engagement" (Ryan & Deci, 2013, p. 199).

According to Reeve (2002) "[e]ngagement is a useful concept for applying [SDT] to educational settings because it provides teachers with an observable manifestation of the quality of a student's motivation" (p. 194). According to SDT, classroom environments where students feel connected and experience autonomy supports lead to engagement in school activities (Ryan & Powelson, 1991).

In educational contexts and tasks where students experience support for their autonomy, and where they feel connected to and supported by significant others, they are likely to be highly motivated. By contrast, in contexts that are controlling (vs. autonomy-supportive) and where persons feel disconnected or unrelated to significant others, alienation and disengagement are the likely outcome. (Ryan & Powelson, 1991, p. 53).

Providing students with choices that are of interest to them in the classroom helps encourage students to take an active role in their learning and leads to even greater engagement while supporting intrinsic motivation (Evans & Boucher, 2015).

Kohn (2014), in a discussion of parenting styles calls an autonomy-supportive style of parenting a "working with approach" (p. 189). We can borrow from Kohn's description and apply it to the role of the educator. Rather than a hierarchal model of

teacher as the ultimate classroom authority, or benevolent dictator, teachers “provide guidance, assist [young people] in becoming more skilled and confident at deciding, and let them know we’re there to help when they need it (not when we need them to need us)” (Kohn, 2014, p. 189). Educators who embrace a “working with approach” to schooling are much more likely to view students as partners in learning. This philosophical approach aligns with SDT and leads to a more empowered view of students. Healthy adult/student relationships, based on mutual trust and respect, are central to autonomy-supportive teaching.

Relatedness. Relatedness (belonging) is the basic psychological need to feel connected to others in a warm, supportive, caring, and secure way (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Watson, 2007). There is a reciprocal nature to relatedness, that of loving and caring for and being loved and cared for by others that develops and supports the basic need to belong. Relatedness in the classroom means that young people must trust that the classroom environment is safe and accepting. “Once children learn to trust their caregivers (parents or teachers), they enter into a collaborative partnership with them—a partnership in service of the child’s social, emotional, moral, and intellectual development” (Watson & Benson, 2008, p. 51). Children need to connect to and be accepted by others within their community, including their classmates (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Watson & Benson, 2008). It is up to the teacher to help ensure that the classroom both provides for and sustains trusting relationships amongst all of the classroom members. Teachers help to foster trusting relationships by conveying warmth and unconditional regard for all students, fostering positive connections amongst students, utilizing cooperative learning strategies, creating a culture that is built upon kindness, and

facilitating the reparation of hurts in a fair and timely manner (Dalton & Watson, 1997; Watson, 2007; Watson & Benson, 2008). A sense of belonging or relatedness is critical to the development of perceived competence and autonomy, as trusting relationships are central to a caring classroom and school environment (Watson & Ecken, 2003).

Competence. Perceived competence is a self-sense of confidence to be effective in the social environment and to act upon one's capacities (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). "Competence is not, then, an attained skill or capability, but rather is a felt sense of confidence and effectance in action" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7). SDT regards the PNS of effectance or competence as necessary for psychological health and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). From early life, humans have a general goal-oriented aim for competence in social interactions as well as the physical environment (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The need for competence therefore leads people to choose tasks that are equal to their capacities (Deci & Ryan, 2002), tasks that they can understand and master (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Competent students feel a "sense of confidence and effectance in action" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7). Furthermore, when humans perceive success they are more likely to maintain task engagement thus reinforcing positive self-perceptions of competence and tend to avoid or discontinue tasks when they perceive failure (Poulsen, Rodger, & Ziviani, 2006). Dalton and Watson (1997), while describing competence in the classroom suggested, "When children are offered a choice of learning tasks, those that are worried about their competence choose learning tasks that are far too difficult to do successfully or far too easy to provide meaningful challenge" (p. 165).

While facilitating learning with young people, the role of the teacher is to recognize the student's need for perceived competence and to provide appropriate support for the student when faced with uncomfortable or difficult tasks or situations. This is not an easy task as children enter the classroom demonstrating different levels of perceived competence in academic and social settings, as well as the physical domain, which reflects greatly in their behavior in the classroom. Teachers must know their students' strengths, weaknesses, and individual interests in order to provide for and support the healthy development of perceived competence. "The concept of engaging in an activity that is challenging but attainable creates a climate where self-perceptions of competency in performing the activity are possible" (Poulsen et al., 2006, p. 84).

SDT and need satisfaction provides an empirical framework for those working in the field of education who seek to create optimal learning conditions. "Social environments play a critical role in learning and development by either supporting or diminishing people's natural intrinsic motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 2013, p. 22). Schools and classrooms that seek to support these three inherent basic needs provide a rich environment for healthy development and well-being, nurture the intrinsic motivation of students to learn, and support psychological health and growth (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Importantly, SDT as applied within the context of schools, supports the development of a healthy school culture that is respectful of all school members. "Autonomy, competence, and supportive relationships are not just good ideas, they are human needs shared by everyone who walks through the classroom door-student or teacher" (Streight, 2013, p. 9).

Autonomy supports: Educational aims. Consistently, research has shown that students benefit from autonomy-supportive pedagogy and practice. In a study of autonomy-supportive teaching, students reported greater motivation, skill development, and academic achievement (Leptokaridou, Vlachopoulos, & Papaioannou, 2014). Reeve (2009) reported results of 44 data-based studies on teacher motivating style (autonomy-supportive vs. controlling) indicating the student benefits of an autonomy-supportive teaching orientation. “The dependent measures utilized in these studies included a wide range of important outcomes and indices of positive functioning covering students’ motivation, engagement, development, learning performance, and psychological well-being” (Reeve, 2009, p. 162).

Recognizing that autonomy-supportive teaching not only promotes positive student outcomes but also leads to greater teacher psychological satisfaction can help strengthen the case for changes in teaching practice. “Teachers who relate to students in autonomy-supportive ways may experience more positive personal outcomes, such as greater need satisfaction and psychological well-being” (Reeve, 2009, p. 167). Roth et al. (2007) studied teachers’ autonomous motivation for teaching and related impact on teachers’ thoughts and feelings about their work and found positive associations. They concluded that “school principals can promote teachers’ autonomous motivation for teaching (and consequently students’ autonomy) by encouraging teachers’ participation in major decisions, by delegating authority, by making an effort to gain some understanding of the needs of each teacher” (Roth et al., 2007, p. 770). Research done by Gorozidis & Papaioannou (2014) supported this notion finding “that if teachers are autonomously motivated towards training, they will be more determined to participate in

such training... which can produce positive impact to their students and the successful adoption of the innovation” (p. 8). Supporting teachers’ autonomy needs is an important part of school reform efforts.

An autonomy-supportive PD model is the intervention strategy for this research because when people, in this case teachers, both experience and learn to support someone’s autonomy, they also experience and learn to support relatedness and competence.

When people support someone’s autonomy, they typically also support that person’s relatedness and competence, for example by providing warmth and acknowledging effective performance. Second, when someone experiences satisfaction of the autonomy need, that person typically feels free to behave in ways that yield satisfaction of the competence and relatedness needs. (Deci & Ryan, 2013, pp. 33-34)

A need-supportive school environment such as described above is more conducive to youth empowerment as described in the following section.

Youth empowerment. Schools, where adults hold positions of authority as compared to students, perpetuate power differentials between adults and young people (Robinson & Taylor, 2012). If one believes that empowerment is about using the potential power within each of us as a resource, then the key is for people to recognize and act upon the power within that they already possess (Checkoway, 1996). Based on this view, how can educators support youth to help them recognize and act upon their power within? Jennings, Parr-Medina, Hilfinger-Messias, & McLoughlin (2006) developed a critical social theory of youth empowerment following an in-depth study of

youth empowerment models. Four empowerment models, both theoretical and practice-based, were examined leading to a composite view of youth empowerment (Jennings et al., 2006). They concluded, “Critical youth empowerment (CYE) encompasses those processes and contexts through which youth engage in actions that create change in organizational, institutional, and societal policies, structures, values, norms, and images” (Jennings et al., 2006, p. 40). As a result of their analysis, they described six key dimensions or attributes of CYE:

- A welcoming and safe environment;
- Meaningful participation and engagement;
- Equitable power-sharing between youth and adults;
- Engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and sociopolitical processes;
- Participation in sociopolitical processes to effect change; and
- Integrated individual- and community-level empowerment

(Jennings et al., 2006, p. 41).

These dimensions provide key insights for adults working in schools and a means for evaluating current educational practices in terms of supporting or hindering youth empowerment.

McQuillan (2005) discussed three dimensions of student empowerment in school: academic empowerment (intellectual skills), political empowerment where students have authentic power and influence within school, and social empowerment such as engaging in interactive, social experiences and empowering pedagogical practices. Jennings et al.’s

(2006) six dimensions of CYE together with McQuillan's three dimensions of student empowerment form a more detailed description of youth empowerment in schools.

Changes in power structures within schools are complex and require direct, intentional discussions between involved stakeholders. For example, even in instances where practices are put in place to empower student voice, the presence of adults as authority figures as well as the students' pre-conceived notions of what they can and cannot influence in school impacts student choices and actions (Robinson & Taylor, 2012). This can cause a false impression of empowered youth.

In an ethnographic study of youth attending Green Shoots, an urban farming school, Ceaser (2014) discovered that even when proclaiming to be a school "focused on addressing social/environmental injustice and empowering youth" (p.167), actual youth experiences were anything but empowered. "Youth learned that even those who talk about social justice still expect youth to be subservient to the demands of adults, to not be considered equals in adult-youth conversations and to have unequal work demands placed on them" (Ceaser, 2014, p. 179).

Empowerment in relation to the role of the educator has at the core a moral purpose. Educators "seek to empower students in order to affirm their dignity, and support their potential as civic and moral agents [whereby] the educational effort at empowerment is not a value-neutral activity, to which we need to add moral goals. Rather, it is inherently infused with moral aims" (D. L. Shields, personal communication, January 31, 2015). Simon (1987) relays the importance of reaching beyond the goals of the classroom in what he describes as a "pedagogy of possibility" (p. 370). "When I speak about a pedagogy of empowerment, I am speaking of an educational practice that is

aimed at enabling a particular moral project, a particular “not yet” of how we might live our lives together” (Simon, 1987, p. 372).

Power-sharing. One cannot give empowerment but only create an opportunity to share power with others. Specifically, in relation to teaching and learning, empowerment takes on a more complex meaning than the typical definition of “to give power or authority to.” This definition implies a power differential or imbalance with one giving power or authority to another. Rather, Wong (2014) suggested in education that “teacher-student power-sharing (power-with) is the basis of student empowerment, and involves the sharing of power and responsibility” (p. 9). “Power-sharing is a positive force characterized by and based on equal relationships between/among people rather than domination” (Wong, 2014, p. 8).

Several factors influence power-sharing within the classroom including the teachers’ understanding of power-sharing and belief in the students’ ability (power-to) (Wong, 2014) as well as student willingness to assume power. “One of the fundamental tensions associated with empowerment is simply the fact that quite often empowerment entails assuming responsibility and not everyone welcomes such opportunities, or perceives such situations as “opportunities” at all” (McQuillan, 1995, p. 29).

The CYE dimensions listed in the above section can help teachers understand supports that encourage reciprocity or power-sharing with young people beginning with a welcoming and safe classroom environment. “Environments conducive to CYE are those in which youth have a sense of ownership and yet are challenged and supported to move beyond their usual comfort zone; such environments are co-created by youth and adults” (Jennings et al., 2006, p. 41). Practices that incorporate student ideas and language into

the culture of the classroom and school encourage a welcoming and safe classroom, supporting student voice. Interestingly, “there is a synergy to the empowerment process” in that “having students’ exercise a voice in school matters can enhance academic performance, enrich students’ understanding of democratic citizenship, and make schools more responsive institutions” (McQuillan, 2005, p. 664).

How do teachers and other adult leaders balance support and guidance with authentic student voice and decision-making? “From a CYE perspective, a role of adult leaders is to create and maintain a balance of providing support without domination. In practice, this was observed as having high expectations for youth to take the lead, yet being available and providing guidance and support when needed” (Jennings et al., 2006, p. 45). This may be easier said than done as research on youth empowerment in school reform has shown struggles in the area of negotiation of power between adults and young people (Mitra, 2005). “Indeed, student empowerment is difficult to enact because doing so requires not only altering traditional structures and practices, but changing beliefs and values as well, in particular how we conceptualize the most fundamental element of our educational system: students” (McQuillan, 2005, p. 665). Authentic youth empowerment requires that young people become co-creators with adults in defining roles within a power-sharing model of school reform. Because individuals experience and interpret empowerment in multiple ways, it is through voice and choice (autonomy) within educational experiences that students are empowered (McQuillan, 1995). Important to empowered, autonomous support for students is a comfort and commitment to deeply explore power-sharing, thereby providing a more democratic school environment.

Democracy in education. Schools exist to educate young people. In the last century, education and democracy have been intertwined and viewed as inseparable (Moss, 2011). Democracy is often viewed as a basic value and practice in education while education is seen as a way to sustain and strengthen democracy (Edelstein, 2011; Moss, 2011).

What kind of people do we want our children to become? Do we hope they'll be willing to question the existing order, to be outraged by outrageous things, to demand changes in unfair schools and workplaces? Or is the primary point to get them to conform to whatever exists? (Kohn, 2014, p. 179)

Dewey (1916/1996) believed that to educate children meant to prepare them to become active participants in a democratic society in that educators not only teach reading, writing, and arithmetic but also must provide young people with opportunities to think critically, develop a sense of efficacy, and make decisions that impact their learning. Dewey (1916/1996) believed that schools, and teachers, should provide children with opportunities to develop practical life skills in classrooms where democracy is nurtured and practiced. However, Meier (2003) suggests that schools today are not nurturing the democratic mission, "We have lost sight of the traditional public function of schools: to pass on the skills, aptitudes, and habits needed for a democratic way of life" (p. 16). In contrast to a more democratic school experience for young people, today's classrooms perpetuate adultism. Adultism "refers to behaviors and attitudes based on the assumption that adults are better than young people, and entitled to act upon young people without their agreement" (Bell, 1995, para. 2). At the core of adultism is the lack of respect for young people (Bell, 1995; Brett, 2011a). Adultism implies "[young people] cannot be

trusted to develop correctly, so they must be taught, disciplined, harnessed, punished, and guided into the adult world” (Brett, 2011a, p. 2).

Most young people appropriate this idea of adultism as generated by society because the disempowerment of youth is so culturally entrenched. “[F]or the most part, the adult world considers this treatment of young people acceptable because we were treated in much the same way, and internalized the idea “that’s the way you treat kids” (Bell, 1995, para. 1). The behavior of adults and young people is judged by different standards and held to different expectations in our culture (Brett, 2011b). This is evident in schools when different rules exist for youth as compared to adults. For example, adults frequently stop to talk with peers in the hallways, rush hurriedly when late to meet a class, or talk during staff meetings and yet students are expected to walk in line and to be quiet in the halls and classrooms. “[Young people] spend their entire childhood identifying with the perspective of adults” (Bonnichsen, 2003, p. 3), gladly shedding the stigma of youth as they reach adulthood.

This idea of adult power over youth is so entrenched in our culture that even those who are advocates for social justice often have difficulty “walking the talk.” In an ethnographic study of a school built upon principles of equality and fairness, Ceaser (2014) discovered how youth quickly learn that they do the hard work while adults stand around talking about social justice.

Educators who perpetuate adultism “impede the growth and development of children by excluding them from opportunities to develop creative solutions to the issues that influence their lives (Tate & Copas, 2003). Rather, in order to sustain and strengthen democracy through education, young people must be exposed to practices that provide

them with opportunities to cultivate democratic experiences that will allow them to grow in their competencies (Edelstein, 2011).

As school districts and their governing bodies search for ways to address school improvement, a more democratic approach to education supports such growth. Mallory & Reavis (2007) wrote, “A democracy-centered school has great potential for filling the gap of school culture and school improvement” (p. 10). Current research sheds light on the importance of democracy in education and provides examples of school and classroom practices that promote democratic school experiences and support individual PNS (Angell, 1998; Deci et al., 2001). When teachers adopt democratic classroom practices, they can develop positive relationships with and amongst students, encourage self-expression, and provide a platform for student input in their educational experiences (Kaveney & Drewery, 2011). Practices such as a developmentally-aligned discipline model, class meetings, and intentional and systemic methods that provide opportunities for student voice and choice support and encourage youth empowerment, support autonomy, and combat adultism.

It is important to note that while such democratic practices provide structure for youth empowerment, above all else, adults in schools need to be mindful of the underlying and fundamental reason why these practices are important; i.e., that these practices support the well-being of children. “Even relatively benign strategies designed to enhance social and emotional learning are sometimes motivated less by a desire to foster kids’ well-being than by a hope that teaching them to regulate (rather than express) their feelings will make it easier for adults to manage them and keep them ‘on task’” (Kohn, 2014, p. 171). Adults concerned about authentic empowerment must ask

themselves who benefits from such practices (Kohn, 2014)? We must be open and willing to take a long hard look at all that we do in schools for the sake of the betterment of youth and their healthy development and be sure that indeed that is what is being done.

Autonomy supports: Classroom practices. Conditions within the classroom environment can help students to be more actively engaged, curious, and proactive in their learning while supporting their inner motivational resources (Reeve, 2006).

Autonomy-supportive teachers use a range of approaches and practices that help facilitate students' needs that are described below. These autonomy-supportive practices are important professional development (PD) learning outcomes for the teachers who participated in this study.

Developmental Discipline. Healthy child development is supported when children can interact with their environment in a way that is supportive and nurturing of their inner resources. Zachlod (1996) points out that discipline develops over time:

As a long-term observer of children, I have noticed that they acquire self-discipline that is lasting and transferable. They also build on what they already know as they proceed to adulthood. Children become confident, active participants in their own learning by learning to use their own inner resources. (Zachlod, 1996, p. 51)

It is noteworthy that Larry Nucci adds the additional moral concept of fairness to the three developmental needs defined by SDT. "The development of trust and self-discipline in schools and classrooms builds on four basic needs of children: autonomy, belonging, competence, and fairness" (Nucci, 2009, p. 69). Often, rather than support

these basic child development needs, classroom and school discipline policies and practices are manipulative attempts using rewards and punishments rather than connected to students' intrinsic reasons for doing something (Nucci, 2009). These controlling and manipulative discipline policies offer glaring examples of adultist treatment of students. Policies are written to address rules and expected behaviors along with the pre-determined consequences that are to be followed when a rule is broken or an expected behavior is not demonstrated. In some situations, staff input may be sought in writing the policies but student input is rarely sought. "It is rare for a school to seek student input on matters related to discipline even though their buy-in is essential if schools are to succeed in creating an environment that is conducive to learning" (Noguera, 2007, p. 208). In addition, discipline policies usually do not reflect a philosophy of helping children to develop as self-regulated, caring individuals. As Streight (2014) wrote, "...rarely do schools have discipline philosophies. The policy's "what we do" is ideally, but rarely, based on the philosophy's "what we want to achieve and the principles we are committed to" (p. 90). Similarly, behavior policies and classroom management plans are often written with the purpose of controlling student behaviors and imposing adult-determined consequences or punishments when the behaviors are not followed (Lewis & Schaps, 1995). "Teachers are aware that controlling is culturally valued" (Reeve, 2009).

Practices and policies aimed at controlling students with punishments for non-compliance support adultism and do not allow children to develop internal guidelines for their behaviors. "They make students reliant on adult surveillance, and they stigmatize poorly behaved children, further undermining their sense of belonging and their bonds with adults and peers" (Lewis & Schaps, 1995, p. 554). Discipline practices such as these

can lead to disempowered students. However, discipline practices can be implemented that seek to empower students and support their social and moral development.

Importantly, developmentally supportive discipline practices offer a powerful opportunity to encourage autonomy, belonging, and competence in the lives of young people.

Developmental Discipline is philosophically rooted in SDT and offers insight into student behavior and misbehavior based on respect of students. When discipline practices are aligned with SDT, they create an environment that is supportive of healthy child development and empowerment. “When applied to school in general, [the principles of SDT] become proactive in shaping behaviors helpful to community life” (Streight, 2014, p. 90). Students are partners in their discipline and such encounters are viewed as opportunities to encourage social competence, strengthen a sense of belonging or connectedness, and increase autonomy (Watson, 2007). At its core, Developmental Discipline focuses on building warm, caring relationships with and amongst students, views discipline interventions as opportunities for moral and social growth, and encourages autonomy by honoring student voice if at all possible (Streight, 2014; Watson, 2007). “Developmental Discipline places more emphasis on building relationships than on controlling students” (Watson, 2014, p. 181). Strategies such as collaborative problem solving, induction, social reminders, social skill building, reparation, community building, reflection, student choice, and restitution all support a developmentally-framed discipline process (Streight, 2014; Watson, 2007; Watson & Benson, 2008). “The goal [of Developmental Discipline] is not to offer a tailor-made response to each misbehavior, as might happen with a discipline policy, but rather to develop the best possible response that can be envisioned both to remedy the situation

and to further longer-term goals, one of which is certainly to foster self-regulation of behavior” (Streight, 2014, p. 91). Flicker and Hoffman (2006) described Developmental Discipline as a dynamic process:

Developmental Discipline is based on the conviction that learning rules for behavior is a dynamic and constant process that begins in infancy and requires continued interaction and guidance from parents and teachers. The fluidity of an exchange between adult and child is dependent on the adult’s willingness to look, see, and consider the many ways in which to respond. (Flicker & Hoffman, 2006, p. 9)

Reeve (2006) used the term “gentle discipline” and regarded this type of discipline as an important indicator of high-quality student and teacher relationships. He stated this “supportive socialization strategy involves guiding and explaining why one way of thinking or behaving is right and another is wrong” (Reeve, 2006, p. 233). The opposite view is a more controlling adult approach to student discipline. When teachers perceive classroom management as a way to react to students’ misbehavior as opposed to proactive responses aimed at helping students initiate and think through their behaviors, there can be negative motivational and learning consequences for the students (Wallace & Williams, 2014). Placing a focus on the types of punishment that will occur for infractions in place of providing support to children to learn from their misbehaviors can negatively impact children’s social development. “Not only is punishment not necessary for convincing children to abandon their misbehaviors, it can impede children’s ethical growth” (Watson, 2007, p. 30).

Developmental Discipline often requires that educators and adults working with young people have a change in their mindset regarding why children misbehave. “Teachers would...need to understand the basis for believing that children are naturally motivated to learn and to be empathic and cooperative in a caring and nurturing environment” (Watson & Ecken, 2003, p. 9). Behavior deemed as inappropriate is viewed in relation to the needs of autonomy, belonging, and competence. When structures and processes are put into place in schools that support these important basic needs, caring adults can help young people grow and thrive within an environment that is supportive of their moral and ethical development (Watson, 2007). Employing Developmental Discipline provides students with opportunities to express their feelings, beliefs, and ideas, therefore empowering them to affect change in their behaviors, and possibly that of their peers (Flicker & Hoffman, 2006).

Voice and choice. Positive relationships are supported when there is space and time made in schools for authentic conversation between young people and adults. “Being consulted can help pupils feel that they are respected as individuals and as a body within the school, that they belong, and that they are being treated in an adult way and thereby feel empowered” (Demetriou & Wilson, 2010, p. 63). Beattie described the importance of authentic student voice:

Students tend to be passive recipients of their education, assuming few decision-making roles. Uniformity and obedience are highly prized by adults. In conversation, a student shared her frustration of living in this culture, ‘In high school, I am unlearning how to use my voice.’ This reality stands in stark contrast to the developmental needs of adolescents—or individuals

of any age for that matter. Humans thrive when we feel valued as partners in meaningful relationships, doing relevant work toward a common goal.

(Beattie, 2012, p. 158)

Student voice is not only important in that it honors young people but it is a powerful way to combat the detrimental effects of adultism or a hierarchal, top-down model of a more traditional classroom or school structure. “Research supports the view that schools must encourage students to express themselves—clearly and often—and be places where students feel listened to and understood” (Elias, 2010, p. 23). Empowering student voice is an alternative to more traditional forms of governance or instruction in which school administrators and teachers make unilateral decisions with little or no input from students (Mitra, 2004). “Student voice,” in its most profound and radical form, calls for a cultural shift that opens up spaces and minds not only to the sound but also to the presence and power of students” (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 363).

In searching the literature to define and describe student voice, the impact of adultist language is often apparent. For example, Hargreaves (2004) defined student voice as “mainly about how students come to play a more active role in their education and schooling as a direct result of teachers becoming more attentive, in sustained or routine ways, to what students say about their experience of learning and school life” (p. 7). This definition implies a power differential tipping in favor of the adults. Schools, where adults hold positions of authority, heighten power dimensions (Robinson & Taylor, 2012), adding to the complexity of power-sharing with young people. Is it possible to utilize student voice as a means to address this power differential?

Wallach, Ramsey, Lowry & Copland (2006) stressed student voice implies reciprocal relationships. “Without students’ sense of being known by their teachers and equal participation in the relationship, the personalization equation does not compute” (“Introduction,” para. 4). Arnot & Reay (2007) described student voice as “pupil consultation,” placing student voice within pedagogic contexts as well as a complexity of other factors thus cautioning researchers to think more deeply about how to study and describe “voice.” Importantly, schools must be consciously aware of efforts to support and encourage the expression of voice from all young people, especially mindful of those young people who are not likely to have their voices heard.

There are pupils who have acquired the pedagogic voice and can respond to the processes of consultation. Their voices are articulate, reflexive, focused, and appear to be independently constructed. Their voice with its associated messages indicates that they have learned both the recognition and realization rules not just of academic learning, but also the rules in which learning is located... There is danger, therefore, that the process of pupil consultation is one which hides the social stratificational aspects of schooling. The mask of neutrality relocates responsibility for learning on the pupil rather than the transmission. Thus although student consultation appears democratic, it is a clearly bounded pedagogic event. (Arnot & Reay, 2007, pp. 321-322)

Concerning the social reality of student voice, Fielding (2004) agreed, “[I]ssues of voice are not circumscribed by verbal or written texts; they are embedded in historically located structures and relations of power” (p. 300). While working to empower young people, there must be an ever-present awareness of power differences within schools.

Adults who value the views of students help to establish platforms for student input, realizing shared discussion equally benefits all. Students have a unique view of the life of the school that includes relationships and information that adults do not have access to. Because of their unique perspective, when young people are involved in meaningful decision-making, adults gain invaluable insight and understanding about school-related issues that can lead to systemic and lasting change. When young people are encouraged to be reflective and thoughtful, and are also advised to question the way the school is, and then asked to share their opinions and ideas, they develop the ability to approach problems with confidence and seek out solutions. When student voice is practiced in schools in an authentic way, students develop an important tool for building resiliency when faced with demanding situations (Mitra, 2004).

Youth voice, that is authentically supported, can lead to positive changes within schools and society. When young people have the opportunity to say what they think as well as be heard by others, this open communication can help students feel valued as members of the school community and lead to increased motivation and engagement (Mitra, 2004). “It is about students and teachers working and learning together in partnership, rather than one party using the other for often covert ends” (Fielding, 2006, p. 308).

However, if we listen to students but do not have institutional structures for their voices to have power, it is not enough. Mitra’s (2006) work on student voice illustrates what schools can do to provide structures that support authentic student voice. She described student voice opportunities as represented by a pyramid structure with three levels beginning at the base of the pyramid with “being heard.” This basic level of

student voice provides opportunities such as focus groups for students to speak with adults about their school experiences. The next level of opportunity is “collaborating with adults” where students work with adults to make changes in the school. Mitra described an example of youth helping school leaders to analyze student focus group data leading to changes in practice. Finally, the smallest and least typical type of student voice, the tip of the pyramid is “building capacity for leadership.” “Building capacity for leadership includes an explicit focus on enabling youth to share in the leadership of the student voice initiative” (Mitra, 2006, p. 8). Mitra (2006) provided an example of student leadership of students actively participating in staff trainings on implementation of inquiry-based learning.

Student voice that is supported through school structures can lead youth to become agents of change within their communities (Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2008), which positions them to work within a framework of youth policy. Intergenerational partnering and community-based organizations can help youth develop important skills, gain critical awareness of oppressive structures, and reclaim a sense of power through collective action (Ginwright, Cammarota, & Noguera, 2005).

One example of such partnering is the Research Projects movement (Fine, Torre, Burns, & Payne, 2007). In conducting research “youth analyses are the fundamental hinge upon which work [is] premised. The research...blends qualitative and quantitative material, gathered by/with youth, to answer large questions about social (in)justice in schools” (Fine et al., 2007, p. 809). Here young people both research and advocate for positions supporting social justice, especially in urban communities.

Through youth voice, young people are able to work with teachers and administrators to co-create the path of reform. “[I]ncorporating student voice in the context of reform requires an open and accepting stance toward criticism, and acknowledgement in some cases, that reforms may not be achieving the desired results” (Wallach et al., 2006, “Introduction,” para. 8). Adults in schools must realize the power differential that exists within the school structure and work to build trusting relationships with young people that can withstand open conversation aimed at school reform. The work is complex, requiring a shift in perspective and roles. “We are changing fundamental norms, values, and practices... Amplifying student voice takes significant commitment and skill. It should be undertaken only if the institutional leader has a deep conviction to be a faithful guide and to garner the resources necessary to assure success” (Beattie, 2012, p. 159).

Administrators, policy makers, and school leaders play a key role in shaping a culture within a school community that both encourages and supports youth voice. There must be a commitment to provide democratic structures in school that honor student voice through both practice and pedagogy in classrooms and through school governance for students to know their voices matter. Otherwise, young people will sense that their voices do not matter and student input will be shut down, something that occurs even in supposedly well-meaning schools. Effective principals make attempts to let students know their voices matter collectively and individually (Quaglia & Corso, 2014). For example, they publicly acknowledge when student voice efforts lead to changes in policy and practice. “Educational leaders must speak and act in ways that reinforce the rightness of meaningful student involvement in schools” (Beattie, 2012, p. 159).

In describing student voice in terms of its power to reform schools, Cook-Sather (2006) cautioned that this important “student voice work must be seen as a work-in-progress, another step in an ongoing struggle to find meeting places for teachers and students and for researchers and students from which to effect cultural shifts that support a repositioning of students” (p. 3). Robinson and Taylor (2012) agreed in that there is a “need to recognize the power dynamics between adults and young people in their roles as students and to take steps to shift these power imbalances” (p. 44).

As with any key element of change, advocates must be in relentless pursuit of understanding the conditions that foster youth voice. Like teachers, students need support to help them develop their voices effectively. Young people and adults benefit from training that helps them understand school decision-making processes and improve their capacity to co-participate fully in these processes. It is especially important to engage not only the articulate, successful students, but also those whose voices are otherwise unheard. Student voice practice can serve as a means to contest the hierarchical power distribution in schools (Robinson & Taylor, 2012) but only if there is an openness to change. “Change is a big idea. To genuinely engage not only students’ voices but also their entire beings, we need to be open to change, willing to change” (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 377).

Class meetings. Class meetings, where students’ voices, opinions, and contributions are heard, respected, and acted upon, help to support the basic needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence. Class meetings implemented within a safe and cooperative environment are supportive of students’ connectedness to others and to the school community (Edwards & Mullis, 2003). Routine class meetings provide time for class

members to share ideas, offer solutions to problems, and brainstorm changes that would benefit the classroom community (Angell, 1998). Conducting daily class meetings provides a democratic structure or forum for students to share feelings and concerns helping to establish a climate of trust, build a sense of group membership, and develop nurturing, positive relationships between students and teachers (Grant & Davis, 2012; Watson & Ecken, 2003). Class meetings, often referred to as morning meetings, community meetings, or circle time, provide opportunities for children to learn and practice respectful communication (Grey & Drewery, 2011) and can provide a framework for democratic decision-making based on rights and responsibilities (Landau & Gathercoal, 2000). “Meetings provide opportunities for collective problem-solving in an atmosphere of perceived fairness, which seem[s] to contribute to a more peaceful classroom climate” (Angell, 2004, p. 98).

Regularly scheduled class meetings where all class members, including the teacher, are seated in a closed circle provide the best structure for facilitating shared communication and provide opportunities for team-building, collaborative planning, decision-making, or problem-solving (Developmental Studies Center, 1996). There are many examples in the literature describing class meetings within school settings.

For example, Easton (2005) described class meetings called morning “gatherings” at Eagle Rock, an alternative high school, implemented as a primary tool to support and nurture democracy. At Eagle Rock, morning gatherings were done daily for the purpose of supporting school principles such as leading for justice, living in respectful harmony with others, practicing citizenship and democratic living, and devising an enduring moral

and ethical code (Easton, 2005). These are important ideals in both school and society at large.

Another example from Watson and Ecken (2003), in *Learning to Trust*, described the rationale for class meetings used to establish a sense of shared classroom goals and values with a group of young students:

Laura knew from experience that it would be difficult for her students to consistently treat one another fairly, kindly, and with respect, yet these values were non-negotiable. They needed to be the values of the classroom community. She also knew that unless she insisted on these values, provided a strong model, and actively helped students live by them, the children would fail to coalesce as a caring community...So during the second week of school, Laura held a series of partner activities and class meetings designed to raise her students' awareness of how they wanted to be treated and how they wanted their class to be. (p. 93)

Class meetings are useful in building a sense of shared purpose into the life of the classroom and encouraging a sense of belonging among class members. When young people are valued for their perspective and respected by others, thereby supporting the needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence, they develop a sense of ownership and attachment to the organization in which they are involved (Mitra, 2004). Class meetings are a useful structure for teachers in a need-supportive classroom environment.

Class meetings also provide benefits for the adults in school. Kaveney and Drewery (2011) found when class meetings were utilized as a format for restorative practices, teachers benefitted as well as students. Their results indicated that enhanced

collegiality amongst participating teachers was a major benefit, suggesting that providing a forum for caring communication such as class meetings has the potential to positively impact young people and adults.

In terms of healthy development, class meetings provide a platform for students to practice important social skills such as decision-making, compromise, and mediation to help support a peaceful school climate (Landau & Gathercoal, 2000). Class meetings provide a structure for democratic practice. Gathercoal and Nimmo (2001) created a framework called Judicious Discipline that used class meetings as a structure for students to learn about and practice citizenship. Gathercoal and Nimmo (2001) studied the impact of Judicious Discipline in an action research project over a five-year period in a Minnesota elementary school. The goal of the project, which placed a heavy emphasis on democratic class meetings, was to help students attain a level of autonomy. Gathercoal and Nimmo, in describing student autonomy, stated, “Individuals are self-directed, able to seek and give support but function well without it. Students take responsibility for their own learning. There is a high level of interaction...Students work the same with or without the teacher present” (2001, p. 8). A qualitative analysis of student data from the action research project found that students benefitted from class meetings in terms of learning strategies such as conflict resolution and problem-solving skills that transferred to other areas of the school.

Although research as shown class meetings can help students learn democratic skills that transfer beyond the walls of the classroom, there are challenges to the successful implementation. It is at times difficult to reach the level of democratic participation that is hoped for in class meetings. For example, in a qualitative analysis of

data collected from class meetings, Angell (1998) found the 9 through 12-year-old student participants often followed along with the crowd anytime there appeared to be a strong majority when it came to models of behavior, attitudes, and beliefs rather than expressing individual opinions. Also, Thornberg's (2010) study of six to eight-year-olds participating in teacher-led class meetings found that often students were not truly active participants at all in part due to the teachers' lack of understanding of how to model and facilitate democratic practices.

Morcom & MacCallum's (2009) study of teacher motivation to develop and sustain class meetings found that professional development (PD) provided needed support for the challenging, and sometimes exhausting, role of mediating positive relationships among peers. For class meetings to be most beneficial, adults in schools who are helping to facilitate the meetings must be reflective and open of their own beliefs about young people and the power structures within schools. Otherwise, "the teachers and the meeting activities risk socializing pupils to adopt a cynical attitude toward democracy, that democracy is just humbug, directed by those in power positions, to hide their real power behind an illusion of joint participation in decision-making" (Thornberg, 2010, p. 929). Professional development (PD) directed at supporting teachers in the design and implementation of class meetings is needed.

Autonomy supports: Professional development. The question then becomes what does the literature say about professional development (PD) that is done well and PD that is considered transformational? Self-determination theory (SDT) maintains that when implementing school reform, efforts need to be made to support teachers' psychological needs. This includes meaningful involvement in training, where teachers

have opportunities to experience competence, and where all individuals within the school develop supportive relationships (Deci, 2009).

For PD to be autonomy-supportive, teachers must perceive themselves as true partners in the reform process (Assor, Kaplan, Feinberg, & Tal, 2009). Importantly, transformational PD includes autonomy support that ultimately transfers to young people. In that, teachers and staff are given a voice and a say as they partner together or with school leaders and consultants in the area of PD (Pearrow & Pollack, 2009). Relatedly, the self-determined needs for competence and relatedness are integral for successful PD. Gorozidis & Papaioannou's (2014) research supported this notion finding "that if teachers are autonomously motivated towards training, they will be more determined to participate in such training...which can produce positive impact to their students and the successful adoption of the innovation" (p. 8).

Schools with structures in place that are autonomy-supportive encourage teachers to participate in shared leadership impacting important decisions within the schools where they work. Farris-Berg (2014) relayed an important benefit of teachers with collective autonomy as "collaboration and leadership for the good of the whole school, not just a classroom" (p. 34). Transformational PD that leads to transformational learning for students is enhanced through teachers' autonomous decision-making about their needs for professional growth. Colbert, Brown, Choi, & Thomas (2008), in a study of teacher-driven PD, found that "when teachers are empowered to create their own professional growth plan, their passion for teaching and for improving the lives of their students is greatly enhanced. When they are subjected to PD activities by their administration, they are generally not enthusiastic and feel there is a disconnect between those activities and

what they do in the classroom” (p. 148). These studies shed light on the need for approaches to PD to be teacher-driven and teacher-led and supportive of the autonomous needs of adults.

Specifically, of interest to this research, is asking the question: How does the basic need for autonomy and the related needs of relatedness and competence impact PD for adult learning in a school setting? Furthermore, for the purpose of this research, an attempt will be made to develop a PD model that is need supportive both in content taught, i.e. to increase knowledge around autonomy-supportive classroom practices, and in terms of the need-supportive processes used to support adult learning.

Autonomy supports: Enhancing autonomy, relatedness, and competence for teachers. Gorozidis & Papaioannou (2014) used the framework of Self-determination Theory (SDT) to study teachers’ volitional engagement in professional development (PD). “Because in SDT, a pivotal concept is the existence of choice in a person’s behavioral regulations, it provides an appropriate framework to base a study on teachers’ volitional engagement in professional training promoting school innovations” (p. 2). The study was conducted with teachers who consented and were participants in a 2-day PD training for a new project-based subject taught in Greek high schools. Important to those who plan and lead PD, results showed “that if teachers are autonomously motivated towards training, they will be more determined to participate in such training during the following year, and the same rule applies in regards to the teaching of an innovative subject” (Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014, p. 8).

In addition, Shulman & Shulman’s (2004) research revealed that a teacher’s motivation plays an integral role in successful PD experiences. SDT helps inform PD

leaders to create structures that encourage and support teacher motivation through individually perceived psychological need satisfaction (PNS). Results of their study supported their hypothesis regarding teachers' autonomous motivation on intentions to participate in professional training. Perceived autonomy support of adults participating in PD is an important consideration for those who plan these experiences in schools and districts.

Through the SDT lens, relatedness with and amongst adults who work together in a school community is important for PNS and helps to support successful professional learning and growth. Collaboration has been found to be a key element of effective PD as supported by numerous studies (Colbert et al., 2008). SDT adds to this research by providing an examination of the importance of relatedness to individual PNS.

Experiences will be enriched for adults in schools when PD includes efforts to support and encourage healthy, trusting relationships amongst all group members. Importantly, a supportive community leads to the need-satisfaction for relatedness and helps "people to internalize and accept as their own the values and practices of those to whom they feel, or want to feel, connected, and from contexts in which they experience a sense of belonging" (Niemic & Ryan, 2009, p. 139). SDT states that when people perceive a behavior as endorsed by a social group to which they feel related or connected, they are more likely to act on that behavior because of group affiliation (Roth, 2014). Teachers who feel a sense of belonging with each other will be more likely to try new ideas as a result of their PD experiences.

SDT, including a self-sense of perceived competence, plays an important role in trying out innovative teaching ideas learned during PD activities and experiences. High-

quality PD should support the basic need for competence because people are more likely to adopt and act upon new information when they understand it and have the skills to be successful (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In practice, PD that is competence-supportive requires observation of effective practices, personal experiences with new practices, and an opportunity to be mentored by experts who provide frequent feedback (Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014). Furthermore, based on SDT, it is important that new learning be supportive of the basic needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence (Assor et al., 2009). When adults within the school community understand and apply SDT to PD experiences, autonomous internalization and the application of new ideas is more likely to occur (Assor et al., 2009; Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014).

In the world of high-stake testing and policy regulations and requirements, teachers' basic psychological needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence may be undermined by external pressures. Research suggests that when teachers experienced a sense of diminished autonomy, they are more likely "to utilize more autonomy-suppressive teaching practices in their classrooms" (Roth, 2014, p. 46). Utilizing PD strategies that support individually perceived PNS is a way to combat the effects of external pressures that teachers may feel (Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014).

PD, based on SDT, provides both the content and process to encourage transformational learning for adults working in schools. The goal of the current research, to increase teachers' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for students, is best supported by teachers who experience a sense of autonomy as well. An intentional focus on "creating organizational supports for teachers' need-satisfaction and an implementation structure that helps teachers experience the new ideas and practices as

need supportive and, therefore, valuable” are important considerations during the process of change (Assor et al., 2009, p. 236).

Summary

Research has shown that students benefit from autonomy support (Reeve, 2009). The literature reviewed suggested experiences that are autonomy-supportive can lead to increases in student engagement and also supports intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Looking through the lens of self-determination theory (SDT), specifically in regard to autonomy supports, led to an exploration of educational aims for a more democratic, empowering school environment for youth. Autonomy-supportive schooling sets structures in place for democratic processes that encourage greater learning outcomes. “Sparking intrinsic motivation and interest through autonomy support also enhance learning outcomes” (Ryan & Deci, 2013, p. 195).

The literature cited earlier in this chapter reflected upon the extent to which school structures disempower young people and concluded that autonomy-supportive schooling can help combat the effects. The review of literature also discussed the importance of classroom practices that are democratic and relational in providing students’ autonomy-supports. Researched-based practices such as Developmental Discipline, providing opportunities for voice and choice, and class meetings, all support students’ basic need for autonomy while also encouraging a sense of relatedness and competence. In order for teachers to be need-supportive of young people, they must be provided with knowledge and training that leads to understanding how to implement and facilitate autonomy-supports for students. Professional development (PD) workshops and supports can help facilitate knowledge and also model autonomy-supportive structures

that the teachers can then implement in the classroom setting with students. The PD model attempted to increase teachers' understandings of autonomy-supportive education while supporting their own perceived autonomy leading to increased intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports in their classrooms. The study then analyzed efficacy of the PD model to enhance teachers' intentions and motivations to support their students' autonomy.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this Dissertation in Practice (DIP) project was to (a) design and implement an autonomy-supportive professional development (PD) model, and (b) to test the efficacy of the PD model to enhance teachers' intentions and motivations to support their students' autonomy. I also sought information from the workshop participants on insights gained related to autonomy-supportive education and about the strengths and weaknesses of the PD in order to improve the model for future participants. The study explored teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students with autonomy supports as a result of participating in a PD model, based on Self-determination Theory (SDT). The PD model was meant to increase teachers' understanding and valuing of autonomy-supportive schooling based on SDT effective practices. The literature suggests that when teachers' own autonomy is supported, they will be more open to using autonomy-supportive practices in their own teaching. Thus, I am designing a PD model that is about both content and process in terms of knowledge gained related to autonomy-supportive practices. This model will be described in detail in the following chapter.

The findings from a study are meant to "lead to more positive and constructive actions; whether or not they do, real people's lives are being affected" (Miles et al., 2014,

p. 315). This criterion as described by Miles et al. (2014) is concerned with the goodness of the research being undertaken. The intent of this DIP project is to foster better understanding of the effects of a PD model on supporting teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students' autonomy supports leading to more empowering classroom experiences for students. This study is just a small step in understanding how to improve autonomy supports for students and hopefully insights gained will be useful to workshop participants and will lead to further research in this area.

Research Questions

Research question 1: Can a PD model that features autonomy-supportive content and processes enhance educators' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for their elementary school students more than a PD model that does not feature autonomy-supportive education?

Research question 2: What insights related to autonomy-supportive education, if any, do teachers say that they gained by participating in the autonomy-supportive PD?

Research question 3: What recommendations for PD improvement do participants offer at the conclusion of their autonomy-supportive PD experience?

Following the PD, I anticipated that the teachers who participated would be able to identify insights gained, beneficial components, and specific improvements of the PD model. I also expected teachers who participated in the PD to have increased intentions and motivations to utilize classroom practices that are autonomy-supportive of students as compared to the teachers in the comparison group. Furthermore, I expected teachers participating in the PD (experimental group) would show greater change than those teachers in the comparison group.

Chapter Two: Autonomy-Supportive Professional Development (PD) Model

The chapter includes a description of the autonomy-supportive PD model developed for this study including details of the PD sessions that were implemented at the experimental school. This study aimed to improve teacher intentions to provide autonomy-supports for students and to facilitate a more autonomy-supportive motivation orientation. This chapter includes two sections: First, a conceptual description of the PD model followed by a detailed description of each PD session.

Research Team

Much of the time throughout the study, the primary investigator worked independently; however, specific components of the project also benefitted from a collaborative effort between the primary investigator and her partner. (Collaboration was encouraged by the Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate (CPED) who promoted this doctoral program generally, and the Dissertation in Practice (DIP) in particular.) The primary investigator of this study independently conducted a review of the relevant scholarly and research literature, designed the current study, analyzed and discussed the survey data, and made suggestions for future directions in related research and practice. The primary investigator and her partner collaborated in planning and facilitating meetings with the comparison group, the individual PD sessions at the experimental school, and the focus group interviews which followed for selected teachers. Collaboration also included analyzing and discussing the focus group data. Before and after each of the six PD workshop sessions, they met to discuss and reflect upon our session notes, analyze teacher feedback, and plan for upcoming sessions. Also, a technology consultant helped to develop and maintain the Google.doc online supports

and created instructional videos describing how to access the technological components of the PD model.

Conceptual Description

This process for adopting a more autonomy-supportive style of teaching is based on literature cited in Reeve (2009). Although Reeve uses the term “steps” to describe the workshop model, implementation was not done in isolated steps but rather integrated as a process throughout the PD experiences. There was overlap of each of these steps. For this reason, I am removing the term “step” from the model.

This model is a different way to approach PD that is need-supportive of teachers. This PD model, based on Self-determination Theory (SDT), is different from most reform efforts because it is guided by SDT’s “conceptualization of internalization for educational reform” (Assor et al., 2009, p. 235). Teachers are active agents in the reform process, having a voice and say in how the reform progresses. “According to SDT, deep and autonomous internalization is thought to occur to the extent that people experience support for the basic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness” (Assor et al., 2009, p. 236).

This theory of change is about both content and process. The content refers to the classroom strategies that research has shown to be autonomy-supportive which were introduced in the series of PD sessions at the experimental school. Process refers to the way in which PD was delivered or modeled that is need-supportive of the teachers and is congruent with the autonomy-supportive practices that teachers will utilize with students.

Understanding and alignment. This involved helping teachers gain understanding of how autonomy-supportive teaching is directly aligned with the district’s

core vision, which states “By continuously improving in every aspect of our performance, the [unnamed Midwestern School District] empowers students to command their future,” and supports the district’s core values:

- Promote and model ethical values and good character as the foundation of performance;
- Build a safe and caring school community;
- Provide a meaningful and challenging academic program that connects all students to learning and honors their differences; and
- Engage all stakeholders in shared responsibility for learning, character, and climate.

The initial topics addressed included SDT, adultism, student empowerment, class meetings, developmental discipline, intrinsic motivation, power-sharing, relationship building, reaching the hard-to-reach learner, and person-centered education. By creating common language around which future discussions could take place, adults were encouraged to use careful reflection and analysis of current practices and beliefs that either promote or hinder student autonomy.

During this process, teachers were encouraged and invited to become true partners in the reform process (Assor et al., 2009). During the entire process of change, appreciation for teachers’ self-determined needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence were of primary consideration, discussion, and reflection. The bullets below lists goals used for this phase of implementation. We made a very conscientious effort to both model and describe autonomy-supportive practices during the PD experiences. Our

hope was that teachers, as supported by building leaders, would apply these practices within their classrooms. The bullets listed below outline the steps taken:

- Group norms for PD sessions were already established and had been created with teachers' input and were supportive of perceived needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence. A printed copy of group norms was placed on each group table during face-to-face workshop sessions. This practice was intended to encourage a safe and caring climate where thoughtful discourse could occur that "support[ed] growth through empathic listening, consultation, and constructive criticism" (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007, p. 771).
- The second workshop session included a time for reflecting upon the district mission and core values and the relevance of autonomy-supportive teaching as fundamental to meeting these goals. The administrator from the experimental school relayed to us that the topic of student engagement was a primary focus of the district's PD this year. We were able to include this important connection during this time of reflection. Discussions took place at round tables to encourage conversation or in a large group circle format so that members were on an equal level and included both large group and small group interaction to deeply discuss and reflect upon the mission and core values. Simultaneously, teachers were encouraged to utilize the same process with students. Details for this process will be outlined later in this report under the heading "Autonomy-supportive Classroom Practices."

- Each workshop participant was given a small notebook for writing private reflections. Also, in small groups, participants discussed and recorded their thoughts on chart paper or used google.doc to record discussion notes. These notes could then be easily accessed in the future to help participants recall and review information that was recorded.
- Co-facilitators provided information to the teachers about understanding an autonomy-supportive versus controlling style of teaching. The first step to becoming more autonomy-supportive is to minimize a controlling style of teaching (Reeve, 2009). Teachers were encouraged to keep a journal of classroom experiences and personal reactions related to autonomy-supportive/controlling styles of teaching. “Once identified, understood, and attended to, this awareness potentially allows teachers to become more mindful of the forces that take them away from supporting students’ autonomy” (Reeve, 2009, p. 167).
- District technology applications were used to deliver information on topics related to autonomy-supportive teaching. Teachers were also offered options that included individual supports (i.e. working individually with the researchers) as well as small group supports. Individual support included consultation about individual student concerns, classroom observations, and modeling processes or lessons. Teachers were encouraged to access or seek out supports according to how they described they learn best.

Realization (Autonomy-supportive teaching benefits teachers & students). The next goal related to encouraging autonomy-supportive teaching was to help teachers fully realize the benefits of such practices to both students and teachers alike. When teachers deeply appreciate and endorse autonomy-supportive teaching practices and understand the relevance for students and themselves, they are more likely to identify with the reform efforts (Roth et al., 2007).

PD workshops must strengthen and support teachers' needs for perceived autonomy and help to create a culture that encourages a sense of belonging and competence. The bullets below list our aims for this phase of continued growth toward understanding and practicing autonomy-supportive teaching:

- Teachers and administrative teams utilized self-reflection as a tool for discussing autonomy-supportive vs. controlling practices. Workshop sessions encouraged small group and whole group discussion following reflective activities such as watching a TED talk by a young person that was very moving and inspirational in regard to student voice and empowerment.
- Participants were encouraged to follow us on Twitter where we shared best practices, research, video links, and other resources that helped to support growth in the area of increased autonomy-supports for students. We, in turn, were able to follow the participants and comment on what was happening in their respective classrooms.
- Ongoing needs assessment helped researchers provide resources and information requested by teachers. Informal and formal tools were used to

gather input from the teachers. Formal input was gathered via paper surveys following PD sessions and informal input was sought through frequent by emails to staff, observation of the common twitter feed, continual self-reflection, and peer feedback. School leadership and the researchers met between PD sessions and served as information liaisons, providing requested resources to support teachers' interests and needs, including the addition of a book study and workshop session on Developmental Discipline.

- Check-in via phone call, text, email, or personal visits based on preferred options as requested by the teachers helped us provide support for practicing new approaches and to provide information, modeling, or materials. The use of district technology resources accessed at teachers' desired time and setting helped provide flexible options for information sharing and access.

Important to realization of the benefits of autonomy-supportive education was to deeply reflect upon SDT, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, student and teacher benefits of autonomy-supportive teaching, as well as results of the needs assessments described in the bullet above.

Understanding and refinement of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.

This included a focus on research-based instructional behaviors that have been found to be autonomy-supportive. As described above, teachers utilized a menu of options for accessing information based on personal preference (both in-person and through electronic means) to increase knowledge of and skill with autonomy-supportive teaching

practices. Teachers were supported via emails, and modeling (as requested), and with reflective feedback during and after workshop sessions.

Bulleted below are specific instructional behaviors and classroom supports that offer a comprehensive approach to addressing autonomy-supportive teaching (Reeve, 2009). These instructional behaviors provided a suggested framework for the study of, conversation about, practice with, analysis of, and reflection upon autonomy-supportive teaching. Teachers participating in the study were encouraged to choose and practice these instructional behaviors during the time between the six face-to-face workshop meetings. Processes were introduced and encouraged such as journaling about thoughts and practices related to providing students autonomy supports and reflection with peers using the framework below. Supportive coaching and consistent modeling both during workshop sessions and through the use of technology (articles, webcasts, Twitter, etc.) was intended to encourage movement toward more autonomy-supportive teaching methods. The following list is not exhaustive but helped provide a basis for understanding and implementing autonomy-supports for students. Autonomy-supportive teachers:

- ***Support and nurture inner motivational resources***

“An autonomy-supportive approach to instruction rests on the assumption that students possess inner motivational resources that are fully capable of energizing and directing their classroom activity in productive ways” (Reeve, 2009, p. 168).

In practice, teachers acknowledge and appreciate student perspectives and experiences, allow students to work in their own way (Reeve & Jang, 2006),

provide students with choice (Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002), and build lessons based on student interests (Reeve & Halusic, 2009).

Teachers are sensitive to students in that they are attuned with and concerned about how students feel, what they are saying, how engaged they are, if they understand a lesson, and what their preferences and needs are (Reeve, 2006).

Importantly, teachers foster relevance by “help[ing] students to experience the learning process as relevant to and supportive of their self-determined interests, goals, and values” (Assor et al., 2002, p. 264).

During the workshop sessions, attempts were made so that teachers, as partners, could experience choice and were encouraged to express concerns and criticism in a safe and trusting environment (Assor et al., 2009).

- ***Provide explanatory rationales***

When teachers offer explanatory rationales, students are more likely to perceive autonomous-supports because they feel their behavior is truly justified (Reeve, 2009; Reeve & Halusic, 2009; Reeve & Jang, 2006). Autonomy-supportive teachers teach and motivate students by identifying and supporting their interests (Reeve et al., 1999). However, classrooms are made up of many different students with different interests and learning styles. Therefore, frequently during the school day, young people are expected to complete tasks for assignments that they have little personal interest. “To the extent that students accept that the teachers’ rationale justifies their time and effort, students say to themselves, “Yes, okay, that makes sense; that is something I want to do” (Reeve, 2009, p. 169).

Throughout the PD sessions, co-facilitators provided explanatory rationales for

activities and processes used and for content related to providing students with autonomy supports.

- ***Use nonevaluative, noncontrolling, informational language***

Teachers communicate through a flexible, open style that supports students' inner resources (Reeve & Halusic, 2009). Teachers, who use noncontrolling, informational language offer encouragement and hints when appropriate, are responsive to student-generated questions, provide empathic perspective-taking statements, and use praise as informational feedback (Reeve & Jang, 2006).

“Uttering solutions, criticizing errors, asking controlling questions (e.g., “Can you do it this way?”), and telling students how to think and act are examples of behavior-interrupting controlling communications” (Reeve, 2009, p. 170).

Research indicates that teachers who are autonomy-supportive enlist a set of instructional behaviors including the following communication skills: listening more to students, using empathic statements, and practicing perspective-taking with students (Reeve, 2002). These are essential skills for teachers to practice who desire to be autonomy-supportive during teacher/student interactions (Deci & Ryan, 2013; Reeve, 2002). These skills were modeled by the researchers as well as taught during the professional development workshop sessions at the experimental school so that teachers had opportunities to develop and strengthen autonomy-supportive communication skills and so that teachers could also experience autonomy supports firsthand.

- ***Allow time for learning***

Learning (assimilation, accommodation, conceptual change) takes time as learners need time to explore and manipulate the learning materials, make plans, retrieve prior knowledge, formulate and test hypotheses, evaluate feedback and evidence, change their problem-solving strategies, revise their sense of understanding, monitor their progress, revise their work, and so forth (Reeve, 2009, p. 170).

Encouraging self-paced learning is important to autonomy-supportive instruction. It includes a trusting relationship where teachers believe that students possess the motivation needed to guide their individual learning. The classroom environment is structured in a way that encourages student collaboration and where time is allowed for students to work in their own way (Reeve & Jang, 2006).

Accordingly, time to fully integrate new teaching behaviors is equally important for school teams. This philosophy or approach to learning must encompass all members of the school family as they work toward a more autonomy-supportive environment together.

During the workshop sessions, co-facilitators supported this idea by openly discussing the importance of the teachers, themselves, proceeding at a comfortable pace in terms of their comfort with autonomy-supportive practice (Assor et al., 2009).

- ***Acknowledge and accept students' expression of negative affect***

Thinking in terms of SDT and individual PNS, it is not surprising that students would be at odds with the demands of the classroom (rules, requests, assignments) when such demands do not align with students' interests or preferences (Reeve, 2006).

Teachers provide autonomy-support when they encourage, acknowledge, and accept students' expression of negative emotions about what is happening in the classroom. In this supportive role, teachers "communicate an understanding of the students' perspectives and put themselves in a position to receive students' negative emotionality as constructive information to transform an instructional activity" (Reeve & Halusic, 2009, p. 150). This type of negative emotion is different from aggression that may cause harm. In these instances, a teacher must take a more controlling stance in order to support a safe and trusting classroom environment. "Acknowledging and accepting students' expressions of negative affect is about giving students voice and understanding their perspective, rather than about being permissive or relinquishing one's responsibilities as the classroom teacher and authority" (Reeve, 2009, p. 171). Once again, leadership teams working with adult learning groups must model what is expected with students by allowing space and time for teachers to express concerns and negative emotions related to reform efforts. This was an intentional part of our PD process.

- ***Utilize frequent class meetings***

Class meetings, when done well, provide a forum for student voice, shared decision-making, and democratic discourse. Important to the successful implementation of class meetings is a faith in students' ability to assume responsibility for their own learning and behavior (Developmental Studies Center, 1996). Workshop sessions used this format based on a model developed by the Center for the Collaborative Classroom (formerly called the Child Development Project) and provided modeling and instruction in class meeting best practices.

- ***Facilitate democratic or shared classroom governance***

Student autonomy is supported when students have a voice in decision-making about how the classroom is governed. Students and teachers work together to set up class norms and hold each other accountable. The class-meeting structure discussed above provides an avenue for supporting student voice and developing and sustaining class norms.

Importantly, autonomy-supportive teachers understand that they cannot “give” students voice but rather “create structures that would enable submerged voices to be heard” (Mitra, 2005, p. 532). Bertrand’s (2014) study of reciprocal dialogue between adult decision-makers and students of color has implications for all educators in regard to supporting shared governance and providing space for student voices to be heard.

Bertrand (2014) found that certain responses promoted reciprocal dialogue between youth and adults. These “promoting responses” included an openness to listen to student viewpoints, reflection of or a thoughtfulness about what students had to say, intertextuality (when teachers revoiced pieces of student’s statements), when teachers found ways to enhance student voice, and student voice that led to instructional change (Bertrand, 2014). A goal of this professional development model was to help teachers understand and support democratic discourse in the classroom utilizing specific skills such as the promoting responses discussed above. Modeling and conversation during PD sessions focused on adults being more aware and understanding of the perspective of their students.

- ***Understand and utilize Developmental Discipline principles***

Autonomy-supportive teachers implement discipline practices that nurture healthy child development and encourage student voice and choice in discipline encounters (Streight, 2014). “Reminders, guidance, explanation, instruction and induction all offer students new behaviors, or new insights into behaviors they already engage in, but they do so while also supporting autonomy” (Streight, 2014, p. 93). During this session we discussed foundational beliefs related to Developmental Discipline. Importantly, “children are naturally motivated to learn and to be empathic and cooperative in a caring and nurturing environment” (Watson & Ecken, 2003, p. 9). Developmental Discipline strategies were explored during a workshop session and participants were encouraged to implement supports in their classrooms. We discussed the three principles related to Developmental Discipline: 1) “Build warm, caring, trusting teacher-student relationships; 2) support and encourage friendly relationships among students, and 3) use student misbehavior as opportunities for social, moral instruction” (Watson, 2007, p. 8). Marilyn Watson’s book, *Discipline for Moral Growth*, was purchased for teachers who participated in a book study and helped to facilitate knowledge of key principles of Developmental Discipline.

- ***Utilize cooperative structures and allow children to explore interests***

Autonomy-supportive teachers allow students time to work in their own way, give time for independent work, and motivate through interests (Reeve, 2002). They also use cooperative structures that build community, support the relatedness need, and create an environment where everyone counts. Standage, Duda, & Pensgaard (2005) supported the importance of cooperation in terms of meeting

basic needs. Their study found that even when participants were facing objective failure, the fact that the task was approached in a cooperative manner maintained the participants' sense of subjective well-being. "Cooperative tasks/structures may hold important implications for the satisfaction of the basic needs"

(Standage, Duda, & Pensgaard, 2005, p. 62). Cooperative structures such as small group discussions, class meetings, and partner sharing were both modeled and discussed during the workshop sessions.

Implementation

The outline below includes an overview of the six PD sessions at the experimental school. After each session description, there is a discussion of how the practices and content in the PD sessions relate to the autonomy-supportive conceptual model presented in the first section of this chapter. It is important to note that in terms of replicating this model, adjustments would need to be made to account for differences within schools based on the individual and collective needs of the teachers. Importantly, sessions were designed to increase teachers' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for their students.

- ***PD Session 1: December 9, 2015 (1:45 p.m.-3:30 p.m.)***

Purpose: Establish norms; introduce autonomy-supportive schooling; and provide autonomy-supportive experiences for workshop participants.

Resources/Materials Needed: Individual notebooks and chart paper.

Book (opening exercise): Sweeney, L. B., & Meadows, D. L. (1995). *The systems thinking playbook*. Pegasus Communications, Inc.

Technology: Computer and projector.

Session Procedures:

1:45 p.m.-2:00 p.m.: We made introductions and discussed group norms.

(In this case the school had collectively established group norms before the first PD session at the start of the school year. A laminated copy of group norms was placed on each group table. They were briefly reviewed)

2:00 p.m.-2:05 p.m.: Opening exercise: The aim of this exercise is to illustrate the importance of seeing from a different perspective.

Participants were asked to hold a pencil above their head while keeping their focus on the end closest. They were instructed to slowly circle the pencil in a clockwise direction, lowering the pencil until the opposite end was in view. “What direction is the pencil going now?” Participants found that the pencil was rotating in a counter-clockwise direction despite no change in the arm’s rotation. This exercise was then processed in relation to our roles as educators and our ability to have empathy for the lives and experiences of our students and each other.

2:05 p.m.-2:30 p.m.: TED Talk by Malcolm London: High School Training Ground

https://www.ted.com/talks/malcolm_london_high_school_training_ground?

(Focus: student perspective) Introduce Ted Talk and activity. After viewing, participants were asked to take a moment to write personal reflections in notebooks that were provided. Participants then wrote down thoughts on chart paper located on the table within their small groups. This was a silent activity. Participants were asked to write down thoughts they

wanted to share and also to add thoughts to those that they felt a connection with. This activity was then processed as a group.

2:30 p.m.-3:00 p.m.: Co-facilitators introduced theoretical components addressing the “why” for this PD: Providing autonomy supports for students. Relevant to this discussion was a brief introduction to self-determination theory (SDT) and how it benefits students and teachers alike by providing a need-supportive environment supportive of intrinsic motivation.

3:00 p.m.-3:30 p.m.: Closing circle: Discussion about skills or tools that adults in this school have that encourage autonomy-supportive schooling. A class-meeting format helped set the stage for this conversation as members shared their thinking one-by-one. Co-facilitators referred to group norms, adding the right to “pass,” prior to starting the class meeting.

Closure: Final thoughts: Everyone was asked to give one word describing what’s on their mind at that moment, “What are you thinking about?” In conclusion, co-facilitators challenged the educators to try one thing to encourage this type of autonomy-supportive culture in their classrooms in the next few days leading into the Winter break and reflect by writing down how it goes in the notebook that was provided.

Notes: Co-facilitators provided their phone numbers and emails. The group was asked to begin thinking about what they preferred in terms of a vehicle to continue the conversation that we’ve started: Blog, Google doc, etc.

This session was intended to begin the process of understanding the alignment of autonomy-supportive schooling as well as engaging the teachers in the reform process (understanding and alignment.) Co-facilitators utilized various methods to both model and convey autonomy supports. From the initial pencil exercise to illustrate the impact of different perspectives, openness to new ways of thinking was encouraged. Following the pencil exercise, the TED Talk video of a high school student describing the powerlessness that he experienced as a student was intended to encourage a student-centered mindset (understanding and refinement of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.) Throughout this session, teachers were provided with examples and opportunities to reflect upon controlling versus a more autonomy-supportive idea of schooling. Autonomy supports that were modeled included using class meetings to facilitate conversation such as: Focusing on the relevance of the topics; using open, nonevaluative language, and providing time for teachers to reflect upon and discuss personal thoughts connected to the new learning (understanding and refinement of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.)

The co-facilitators purposed to be intentional about frequent and genuine offers of support, providing their phone numbers and email addresses along with an offer to make personal visits as requested based on support that teacher's might find helpful. The following week, an email reminder was sent to teachers to offer these supports again. Relatedness goals were supported in terms of the shared or collaborative work that was done in small group and whole group discussions and competence goals were addressed through informational sections of the workshop related to the discussion of theoretical

underpinnings of the PD model related to SDT (realization: autonomy-supportive teaching benefits teachers and students.)

- ***PD Session 2: January 12, 2016 (8:00 a.m.-8:40 a.m.)***

Purpose: Connect autonomy-supportive schooling to the school's character mission and to its District Core Values, model and introduce autonomy-supportive classroom practices, and gather input from teachers on interests and preferred learning methods.

Resources/Materials Needed: PowerPoint of presentation, individual notebooks (teachers should have been provided these in session one), stuffed toy rat used to pass in class meeting, and prepared exit slip (see Appendix A.)

Book: Berkowitz, M. W. (2012). *You can't teach through a rat and other epiphanies for educators*. Boone, NC: Character Development Group.

Technology: Computer and projector.

Session Procedures:

8:00 a.m.-8:10 a.m.: Class meeting: "You can't teach through a rat!" Co-facilitators referenced the book by Dr. Marvin Berkowitz and modeled a "check-in" class meeting. The focus of the class meeting was to share "rats" or thoughts that we as adults had on our minds that day. A toy, stuffed toy rat was used as a prop during sharing to denote whose turn it was. This activity was then processed and discussed in relation to the lives of students. Teachers were asked to reflect upon the possible "rats" on their students' brains.

8:10 a.m.-8:40 a.m.: Co-facilitators used the information outlined below in the form of a PowerPoint presentation to guide discussion. The information is listed as it was on the slides that were used in the session.

- “What is the true type of education? It is like the gardener under whose care a thousand trees blossom and grow. He contributes nothing to their actual growth; the principle of growth lies in the trees themselves. He plants and waters” (Pestalozzi, 1918).
- “How do we plant and water?”
- *By promoting and modeling ethical values and good character as the foundation of performance. What does that look like at this school?
- It begins with each of us...it’s about our beliefs. Only by examining our beliefs about our students, how they learn, and then by examining our actions...that is how real growth begins and yet, many resist this. Are you ready?
- Be willing to model.
- “It is utter hypocrisy to ask students to have good character but not hold oneself to the same standard. As I frequently challenge educators, “How dare you ask a child to be responsible or respectful or caring or honest if you can’t act that way yourself?” - Marvin Berkowitz (*Good Things to Do: Expert Suggestions for Fostering Goodness in Kids.*)
- *Building a safe and caring school community

- How does this happen?
- It isn't by accident but through practicing intentional, research-based methods such as:
 - Class meetings
 - Developmental Discipline
 - Person-centered education
 - Supporting intrinsic motivation
 - And through continual work on creating and sustaining healthy relationships
- What else can we do? We must *provide a meaningful and challenging academic program that connects all students to learning and honors their differences.
- Autonomy-supportive schooling: One big way to do this is by becoming more autonomy-supportive of students and by letting go of controlling means of managing our classrooms. We then know our students better and can support their intrinsic motivation to learn!
- We must *engage all stakeholders in shared responsibility for learning, character, and climate.
- There are proven, research-based instructional behaviors as well as classroom supports that are autonomy-supportive of students. These create a framework in which learning, character, and climate can thrive.

- *Do these look familiar: These are the [Name] School District's Core Values.

Closure: Empathy video by Brené Brown (<https://youtu.be/1Evwgu369Jw>)

Participants completed an exit slip (see Appendix A.)

The second PD session intended to increase understanding and alignment of autonomy-supportive teaching. Importantly, this workshop session included the alignment of the core values and mission of the school and district to autonomy-supportive schooling. Research discussed the importance of this step in the reform process (Reeve, 2009).

Classroom practices (content) that were discussed in the review of literature were briefly introduced in this session (realization: autonomy-supportive teaching benefits teachers and students.) Topics included class meetings, Developmental Discipline, person-centered education, intrinsic motivation, and the importance of relationships in terms of autonomy supports. The empathy video helped to encourage a person-centered mindset supportive of a caring classroom community (understanding and alignment.)

In session 2, co-facilitators modeled autonomy supports (process) for teachers to experience including a class meeting and by providing an exit slip to gather teacher input used to develop later PD sessions, small group discussions, and online supports (understanding and refinement of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.) The exit slip was also emailed to teachers that were not in attendance at this session in an attempt to gain input from all teachers. However no further exit slips were collected.

A teacher preference chart (see Appendix B) was developed from an analysis of the information gathered from the exit slips. On a separate date, following this session, co-facilitators met with school administrators to confer about the results of the exit slips.

The school's character education team also met separately following this session and discussed this chart, further supporting school alignment.

Next, co-facilitators, along with a technology consultant, created online supports for participants based on their requests for information related to the following topics: SDT, intrinsic motivation, person-centered education, class meetings, Developmental Discipline, relationship building, and how-to-reach the hard-to-reach learner. Online supports included descriptive multimedia presentations that had been emailed to the participants describing how to access Twitter and the Google Drive folders where information was stored. Supports also included research and other literature related to this study, a bibliography of resources, video links, workshop PowerPoints, and space to share collective notes (Google Doc.) We were mindful of using technology sources that the participants were familiar with and provided multimedia presentations when necessary to support teachers' understanding. Resources were drawn from experts in the field such as the Center for Character and Citizenship, selfdeterminationtheory.org, Center for the Collaborative Classroom, Character.org, and [CharacterPlus](http://CharacterPlus.org).

Supports were provided through Google Drive and were made available to all staff at the experimental school (see Appendix B.) The intent of these supports was to provide an autonomy-supportive way for teachers to both choose and access information based on their schedules and interests supporting understanding and alignment; realization that autonomy-supportive teaching benefits teachers and students; and, the understanding and refinement of autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.

Also, related to technology use during the PD, teachers were encouraged to follow the co-facilitators' Twitter accounts. Co-facilitators could then share out information

related to autonomy-supportive schooling as well as to follow the teachers' participating in this piece of the online support (Twitter.)

- ***PD Session 3: February 26, 2016 (8:00 a.m.-8:40 a.m.)***

Purpose: To discuss Developmental Discipline philosophy and practices.

Resources/Materials Needed: PowerPoint of presentation (outlined below)

Book: Watson, M. (2007). *Discipline for moral growth*. Portland, OR: Council for Spiritual and Ethical Education.

Technology: Computer and projector.

Session Procedures: The workshop on Developmental Discipline used a PowerPoint presentation that is outlined below. This content guided the discussion.

- Introduction: Discussed “building community” using this quote:
 - “No society can remain vital or even survive without a reasonable base of shared values. Where community exists, it confers upon its members, identity, a sense of belonging, a measure of security. A community has the power to motivate its members to exceptional performance. Community can set standards of expectations for the individual and provide the climate in which great things happen.”
-John W. Gardner (from *Eight Habits of the Heart* By Clifton Taulbert)
- Classroom discipline introduced with the following quotes:
 - “You can set up rules and then engage in disciplining students all year”...*Or*...“You can have students decide how they want their

class to be and proactively meet to measure how you are doing as a class.” Karen Smith, Retired Principal of Mark Twain Elementary

- Purpose of punishment was then explored...
 - Retribution not improvement...
 - “When children misbehave (however the adult chooses to define that), they should be made to suffer-just as those who accomplish something should be rewarded” (Kohn, 2014, p. 105).
 - Problem of punishment...
 - “Fails to promote ethical growth, responsibility, or concern for others’ well-being.”
 - “Counterproductive with respect to any goal other than temporary compliance.”
 - “Promotes intense feelings of resentment, a concern for figuring out how to avoid being caught (rather than doing the right thing.)”
 - “Teaches that those with power over get one’s way in life.”
 - (Alfie Kohn (2014), *The Myth of the Spoiled Child*, p. 104)
- Introduced foundational principles related to Developmental Discipline:
 - “It is *developmental* because it is guided by what we know about children's developmental levels and tasks, and because it holds a view of children as biologically predisposed to learn and become contributing members of their community” (Watson, 2007, p. 8).
 - “*What do these kids need*, and how can we meet those needs?”

Instead of...“How can we get these kids to obey?”

-Alfie Kohn Foreword of *Learning To Trust* book (Watson & Ecken, 2003).

- Assume children misbehave for four main reasons:
 - Inattention to, or misunderstanding of, rules
 - Underdeveloped social, emotional, or moral competencies
 - Mistaken beliefs about themselves or about their social world
 - The work is too hard, the demands are too great

And then...

- Assume the best possible reason for the misbehavior consistent with the facts (Streight, 2014.)
- “Do as little harm as possible, or preferably no harm at all, to the teacher-student relationship, so that it can continue building;

And...

Reincorporate those who misbehave back into the group as fully as possible, and as quickly as possible” (Streight, 2014, p. 95.)

- The principles of Developmental Discipline were discussed:
 - Build warm, caring, trusting teacher-student relationships;
 - Support and encourage friendly relationships among students;
 - Use student misbehaviors as opportunities for social, moral instruction (Watson, 2007).
 - Foster autonomy by honoring students’ voices during disciplinary encounters when possible (Streight, 2014).

- Classroom tools to support Developmental Discipline were explored. These include: Reminders, guidance, explanation, prevention, instruction in social/emotional skills, empathy induction, requests for reparation, support for ethical behavior (Streight, 2014; Watson, 2007.)

Closure: Teachers provided specific examples of student behaviors. The workshop facilitator, along with the participants, discussed student supports to address these concerns in terms of a Developmental Discipline focus.

This session, facilitated by the primary investigator, was added following analysis of the exit surveys collected in Session 2 that indicated 11 of the 19 teachers participating in the survey expressed interest in this topic. Additionally, school administrators ordered ten copies of the primary resource, the primer by Marilyn Watson (2007) to distribute to teachers to address the desire of teachers who wished to participate in a book study. The books were distributed to teachers prior to the workshop to allow for flexibility and choice in terms of reading the material. This session continued to support alignment of autonomy-supportive practice and was autonomy-supportive of the teachers in terms of both topic and attendance. It was made explicit by both the primary investigator and the administrator that attendance was not mandatory but a choice. The discussion format of the workshop was inclusive and open, intending to support relatedness amongst the participants. In addition, to provide autonomy supports to the teachers, the primary investigator made personal contacts to thank all 11 teachers who'd expressed interest in this topic further and to extend a personal invitation to the workshop, stressing that the workshop was optional. Although, 11 teachers had originally expressed interest in this topic, 19 teachers attended this session. As a result, school administrators offered to order

more copies of the book used for the study. Workshop content on Developmental Discipline helped to increase knowledge and understanding of effective practice and provided many opportunities to discuss explicitly as well as model autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors.

- ***PD Session 4: March 1, 2016 (8:00 a.m.-8:40 a.m.)***

Purpose: To continue to increase understanding of autonomy supports and to align the PD with teacher practice (Step 1); to provide autonomy supports (Step 2); and to refine practice (Step 3.)

Resources/Materials Needed: PowerPoint of presentation used for the first half of this session (outlined below.)

Technology: Computer and projector.

Session Procedures:

8:00 a.m.-8:10 a.m.: Session introduction:

- Co-facilitators further explored the “Why” related this PD model. The following points were discussed:
 - We must be intentional about creating supports in schools that also support healthy child development.
 - There is always a hidden curriculum. Sometimes it can be damaging to healthy development and learning. We must engage and empower the learner.
 - A pervasive pedagogy of disempowerment stifles students and teachers.
 - These research-based practices support the District’s core values.

- (The core values were listed and reviewed.)

8:10 a.m.-8:40 a.m.: Part 2 of Session 4: Teachers chose a discussion group based on these topics: Intrinsic motivation or reaching all students. The primary investigator facilitated the conversation around reaching all students and her partner facilitated the group focused on intrinsic motivation. Key points related to the research for this study were elaborated upon in these discussions. Reaching all learners included further delving into the topic of Developmental Discipline, the importance of relationships with all students.

There were 20 teachers in attendance at this session, 11 teachers chose to discuss reaching all learners and nine teachers joined the intrinsic motivation group. These small group discussion topics were chosen based on the relevance to the study and the large number of teachers requesting information about them, which in turn, supported the teachers' autonomous needs.

Co-facilitators modeled autonomy supports by providing teachers with opportunities for voice and choice in terms of honoring their requests for specific information and by providing choice during the session (Steps 1 and 3.)

- ***PD Session 5: March 29, 2016 (8:00 a.m.-8:40 a.m.)***

Purpose: To increase understanding of autonomy-supportive schooling (article by Tate & Copas), to model cooperative process, and to collect the post-survey data.

Resources/Materials Needed: Reading: Tate, T. F., & Copas, R. L. (2003). Insist or enlist? Adultism versus climates of excellence. *Reclaiming Children and Youth: The Journal of Strength-based Interventions*, 12(1), 40-45.

Session Procedures:

8:00 a.m.-8:20 a.m.: Session introduction and jigsaw activity: The article to be discussed during the opening of this session was emailed to teachers a week in advance with instructions to highlight text in the reading that was found to be personally relevant. This was to form the content for our class meeting in the opening of this session. However, teachers had not read the article so the co-facilitators adjusted this activity by providing time during the session for teachers to read sections of the article in a jigsaw fashion (teachers numbered off from one to six and then read different sections.) The teachers then were introduced to the concept of a “spirit read.” This activity involves reading aloud a short passage exactly as written in the text. Others join in when they feel a connection with someone’s shared reading, choose to read a different passage, or at times share the same passage. A discussion of the article followed the spirit read.

8:20 a.m.-8:40 a.m.: Time provided for participants to complete the post-survey.

The Tate and Copas (2003) article used for this session provided a rationale for autonomy-supportive schooling in terms of benefits to both students and teachers. The article highlights the importance of trusting, caring relationships with students as critical to the learning process and provided a useful tool for generating conversation following the spirit read.

Teachers shared examples of how they had made changes in practice to become more autonomy-supportive in their classrooms. This conversation helped to encourage

understanding and alignment. For example, teachers talked at length about ways to include students in planning and leading activities for the annual whole school celebration at the start of school.

- ***PD Session 6: April 13, 2016 (3:00 p.m.-3:30 p.m.)***

Purpose: To facilitate a discussion around and to model autonomy supports and to provide modeling for using the online supports.

Resources/Materials Needed: Access to technology for each small discussion group. (Teachers were asked to bring laptop computers or some device for accessing the Google Drive folders for this session.)

Session Procedures:

3:00 p.m.-3:05 p.m.: This session started with a brief review of the resources provided in the online supports.

3:05 p.m.-3:20 p.m.: Discussion groups were formed: Cards labeled with the six areas of autonomy supports as organized in the online supports were placed in the center of the tables. Teachers were offered the opportunity to choose one of the autonomy-supportive topics to discuss with their peers. The following groups were formed as a result of this process: 1) Building Relationships; 2) Reaching Hard-to-Reach Students; 3) Intrinsic Motivation; and 4) Developmental Discipline. Group members then decided upon note-takers and the note-takers accessed the online Google Doc for notes within the PD folders created for this model.

Utilizing this support allowed for shared note taking if members chose to

do so. This also created a shared record that could later be accessed by all members.

3:20 p.m.-3:30 p.m.-Groups shared out the results of their conversation with the whole group.

Closure: This was our last session, so we thanked the community of teachers for sharing their time and for participating in the research.

- Follow-up: Utilizing the Google Doc for note taking in this session allowed the co-facilitators to go in later to make comments or suggestions further offering autonomy supports in terms of content and process even after the PD workshops had ended.

This final session modeled autonomy supports by offering choice and voice to teachers within the framework of autonomy-supportive schooling while also supporting teachers needs for relatedness and competence. Teachers reflected upon past sessions and explored ideas related to applications within their classrooms and school community supporting understanding and alignment. In particular, during this session, teachers discussed and recorded examples of changes they had made related to practice and their intentions to change future practice as a result of the PD sessions. Examples included encouraging student voice and choice through class meetings connected to academic learning, working to build relationships with all students, creating opportunities for staff members to develop relationships outside the school setting, and discussing structures of rewards.

Chapter Three: Methods

Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the research design for the study on the effects of a professional development (PD) model on teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports at a Midwestern K-5 elementary school.

The study utilized a quasi-experimental (comparison group) design with a sequential-explanatory mixed-methods approach, using quantitative data collection (surveys) followed with qualitative data collection in the form of focus group interviews. Plano-Clark and Creswell (2010) suggested a quantitative approach when the researcher "seeks to measure...changes over time in individuals or how well factors are able to predict individuals' attitudes or behaviors" (p. 138). The quantitative research component included two separate measures that were administered to intact groups of teachers who consented to participate at two different elementary schools within the same district. The experimental group of teachers participated in the autonomy-supportive PD designed for this study and the comparison group of teachers participated in a different set of PD experiences. Both groups of teachers did a pre-test, participated in PD, and did a post-test. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to both develop an autonomy-supportive PD model and to determine if teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports increased following participation in the PD model in the experimental group.

Additionally, the mixed-method design included qualitative research in the form of focus group interviews to "[seek] a deep[er] understanding of the views of individuals" participating in the study (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010, p. 138). The focus group

interviews included teachers at the experimental school who consented to participate. Data collected from the focus group interviews were used to “refine the quantitative results by exploring a few typical cases” (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010, p. 305) and were used to assess the effectiveness of the PD model in order to improve the model for future participants.

Setting, Sampling, and Participants

This study took place in two Midwestern elementary schools located within the same suburban district. The primary investigator was able to gain access to the research sites because of a prior relationship with the school administrator of the experimental school. After discussing the criteria for a second school, this building administrator also helped to secure a school that he felt represented similar demographics within the same district to serve as the comparison group. The administrator of the experimental school was willing and able to secure permission for a series of onsite PD workshops to be conducted at his school site.

According to Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education’s (DESE) website (<http://dese.mo.gov>), the experimental school has 366 students with 15.8% of students qualifying for the free or reduced-price lunch program. The control school has 385 students with 9.6% of the students meeting eligibility for the free or reduced-price lunch program. Demographic information accessed via the DESE website regarding student ethnicity lists 78.1% white, 10.1% black, 4.9% Hispanic, 3.8% Asian, and 3% multi-race for the experimental school and 80.3% white, 10.1% black 5.7% Asian, 3.4% Hispanic, .3% Indian, and .3% multi-race for the control school. For these three criteria, both schools were remarkably similar.

Sampling, for the purposes of this research, included elementary teachers who were involved in building-level professional development (PD) at the experimental and control schools and consented to participate in the study. “Few researchers have the resources to draw a sample from a very large, geographically dispersed target populations...Instead, they draw their samples from an accessible population, which is all the individuals who realistically could be included in the sample” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 167). Non-probability sampling was utilized for the quantitative data collection because individuals selected for participation were “available, convenient, and represent” the larger teacher group (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010, p. 184). According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), when collecting quantitative data, it is recommended to use the largest possible sample available.

The study intended to include all of the teachers at both school sites who consented to the study and were already scheduled to participate in building-level PD that occurred on specific days throughout the school year. Time was provided during scheduled PD sessions to complete the pre- and post-surveys at both schools and to conduct the series of workshops on the topics related to autonomy-supportive schooling at the experimental school. Teachers at the experimental school were given release time during the school day to participate in the focus groups as well. The primary investigator and co-facilitator did not have prior relationships with the teachers in these schools.

We were concerned about the effects of subject attrition or workshop attendance over such an extended period of time (Gall et al., 2007). Since permission was obtained to utilize the district’s PD calendar at the experimental school, teachers were generally expected to attend building-level PD workshops as a part of their contractual obligations.

Because of this, we hoped the majority of teachers working with students in grades kindergarten through fifth at the experimental school would attend the workshop sessions. Teacher attendance rosters were kept from workshop sessions and their analysis suggested attendance varied.

A follow-up conversation with the building administrator helped to shed light on the inconsistent attendance numbers. He stated that attendance during PD sessions varies at times due to illness of staff members or their children, scheduled family leave, family emergencies, and in the case of the four special education teachers, they are often required to attend another set of PD sessions (see table 1 for a description of study participant numbers).

Table 1: Number of Study Participants

School:	Total #Teachers	Pre-test Survey	PD 1: 12/9/15	PD 2: 1/12/16	PD 3: 2/26/16	PD 4: 3/1/16	PD 5: 3/29/16	PD 6: 4/13/16	Post-test Survey
Experimental	36	30	25	19	18	20	26	28	16
Comparison	35	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	25

Note. The comparison group did participate in a set of PD sessions, but it was a non-autonomy-supports PD. PD session 1 was from 1:45-3:30PM, PD sessions 2, 3, 4, & 5 from 8:00-8:40AM, and PD session 6 from 3:00-3:30PM.

A statistical analysis of participant demographics was conducted on the two groups of teachers representing the experimental and control groups. Chi-square tests on demographic information provided by participants support that teacher demographics at both schools are similar. The following p-values were determined: .34 for the ages of teachers, .08 for gender, .53 for years of teaching experience, and .21 for self-described racial identity (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, April 23, 2016). Tables 2-5 provide a description of participant demographics.

Table 2: Demographic Description of Participants: Age

<i>Age:</i>	<i>Experimental Group</i>	<i>Control Group</i>
21-30	6	5
31-40	10	6
41-50	9	10
51-60	5	3
61+	0	3

Table 3: Demographic Description of Participants: Gender

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Experimental Group</i>	<i>Control Group</i>
Male	5	0
Female	25	27

Table 4: Demographic Description of Participants: Experience

<i>Years of Experience</i>	<i>Experimental Group</i>	<i>Control Group</i>
1-5 years	6	3
6-10 years	7	6
11-15 years	9	4
16-20 years	0	8
21-25 years	3	3
25+	5	3

Table 5: Demographic Description of Participants: Racial Identity

<i>Racial Identity</i>	<i>Experimental Group</i>	<i>Control Group</i>
Native Amer.	1	0
Latino	3	0
White	25	23
Black	0	0
Pac. Islander	0	2
Other	1	1

Purposeful sampling was used for the qualitative data collection portion of this study by intentionally selecting participants for inclusion in order to gain information leading to understanding of the central phenomenon (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010). For this study's focus group interviews, purposeful sampling included involving teachers who met the following criteria: teachers who participated in at least four of the six workshop sessions, as well as teachers that represented various grade levels, and teachers with a range in years of teaching experience. The focus group interview helped "to collect shared understanding from several individuals as well as to get views from specific people" (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010, p. 258).

The teachers were divided into two groups based on years of teaching experience: 1) A veteran group of teachers with six or more years of teaching experience and 2) a novice group of teachers with less than three years of experience. Tables 6 and 7

describe the focus group participants. Letters representing teacher names are used in order to respect teacher confidentiality.

Table 6: Novice Teacher Focus Group

<i>Participants</i>	<i>Grade Taught</i>	<i>Years Teaching</i>
Teacher AN	3 rd	1
Teacher BN	4 th	1
Teacher CN	5 th	3
Teacher DN	K-5	1

Table 7: Veteran Teacher Focus Group

<i>Participants</i>	<i>Grade Taught</i>	<i>Years Teaching</i>
Teacher AV	K	28
Teacher BV	1 st	10
Teacher CV	2 nd	6
Teacher DV	3 rd	14
Teacher EV	5 th	10
Teacher FV	K-5	19

Data Collection

Measures. Data collection included both quantitative and qualitative measures.

Teacher surveys were administered before and after the professional development (PD) at the experimental school including self-reported demographic information and two

embedded measures to be described in detail in the following section and focus group interviews were completed at the experimental school upon the completion of the PD.

Quantitative measures. Quantitative measures for this study included three instruments that addressed the research questions regarding elementary educators' intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy-supports. The survey included a demographic questionnaire, a measure of teachers' intentions to provide students autonomy supports (TIPSAS), and a questionnaire of teacher orientation for an autonomy-supportive or controlling approach toward motivating students (PIS). The measures are described below.

Demographics. Demographic information that was gathered included gender, age, ethnicity, and years of teaching experience. We collected this demographic information to see if it had an impact on participants' motivations and/or intentions to provide students autonomy supports (see Appendix E).

Although not technically related to demographic information, an item was also included in this section addressing the teacher's self-described classroom practice regarding Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS). Response choices ranged from 1 (*almost always*) to 4 (*never*) in reference to teacher perceptions of their use of PBIS practices with students.

The researchers included this item in the survey due to conversations prior to the study with the building administrator indicating that PBIS had been implemented at the experimental school. However, the extent of the school's alignment was not discovered until after the completion of the study when more questions were asked about PBIS at the school. Following this study, administration disclosed that the school had implemented

PBIS beginning in the 2008-2009 school year when he became the principal that year. He was involved with PBIS at his previous school. The principal said that most staff are currently using components of PBIS and would identify the school as a PBIS school.

Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS). This survey was developed by the primary investigator when no measure of teacher intentions was found following a search of the literature. The survey includes a series of statements based on the professional development goals and objectives related to teacher intentions to provide students autonomy supports. Initially, survey items were developed based on autonomy-supportive teaching practices. Survey items such as involving students in the development of classroom rules, implementing student-led class meetings, and involving students in decision-making are all examples of autonomy supports (Reeve, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2013). In the item analysis, statements were evaluated according to the three basic attributes of good questions: focus, brevity, and clarity (Gall et al., 2007). "Ideally, every survey question should be deliberate and explicitly linked to answering your research questions" (Butin, 2010, p. 92).

A draft of the measure was reviewed by the dissertation committee. The committee also suggested that the survey be forwarded to Dr. Edward Deci, University of Rochester, researcher and co-founder of self-determination theory (SDT) for a final review. Dr. Deci suggested minor changes to survey wording. Feedback was collected from all of the expert reviewers and changes were then made based on their suggestions. These changes resulted in the development of the three different scales described below.

Teachers' intentions were assessed with a series of 22 items on the three subscales. On the first subscale, *General Intentions*, teachers were asked to rate 12 items

on a scale from 1 (*absolutely won't do*) to 4 (*absolutely will do*), describing the strength of their intention to take specific actions in their classrooms. On the second subscale, *Hypothetical Intentions*, teachers were asked to describe the strength of their intentions from 1 (*absolutely wouldn't do*) to 4 (*absolutely would do*) to take actions described in five statements should they be in a position to do so. Higher scores on these items indicated stronger intentions for the potential behavior that is described on each item. On the third subscale, *Frequency of Intentions*, there were five items related to how often teachers intend to enact certain behaviors in the classroom related to providing autonomy supports for students. Teachers were asked to utilize a four-point scale to rate the frequency of their intentions. Response choices range from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*daily*) (see Appendix F).

Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS). The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS) developed by Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman and Ryan (1981) was also administered to study participants (see Appendix B). This survey instrument “assesse[d] whether individuals in a position of authority, whose job is, in part, to motivate others, tend to be oriented toward controlling the behavior of those others versus supporting their autonomy. The PIS assesses whether teachers tend to be controlling versus autonomy-supportive with their students” (<http://www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/motivators-orientations-questionnaires/>, para. 1). The survey consists of eight vignettes with four different response choices for a total of 32 ratings. The response choices “represent four different behavioral options for dealing with the problem that is posed in the vignette: one is Highly Autonomy Supportive (HA), one is Moderately Autonomy Supportive (MA), one is Moderately Controlling (MC), and one is Highly Controlling (HC)”

(<http://www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/motivators-orientations-questionnaires/>, para.

1). Participants respond by indicating their beliefs regarding the appropriateness of each of the four response choices for all eight vignettes on a seven-point scale.

The survey was administered with minor changes to adjust for more contemporary relevance. For example, in vignette B, item five “ten-speed” changed to “game system,” in vignette E, “Mrs.” changed to “Ms.,” and in vignette H, item 32, “a dollar” changed to “three dollars” and “50 cents” changed to “one dollar.” The panel of experts together with the primary investigator determined these changes would not impact data collection (see Appendix G).

The PIS Questionnaire has been used in several previous studies. When the PIS was developed and normed, data supported the measure’s ability to differentiate teachers orientation toward control or autonomy. In a study of 35 teachers and 610 4th, 5th, and 6th grade students that compared the students’ perceptions of their teachers on the classroom climate measure with the PIS, Deci et al. (1981) found the subscales to have adequate external validity (the correlation of teachers’ total scores on the control/autonomy measure and children’s perceptions of their teachers of .35 was significant at the .05 level). The subscales were found to have good internal consistency as measured by Cronbach’s alpha (.70, .69, .63, and .76) and good temporal stability as measured by test-retest reliability (the reliability coefficients for the four subscales range from .77 to .82) (Deci et al., 1981).

Fifteen years later study results indicated concerns regarding the PIS and its ability to differentiate between autonomy-supportive and controlling teachers (Reeve et al., 1999). Reeve et al. (1999) addressed two concerns about the PIS; one in terms of

conceptual validity of the measure and second, the fact that no study had confirmed whether or not teachers truly interacted with students in ways that aligned with their responses on the PIS in terms of an autonomy-supportive or controlling motivator orientation. Results of these studies indicated that one of the four subscales on the PIS, the moderately autonomy-supportive (MA) subscale proved to be invalid. “The validity scores produced by the HA [highly autonomy-supportive], MC [moderately controlling], and HC [highly controlling] was confirmed, whereas the validity of scores produced by the MA scale was not”(Reeve et al., 1999, p. 540). The researchers addressed this concern by zero weighting the MA scores on subsequent studies, using the three reliable and valid scale scores in order to obtain a total score on the PIS which identifies autonomy-supportive or controlling teachers (Reeve et al., 1999). For the purposes of this research, the MA scores were also zero weighted.

In terms of the second concern of whether or not actual teacher-student interactions align with the teacher’s motivation orientation results on the PIS, studies confirmed the predictive validity of the PIS (Reeve et al., 1999).

Qualitative measure. In addition to the survey, qualitative data were gathered through interviews with two groups immediately following the completion of PD model for the experimental group. The focus groups were facilitated by the co-researchers. During the first focus group, the primary investigator facilitated while the co-researcher transcribed. We then reversed roles for the second focus group. The first focus group consisted of four teachers who are novices to the profession, three first year teachers, and one teacher with three years of teaching experience. The second group included six veteran teachers with between six and 28 years. Researchers used purposeful sampling as

described above in the “sampling” section to select teacher/participants to be invited to participate in the focus group interviews. The purpose of these focus groups was to gain understanding of the teachers’ PD experiences in order to test the efficacy of the PD model in increasing teachers intentions and motivations to provide students with autonomy supports and to improve the PD model for future practice.

An interview protocol guided by the research questions was used as a template for conducting the focus groups. This script was developed according to suggestions by Jacob & Furgerson (2012) and included important elements such as what to say before and at the close of the interview, prompts for collecting the informed consent, and prompts to remind the researchers of the interview questions. The interview protocol was reviewed by research professors at the University of Missouri, St. Louis prior to the interview sessions and included questions and probes in order to elicit more information on their PD experiences (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010). Broad, open-ended questions were formulated to encourage participants to determine their own options and responses. Examples included: “How do you feel the workshops have impacted your beliefs about autonomy-supportive teaching” and “What makes you feel you want to or can use these strategies?” We also sought feedback from participants on aspects of the professional development experience that they found most helpful and asked for suggestions for improvement (see Appendix D for the complete focus group interview protocol).

The focus group interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed in order to provide a detailed record of the interview session for analysis (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010).

Procedures

The purpose of this dissertation-in-practice (DIP) project was to design and implement an autonomy-supportive professional development (PD) model, and to test the efficacy of this PD model to enhance teachers' intentions and motivations to support their students' autonomy. I also sought to gather information from the teachers related to insights gained related to autonomy-supportive schooling as a result of participating in the PD as well as suggestions for improvement of the PD model.

The study was conducted at the experimental school while the comparison school was not involved in the PD model developed for this study and served as the comparison site.

IRB approval for this study was obtained in the form of an expedited review procedure. According to IRB specifications, informed consent was obtained for focus group and survey participants (see Appendices H and I), survey instruments were anonymous, and focus group audio recordings will be destroyed within one year of the conclusion of the study.

The researchers visited both schools prior to the start of the workshops at the experimental school. During these face-to-face meetings, they introduced themselves, informed teachers about the study, and sought consent for those willing to participate in the study. Researchers also discussed any potential limits to confidentiality, the use of the data, answered questions that the teachers had, and made it clear that participation in data collection is voluntary, (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). A visit to the experimental school occurred on November 10, 2015 and 22 teachers consented to participate and the comparison school was visited on December 11, 2015 and 29 teachers consented to participate in the study. Administrators at both schools sent electronic copies of the

consent form to teachers and an attempt was made to gather additional teacher consents at the experimental school on December 9, 2015 prior to the first PD session.

We had previously met with both administrators at the experimental school to create a schedule for the professional development (PD) sessions. This schedule is based on already assigned district and building PD sessions that teachers are expected to attend. Based on this schedule, PD sessions began in early December 2015 and concluded in April 2016 (see Table 8 for a timeline of the study).

As shown in Table 8, the workshop sessions ranged in duration from thirty-minutes to a one hour and forty-five minutes session with support provided through electronic/technological means between all face-to-face sessions. It is important to note that while we facilitated the PD session on April 13, post-surveys had been completed by 13 of the 16 participants prior to this date. It was recommended by the dissertation committee to launch the post survey earlier due to deadlines within the Ed.D. program.

Table 8: Study Timeline

School:	Introduced Study: Site Visit	Pre-survey	PD Session #1 1:45-3:30PM	PD Session #2 8:00-8:40AM	PD Session #3 8:00-8:40AM	PD Session #4 8:00-8:40AM	PD Session #5 8:00-8:40AM	PD Session #6 3:00-3:30PM	Post-survey	Focus Group Interviews
Experimental:	11/10/15	12/6/15	12/9/15	1/12/16	2/26/16	3/1/16	3/29/16	4/13/16	3/29/16	3/30/16
Comparison:	12/11/15	12/11/15	—	—	—	—	—	—	4/8/16	—

Note: The comparison group did participate in a set of PD sessions, but it was a non-autonomy-supports PD.

The survey was administered to teachers who consented to participate at the experimental and comparison schools twice: prior to and upon completion of the

workshop sessions that were conducted at the experimental site. Qualtrics online software was used to organize and distribute the survey (<https://www.qualtrics.com>.)

Following IRB approval, the survey link was sent out via an email link to the participants at the experimental school on December 6, 2015. This resulted in 11 completed surveys. A reminder email was sent to teachers on December 8, 2015 and four more surveys were completed. In order to gather more responses, time was provided for teachers to complete surveys during the PD session on December 9, 2015. This resulted in an additional 16 surveys for a total of 30 pre-surveys for the experimental group.

In terms of post-surveys at the experimental school, another email link was sent to teachers following the PD session on March 29, 2016. This resulted in 13 completed teacher surveys. An email reminder including the survey link was sent to teachers on April 6, 2016. No additional surveys were completed as a result of this reminder. Therefore, time was provided to complete the survey during the final PD session on April 13, 2016. This resulted in three more completed surveys for a total of 16 participants in post-survey data collection at the experimental school.

Immediately following the introductory visit to the comparison school on December 11, the survey link was sent to teachers and 14 surveys were completed. Email reminders were sent to encourage more teacher participation on January 6 and 23, 2016. This resulted in five more completed surveys for a total of 19 pre-surveys for the comparison group. The post-survey was completed by teachers at the comparison school on April 8, 2016 during a staff meeting at which time 24 participants completed the survey. One more additional survey was completed at the comparison school on April 13, 2016 for a total of 25 participants in post-survey data collection for the comparison

group. Unfortunately, there were no means of identifying or matching up the participants on the pre- and post-surveys.

In addition to the quantitative data, qualitative data were collected in the form of two focus group interviews comprised of a sampling of teachers who participated in the PD model at the experimental school. We gathered consent from a total of ten teachers who participated in the two focus groups, representative of the larger group of teachers. There was a novice teacher group and a veteran teacher group. Analysis of the focus group interviews helped to identify strengths and limitations of the PD model for the purpose of future improvement.

Teachers at the comparison school also participated in building and district level PD activities. These activities were not planned or facilitated by the researchers and, according to the administrator of the school, focused on the adoption of a new language arts curriculum. PD experiences at the comparison school during the 2015-16 school year were described as having an instructional focus. Staff spent time gaining competence related to implementing this new language arts program on all PD planning sessions. The building administrator reported in the prior two years (August 2013- May 2015), PD activities included a more intentional focus on building-level character education goals specifically related to implementing “The Leader In Me” program based on Stephen Covey’s school model (www.theleaderinme.org).

Data Analysis

Quantitative. Prior to conducting the main analyses, we first checked our measures for reliability and then conducted preliminary tests to determine whether any of our demographic variables predicted the study’s main outcome variables. For this

purpose, we used post intervention data to run linear regression models testing the effects of various covariates along with their group membership interactions (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016). Specifically, demographic variables of gender, age, years of teaching experience, and teachers' self-described use of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) were examined as covariates in separate interaction models. Race was not included because there was only one non-white teacher in the experimental group post-data (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016). For the main analyses, t-tests were run to determine whether post-test means were significantly different from pre-test means in each school, and whether the means of the experimental school differed from the means of the comparison school (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016).

Qualitative. During the focus group interviews, two groups of teachers (novice and veteran) who participated in the experimental workshops were interviewed with carefully selected, open-ended questions that supported the research questions (see Appendix D). Data were analyzed related to the teachers' responses related to the PD model. Field notes and the audio recordings were used to aid in the transcription of the focus group interviews. Grounded theory was used as a means for analyzing the qualitative data (i.e. the two focus group interview transcripts along with fieldnotes from the focus group interviews). The transcripts were read line-by-line, while looking for meaningful undivided units. Reading, reading over again, as well as listening to the recording of the interviews helped us to identify units of text to then analyze (Chenail, 2012). We wrote notes in the margins of the transcripts during the initial data analysis.

Open coding was used to examine data. The process of open coding helped us to “open up the text and expose the thoughts, ideas, and meanings contained therein identify many different units of meaning within the data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998b, p. 102). We generated 329 initial codes from the transcripts. Cleaning up and deleting repetitious codes that were not informative led to 91 codes. We then merged codes into concepts, in the raw data following the coding process and through analysis via constant comparison; categories that represented phenomena were developed by grouping similar concepts “under more abstract concepts termed ‘categories’”(Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 102).

Next, we performed axial coding. Throughout the process of axial coding, subcategories were related to categories, relationships were tested against the data, and the categories were more fully developed at the level of their properties and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Theoretical memos following the coding process helped with formulating and revising categories (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). During this entire process, we compared data from novice and veteran teacher groups.

The following example may serve as a description of the process used during the development of the category of “Trusting Adult Culture.” A significant number of initial codes from the interview data reflected teachers’ perceptions and feelings, both past and present, as related to their experiences with peers. Teachers spoke at length about their ability to hear and be heard by others as well as other experiences related to the adult culture within the school. Upon analysis of the initial codes related to these experiences with peers, we were able to bundle them into two concepts. One concept was risk and safety and the other one was relationship building. These concepts then were consolidated into the overall category of “trusting adult culture” and became

subcategories of this category. This same process was followed to develop each of the four categories, 10 subcategories, 12 properties and their dimensions that resulted from the 91 initial codes from the focus group data.

In addition to the grounded theory analysis, a content analysis of participant's statements about and appraisals of the PD model was conducted. Content analysis helps researchers describe a phenomenon in a systematic way and can be either inductive or deductive (Elo & Kyngä, 2008). Our analyses of the PD-related parts of the interviews were deductive. It was our goal to see how the participants described the process and the outcome of the PD, so "process" and "outcome" were the set categories. Accordingly, in the analytic process we first looked for units of meaning related to the PD model, then analyzed and coded the meaning units based on the categories of PD process or PD outcome in order to identify what content areas the participants addressed in the discussion of both (Elo & Kyngä, 2008).

Quality Standards

Both quantitative and qualitative quality standards will be addressed in this section due to the mixed-methods design of this research. This includes concerns around the validity and reliability of the measures used in the study. The survey instruments were aligned with the variables identified as important within the study and surveys were based on similar theoretical models measuring the key constructs and dimensions of this study. Reliability of the measures used in this study is addressed below including a discussion of consistency of instrument scoring over a period of time and internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010).

Steps were also taken to ensure data collection procedures were ethical, respected both individuals and the study site, and followed the guidelines as specified in the IRB proposal. Standardized procedures were used to collect the data including standardizing the directions given, encouraging as many teachers to complete the surveys as possible and anticipating possible threats to the study in an attempt to draw valid conclusions (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010).

Quantitative quality standards: Scale reliabilities. While the Problems in Schools (PIS) questionnaire has been found to be reliable and valid (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999), the Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS) measure was developed for this DIP project and so its validity and reliability needed to be assessed.

In regard to the Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS), content validity as well as question clarity was addressed by having experts in the field preview the survey and then provide feedback. Changes were then made based on this feedback. Reliability of the survey instrument was determined by assessing internal consistency including how well items correlate with one another. Preliminary analyses indicated the following: Cronbach's alpha for the General Intentions Subscale of the measure were .90 and .86 for the pre and post intervention groups respectively, and .88 overall; and, Cronbach's alpha for the second subscale, Hypothetical Intentions Subscale, of the TIPSAS were .80 and .79 for the pre intervention and post intervention groups, respectively, and .79 overall (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016). Therefore, the items on the first two subscales on the TIPSAS were found to be reliable. These subscales were combined in order to run statistical analyses. The

Cronbach's alpha for the combined subscale was .89. The final subscale on the TIPSAS, Frequency of Intentions Subscale, asked teachers how often they planned to do certain actions in their classrooms. Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was .60 and .59 for the pre intervention and post intervention groups, respectively, and .60 overall (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016). This indicated that the items in this subscale do not function as a reliable subscale. In retrospect this makes sense because the items cover substantially different practices that may be appropriately implemented at differing time intervals. Thus the third subscale was discarded. In sum, then, the teachers' intentions towards autonomy support was represented in this study by a single score reflecting the combined General Intentions and Hypothetical Intentions subscales.

Qualitative quality standards. All attempts were made to meet high quality standards during the qualitative data collection section of the study (i.e. focus group interviews). Miles, Huberman, & Saldana (2014) supported the view that because qualitative studies involve real people in real world settings with reasonable viewpoints of what happened, qualitative researchers can and should hold themselves accountable to a set of standards. The five main issues along with a description of each criterion based on their recommendations are bulleted below (Miles et al., 2014).

- Objectivity/Confirmability (sometimes called external reliability)

This involves attempts of the researchers to be aware of and free of bias to the extent possible, maintaining a neutral approach during the focus group interview session and while analyzing the interview session. Researchers worked together to help support a more neutral and bias-free approach to the collection and interpretation of the data. Attempts were made during analysis of the transcripts to

consider all possible data segments and detailed notes were kept of the interview session as outlined by the IRB proposal.

- Reliability/Dependability/Auditability

All attempts were made to ensure the study was done with quality and integrity.

Methods amongst researchers were consistent throughout the study including:

being congruent regarding the goals of the workshop sessions; jointly visiting

both the control and intervention schools preceding any data collection in order to

ensure a consistent message and to encourage participation by teachers in the data

collection; meetings for reflection and planning between workshop sessions;

following the same rules and procedures in data analysis; utilizing intercoder

agreement checks during data analysis; and consulting with the mentor team

regularly.

- Internal Validity/Credibility/Authenticity

Miles et al. (2014) referred to this criterion as the truth-value and listed a host of

suggestions that help guide the researcher's write-up of the study to represent the

experiences of the study participants and findings in a truthful and integral way.

Researchers through constant comparison to the original data made sure that "data

presented are well linked to the categories of prior or emerging theory" (Miles et

al., 2014, p. 313).

- Generalizability/Transferability

Although this research is not conducive to transfer across other settings without

further research done in the future, the researchers believe "the findings include

enough "thick descriptions" for readers to assess the potential transferability and

appropriateness for their own settings” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 314). A possible example might be conclusions garnered by individual teachers in elementary schools with similar demographics within the same district. We are hopeful that this dissertation-in-practice (DIP) project, providing a description of the professional development (PD) model as experienced by a particular group of teachers, might be helpful to others interested in the impact of autonomy-supportive schooling.

Chapter Four: Quantitative Results

The purpose of this dissertation-in-practice (DIP) project was to design and implement an autonomy-supportive professional development (PD) model, and to test the efficacy of the PD model to enhance teachers' motivations and intentions to support their students' autonomy. In this chapter, the quantitative results of the DIP project on autonomy-supportive PD are presented.

This sequential-explanatory mixed-methods study statistically analyzed pre- and post-survey results for experimental (autonomy-supportive PD intervention) and comparison (standard theme PD) groups; qualitatively assessed novice and veteran teachers' responses to the model.

In this chapter, I will present the quantitative results of the DIP project on autonomy-supportive PD. Teachers at both schools completed pre-and post- surveys that included demographic information, the Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS) measure, and the Problems In Schools (PIS) questionnaire.

Intentions to Use Autonomy Supports: Preliminary Analyses

The Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS; Appendix F) was used to assess teachers' intentions during this study. The first two subscales were aggregated and combined and the scale appears to be reliable ($\alpha = .89$). A histogram of these averaged scores appeared bell-shaped, and a test of normality yielded a p -value of .40, indicating that it would be reasonable to use these averaged scores for t –tests or as the response variable in a linear model to examine the effects of various covariates (See Figure 1) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, June 5, 2016).

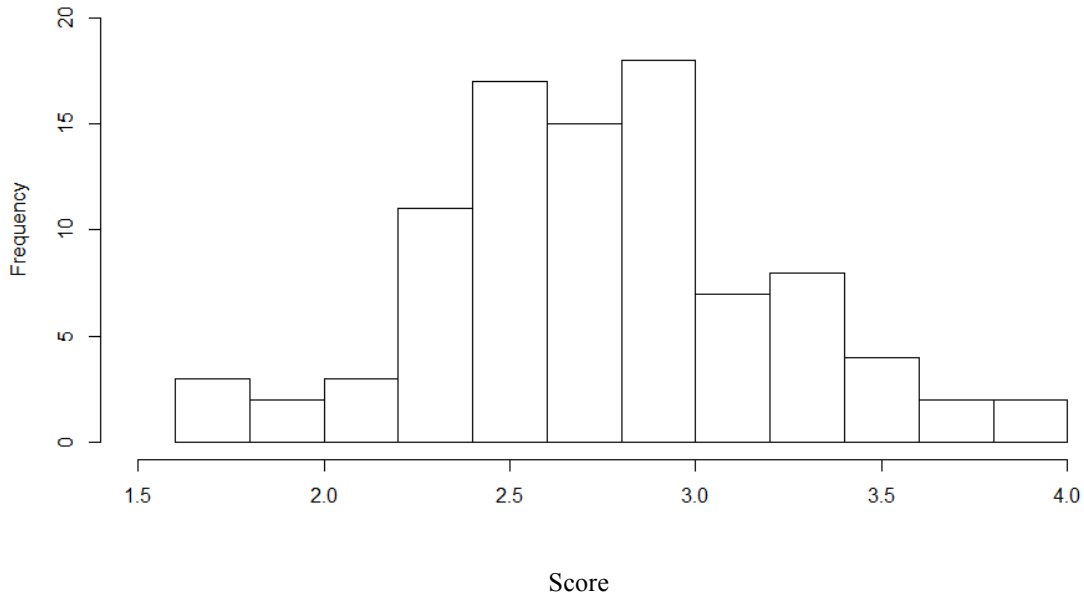


Figure 1: Average Scores on TIPSAS

Demographics. In all subsections below, we were interested in examining if the selected demographic variable was related to the intention to provide autonomy supports and also if there is an interaction between the demographic variable and group type (experimental/comparison).

Several variables were aggregated due to the small sample sizes (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016). The teaching experience variable was recoded from six groups into three groups indicated by 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years. Teachers' self-reported frequency of classroom practices related to Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) was recoded from "almost always, frequently, sometimes, and never" to "always" and "not always." Age was aggregated from five classifications to be less than 40 and over 40.

Gender. Considering the effect of gender on teachers' intentions to provide autonomy supports, we found that female teachers were slightly lower than male teachers, but this difference was not significant (see Table 9) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, April 23, 2016). Note that there is no interaction to test in this model because there were no male teachers in the post intervention data for the comparison group.

Table 9: Regression of Gender and School on Teachers' Intentions

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p-value
(Intercept)	2.91	0.24	12.10	0.00
Gender=Female	-0.10	0.28	-0.35	0.73
Comparison School	-0.16	0.17	-0.93	0.36

Note. 0=Male; 1=Female; 0=Experimental school; 1=Comparison school

Age. When considering the relationship between age and teachers' intentions to provide autonomy supports, we can see that there is no significant age, school, or interaction effect (see Table 10) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, April 23, 2016).

Table 10: Regression of Age and School on Teachers' Intentions

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p-value
(Intercept)	2.78	0.17	16.78	0.00
Age=41+	0.12	0.23	0.50	0.62
Comparison School	-0.30	0.22	-1.40	0.17
Age*School	0.21	0.30	0.69	0.49

Note. Age=0 for under 41 and 1 for 41+; Experimental school=0

Experience. When considering the relationship between teaching experience and teachers' intentions to provide autonomy supports, we can see there is no difference between the effect of considering low to medium experience or low to high experience at

the different schools. Furthermore, there is no difference in any of the experience groups between schools (see Table 11) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, April 23, 2016).

Table 11: Regression of Experience and School on Teachers' Intentions

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p –value
(Intercept)	2.73	0.21	13.07	0.00
Experience=11-20yr	0.13	0.27	0.47	0.64
Experience=20+yr	0.21	0.31	0.68	0.50
Comparison School	-0.35	0.26	-1.33	0.19
Experience11-20yr*School	0.26	0.34	0.76	0.45
Experience20+yr*School	0.30	0.41	0.72	0.47

Note. For each experience category, the stated level is being compared to “10 or fewer years.”

PBIS. When considering the effect of teachers’ self-reports regarding their use of PBIS practice on their intentions to provide autonomy supports, we can see below that the interaction effect between PBIS and teachers’ intentions at the experimental school is significant, meaning that the effect of PBIS on intention to provide autonomy supports is different between the experimental and comparison group (see Table 12) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016).

We can also see that PBIS is significant (two tailed p –value of <0.001) in that those who self-reported that they “always” use PBIS had an average score of ($m = 3.05$) for autonomy intentions than those who did not choose “always” ($m = 2.58$) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 11, 2016). This is a surprising finding and will be discussed in the results chapter.

Table 12: Regression of PBIS (Always Use) on Teachers' Intentions

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p-value
(Intercept)	3.05	0.12	24.98	0.00
PBIS	-0.47	0.15	-3.11	0.00

Note. PBIS=1 for those who chose "Always Use."

Intentions to Use Autonomy Supports: Main Analyses

To examine the main questions of the study, we ran t-tests to determine whether there were any significant differences between pre- and post-tests for both schools and between both schools on pre- and post-tests. The results are presented in Table 13. No significant differences emerged from any of the analyses (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016).

Table 13: TIPSAS Mean Scores and T-Test Results

School	Pre	Post	<i>p</i> – value
Experimental	2.74	2.84	<i>p</i> > .10
Comparison	2.80	2.66	<i>p</i> > .10
<i>p</i> – value	<i>p</i> > .10	<i>p</i> > .10	

Motivations to Use Autonomy Supports: Preliminary Analyses

The Problems In Schools (PIS) questionnaire was used to assess teachers' motivations during this study (see Appendix G).

The same descriptive statistics were utilized for analyzing the pre- and post-survey data from the PIS regarding motivator orientation (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 7, 2016).

The teaching experience variable was recoded from six groups into three groups indicated by 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years. Teachers' self-reported frequency of classroom practices related to Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) was recoded from "almost always, frequently, sometimes, and never" to "always" and "not always." Age was aggregated from five classifications to be less than 40 and over 40. A teaching style variable was also created by aggregating questions 11 through 18 on the PIS according to Reeve, Bolt, and Cai (1999). Higher values indicate that a teacher is more autonomy-supportive.

A histogram of these scores appeared bell-shaped and a test of normality yielded a p -value of .40 indicating that it would be reasonable to use these averaged scores for t –tests or as the response variable in a linear model to examine the effects of various covariates (see Figure 2) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 9, 2016).

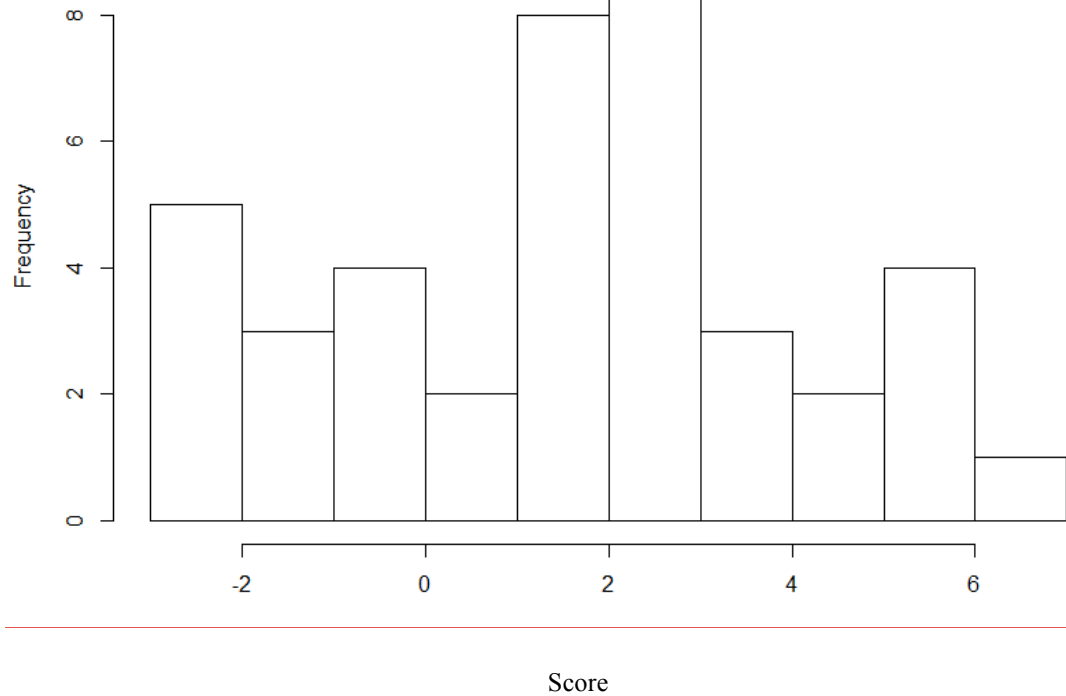


Figure 2: Average Scores on PIS

Demographics. In all below subsections, we were interested in examining if the selected demographic variable was related to teachers' motivations to provide autonomy supports and also if there is an interaction between the demographic variable and group type (experimental/comparison).

Gender. Considering the effect of gender on teacher motivation to provide autonomy supports, we found that female teachers were slightly lower than male teachers (see Table 14) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 11, 2016). Note that there is no interaction to test in this model because there were no male teachers in the post intervention data for the comparison group.

Table 14: Regression of Gender and School on Teachers' Motivations

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p –value
(Intercept)	2.34	1.28	1.83	0.07
Gender=Female	-0.02	1.48	-0.02	0.99
Comparison School	-1.06	0.90	-1.18	0.24

Note. 0=Male; 1=Female; 0=Experimental school; 1=Comparison school

Age. When considering the relationship between age and teachers' motivations to provide autonomy supports, we can see that there is no significant age, school, or interaction effect (see Table 15) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 11, 2016).

Table 15: Regression of Age and School on Teachers' Motivations

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p –value
(Intercept)	1.56	0.90	1.74	0.09
Age=41+	1.54	1.27	1.21	0.23
Comparison School	-0.63	1.18	-0.53	0.60
Age*School	-0.95	1.63	-0.59	0.56

Note. Age=0 for under 41 and 1 for 41+; Experimental school=0

Experience. When considering the relationship between teaching experience and teachers' motivations to provide autonomy supports, we can see there is no difference between the effect of considering low to medium experience or low to high experience at the different schools. Furthermore, there is no difference in any of the experience groups between schools (see Table 16) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 11, 2016).

Table 16: Regression of Experience and School on Teachers' Motivations

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p –value
(Intercept)	1.48	1.17	1.27	0.21
Experience=11-20yr	1.18	1.53	0.77	0.44
Experience=20+yr	1.34	1.75	0.77	0.45
Comparison School	0.41	1.45	0.28	0.78
Experience11-20yr*School	-2.21	1.92	-1.15	0.26
Experience20+yr*School	-2.23	2.27	-0.98	0.33

Note. For each experience category, the stated level is being compared to “10 or fewer years.”

PBIS. When considering the effect of teachers’ self-reports regarding their use of PBIS practice on motivations to provide students autonomy supports, the interaction effect between PBIS and teachers’ motivation at the experimental school approaches significance (p –value of 0.08) (see Table 17) (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016). Teachers who self-reported that they “always” use PBIS had an average score of ($m = 2.68$) for autonomy motivations as compared to those who did not choose “always” ($m = 1.11$). Also, there was no significant difference between the schools (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 11, 2016).

Table 17: Regression of PBIS (Always Use) on Teachers' Motivations

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	p –value
(Intercept)	2.68	0.70	3.82	0.00
PBIS	-1.57	0.86	-1.83	0.08

Note. PBIS=1 for those who chose “Always Use.”

Motivations to Use Autonomy Supports: Main Analyses

To examine the main questions of the study, we ran t -tests to determine whether there were any significant differences between pre- and post-tests for both schools and

between both schools on pre- and post-tests. The results are presented in Table 18. No significant differences emerged from the analyses. When we conducted a one tailed *t*-test on post-test data from the experimental school ($m=2.33$) and the comparison school ($m=1.26$) it gave us a *p*-value of 0.07, which is approaching significance and suggests that the experimental group is more autonomy-supportive (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016). Analyses on the pre-test data from the experimental school ($m=1.08$) and the comparison school ($m=0.53$) gives a *p*-value of 0.18. (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, July 3, 2016).

Table 18: PIS Mean Scores and T-Test Results

School	Pre	Post	P-value
Experimental	1.08	2.33	$p > .10$
Comparison	0.53	1.26	$p > .10$
<i>p</i> –value	$p > .10$	$p = 0.07$	

Additionally, we completed a pre- and post-test distribution of participant scores on the PIS. Although there were no statistically significant differences between the experimental and comparison group, it appears that there is a shift to becoming more autonomy-supportive in the experimental group (see Table 19).

Table 19: Distribution of Scores: PIS

Period	School	<-4	<-4, -2	<-2, 0	0, 2	2, 4	>4	N
Pre	Experimental	1	4	4	9	10	2	30
Pre	Comparison	0	6	1	5	7	0	19
Post	Experimental	0	0	0	7	8	1	16
Post	Comparison	0	5	6	4	4	6	25

Note: A higher score reflects a more autonomy-supportive orientation.

Chapter Five: Qualitative Results

During the focus group interviews, two groups of teachers (novice and veteran) who participated in the experimental workshops were interviewed with carefully selected, open-ended questions that supported the research questions (see Table 20). We used the process of grounded theory to analyze the data describing the teachers' experiences during the PD model related to the research questions. In addition, we conducted a content analysis of participants' statements about (and appraisals of) the PD. A coding chart was developed to present the results of the grounded theory and content analysis (see Table 21). A complete version of the chart with a large set of questions from the interviews can be found in Appendix H.

Table 20: Focus Group Interview Protocol

Focus Group Interview Protocol
1. Begin with an icebreaker such as introductions or a welcoming statement, thanking the participants for consenting to be included in the focus group. Let participants know that we value their input and differing points of view as well. *No right or wrong answers. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. We are recording this session because we don't want to miss any of your comments. No names will be included in any reports. Your comments are confidential.
2. Think back over the past several months and the experiences that you had during the workshop sessions at Pond. Briefly go around the circle and review the workshop sessions at Pond, define and describe autonomy-supports.
3. How do you feel the workshops have impacted your beliefs about autonomy-supportive teaching?
4. What makes you feel you want to/can use these strategies?
5. What do you believe are potential obstacles to providing students' autonomy-supports?
6. What experiences during the professional development sessions were most helpful?
7. What would you suggest to make the workshop sessions more effective?

Table 21: Coding Chart: Structures

Category 1: Intrinsic Motivation		
Subcategory	Property	Dimension
Trust in Student Competence	Social Competence	Trust to Distrust
	Academic Competence	Student Driven to Teacher Controlled
	Democratic Competence (Student Voice)	Encouraged to Discouraged
Letting Go of Control Model of Schooling	Teacher Influences/Experiences as Students	Empowering and Controlling
	Awareness/Understanding Of Need to Let Go of Control Model	High to Low
Dependence on Rewards		High to Low
Parents as Partners	Systems of Rewards & Consequences	High to Low Dependence
Category 2: Trusting Adult Culture		
Subcategory	Property	Dimension
Risk/Safety	Conversation/Sharing Out	Safe to Unsafe
	Peer Observations	Safe to Unsafe
Relationship Building	In School	Positive to Negative
	Outside of School	Expected to Avoided
Category 3: District/Building Alignment		
Subcategory	Property	Dimension

Shared Mindset	Staff Buy-in	High Agreement to Low Agreement
	Training	Strong Focus to Minimal Focus
Policies/Practices	Curriculum	Alignment to No Alignment
	Leadership	Alignment to No Alignment
Accountability		High to Low
Category 4: Dealing with Diverse Needs		
Subcategory	Property	Dimension
SES/Class		Privilege to Lack
Empathy	Student Accountability	High to Low
	Social Background	High to Low
Professional Development (PD)		
Subcategory	Property	Dimension
PD Process	Reflection	Helpful to Inhibiting
	Experiences	Helpful to Inhibiting
PD Outcome	Personal	Change to No Change
	Collective	Change to No Change

The coding chart describes four categories that resulted from 329 initial codes. The data was first organized into meaningful units. Then initial codes were bundled into concepts and consolidated into an overarching category. After assigning codes, overall categories supported by subcategories, their properties and dimensions will be discussed

in the sections below. The properties describe differentiated characteristics of the subcategories and the dimensions refer to the variance or range of the property (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The four categories reveal teachers' interpretations of students' needs regarding autonomy-supportive schooling and are presented in the order of analytical relevance as found in the data. The categories are: (1) Intrinsic motivation, (2) trusting adult culture, (3) district and building alignment, and (4) dealing with diverse needs.

Additionally, the coding chart presents the results of a content analyses of participants' statements about their PD experiences (Professional Development) with two categories: PD process and PD outcome (see Appendix J for a complete coding chart of the interview data).

Category 1: Intrinsic Motivation

The majority of teachers in both focus groups discussed at length this idea of intrinsic motivation in relation to teaching practices in their school and classrooms. A review of literature in Chapter One of this dissertation found that autonomy-supportive practices support intrinsic motivation whereas controlling approaches to schooling undermine intrinsic motivation. Importantly, teachers' motivations and intentions as well as their efficacy to provide students with autonomy supports will be enhanced to the extent that they understand this important connection and the applications for their students.

The category intrinsic motivation has four related subcategories: Trust in student competence; letting go of a control model of schooling; dependence on rewards, and; parents as partners.

Trust in student competence. When teachers trust in student competence then they are more likely to provide autonomy supports within the classroom that lead to student engagement and support intrinsic motivation. Teachers, who trust in student competence, believe that the students themselves are capable of autonomous self-regulation. They are more likely to view students as partners in their learning and trust students to have a say in determining the governing structures of the classroom. This subcategory has three properties: Social, academic, and democratic.

Social. Teachers expressed a range from trust to distrust in students' competence to be autonomous in social interactions within the classroom and school environment. For example, responses ranged from expected to surprised that students could create and support classroom norms. While most teachers in both groups said they involve students in creating class norms at the start of school, only two or three teachers talked about involving students in decisions involving discipline encounters. A veteran teacher explained her surprised reaction to involving young children in solving a problem in the classroom with excessive talking, "I've never really allowed students to decide what their discipline was going to be...so the survey question really impacted me and I was like, I'm going to try that. That seems like it might work and it did" (AV, 124; 142-143). Another veteran teacher admitted "the amount of information and knowledge and awareness that [six and seven year olds] have kinda shocks me because I wouldn't expect it" (BV, 664-666).

The younger teacher group, represented by those teachers in the first few years of teaching, shared trusting beliefs in students' ability to be co-creators of the classroom norms. For these teachers, trusting students to be partners in setting up classroom norms

was more the rule rather than the exception. One novice teacher explained, “I would never have even thought to not have my students involved in making the, like, classroom expectations and things” (AN, 46-47). Other new teachers shared that same trusting belief as explained by a third-year teacher, “I’ve seen both sides...really the side where they [students] make the decisions is much better, it’s much more, they are more involved” (CN, 39-41).

Academic. Teachers within and between groups expressed a range of views in terms of trusting in students’ competence to be more intrinsically motivated in academic areas. Teachers’ beliefs in students’ academic competence ranged from student driven, to the opposite, in need of direct instruction (teacher controlled) with most teachers aligning with teacher-driven instructional methods. Only one veteran teacher talked about changing to provide more intrinsically-aligned supports by providing “more challenging work and more interesting work” and “instead of giving kids [rewards], we give them autonomy to investigate subjects of interest to create project of interest using technology” (FV, 808; 813-815). The other veteran teachers pushed back at this idea regarding this type of academic work as something done outside of the typical school day to be done at home or done in extracurricular areas often citing time as a deterrent. “We don’t have room in our schedules for that kind of challenging stuff that would be of more intrinsic motivation...we have so much curriculum to cram in” (DV, 842-846).

Most of the novice teachers aligned with a more teacher controlled academic view as well, agreeing that time constraints limit a teacher’s ability to provide autonomy supports related to academics. “We can’t really give them as much of the, ‘you guys choose that path.’ I feel that sometimes, I feel that sometimes we’re a lot more, ok, this is

what it's gotta be because we want them to be ready for middle school, we want them to be ready for that first day when they walk in" (CN, 80-84).

A beginning teacher spoke to the greater importance of autonomy supports related to academic tasks in terms of a life skill. "I think autonomy-supportive is just getting each student to be independent and in charge of their own success and their own learning and just having them set their own goals and just start learning what it's like to be an independent learner for life" (204-207).

Democratic. Democratic competence, related to the teachers' support of student voice, ranged from encouraged at times to discouraged at other times. The review of the literature highlighted the importance of student voice in terms of providing autonomy supports for students. Intrinsic motivation is more likely to occur when teachers create structures for authentic student voice. Opportunities for student voice helps to connect all students to the life of the classroom and also supports relatedness needs.

Almost all of the new and veteran teachers stated they encourage student voice when establishing classroom norms each year and through the structure of class meetings. The teachers stated this as an important practice that is sometimes impeded by things like the school's focus on four core words or lack of student reflection upon the norms throughout the day and year. A veteran teacher explained, "I mean I knew I was suppose to be letting them have a say...so what we did do with my fourth graders is we took the expectations off the wall and we put them down in the middle of the circle and as a group, we revised them" (FV, 333-335). A beginning teacher talked about her trust in students being impacted by the students themselves; In that the students were not always receptive to receiving autonomy support in terms of opportunities for voice. "Our group

of kids are not the, not the, most intrinsically motivated. Umm, yeah, we really struggled with that this year, and so umm, getting them to create their own goals, just what we're talking about has been a challenge" (BN, 299-302).

The majority of teachers in both groups agreed that student voice helps them understand student perspectives, build and maintain a positive classroom culture, and connects them to their students. As a novice teacher explained, "I think it's always good to...hear from a perspective of a kid or two. Just hearing from a kid...because you know, you don't realize it...you just think like 'oh, they're eight,' like, but ...they remember the good and they remember the bad from third grade" (AN, 524-531). A veteran teacher described the importance of having students involved in establishing class norms. "I remember like the first time trying to do the rules with the kids, have them come up with it worrying like 'What, how are they going to come up with the rules for our classroom? No, that's the teachers job.' But, I mean it worked out and I still do that every year now" (CV, 277-280).

About half of the teachers from the groups expressed some concerns with student voice such as finding time for class meetings and release of control to a more student-centered approach. For example, one novice teacher said allowing too much student voice may somehow lower expectations, "I want to give them choice and all that kind of stuff, but at the same time I have such high expectations so that they can be ready for next year. So there's that fine balance I think" (CN, 88-90).

Letting go of control model of schooling. Teachers shared thoughts about letting go of a control model of schooling including their beliefs, experiences, and understanding of the need to change. Teachers' ability to let go of a control model of schooling and

adopt a more autonomous approach to teaching is important to supporting intrinsic motivation. Teachers, discussed their own experiences as students, ranging from empowering to controlling, as well as their awareness and understanding (high to low awareness) as greatly influencing their intentions and motivations to provide students with autonomy supports. This subcategory consists of two properties: Teacher experiences and awareness of the need to let go of a control model.

Teacher experiences and the awareness of the need to let go of control model.

Teachers in the two groups shared very different perspectives when they discussed their experiences as students. All of the teachers in both groups acknowledged more seasoned teachers have a harder time adapting to more autonomy-supportive teaching practices. A veteran teacher explained, “Teachers teach the way that we were taught. And so I grew up in a timeframe where it was, you did exactly what the teachers did and it was a very rigorous day...so going through college I was even watching teachers teach that way” (DV, 244-246; 259-260).

This was in contrast to a beginning teacher’s description of her teacher preparation experiences, “We really talked a lot about like, you know, the student voice and choice, and class meetings...definitely, you know, like in college that’s all we talked about” (AN, 43-46). Another novice teacher agreed. “As a newer teacher, you know, we come out of the college setting and then it’s like what you guys are kind of talk was in kind of where we kind of been brought up a little bit. You know, you know some of the teachers that have been taught, for, you know been teaching a little bit longer, maybe their, the training they received was different than the training we kind of received” (CN, 29-34).

All of the veteran teachers discussed their awareness related to the need to let go of a control model of schooling. One veteran teacher described her concerns with placing the control into the hands of her students. “You worry about those things, you put it in their hands and they make the wrong decision. Do you let them have that natural consequence of this decision isn’t a good one or do you then try to guide them in a different direction, like, oh, let’s try to do this but then you are taking the control back out of their hands” (DV, 271-275). Another veteran teacher talked about where she thought the school was in terms of their use of external supports and plans for moving to more intrinsically-aligned supports, “We’ve even talked in our committee because we are PBIS so it is right now a lot of external...but so like we just had our meeting on Monday and we talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic” (BV, 534-538).

Dependence on rewards. Teachers expressed a range from high to low in terms of their self-expressed dependence upon structures of rewards and saw this as greatly impacting their ability to provide autonomy supports for students. While a small group of teachers are eager to move toward a more autonomy-supportive and intrinsically-aligned school culture, most of the teachers are hesitant to let go of their dependence upon structures of rewards. A beginning teacher expressed an awareness of the potential pitfalls of the dependency upon extrinsic supports and how it undermines student motivation. “The kids just like resist that and then I feel like, we have those, you know, struggling kids and we just start putting those extrinsic motivation things out to them and then it, I just feel like doesn’t help and then it just snowballs and then you’re like, where do you stop?” (AN, 408-412) This teacher lacks clarity about other options as suggested

by this comment. A veteran teacher echoed a similar frustration related to ideas for other options to motivate students besides rewards. “So how though? If we stop giving out [rewards], okay now what? We can’t just go cold turkey...what now?” (EV, 540-543)

The veteran teachers all agreed that tangible rewards such as prizes and candy are not helpful motivational supports for students. “Well I think we, because of the health things we’ve gotten rid of the candy and some of those and I don’t think classroom teachers are also doing treasure boxes and the money and stuff where we use to each teacher did that” (AV, 557-560). Although all of the veteran teachers at the school had given up the use of candy and prizes for the most part, they admitted to reliance upon other forms of extrinsics.

One veteran teacher shared a recent classroom example that highlights her struggle with moving away from extrinsic types of supports. “Right now, we are trying to build a word on the board, umm, every time they have a good day or they’ve been good listeners or whatever they get a letter added to the board and then once they’re finished they get an extra recess. You know, like that’s STILL extrinsic. But I feel, like, it’s better than handing out candy. But like that’s me baby stepping” (DV, 688-692). This same teacher worried that without these extrinsics work students would not perform. “Like it’s not as meaningful to them and so, therefore, they’re not producing as much” (DV, 686-687).

All of the veteran teachers discussed the use of reward tickets called “pawsitives,” an institutionalized practice at the school. “At the end of our day, we give out little reminders to let the parents know how their [students] day was. It just says, ‘I had a pawsitive day’...That’s our communication system with the parents. So then they

[students] have to respond and go back home, and say, ‘well, I didn’t get my pawsitive’ because and explain why” (AV, 137-142).

These veteran teachers were reluctant to give up the use of pawsitives suggesting it’s a practice embraced by teachers at the school. One veteran teacher described how she felt ‘pawsitives’ had been helpful in creating common language and practice across grade levels and throughout the school. “I like how, it’s all, how everybody was doing the same thing. Yes, we are handing out pawsitives; but, everybody, it was the same language” (EV, 568-570).

Others expressed concerns about the needs of some students who they feel may not respond to a move toward more intrinsically-aligned supports. A novice teacher described concerns about this shift. “With the older grades...if they haven’t been working with that intrinsic motivation in kindergarten, first, second grade then how do you, you know, it’s hard for them to understand that I’m not just working for a reward” (AN, 413-416).

Only one veteran teacher advocated for doing away with the reward slips. She responded to concerns raised by several others by explaining, “I can see 95% of the student body responding really well to intrinsic motivation and there’s going to be outliers in every single classroom, the kiddo that needs the little behavior chart with the smilies...save those external rewards for the outliers...and try to wean them off of them” (FV, 959-965). Another veteran teacher described her struggle with reinforcers when a student completed a difficult task, “Did I want to give him candy? You know, no, but my reaction was the same yesterday...I just wanted to do more, I didn’t know, I didn’t know what else, you know” (EV, 762-763 and EV, 765-766).

As evidenced above, the teachers in both focus groups indicated that moving away from extrinsic supports is difficult in a school where structures of rewards are institutionally supported.

Parents as partners. Teachers acknowledged the impact of parents and community on school culture leading to their concerns about parental support of autonomy-supportive as opposed to a control model of school. The majority of the teachers in the veteran group discussed parental influences on an intrinsically-aligned culture. They described the school as situated within an affluent community where many of the parents rely upon extrinsic rewards such as “paying for grades” as well as “protecting” their children from natural consequences that they described as a normal part of growing up. These teachers expressed concern that parents would not be in favor of a move towards a more autonomy-supportive approach to school that would place less focus or eliminate structures of rewards.

This subcategory has one property: Systems of rewards and consequences.

Systems of rewards and consequences. During the focus group interviews, all of the veteran teachers discussed how parents often rely upon rewards to motivate their children. One veteran teacher viewed this as an obstacle to movement toward intrinsic alignment. “We know we can’t be doing that and that’s not good for our kids [rewards] but getting that out to our parents in this school because these kids are so use to [rewards]” (DV, 629-632). Another veteran teacher agreed. “We teach in a very affluent community so their parents don’t give them a hug, their parents say, here, go play with my phone and let me buy you a phone so you can play with it because you’re doing such a great job” (AV, 734-737). Other veteran teachers echoed this sentiment. “Just like that

[snapping her fingers] and they are constantly, whatever they want, they get!” (EV, 746-747) and; “They get stuff all the time. ‘Here’s twenty dollars...for everything’” (DV, 738; 740).

One veteran teacher discussed her frustration with parents who pay their students for grades. “I feel like that’s where parents feel like, ‘Well, they always do the right thing so then I don’t have to say, ‘Way to go on getting that A,’ and not giving them twenty dollars for an A” (DV, 801-805).

Another veteran teacher described the role she felt societal or cultural norms played in terms of structures of rewards. “But you get a trophy for JUST participating now...society as made that...society says you showed up today, here’s a trophy” (AV, 699-700; 713).

The veteran group of teachers discussed other ways that parents assumed the responsibility or external locus of control for children’s behavior and how this also undermines the sense of self as responsible for one’s action. For example, a teacher described her concerns about student responsibility or accountability. “They’re taught at home if a parent says six times to do anything, the parent ends up just doing it themselves so they don’t follow expectations at home” (AV, 1049-51). Another veteran teacher agreed stating, “I have parents pick up kids early during an AR incentive if they didn’t meet their reading goal so they weren’t able to participate...so they don’t let them suffer the consequences” (DV, 1054-1059).

Category 2: Trusting Adult Culture

A trusting adult culture helps to support intrinsic motivation because when people perceive a sense of trust in those they work with they are more likely to feel a

connectedness to the reform efforts. In this study, the majority of teachers in both groups talked about the importance of a trusting adult culture in moving toward a more autonomy-supportive approach to schooling. Teachers desired a safe adult environment, highlighting the importance of intentional relationship-building activities both inside and outside of the school environment to support and encourage a positive adult culture. Therefore, teachers' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for their students are likely to be supported within the framework of a trusting adult culture where their own autonomous and relatedness needs are met.

This category has two subcategories: Risk/safety and relationship building.

Risk/safety. Most of the teachers talked openly about their desire for a sense of safety and support when risking new ways of teaching aligned with autonomy supports for students. Teachers discussed feelings of safety in sharing ideas as instrumental to authentic conversation amongst staff. A veteran teacher shared her thinking about talking with her peers related to a sense of safety. "I don't mind speaking up if I don't feel like I'm not going to be judged or attacked verbally or nonverbally...I'm super sensitive to nonverbal communication more than the average person and if I feel like people are rolling their eyes or any of that then I'm not going to talk" (FV, 1397-1404). In response to these comments, another veteran teacher responded, "See that's the fear of speaking out or being judged or thinking that. My fear is what I'm saying is stupid and people are just going to be like what a joke" (DV, 1409-1412).

Veteran teachers recognized that job security or whether or not a teacher has reached tenure may impact a sense of safety related to participation in reform efforts within the school. "I'm just saying [there] is also safety in knowing what we say

is...we're tenured teachers...I think that makes you feel a little bit safer about speaking out whereas the newbies are a little more careful because they...may not get a job next year, people won't like me" (DV, 1438-1446).

All of the teachers in the novice focus group also addressed feelings of safety as important to their work with other teachers. For example, partner sharing or smaller group work as opposed to the whole group helped support a sense of safety. One beginning teacher shared several thoughts related to safety supports, "I'm like, Oh God, will I say the wrong thing?" (AN, 610); "First I'm like, oh my gosh, I'm not sure what I want to say...It's good to talk with [a partner]" (AN, 611-613); and, "When it's a smaller group you just feel more comfortable and when you know we're having conversations engaging rather than just listening" (AN, 567-569). The other three novice teachers echoed her statements.

This subcategory has two properties: Conversation/sharing out and peer observations.

Conversation/sharing out. The majority of new and veteran teachers relayed the importance of time to meet as a staff to discuss and reflect upon ideas as important to autonomy-supportive reform. They desired time within a safe space to meet together as important to their risking new ways of teaching. A veteran teacher expressed her desire for time to meet and talk. "Give us some time to talk just like this, you know like most of the stuff in our staff meetings can be via email, no offense, but the stuff you guys brought in, in brought up really good conversations" (EV, 914-917).

However, one veteran teacher raised an important point about group conversations, namely that group members can choose not to participate. "We have

committee people that don't say a word. They come in and then they leave. They do not say a word. And they are not told you need to participate more, you need to be more engaged. It's okay. It's acceptable" (EV, 1387-1390).

Another veteran teacher described how sharing with peers impacted her learning. "You know just having these types of powerful conversations in staff meetings and PLC's, you know, that idea that she just brought up, that wouldn't have come up without having these powerful sessions" (EV, 158-161). Another veteran teacher reflected upon past experiences with staff conversations and collaboration. "Last year we did something to where we were sharing out, shared best practice...yes, but then it stopped...it made us have really good conversations with each other too" (DV, 174-179; 194).

Teachers preferred to partner up or talk in a small group prior to large group conversation. One new teacher described her feelings about talking with a partner before sharing with the larger group. "As adults, I think that's also a big thing getting that chance to like talk out your ideas and then to like alright, now I want to share that to the common, everyone, to the good of the group" (AN, 614-616).

Frequently, teachers in both groups used words such as "powerful, courageous, good, and engaging" to describe the process of talking with each other and expressed frustration with staff meetings when information can be relayed "via email." A pivotal moment came when a veteran teacher said, "Everything you said that is best practices for students is just the same for adults. You know, the modeling, the reflecting, the discussion" (DV, 1541-1543).

Peer observations. In addition to conversation related to the reform, all of the veteran teachers expressed a desire to observe their peers and others using autonomy-

supportive practices. Many said they learn best through observation and modeling, along with reflection. In order to perceive competence with autonomy-supportive practices, they desired a safe way to learn and practice these new skills. “Observing our peers that are very good at this giving kids more autonomy, encouraging them to have more of a say. I would love that” (FV, 1465-1468)... “Or like videos of you guys modeling a lesson or something” (BV, 1475). Once, a veteran teacher suggested a fieldtrip to the co-facilitators school. “I think we need to go on a fieldtrip to your school [to facilitator]” (FV, 1545).

Another veteran teacher agreed. “Not an email but a time for teachers to get together to see what that looks like their room. Show us what it looks like (DV, 911-912).

Most if not all of the veteran teachers talked about how powerful observing others was to their willingness to risk trying new ways of teaching. “Well I’m such a visual learner and seeing something makes it way more powerful...it’s like that picture or that video sticks in my head...a video or being able to actually witness a teacher doing this in their room sticks with me much longer” (DV, 1483-1489).

Three of the veteran teachers shared past experiences when they’d observed peers or visited another school. One veteran teacher reflected on past practice related to class meetings. “Cause we use to go visit rooms and watch class meetings when we first started something” (AV, 1470-1471).

These teachers said this led to changes in their thinking in terms of risking new practices. “Just witnessing it, being able to take a fieldtrip and go and do that and do that stuff and being able to watch those teachers, it was so empowering to me just made me think I could do it because there’s a lot of things that sound good on paper or you read in

an article and you think, ‘Wow, I’m so glad that worked for that teacher, but I don’t know how to do that’” (DV, 1570-1575).

One veteran teacher shared her desire to see how whole school reform in terms of autonomy-supportive schooling looked. “It would be neat to see schools that are functioning as whole schools doing everyone’s on the same page doing the same thing and that it effects the whole morale of the school, the whole tone of the school” (FV, 1580-1583).

Relationship building. The teachers discussed the importance of positive connections to encourage a sense of relatedness amongst all staff members. Positive staff relationships encourage a trusting adult culture that in turn supports school reform efforts.

This subcategory has two properties: In school and outside of school.

In and outside school. The majority of the teachers from both groups relayed the importance of positive connections with peers as important to a trusting adult culture. A first-year teacher said, “Staff to staff relationships are so important, especially as newer teachers” (AN, 495-496). A veteran teacher described the importance of relationships to her learning. “We learn best from each other. In this building, there [are] a lot of good people that I’ve learned from” (EV, 1508-1509).

However, the teachers shared both positive and negative experiences in terms of building relationships with other adults. Two veteran teachers talked about past experiences where they perceived that relationships with others were discouraged by leadership. “They like teachers that come in, do their jobs, don’t complain about anything, aren’t vocal about it” (EV, 1356-1358). Another veteran teacher added, “I was

told before that I was liked because I stayed in my room...staying quiet” (DV, 1366-1367; 1368).

A novice teacher discussed thoughts related to keeping a positive focus with peers. “I think that it’s so important to be able to just see people. And just see...the positive things. I think the negative sometimes comes up quite a bit more often than the positive. It’s tough to keep going...just the positiveness and kind of keeping it in perspective...it’s so important to us” (CN, 509-516).

Most of the veteran teachers talked about efforts to connect as a staff out in the community. “I mean we have events, like [student name] has a walk so there would be seven or eight staff members, you know, talking about community and community service (EV, 455-457). Another veteran teacher added, “We have a 5K that our dads put together and the next one is for diabetes” (466-467).

Category 3: District and Building Alignment

Thoughts shared by the focus group participants relayed the importance of alignment as impacting their intentions and motivations to provide autonomy-supportive schooling. This category, district and building alignment, has three subcategories: Shared mindset; policies and practices, and; accountability. Focus group participants stressed the importance of district and building alignment to reflect a more autonomy-supportive approach as important to school reform.

Shared mindset. The majority of focus group participants from both groups discussed the importance of a shared mindset in terms of supporting alignment. Teachers said this could be accomplished through staff buy-in and with training. Teachers stressed the importance of the collective group becoming more autonomy-supportive and viewed

this as impacting their efficacy to practice autonomy supports. Teachers, working together on common goals, are also more likely to have their relatedness need supported.

This subcategory has two properties: Staff buy-in and training.

Staff buy-in. All of the focus group participants felt a shared mindset could be supported through efforts to encourage staff buy-in and through intentional training. They saw these things as critical to reform efforts but struggled openly for ideas on how to make this happen. Throughout the interviews, teachers in both groups expressed concerns about next steps and getting everyone involved. In the veteran teacher focus group this came up time and time again. Examples of comments made by these teachers included: “How do we move forward with, like, you know, explaining those things to people?” (BV, 507-508); “How do you get everybody involved? How do you make the difference? How do you make the change...not just one classroom but like how do we impact everybody?” (BV, 514-517). A novice teacher agreed, “I mean we have a great staff here but I think if we’re not all on the same page with something, then it doesn’t carry over” (CN, 433-434).

The majority of teachers from both veteran and novice groups felt seasoned teachers might have a more difficult time adapting to a more autonomy-supportive approach to schooling. A veteran teacher of fourteen years explained, “I think it’s all about training teachers to get into that mindset, especially older teachers. We’ve been doing this for so long. It’s changing and I think we always have to be in the mindset to be ever changing” (BV, 236-239). A first-year teacher shared similar thinking, “Some of the teachers we work with aren’t right out of college and they aren’t of the same, necessarily teaching mindset” (BN, 61-63).

Training. Most of the teachers suggested training was necessary in order to understand and apply new knowledge. A veteran teacher said, “[Teachers] need professional development on how to do that in their classroom...We need someone to teach people what this looks like” (DV, 899-901).

Teachers acknowledged that some of their peers might require more support to adapt to change but remained hopeful that it’s possible. A novice teacher recognized the need to work collaboratively to effect change. “We’ve only been doing this a few years so we’ve got to work our way up the totem pole and I think it’s, you know, like getting that balance of ok, take old school and new school and kind of mesh them together” (CN, 443-446). Teachers recognized a need to collaborate as a group to encourage alignment to a more autonomy-supportive approach.

Policies and practices. Teachers viewed policies and practices that are autonomy-supportive of students as an important part of school alignment and critical to successful reform. Autonomy-supportive schooling based on SDT is supported by certain classroom practices that were described Chapter One of this paper and taught and modeled in the implementation of the PD model.

Alignment is supported when school policies (such as discipline policies) and practices (such as class meetings, intrinsic motivation) reflect these effective practices related to providing students autonomy supports. The teachers expressed concerns about their efficacy to implement autonomy-supportive schooling without policies and practices that were in alignment.

This subcategory has two properties: Curriculum and leadership.

Curriculum. Five of the six veteran teachers shared thoughts related to a lack of curricular alignment with more autonomy-supportive practices as an obstacle to their intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports. “I mean, you know, there is just no room in our schedule, and I think that is another barrier for us is that we don’t have room in our schedules for that kind of interesting, challenging stuff that would be more of an intrinsic motivation” (DV, 842-845).

One veteran teacher shared an example of curricular alignment. “I know in [school name] their elementary metaphor is ‘school’s a museum’ and the kids create these huge displays based on their learning and then they have museum nights where kids serve as docents and they’re explaining all their learning (FV, 807-812). A teacher responded, “I mean I think that’s wonderful for a before or after school club. There’s no possible way we could [do that]” (EV, 818-819).

Another veteran teacher described her thinking in viewing autonomy-supports as somehow separate from the curriculum. “And it would be nice to give kids these opportunities but it’s taking away from their opportunity to learn the curriculum, because we are all so tied, handcuffed to that” (AV, 1226-1228).

A novice teacher suggested academic integration. “I mean our days are just so packed and we have to figure out how to kind of make it a part of our day, part of our lessons, and just kind of getting better at that and incorporating it with the reading lesson or with the math” (AN, 363-365).

Sometimes alignment is related to perceived efficacy as one novice teacher described. “I feel pretty good about class meetings. And, you know, some of the other thing you presented, I’m like, ‘oh my gosh, love that.’ I’ll do it next year” (BN, 395-397).

Teachers spoke with mixed feelings about their own perceived autonomy to impact change. Veteran teachers seemed split half and half on this topic. A veteran teacher explained, “ I feel like there are certain things we have control over and there a lot of things we don’t... like as district because they’re the ones who control what we do a lot of the times” (BV, 504-507). “It makes it harder to give the kids that autonomy because we are being told what you need to teach and this is how we want you to teach it” (DV, 850-852)

Leadership. Teachers discussed district and building leadership. A novice teacher saw the PD aligning with comments he’d heard from the superintendent early in the school year. “[Superintendent’s name] said at the beginning of the year, you know about building relationships. His big thing this year was, ‘I’m not about test scores, you know...Great, we want to do good and all that, but, if you have that relationship, the kids are going to do so much better for you’” (CN, 370-374).

Other teachers varied in thinking about what they desire from school leadership. One veteran teacher stated that the building administrator “needs to be more verbal about it and promote it and expect it” (EV, 1254-1255); while another said, “I feel he’s [administrator] giving that autonomy to us” (DV, 1268).

Accountability. Most of teachers in the veteran focus group agreed that there is a need for accountability for implementing the reform. Teachers suggested ideas on ways to hold teachers accountable for implementing autonomy-supports. One teacher suggested a previous approach used to implement new practices. “Kinda like we did with PBIS. I mean we came through PBIS cold turkey. Like we started it hands on and then the whole school was required to do it. So like, I feel like, in order for that autonomy to

work in a school like ours, I think it needs to be school wide” (BV, 881-884). “Someone needs to put their foot down. Otherwise, we’re going to have the same conversation next year and the next year where we’ve been for the past three years” (EV, 1275-1277).

A veteran teacher softened this approach when she discussed the importance of helping teachers who may require more support in feeling competent with autonomy-supportive practices. “I would say another barrier if we would want everyone held accountable we need somebody to teach some people what that looks like” (DV, 900-902).

Category 4: Dealing with Diverse Needs

Almost all of the participants in both focus groups talked about the diverse needs of the students in their care particularly related to socio-economic status or class and their self-described ability to provide students empathetic support. Some teachers saw this as an obstacle, blocking their intentions and motivations to provide all students autonomy supports.

This category has two subcategories: SES/class and empathy.

SES/class. Most of the teachers described the diverse needs of students in their classrooms in terms of class status and described the majority of students in their classrooms as privileged. A veteran teacher described the community as “very affluent” and others when describing the students stated, “Whatever they want, they get!” and “They get stuff all the time.”

Teachers described another group of students who are bused to the school from the city of St. Louis as a very different story. These students are described as “living in a crappy part of town” where surroundings are dangerous. A veteran teacher, speaking to a

specialist teacher, described these students' environments this way: "Some of the friends that you work with, their climate is totally different than the 23 in our class, that the general population. So you're looking at kids that are different" (AV, 589-592).

One of the veteran teachers described one of her students from the city this way: "His mom, her goal is to keep him alive and off the streets" (EV, 786). A young teacher described a similar setting for a student, "I mean they live in a crappy part of town...he can't go outside because there's a shooting three blocks down the street" (CN, 118). This description was a stark contrast to the description of the majority of students who "go home and just go outside and play" (CN, 133).

Veteran teachers, in a discussion about a particular incident involving a student living in the city bused to the school, highlighted their beliefs related to class status of students and the impact on intentions to provide autonomy supports. "One of my students did his homework all by himself for the very first time and I seriously wanted to take him to Disney Land. I was, I went crazy. I had tears down my face. I was so excited for him" (EV, 748-750). Another veteran teacher described how this was maybe enough for this student because "That's not a kid that normally gets that" (DV, 778). The teachers saw it differently for the majority of students who they felt are not as responsive to a more autonomy-supportive approach of schooling.

A novice teacher described her realization of the difference in home lives of some of the students in the school. "That's like, you know, not the norm here. So I think it's even harder for those kids that we do have and you kind of forget about that. You don't realize it because it's not what we deal with, with most of our students" (AN, 139-142).

Empathy. The majority of teachers in both focus groups reported that conversations during PD sessions about meeting students' diverse needs led to self-reflection of empathetic supports for students. Most of the teachers in the veteran group said they felt empathy for some students but not all. The ability and/or willingness to provide empathic support to students and others is important to relationship building. Furthermore, a review of literature for this project supported the importance of relatedness or belonging to providing autonomy supports.

This subcategory has two properties: Student accountability and social background.

Student accountability. While teachers in both groups reported having empathy for the poor students, many felt differently about the students living within the affluent community. A veteran teacher described her struggle, "So you know, I'm trying to be more empathetic but I have a really hard time doing that at this school. Like I understand why we should be more empathetic for those kids who have really bad situations that they are in but then I feel like I'm not being fair to the other kids" (DV, 1071-1077).

The majority of teachers in both groups talked about the concept of fairness in relation to dealing with diverse needs. A first-year teacher explained her beliefs regarding student equity, "That kid can't have the same thing as all those other kids. We need to change it, we need to adapt it and everyone doesn't need to be doing the same exact thing" (AN, 142-145). A veteran teacher shared a similar idea, "You know having those conversations about not everyone is getting the same, we're not all on the same page made me really like reflect back on ok, it's ok if I'm treating this kid differently. Not

everybody knows his background, not everybody knows his circumstances” (EV, 151-154).

Social background. In terms of dealing with diverse needs, almost all of the teachers generally self-reported more empathy for those children from urban areas based to the school compared to the students living within the district boundaries. A veteran teacher shared an example of how her experience changed her opinion. “Even when we rode the buses, we got to ride the buses to see where our VIC [Voluntary Interdistrict Choice] students really lived. And I’m like going to tell you when I first started here, I’m like, you have an hour bus ride home, you can get it [homework] done. I’m like, and then actually seeing it and actually going on it; the bus ride is awful. It’s like 90 degrees in here and no support at home. I’m like, dude, I’m a witch. We can get that done today” (EV, 1586-1589).

At times, teachers related this lack of empathy to student accountability. One veteran teacher described this struggle, “I’m having a harder time empathizing with them. Well, I didn’t get my homework done because I had soccer practice. Or umm, I just wasn’t feeling well so I just didn’t feel like doing it. It’s like, tough, you know, you’re nine and then I think, you know, they’re nine” (DV, 1031-1035).

One novice teacher commented on the difficult situations all children deal with regardless of social class. “I think that even just outside of even just the social aspect, it’s equal but not always fair, you know...And that just goes even beyond our city kids and our, you know, kids that, you know, there are some county kids who, they’ve got rough times going on you know” (BN, 146; 152).

Surprisingly, race was never mentioned nor discussed in either of the focus groups only the idea of privilege as opposed to lack of privilege.

Professional Development (PD)

Teachers offered many thoughts on their PD experiences in terms of processes utilized and the personal and collective outcomes resulting from the PD sessions. Based on a content analysis of the data, we were able to identify a list of 11 processes that were found to be helpful and with one felt to be inhibiting (spirit read.) We were also able to identify personal and collective outcomes that led to change. We extracted and analyzed all the information in the interviews pertaining to the PD sessions related to process and outcome as described above and then created a list of strengths and areas for improvement related to the PD model.

PD model: Strengths. Following is a list of strengths based on teachers' accounts of their PD experiences.

- ***PD model provided opportunities for collaboration and reflection.*** All of the teachers who participated in the focus groups desired safe avenues where all voices could be heard. Participants described the conversations that happened during these sessions as “powerful” and felt they especially benefitted from discussions within small groups. A veteran teacher explained the importance of having time to talk together as a staff, “You know just having these conversations in staff meetings or PLC’s. You know that idea she just brought up, that wouldn’t have come up without having these powerful sessions” (EV, 158-161).
- ***PD model provided time for reflective note-taking.*** The majority of the teachers felt it important to have opportunities to physically represent thoughts they found

impactful. They found both small notebooks for recording personal reflections and group work involving collaborative charting helpful. Two novice teachers described these processes. “I liked when we wrote down lines on that big chart paper” (BN, 588-589). “Also we had a sheet and we went to and we wrote down little quotes that we liked and that kind of thing was fabulous” (AN, 591-592).

- ***PD model reinforced and affirmed beliefs about teaching.*** All of the teachers from the novice teacher group often spoke about how PD sessions helped remind them or reinforce what they already knew was good practice. As a novice teacher explained, “I just feel like a lot of stuff you guys talked about was refreshing to hear and it aligned with a lot of my beliefs about teaching” (BN, 58-60).
- ***PD model energized teachers.*** A majority of the teachers in both groups said the PD helped to energize them. They began to think about ways to provide autonomy-supports for their students. A novice teacher described this saying, “I think that kind of helped energize me, kind of showed me you know, ok I know what I should be doing. How can I continue to build up that structure?” (CN, 279-281) Another novice teacher shared a similar reaction related to the energizing impact of the PD model. “We get so caught up with so much other stuff...what we have to do, what we need to do, coming in every single day...[PD] like so excited to get in there and do these things” (AN, 282-288).
- ***PD model helped teachers define goals.*** Most of the teachers in both groups described how PD topics aligned with the type of teachers they desired to become. A novice teacher talked about how PD topics helped with personal goal-setting. “I think that kind of helped energize me, kind of showed me, you know, ok, I know

what I should be doing. How can I continue to build up that structure?” (CN, 278-281) A veteran teacher shared how the PD model impacted goals related to whole school reform. “I think it’s also reassuring cause like we want to go to that path and we’re making like as committees, we’re making all these goals and we’re not there yet but I think you guys coming in and saying, I mean this has been proven, this is a good method” (BV, 347-350). This same veteran teacher referred to the importance of the PD related to future directions again later in the focus group interview. “I think all of these have just been a good reminder of where we need to go...so I think this is exciting. I think this has reminded us that this is the direction we need to go and let’s just push through it” (BV, 1240-1251).

- ***PD model led to changes in practice related to structures of rewards.*** Five out of the six veteran teachers talked about realizations that led to more empowering student practices ranging from student-led discipline to intrinsically-aligned supports. A veteran teacher shared how she quit giving out reward slips. “I was thinking about what you guys taught us...I should be, we should be, focusing on intrinsic so I just started handing them out less [reward slips] and then I ran out and then working towards that intrinsic motivation where they want to do well because, wow, look what you produced” (FV, 487-495).
- ***PD model led to a more student-centered approach.*** The majority of teachers from both groups talked about becoming more student-centered in their classrooms. For one novice teacher this was about reaching all students. “I think really for me personally it’s just reaching that hard to reach kid and thinking about what happens to them, you know, that perspective...how can I build that

relationship? I think that's kind of what I took away the most" (CN, 315-318). A veteran teacher described her self-awareness related to supporting the different needs of her students. "I took it both ways. Well, I'm like I do that. Okay, good job...or I would be like, okay, ...never before would I think about...those conversations ...made me reflect back on, okay, it's okay if I'm treating this kid differently" (EV, 146-153). This teacher also described changes to the way she talked with students as a result of the PD model. "I'm like keep doing it, keep doing it, you know but those conversations [with students], those, that's what you've taught us" (EV, 775-776).

One veteran teacher described the impact of the video [TED Talk by Malcolm London: High School Training Ground] during very first PD session on her shift to a more student-centered perspective. "That video on the first day was so powerful and then our conversation after the video. It really helped us think about that kids come from, all different kids come from, different backgrounds and bring that to school and that affects their behavior and motivations" (FV, 1017-1021). A novice teacher also discussed the shift to a more student-centered perspective related to the lives of the students outside of the school day. "[The PD model] caused me to think more, ok, what happens when they get on that bus, you know, what do they go home to, what is their life like and all that" (CN, 159-161).

- ***PD model led to teachers' awareness of related need for belonging.*** Most of the teachers talked about the importance of all students perceiving a sense of belonging at school as important to reform efforts. A novice teacher said this was an important realization from the PD model. "I think just all the more reason to

give each kid a sense of belonging while they're here. I think that's just been the overall gestalt of what really resonated with me these past couple of months-it's just been every kid needs to feel valued" (DN, 177-180).

- ***PD model led to Developmental Discipline practices with students.*** The majority of veteran teachers discussed ways in which the PD model had impacted discipline encounters with students in their classrooms to become more developmentally aligned. One of the veteran teachers described a discipline encounter that included involving the student in developing a plan to encourage self-regulation. "We had that discipline conversation...after that meeting [PD session], the counselor and I met, and we're look, okay, let's come up with some new plans for this kiddo and we made these new cards and we made them and we had him come up with ideas" (BV, 989-996).
- ***PD model impacted committee work in terms of intrinsic motivation.*** Three of the veteran teachers talked about school wide changes that occurred as a result of PD experiences and topics. These teachers said school committees used information from PD to inform decisions and planning for next year especially in relation to intrinsic motivation.

One teacher described a recent committee meeting. "We've even talked in our committee because we are PBIS, so it is right now a lot of external motivation, but, so like, we just had our meeting on Monday and we just talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic" (BV, 534-538).

PD model: Suggested improvements. Following is a list of suggestions for improving the PD model based on teachers' accounts of their PD experiences.

- ***PD model should include experiential learning opportunities for teachers.***

Teachers desired to experience or witness autonomy-supportive practices as a part of the learning process. Participants from the veteran teacher group cited examples of changes in thinking that were resultant from past visits to other schools. A teacher described her personal reaction to a school site visit as “empowering.” “Just witnessing it, being able to take a fieldtrip and go and do that stuff and being able to watch those teachers...it was so empowering to me just made me think that I could do it” (DV, 1570-1573). The teachers desired to see and experience the effective practices discussed in PD sessions. “I think modeling and hands on is the best way this staff learns as well” (EV, 1585-1586).

Teachers felt visiting schools that were aligned with the PD topics would be a beneficial component to add to the PD model. “It would be neat to see schools that are functioning as whole schools, doing, everyone’s on the same page doing the same thing” (AV, 1580-1581). A teacher described how helpful this would be based on a past experience and her reactions of a school visit. “I’m telling you when I went to that school...and we got to watch teachers and it was, you know, the open room, there were no classrooms, and in my head I could NOT picture how this worked and I went in with such a negative attitude, “This is just going to be awful.” ... And I was just amazed!” (DV, 1547-1561)

- ***PD model should include frequent opportunities for partner and small group discussion.*** Many of the teachers in the study echoed the importance of time for group discussion and reported feeling more comfortable either talking with a partner or in smaller groups before sharing out with the larger group. As one

veteran teacher described, “Maybe throughout the sessions that we divide the staff into smaller groups with someone assigned as a facilitator and have these meaningful discussions at some point before the end” (FV, 1321-1323).

- ***PD model should include opportunities to discuss potential barriers.*** Teachers talked about potential barriers to autonomy-supportive practice. The teachers in the veteran group reflected about the shift to support intrinsic motivation and suggested there are barriers preventing change from occurring including getting everyone on board and holding others accountable for autonomy-supportive practices. A veteran teacher described her concern to provide teachers support along the way. “I would say another barrier if we would [hold] everyone accountable we need somebody to teach some people what that looks like” (DV, 900-902).
- ***PD model should include time in sessions for school leaders to share.*** Teachers were aware of the impact school leaders have on reform efforts. They discussed a need to hear their administrator’s thinking related to the topics surrounding autonomy-supportive schooling. One veteran teacher described a simple plan to accomplish this task. “Maybe 10 minutes of follow-up from the leader in the building to say okay, so this is a wrap up, this is what I hear and these are how I think [the school] should be able to do it and this is what I’m going to be expecting to see” (AV, 1286-1289).

Chapter Six: Discussion

Summary

In this Dissertation in Practice (DIP) project, I drew from Self-determination Theory (SDT) to create a professional development (PD) model that was then implemented with an experimental group in a K-5 elementary school. To assess its effectiveness and help improve it for future use, I employed a sequential explanatory mixed-method design with pre- and post-intervention surveys with an experimental and comparison group. In addition, focus group interviews were used to qualitatively assess novice and veteran teachers' evaluations of to the PD model's effectiveness and to elicit their suggestions for improving the model.

I began this research study with three questions related to autonomy-supportive education. Statistical analyses of pre- and post-survey results for experimental (autonomy-supportive PD intervention) and comparison (standard-theme PD) groups were conducted to examine teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students' autonomy supports. There were no significant results.

In the qualitative component of the study, I, along with my co-researcher, analyzed the focus group data, making connections and links related to teachers providing students' autonomy-supports. Four categories resulted from analyses and interpretation of the focus group data: 1) intrinsic motivation; 2) trusting adult culture; 3) district and building alignment, and; 4) dealing with diverse needs. We also conducted a content analysis of participants' statements about their experiences related to the autonomy-supportive PD model.

Qualitative analyses revealed, that teachers at the experimental school gained in their understanding of autonomy-supportive practices as well as their ability to implement autonomy supports in their classrooms. The results of these analyses suggest that the PD workshop enhanced participating teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students' autonomy supports. Overall, the teachers liked the PD model; were engaged; learned about autonomy supports from it; gained insights about how similar their own educational needs are to their students'; reported increased intentions and motivations to use more autonomy supports; and related PD experiences to future goals and directions for their school. In this chapter, results are discussed in relation to the research questions for this DIP study. Also included in this chapter are implications for future practice and research.

Research Question 1: Was the PD Effective?

I began this DIP with the following question: Can a PD model that features autonomy-supportive content and processes enhance educators' intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for their elementary school students?

Quantitative results. Unfortunately, the quantitative analyses did not reveal enhanced intentions and motivations. Analyses of the TIPSAS showed no significant changes in the teachers' intentions to provide students autonomy supports for those teachers who participated in the PD at the experimental site, rendering any comparison to the other school irrelevant. Furthermore, analyses of the PIS showed no significant changes in teachers' motivations to provide students autonomy supports.

Quantitative limitations. Study limitations may help to explain the lack of statistically significant results.

Sample size. First, the sample size was small. Teachers were encouraged to participate in the data collection but such participation was completely voluntary. Complicating the small sample size further, a planning error made it impossible for me to match pre- and post-intervention surveys. Had I been able to analyze paired observations, it would have increased the statistical power of the analyses (J.C. Snyder, personal communication, May 24, 2016).

The final issue related to the small sample size is that there was a relatively high dropout rate for participants in post-testing at the experimental school. The total number of teachers participating in PD sessions at the experimental school was 30 and when teachers' chose not to respond to the post-survey instruments, the sample size was further diminished. My attempts to encourage participation in post-data collection at the experimental site through personal visits on two occasions to allow teachers time to complete the surveys and by various emails to staff urging support were not successful. Even with these attempts, participation in the post-survey at the experimental school was limited to 16. The same was true of the teachers serving in the comparison group although more teachers participated in the post- (27) than pre-survey (19) data collection.

The loss of nearly half of the experimental participants in the post-test was critical and led to speculation about why so many teachers failed to participate on the survey following the PD. When I met with administration at the experimental school to ask them to encourage their faculty to participate in the post-survey, an administrator explained that some teachers felt the surveys were too long. This may be one reason some participants failed to complete the post-survey. It is disappointing that, if this were the reason for low rate of post-survey participation, teachers failed to share their concerns

with the facilitators in a timely manner. This raises the question as to whether or not a trusting relationship had been adequately established between the facilitators and the teachers.

Time. It is also possible that the lack of positive results stems from factors other than sample characteristics. Rather than being an artifact of low statistical power, the lack of change from pre-to post-test in the experimental group may have reflected the time involved. Autonomy-supportive schooling involves complex and often new ways of approaching teaching. There simply may not have been enough time or number of PD sessions to impact teachers' intentions and motivations to change. Five out of the six PD sessions were 30 or 40 minutes long. Congruent with this possibility, Deci (2009) described this type of need-supportive PD as "typically time consuming, and can be cumbersome, expensive, and difficult" (p. 245). Beginning sessions in August rather than in December might have helped give teachers more opportunities to learn about and practice autonomy-supportive ways of teaching. The same could be said of starting the technical PD supports sooner. Online supports were not made available to teachers until after gathering input on topics of interest related to autonomy-supportive schooling following our March PD session.

On the other hand, some studies have demonstrated that teachers can change their motivation style to become more autonomy-supportive of students and can do so in a relatively short amount of time (Reeve, 1998). In Reeve's study, an 80-minute training session with preservice teachers was found to be effective with lasting results in changing the preservice teachers' motivation styles to become more autonomy-supportive of students.

Teachers in this study were hesitant to access the online supports outside the PD sessions themselves even though many asked for the ability to access information related to autonomy-supportive practices on their own time. Being able to have these opportunities earlier in the PD process might have given teachers more time to learn about autonomy-supportive practices through the online supports within the context of the PD sessions.

There may be other factors that impeded the full success of the intervention model. Su and Reeve (2011) described a host of factors impacting the success of intervention programs designed to encourage autonomy-supports: experience vs. inexperience (with inexperienced trainees more responsive to training), laboratory studies vs. authentic settings such as schools (with authentic settings having more diverse results). Also they noted that using a multi-media approach, combining skill-based and knowledge-based training, as well as hosting sessions ranging from one to three hours were beneficial factors. Furthermore, results of their meta-analysis indicated “effective programs tended to deliver the training in only one or a few sessions for a moderate duration of time (hours, not days or months) and to offer supplemental follow-up activities such as take-home informational booklets or manuals, a study-specific website, a follow-up group meeting, or structured journal activities” (Su & Reeve, 2011, p. 183). Although, the current model did offer these effective practices as determined by Su and Reeve, including online resources, teachers did not access these supports as was hoped.

These studies indicated one or two training sessions, even relatively short ones (80-minutes), have the potential to impact teacher motivation. Thus, it is unlikely that the lack of statistically significant results is due primarily to the intervention model being too

short in duration. Focus group data in the current study suggests the following factors may have impacted survey results. These factors included the context of the school, including beliefs about school and classroom management; readiness to take on the reform; and the adult culture. These will all be discussed in this chapter.

Conflicting approach (Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports versus autonomy supports). Based on focus group data and conversations with administration, there is likely a reasonably high level of commitment to Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) at the experimental school. Nationally, while PBIS was introduced as a special education framework for behaviorally challenged students, it moved to the general education arena (Bradshaw, Reinke, Brown, Bevens, & Leaf, 2008). Schools that adopt this framework tend to view students through a behavioral lens with the primary focus being on student outcomes reliant upon external feedback (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). PBIS does not align with self-determination theory (SDT), an organismic theory of development, which is the foundation of this PD model. As discussed in the review of literature, SDT and need satisfaction seeks to supports the inner resources that people possess.

Looking at the analyses of the survey results and the question of how teachers viewed their classroom practices in terms of utilizing PBIS, the result that teachers who identified themselves as more aligned with PBIS had a more controlling motivation orientation as measured on the PIS was not surprising.

What is more surprising is that teachers who identified as more aligned with PBIS also had higher intentions to provide autonomy supports. One would expect the opposite result. Possibly, these teachers who indicated high PBIS alignment in terms of classroom

practice along with higher intentions to provide students' autonomy supports are more open to reform efforts in general. Possibly, in the past they embraced PBIS and now are open to hearing new ways to support student growth in terms of autonomy-supportive education.

Although most of the teachers who participated in the focus groups discussed their desires to move away from extrinsic supports aligned with PBIS, it is possible that other teachers in the school were still invested in PBIS. Possibly, these teachers did not fully understand a more intrinsically-aligned, autonomy-supportive classroom approach.

Even teachers who expressed a desire to move towards more intrinsic supports expressed confusion about how to make the shift. The following example illustrates possible confusion surrounding the transition from PBIS to a more autonomy-supportive school. A veteran teacher talked about PBIS and student autonomy jointly at points throughout the focus group interview. "We've been talking about this for three years. Um, with character ed and PBIS and we keep wanting to go there" (BV, 1241-1242). She continued to explain how students would be involved in leadership roles within the framework of PBIS. Earlier in the interview, this same teacher referenced PBIS as a control model saying, "We are PBIS, so right now a lot of external, you know, motivation" (BV, 535-536). She then described a recent committee meeting. "[W]e just had our meeting on Monday and we talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic" (BV, 536-538).

Assor et al. (2009) stated, "deep and autonomous internalization occurs only when the adoption of the new ideas is based on true understanding of their merit and the new ideas are perceived as reflecting teachers' authentic identity and values" (p. 235-

236). The teachers in the focus groups were grappling with new ideas and trying to make sense of these autonomy-supportive teaching practices within their current framework of schooling. It is possible that because the school had a strong PBIS background, the teachers were struggling to assimilate the new ideas that they learned in the PD with what they previously knew (PBIS).

The struggle to integrate the new information was most evident in discussions of the use of extrinsic motivators. Structures of rewards are supportive of a control model of school versus an autonomous model (Ryan & Powelson, 1991). “Extrinsic motivation in the form of external pressures or rewards can shift the focus from engaging in an activity for its inherent satisfaction to performing the activity for some separable consequence” and “weaken[s] intrinsic motivation” (Poulsen, Rodger, & Ziviani, 2006, p. 81). In general, the teachers agreed (at least verbally) on the removal of tangibles but they were less clear about the practice of handing students’ behavior slips called “pawsitives.” Kohn (2014), describing *conditionality*, said, “It’s assumed that we have a moral obligation to reward those who are deserving and, equally important, to make sure the undeserving go conspicuously unrewarded” (p. 103). At the experimental school, the behavior slips may be seen less as a moral obligation and more as a communication tool with parents. A couple of teachers described the slips as an effective communication tool for parents in order to help bridge the gap between school and home.

Finally, PBIS alignment may have impacted teachers’ intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports for students. AT the least, this alignment must have caused confusion among teachers as they attempted to integrate current PBIS norms and practices with a more autonomy-supportive approach to education.

One veteran teacher with experience in autonomy-supportive teaching suggested ideas that were at times openly discounted by her peers, who may have felt less competent to implement the suggested autonomy-supportive strategies. Although all of the teachers discussed their desire to become more autonomy-supportive, their understanding of and sense of efficacy for how to align educational practices varied.

Structural Incongruences. The PD sessions intended to inform teachers about autonomy-supportive practices while modeling the supports. One could argue that no matter how hard we tried to be autonomy-supportive of teachers, the PD was still a required part of teachers' contractual obligations. This might have impacted their sense of autonomy and thus, their intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports.

Qualitative results. Whatever the reasons may be for the lack of statistically significant findings, ample evidence of learning was shared in the PD sessions and focus groups.

Adoption of new practices. Every teacher in the focus groups talked about how the PD had led to intentions and motivations to be more autonomy-supportive in their classrooms. Both veteran and novice teachers reported ways in which they had provided autonomy supports for students. These included involving students in decision-making related to discipline situations both individually and with the whole class, involving students in the creation of classroom norms, connecting learning to the interests of the students, using more class meeting structures in their classrooms, being more mindful about their attempts at perspective-taking from the students' viewpoint, and being more intentional about intrinsic supports for students. Teachers also discussed having an

increased awareness and intention surrounding the creation of relatedness supports for their students. “It is easy for adults to believe that all students are cared for at school, but that is not the issue. What matters most is not that they are cared for, but that they *feel* cared for” (Streight, 2014, p. 42).

Interest in further development. Nearly all of the teachers in the focus groups talked about their desire and intention to learn more about autonomy-supportive schooling. One veteran teacher described this desire. “So if we were given time to leave our classrooms and observe our peers who were really good at [autonomy-supportive schooling] and observe you [referring to co-facilitators], observing our peers that are very good at this giving kids more autonomy, encouraging them to have more of a say, I would love that” (FV, 1464-1467). Another veteran teacher had a suggestion for future visits from the co-facilitators when she suggested the following: “I think that would be helpful just to hear from teachers that maybe did try and then maybe it was successful or was not successful, maybe hear your [co-facilitators] thoughts on like, well about it” (BV, 1309-1311).

Research Question 2: What Insights Were Gained?

Almost all of the novice and veteran teachers discussed insights about the need to support students in different ways as a result of the conversations raised during PD sessions. For example, a novice teacher summed up the insights she gained as a result of her experiences. “There are so many things that gave us a perspective shift like the video on empathy. The teaching through a rat was huge for me. Um, and the TED talk as well. Just so many different perspectives as possible and that was really helpful” (DN, 519-522).

The majority of the teachers said perspective-taking had led them to reflect upon and be more sensitive to how the lives of the students outside of school impact their daily school functioning. Perspective-taking is an important practice for teachers to provide students with autonomy support in that autonomy-supportive teachers adopt their students' perspectives and are open to their students' thoughts, feelings, and actions (Reeve, 2009).

Many of the teachers from both groups talked about insights gained related to being more open with students as a result of the autonomy-supportive PD. A veteran teacher described the empowering feeling she had experienced when she became more transparent about including students in the discussions that fair does not always mean equal. "Through our class meetings and talking about it and talking about how people are different, you could see the light bulbs going off like in their heads" (CV, 419-421). Another veteran teacher agreed. "Once they understand, you give them the power of information; that does empower them [students] to make better decisions because they don't think that somebody's just being weird or different or trying to bother them" (DV,423-424).

To further elaborate on the teachers' learning, the main categories of the qualitative analyses will now be discussed. To further clarify what the teachers gained from the PD experiences and what can be done to improve them, we examined the categories that emerged from the focus group interviews. These categories represent the most relevant topics discussed in the focus group interviews.

Intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was the most relevant topic to come out of the active process of coding. When the teachers can let go of a control model of

schooling and become more autonomy-supportive of students, these autonomy-supportive teacher behaviors also help to support their students' intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Powelson, 1991).

Teachers' understanding of intrinsic motivation is important to providing students with autonomy supports in that autonomy-supportive teachers motivate students by encouraging and nurturing inner motivational resources (Reeve, 2009). Research has shown that students' intrinsic motivation is supported by instructional activities that connect with the students' lives, are diverse and challenging, and are seen as important (Deci, 2009). Also, teachers who provide an explanatory rationale by explaining the usefulness of an activity, who empathize, who strive to see the student's viewpoint, and who offer students choices in how to get things done help to support and encourage intrinsic motivation (Streight, 2014).

In the focus groups, teachers talked at length about their understanding of this topic as it related to their ability to provide students autonomy supports. However, there appeared to be various levels of understanding (and misunderstanding) of how to utilize more intrinsically-aligned teaching supports consistent across both groups of teachers that participated in the focus groups. Specifically, most of the teachers were not always connecting students' needs for autonomy, along with relatedness and competence, to motivation. Several seemed to think of these as discrete, disconnected topics.

In addition, although the majority of the teachers in both groups expressed a desire to move toward more intrinsically-aligned classroom supports, they discussed several variables that they felt impacted their ability to do so. Described in SDT terms, the teachers' need for perceived competence in their ability to understand and support an

intrinsic orientation to learning seemed thwarted by obstacles that they described in the focus groups. One such obstacle related to efforts at reform that emerged from the focus group data was adult culture.

Adult culture. Educational reforms are likely to be more successful when teachers' voices are a part of the change process (Assor et al., 2009). Focus group data shed light on the impact of a trusting adult culture (Category 2) on teachers' efficacy for learning and practicing skills related to autonomy-supportive schooling. In SDT terms, this translates to relatedness or belonging. "Experiencing mutual reliance and respect is at the heart of the relatedness need" (Baard, 2002, p. 266). Furthermore, a trusting adult culture is supported when individuals perceive a sense of connectedness (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

When people are connected within a framework of trusting relationships, their relatedness need is supported (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Furthermore, a trusting adult culture in schools provides a framework where school reform can take place. Social partners who feel supported by each other encourage members to express their true opinions and views (Skinner & Edge, 2002). So what makes for an affirming adult culture?

All of the teachers in the interviews talked at some point about the need to feel safe when sharing within the context of the group during PD workshops and any time when they are together as a staff. Several teachers discussed times in which they did not feel safe to share and they lacked confidence in their own abilities or felt others were not accepting of their ideas. This thinking supports SDT and perceived need satisfaction as important to reform efforts (Deci, 2009). Providing opportunities for teacher reflection

and collaboration that is supportive of the basic human needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence is also supportive of a healthy adult culture and encourages safety.

The teachers reflected upon their perceived need for relatedness as important to the reform process. This is clearly in line with SDT which maintains that healthy, caring, relationships based on warmth and genuine interest in each other help to support autonomous motivation for activities that otherwise may not be of interest to people (Roth, 2014). It is clear that effective PD models need to explicitly work to build a positive adult culture that supports basic needs.

Need for alignment. Ultimately, teachers felt district and building alignment (Category 3) was critical to their efficacy in the implementation of reforms based on autonomy-supportive schooling. In SDT terms, administrators need to provide support for teachers to internalize the reform's value and to do so in a need-supportive way (Deci, 2009).

Teachers discussed their beliefs about coming together in terms of a shared mindset as important to efforts at reform aimed to increase autonomy-supports for students. Participants mentioned whole school buy-in and training support as important to alignment. They felt district and building policies and practices related to curricular goals and leadership were needed to support movement towards a more autonomy-supportive approach to schooling.

How does this desire for alignment fit within the SDT framework? In terms of autonomy supports in the workplace, Beard (2002) described the importance of leadership supports such as allowing self-selection for tasks, providing feedback in a non-controlling manner, and using assertive rather than aggressive or controlling language.

Deci (2009) discussed the results of studies on the efficacy of a model of school reform based on SDT and personal-need satisfaction called First Things First (FTF.) Results indicated “the efficacy of the intervention varied among districts and schools. Based on anecdotal evidence, variability in the success of implementation seems to be due primarily to the level of commitment of top district and building administrators” (Deci, 2009, p. 250). Therefore, the model did not work well in districts that lacked such commitment (Deci, 2009).

Although the teachers in this study discussed the importance of building and district alignment, it is important to note, according to SDT, that the internalization process for teachers of any reform effort is complicated and dependent upon the teachers’ perceived needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Assor et al., 2009). The teachers themselves may not always be open to receiving these supports. At times, administrators may provide autonomy supports for teachers who, instead, prefer a more top-down approach to decision-making related to the reform.

It was evident from the focus groups that there is tension between support and control. While teachers in this study desired freedom to create change, they also sought direction from district and building administrators related to reform. Initial coding and concepts indicated that teachers felt a need to be supported in their efforts at reform and at times they sought clarity from administration for goals and next steps. Administrators would do well to support teachers’ self-determined needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence in presenting new ideas they hope to be transformed into practice (Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014). But even within this need-supportive environment, there may be complications based on how teachers receive these supports. When teachers ask for more

autonomy and alignment from school leadership it may indicate that they desire leaders to make the choice for them, which is anti-autonomy-supportive, and indicative of a hierarchical or control model of schooling which lacks democratic purpose. Most likely, the teachers participating in this study recognized that they could not take on this reform model if the administration or the district had a different vision.

At times during the focus group interview, veteran teachers indicated a preference for more top-down direction, especially in terms of holding teachers accountable to implement the practices we had been considering. They discussed how everyone, one hundred percent of staff, should be held accountable, “The whole school was required to do it [referencing the PBIS initiative] so like I feel like in order for autonomy to work in our school, in a school like ours, I think it needs to be schoolwide...like we’ve got to have somebody to hold everyone accountable for doing that” (BV, 882-884; 891-892). Another veteran teacher added, “Someone needs to put their foot down” (EV, 1275) (in reference to autonomy-supportive reform.)

Another veteran teacher described how she viewed the role of school leadership. “I think [leadership] needs to be more verbal about it, promote it, and expect it and say, ‘Hey, we’re going to take baby steps but this is what I want to see.’ You know, it’s kinda like, ‘Have courageous conversations. Go for it. I support you’” (EV, 1254-1257). This view holds leadership in a more autonomy-supportive role. By turning their attention to administration for direction, it is unclear if teachers are asking for a more paternalistic direction within a framework of authority or desiring an autonomy-supportive framework with opportunities for teacher voice and choice. In future work, this is an important

distinction that needs to be explored in order to move toward a more autonomy-supportive environment.

This raises an even broader question regarding how to optimally balance autonomy and control in a school where there are clear hierarchical structures of power. There is no ideal case and at times, school leaders may have reason to step in, as suggested by these teachers, and provide more control.

Ideally, teachers have substantial and meaningful voice, even in hierarchical settings. Deci (2009) described a “self-generated approach to reform in the sense that the changes are reflections of the ideas, beliefs, and values of the people who design and implement them...evolving from the experiences of the school personnel” (p. 245). There is a clear indication of the importance of teacher voice within this description by Deci. This is a struggle for those working in schools and it certainly was for this group of veteran teachers who were grappling with the role of leadership and autonomy support as evidenced by their comments in the focus group.

Dealing with diversity. Teachers talked about how the information discussed during the PD sessions had encouraged them to see students as individuals with diverse needs which translated to the classroom and the importance of perspective-taking in their role as teachers. A novice teacher described how insights gained relative to the diversity of student needs led to a change in thinking. “And realizing that kid’s need is different...That kid, she can’t have the same thing as all those other kids. We need to change it. We need to adapt it and everyone doesn’t need to be doing the same exact thing” (AN, 142-145).

A novice teacher described insights about the life circumstances of students that impact school. “I remember the one line out of it [referencing PD article]...‘when does home work take more precedence over homework from school.’ And that really hit me hard this year. I’ve got one student who, I mean, her just, he doesn’t have time for homework” (CN, 114-117).

Despite its clear value, perspective-taking is not always easy. All of the teachers from both groups described the social class of students at the school as ranging from privileged to lack of privilege, with the majority of the students coming from privileged families. Nearly all of the veteran teachers talked at length about their struggle to empathize with those students who they perceived as more privileged. Watson and Ecken (2003) said that teachers “find ways to negotiate the tensions between [their] vision for the classroom and the reality of [the] students’ lives outside school” (p. 13). Perhaps this group of teachers was caught in this tension.

According to SDT, need satisfaction is an important piece of this struggle. When teachers focus on students’ needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, a lens is provided for viewing student behavior regardless of social class. Specifically, in terms of this research, providing students with an autonomy-supportive environment helps facilitate the development of individuality (Skinner & Edge, 2002).

Summary: Content and process. Autonomy-supportive education benefits both teachers and students by facilitating learning; enhancing autonomy, relatedness, and competence in order to support healthy human development; and by providing an empowering environment for all school members. This PD model attempted to use autonomy supports as well as to teach about autonomy supports in order to create a need

supportive environment to initiate reform. All of the teachers in the focus group interviews talked about their PD experiences in terms of both the content and the process. The processes that they deemed most helpful involved observing autonomy-supportive practices and discussing and reflecting with each other following the introduction of an autonomy-supportive practice.

In terms of outcomes, the PD sessions that the majority of teachers said led to changes in practice included knowledge and skills focused on Developmental Discipline, perspective-taking (from students' viewpoint), building relationships with students, approaching students as individuals with individual needs, and more open conversations with students in general.

Research Question 3: What Recommendations Were Offered?

During the focus group interviews, the teachers shared thoughtful comments about the PD model that they found helpful and those they did not. Teachers often referred to the conversations between staff and researchers during the workshop sessions as “powerful,” and reflected upon how little time they spend talking together as a group about ideas and especially ideas related to autonomy-supportive schooling.

All of the novice teachers and half of the veteran teachers said at times they felt uncomfortable sharing within the larger group and instead preferred to partner up or talk within small table groups. Teachers said by sharing their thoughts in a more personal setting, it helped them to feel safer and allowed them to later share with the larger group. Teachers reported that they liked the reflective pieces built into the workshop sessions whether with a partner, small group, or individually. The teachers referenced the notebooks we provided for them to write in as a helpful resource to record their personal

reflections. The instructions, involving the notebooks, were to use them as they wished, such as when an idea or thought inspired, impacted, or raised a question they wanted to discuss. These types of workshop processes align with SDT and the perceived needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Teachers, like students, cannot do their best work or be their best ethical selves unless they are working in a need-supportive environment (Streight, 2014).

Most of the focus group participants said that small group discussions, facilitated by the researchers, where teachers chose the topic (for example, reaching hard to reach students or intrinsic motivation) were beneficial to them. They desired more time to meet in smaller groups based on topics of interest such as the topics provided in this workshop session. The process used for this session was a good example of need-supportive PD. Meeting in small groups helped support the relatedness need; teacher choice of topic is autonomy-supportive, and discussion facilitated by the researchers helped to support the competence need. In future PD, it would be important to provide more opportunities for partner and small group discussions based on interests of the teachers.

In addition to small group discussion, nearly all of the teachers from the veteran group said they desired direction from school leadership in terms of connecting the PD topics to expectations and next steps. The novice teacher group also talked about district alignment. All of the teachers clearly recognized the impact of leadership support and alignment to the success of reform efforts while one teacher pointed out that she felt their administrator was providing autonomy supports for them during the change process.

Perhaps the role of the servant-leader applies here as well. Greenleaf described this role as “manifest[ed]...in the care taken by the [servant-leader] first to make sure that

other people's highest priority needs are being served" (2008, p. 15). As change agents, we must also support the administrative team in making sure that their autonomy, relatedness, and competence needs are being supported. The PD model would benefit from steps to include administrative support in autonomy-supportive school leadership.

Most of the teachers said they desired opportunities to witness examples of autonomy-supportive practice and to do so throughout the learning process. One idea to support this request and improve the model would be to highlight autonomy supports more explicitly during the PD sessions. For example, when stating the rationale of each session, explaining to the teachers how this relates to autonomous need satisfaction and then having the time to practice the skill during the session would be beneficial. Related to this idea would be to have the teachers themselves suggest the ways that co-facilitators could be more autonomy-supportive. By creating a process for teachers to provide frequent feedback related to their autonomous needs during the workshop sessions, co-facilitators would both model and support autonomy.

In terms of PD experiences, a couple of teachers said the slow integration of the reform efforts with the PD being spread out over six sessions throughout the school year was helpful. Most of the teachers said they desired to increase collaboration with their peers about the workshop topics and to observe peers and others utilizing autonomy supports. Although we offered to meet individually with teachers or groups of teachers as well as to model autonomy-supportive practices within their classrooms, only once during the time of implementation did a teacher respond to this offer. This was for a discussion about individual student concerns and to model a class meeting. Based on the level of teacher concern discussed in the focus group sessions related to personal safety

and trust, it is not surprising that teachers did not feel comfortable with inviting researchers into their classrooms.

In SDT terms, the teachers' relatedness needs may not have been met to the extent required to do this type of individual work. Other studies have supported this notion. Assor et al. stated when describing a study on SDT aligned school reform, "Although SDT does not refer to safety as a separate need, we found the strivings for safety to be very meaningful for teachers" (2009, p. 237). This DIP project supports this finding. The model can be strengthened with more intentional methods to support the safety and competence needs of teachers.

Nearly all of the teachers addressed the adult culture of the school to some degree which suggests that the relatedness needs of the teachers are not met to the extent they desire. Clearly, this was a very important topic that came out of the focus group interview data. Specifically, all of these teachers recognized and discussed ideas related to strengthening the adult culture at their school in order to make the shift to a more autonomy-supportive way of teaching.

In both focus groups, all of the teachers talked about a desire for connectedness inside and outside of school and their ideas for encouraging a trusting culture which included more time for discussion and reflection during meetings as well as team building activities inside and outside of the school. These desires align with SDT tenets (Baard, 2002).

"People tend to internalize and accept as their own the values and practices of those to whom they feel, or want to feel, connected, and from contexts in which they experience a sense of belonging" (Niemic & Ryan, 2009, p. 139). The teachers who

participated in the focus groups not only recognized a relatedness need; they discussed explicitly the desire for time devoted to building relationships with each other. The teachers saw this as having to do with activities both within and outside of the school setting. Intentional efforts to support the relatedness needs of teachers and to encourage a trusting adult culture would improve this PD model.

Implications for Future Research

There is certainly irony in this study related to autonomy-supportive education in terms of the missing student voice. Research aimed at understanding how autonomy-supportive PD impacts teachers' intentions to provide students autonomy supports in school would benefit from gaining insight from the students' perspective regarding a felt sense of autonomy. Ryan and Deci (2002) in an overview of SDT relayed "when autonomous, individuals experience their behavior as an expression of the self" (p. 8). After all, autonomy supports are perceived from a locus of self so a measure of individual perceptions regarding autonomy supports would be most valuable. Unfortunately, data was not collected in this study due to the time constraints of this Ed.D. program as well as the time requirements for IRB approval to collect student data. Further research in the area of autonomy-supportive teacher workshops and whether or not students perceive increases in autonomy supports would be very beneficial. The missing student viewpoint is an important consideration for future research. As noted previously, there are also several improvements that could be made in terms of methodology, including a larger and more diverse sample, the ability to match pre- and post-surveys, and survey streamlines that might have reduced dropout rates.

The analyses and interpretation of the focus group data provided insight into the PD model as experienced by teachers and their intentions and motivations to provide autonomy supports to students. As expected, teachers' own self-determined needs were important influences on autonomy-supportive practices as evidenced by the analyses of the focus group interviews. These led to insights into the importance of teachers' perceived needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence as related to efficacy in implementing school reform. In the future, it would be interesting to study teachers' self-perceived needs in relation to their intentions to provide students autonomy-supports in addition to looking at their motivation orientation.

It might also be worthwhile to collect survey information regarding teachers' perceptions of personal need satisfaction within the school environment prior to the start of PD and use this information to develop PD sessions. Research done by Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2013) found that while teachers are impacted by extrinsic and intrinsic reasons to participate in PD, "only autonomous motivation would have a significant impact on teacher intentions to future implement the innovative subject" (p.7). Connecting to teachers' autonomous motivation to participate in PD is critically important. It would be interesting to find out if a more increased focus on teachers' needs before and during PD sessions would lead to changes in their intentions to provide students autonomy supports. It would also be beneficial to ask the workshop participants to identify, describe, and evaluate the effectiveness of specific autonomy supports.

Also, it would be of interest to study the impacts of variables discussed in the focus group interviews on teachers' intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports. A longitudinal study of autonomy-supportive teaching as one

continues working at the same school would be valuable. Also a study on how class, culture, and school climate including PBIS change the relationship among the variables would provide more information about the complex process related to autonomy-supportive educational reform.

In terms of the instrument developed for this study, the Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS), we would need to administer the TIPSAS again, along with other relevant assessments, to substantiate validity and reliability. There is cause to work on test construction procedures and administer it to a large sample.

Implications for Future Practice

There is evidence that autonomy-supportive PD leads to changes in teacher practice. Gorozidis & Papaioannou (2014) concluded that often adaptation of teaching innovation was only successful in the second year of training. Reeve (1998) found that preservice teachers could become more autonomy-supportive through instructions but change was influenced by their prior beliefs about motivation. One can surmise that PBIS had significant impact on study findings regarding increased intentions and motivations to provide students autonomy supports.

The PD model implemented at the experimental school would benefit from increased time in order to modify sessions to provide more intentional methods or instruction on autonomy-supportive teaching practices as described by Reeve (2009). For example, further developing sessions that deeply explore motivational resources of students including intrinsic motivation, interests, and preferences would help teachers who expressed confusion on how to move away from a controlling classroom

environment (Reeve, 2009). A climate study before autonomy-supportive intervention would help facilitators directly address and contrast autonomy-supportive schooling with other approaches like PBIS. Also, it would be helpful to add a workshop session devoted to comparing and contrasting PBIS and autonomy-supportive assumptions, strategies, and outcomes.

Another session could be added to help teachers understand how to provide explanatory rationales when activities are potentially found uninteresting to students and could involve modeling and practicing the skill followed by discussion and feedback (Reeve, 2009). Other sessions would include practice using noncontrolling, informational language and discussing how self-paced learning differs from more controlling instruction (Reeve, 2009).

Preparing teachers for the difficult task of autonomy-supportive teaching is important. Autonomy-supportive practices may frustrate teachers because these practices often place increased cognitive demands on students who may be initially resistant, causing teachers to return to more traditional practices (Furtak & Kunter, 2012). This important point may need to be more explicitly communicated and discussed during PD sessions.

Using videotaped lessons of teachers practicing these and other autonomy-supportive practices followed by small group discussions could help add depth to the PD model and support teachers' expressed needs for competence and relatedness. These activities represent ideas to consider in developing a second year of implementation of this PD model.

More emphasis may need to be placed on discussing and supporting teacher need satisfaction in future PD sessions. A more intentional focus on teaching SDT to teachers and administrators and describing how their needs will be supported during the change process as well as how they can support each other early on in the PD model might be beneficial. Also, asking for frequent input from teachers and administrators regarding their thoughts and suggestions about how we, as facilitators, could be more need supportive would be helpful. And finally, future practice should include attempts to help preservice teachers learn more about autonomy-supportive education. Related to this idea is more training for those perspective administrators on autonomy-supportive education and leadership.

For psychological health, humans have certain needs: autonomy, relatedness, and competence. In order for these and other fundamental needs to be met, human beings must be in an environment that is supportive. For those of us in the field of education, we must be mindful of our role in supporting human flourishing, and of creating the contexts in which such flourishing is most likely to occur. Schools can and should provide the context for healthy human development rather than being institutions where minimal goals are being met but basic need satisfaction is unserved. This study suggests a way to support human health by providing an autonomy-supportive professional development model that helps support teachers' own flourishing and, in turn, helps them learn ways to support their students' psychological health and flourishing.

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Appendix A

PD Session 2: Exit Slip

Exit Slip 1/12/16

Is this PD meeting your expectations? Please explain...

What other supports would you like to come through these PD sessions?

Name: _____

How do you prefer to receive new knowledge?

Do you prefer...

_____ To read at your leisure (i.e. you'd like us to send you information based on your interests below)

_____ Prefer to work with a partner or group such as a book study

_____ Prefer to meet as a small discussion group

What would you like to learn more about?

- **Class meetings**
- **Developmental Discipline**
- **Person-centered education**
- **Supporting intrinsic motivation**
- **Creating and sustaining healthy relationships**
- **How to reach those hard to reach students**

Appendix B

Online PD Supports: Bibliography and Other Information

Folder One: Building Relationships

Beattie, H. (2012). Amplifying student voice: The missing link in school transformation.

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Bell, J. (1995). Understanding adultism: A major obstacle to developing positive youth-

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education. In D.K. Lapsley & F.C. Power (Eds.), *Character psychology and character education*, 268-285. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Cochran, M., & Dean, C. (1991). Home-school relations and the empowerment

process. *The Elementary School Journal*, 91(3), 261-269.

Noguera, P. A. (2007). How listening to students can help schools to improve. *Theory*

Into Practice, 46(3), 205-211.

Ryan, R. M., & Powelson, C. L. (1991). Autonomy and relatedness as fundamental to

motivation and education. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 60(1), 49-66.

Tate, T. F., & Copas, R. L. (2003). Insist or enlist? Adultism versus climates of

excellence. *Reclaiming Children and Youth: The Journal of Strength-based Interventions*, 12(1), 40-45.

Folder Two: Class Meetings

Grant, K., & Davis, B. H. (2012). Gathering around. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 48(3), 129-133.

Gray, S., & Drewery, W. (2011). Restorative practices meet key competencies: Class meetings as pedagogy. *International Journal on School Disaffection*, 8(1), 13-21.

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Folder Three: Developmental Discipline

Damon, W. (1999). The moral development of children. *Scientific American*, 281(2), 72-79.

Gardner, T. (2014). Make students part of the solution, not the problem. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 96(2), 8-12.

Kohlberg, L., & Hersh, R. H. (1977). Moral development: A review of the theory. *Theory into Practice*, 16(2), 53-59.

Noguera, P. A. (2003). Schools, prisons, and social implications of punishment: Rethinking disciplinary practices. *Theory Into Practice*, 42(4), 341-350.

Folder Four: Intrinsic Motivation

Curtis, D. (2002). The Power of Projects. *Educational leadership*, 60(1), 50-53.

Evans, M., & Boucher, A. R. (2015). Optimizing the power of choice: Supporting student autonomy to foster motivation and engagement in learning. *Mind, Brain, and Education, 9*(2), 87-91.

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Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist, 55*(1), 68.

Wilson, L. M., & Corpus, D. A. (2001). The effects of reward systems on academic performance. *Middle School Journal, 33*(1), 56-60.

Folder Five: Media Resources

***This folder included a bibliography of online sites and links organized on Google Doc in order for teachers to add further references as they wished. It also included copies of the instructional videos created for this PD.**

Folder Six: Person-centered Education

Althof, W. (2003). Implementing 'Just and Caring Communities' in elementary schools: a Deweyan perspective. In W. Veugelers & F. Oser (Eds.), *Teaching in democratic and moral education*. (pp. 153-172). Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.

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Noguera, P. A. (2007). How listening to students can help schools to improve. *Theory*

Into Practice, 46(3), 205-211.

O'Donnell, A. M. (2012). Constructivism. In K.R. Harris, S. Graham, T. Urdan, C.B.

McCormick, G.M. Sinatra, & J. Sweller (Eds.), *APA educational psychology*

handbook, Vol 1: Theories, constructs, and critical issues (pp. 61-84).

Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Folder Seven: Reaching Hard to Reach Students

Christensen, L. (2012). The classroom to prison pipeline. *Rethinking Schools*, 26(2), 24-

27.

Fuentes, A. (2012). Arresting Development: Zero Tolerance and the Criminalization of

Children. *Rethinking Schools*, 26(2), 18-23.

Noguera, P. A. (2011). A Broader and Bolder Approach Uses Education to Break the

Cycle of Poverty: Making Bold Assertions That All Children Can Achieve While

Doing Nothing to Address the Challenges They Face Is Neither Fair nor Sound

Public Policy. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 93(3), 8.

Appendix C: Teacher Preferences

Teacher Preferences: PD Topics

Teacher	Class Mtgs.	Dev. Disc.	Person-centered Education.	Intrinsic Motivation	Relationships	Hard to reach students
A	X					
B		X	X	X		X
C	X				X	X
D		X				X
E		X				X
F						
G		X		X		X
H		X		X		
I						X
J				X		
K		X		X		
L		X	X	X		X
M			X		X	X
N				X		
O		X		X		X
P		X				X
Q		X		X		X
R		X		X		X
S	X	X		X		X

Teacher Preferences: Learning Style

Teacher	Read on My Own	Book Study/ Partner	Discussion Group
A	X		
B	X	X	X
C			X
D			X
E			X
F	X		
G	X		X
H	X		
I			X
J	X		
K	X		
L		X	X
M			X
N	X		
O			X
P			X
Q	X		X
R	X		X
S			X

Appendix D: Focus Group Interview Protocol

1. Begin with an icebreaker such as introductions or a welcoming statement, thanking the participants for consenting to be included in the focus group.

Let participants know that we value their input and differing points of view as well. *No right or wrong answers. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. We are recording this session because we don't want to miss any of your comments. No names will be included in any reports. Your comments are confidential.

2. Think back over the past several months and the experiences that you had during the workshop sessions at Pond. Briefly go around the circle and review the workshop sessions at Pond, define and describe autonomy-supports.
3. How do you feel the workshops have impacted your beliefs about autonomy-supportive teaching?
4. What makes you feel you want to/can use these strategies?
5. What do you believe are potential obstacles to providing students' autonomy-supports?
6. What experiences during the professional development sessions were most helpful?
7. What would you suggest to make the workshop sessions more effective?

Appendix E: Demographic Survey Information

- 1) Where do you currently teach?
 - [Experimental] School
 - [Control] School

- 2) What is your gender?
 - Male
 - Female

- 3) What is your age?
 - 21-30
 - 31-40
 - 41-50
 - 51-60
 - Over 60

- 4) How would you describe yourself?
 - American Indian/Native American
 - Asian
 - Black/African American
 - Hispanic/Latino
 - White/Caucasian
 - Pacific Islander
 - Other

- 5) How many years have you been a classroom teacher?
 - 1-5 years

- 6-10 years
 - 11-15 years
 - 16-20 years
 - 21-25 years
 - Over 25 years
- 6) Which statement best describes your classroom practice regarding Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)? In regard to PBIS, I...
- almost always utilize PBIS practices with my students.
 - frequently utilize PBIS practices with my students.
 - sometimes utilize PBIS practices with my students.
 - never utilize PBIS practices with my students.

Appendix F: Teachers' Intentions to Provide Students Autonomy Supports (TIPSAS)

Please rate each item below by describing the strength of your intention to take the following actions in your classroom this year.

1	2	3	4
Absolutely won't do	Possibly will do	Likely will do	Absolutely will do

Statements:

I will include students in the development of classroom rules.

I will use the students' words in writing classroom rules.

I will utilize student led class meetings.

I will include the students' own ideas when solving discipline issues.

I will look for ways to involve students in decision-making about academic subjects.

I will use student surveys to ask how students feel things are going in the classroom.

I will ask students how they would like to show knowledge (i.e. by allowing a variety of assignment options).

I will involve students in choosing consequences when discipline issues arise.

I will utilize a circle format for conducting class meetings.

I will listen to students more.

I will include my students in decision-making about how the classroom is arranged.

I will provide time for students to plan for fieldtrips and/or classroom parties.

Please rate each item below by describing the strength of your intention to take the following actions in your school should you be in a position to do so.

1
Absolutely
wouldn't do

2
Possibly
would do

3
Likely
would do

4
Absolutely
would do

I would include students in choosing class fieldtrip sites.

I would include students in decision-making about curricular materials.

I would include students in decision-making about hiring staff.

I would include students in decision-making about hiring teachers.

I would include student input in teacher tenure decisions.

Please rate each item by selecting how often you plan to do each action in your classroom using the scale below:

1
Never

2
Monthly

3
Weekly

4
Daily

I will conduct class meetings.

I will make time to listen to student concerns about classroom rules and procedures.

I will include student discussion in academic lessons.

I will utilize peer-to-peer learning structures during lessons.

I will provide students with choices about homework options.

Appendix G: The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS)

Description of Scales

The Problems in Schools Questionnaire and the Problems at Work Questionnaire were developed using the same format and the same basic concept. Each assesses whether individuals in a position of authority, whose job is, in part, to motivate others, tend to be oriented toward controlling the behavior of those others versus supporting their autonomy. The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS) assesses whether teachers tend to be controlling versus autonomy supportive with their students. The Problems at Work Questionnaire (PAW) assesses whether managers tend to be controlling versus autonomy supportive with their employees. The measures are composed of eight vignettes, each of which is followed by four items. The four items following each vignette represent four different behavioral options for dealing with the problem that is posed in the vignette: one is Highly Autonomy Supportive (HA), one is Moderately Autonomy Supportive (MA), one is Moderately Controlling (MC), and one is Highly Controlling (HC). Respondents rate the degree of appropriateness of each of the four options (on a seven-point scale) for each of the eight situations. Thus, there are a total of 32 ratings.

Note that the Motivators' Orientations Questionnaires (PIS and PAW) were designed to be completed by the teachers and the managers, respectively. In contrast, the SDT-based scales referred to as the Perceived Autonomy Support (The Climate) Questionnaires were designed to be completed by the people being motivated--that is, by the students about their teachers' autonomy support versus control and by the subordinates about their managers' autonomy support versus control.

These scales are believed to measure a relatively stable orientation in adults toward their approach to motivating others; in other words, it is believed to reflect an individual difference variable in the motivators. The responses are in terms of behavioral options, but these are believed to reflect characteristics of the respondent.

Description of The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS)

The PIS was designed for use in schools, with teachers completing the scale about their own orientation toward motivating students, and the studies by Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan (1981) validated the scale for use in that way. It has also been used with parents, who report on their approach to motivating their children.

The PIS, with its reliability and validity, is described in:

Deci, E. L., Schwartz, A. J., Sheinman, L., & Ryan, R. M. (1981). An instrument to assess adults' orientations toward control versus autonomy with children: Reflections on intrinsic motivation and perceived competence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73*, 642-650.

Reeve, J., Bolt, E., & Cai, Y. (1999). Autonomy-supportive teachers: How they teach and motivate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 537-548.

The Problems in Schools Questionnaire (PIS)

On the following pages you will find a series of vignettes. Each one describes an incident and then lists four ways of responding to the situation. Please read each vignette and then consider each response in turn. Think about each response option in terms of how appropriate you consider it to be as a means of dealing with the problem described in the vignette. You may consider the option to be perfect, in other words, extremely appropriate in which case you would respond with the number 7. You might consider the response highly inappropriate, in which case would respond with the number 1. If you find the option reasonable you would select some number between 1 and 7. So think about each option and rate it on the scale shown below. Please rate each of the four options for each vignette. There are eight vignettes with four options for each.

There are no right or wrong ratings on these items. People's styles differ, and we are simply interested in what you consider appropriate given your own style.

Some of the stories ask what you would do as a teacher. Others ask you to respond as if you were giving advice to another teacher or to a parent. Some ask you to respond as if you were the parent. If you are not a parent, simply imagine what it would be like for you in that situation.

Please respond to each of the 32 items using the following scale.

1		2		3		4		5		6
	7									
very				moderately						very
inappropriate				appropriate						appropriate

A. Jim is an average student who has been working at grade level. During the past two weeks he has appeared listless and has not been participating during reading group. The work he does is accurate but he has not been completing assignments. A phone conversation with his mother revealed no useful information. The most appropriate thing for Jim's teacher to do is:

1. She should impress upon him the importance of finishing his assignments since he needs to learn this material for his own good.
2. Let him know that he doesn't have to finish all of his work now and see if she can help him work out the cause of the listlessness.
3. Make him stay after school until that day's assignments are done.
4. Let him see how he compares with the other children in terms of his assignments and encourage him to catch up with the others.

B. At a parent conference last night, Mr. and Ms. Greene were told that their daughter Sarah has made more progress than expected since the time of the last conference. All agree that they hope she continues to improve so that she does not have to repeat the grade (which the Greene's have been kind of expecting since the last report card). As a result of the conference, the Greenes decide to:

5. Increase her allowance and promise her a game system if she continues to improve.
6. Tell her that she's now doing as well as many of the other children in her class.
7. Tell her about the report, letting her know that they're aware of her increased independence in school and at home.
8. Continue to emphasize that she has to work hard to get better grades.

C. Donny loses his temper a lot and has a way of agitating other children. He doesn't respond well to what you tell him to do and you're concerned that he won't learn the social skills he needs. The best thing for you to do with him is:

9. Emphasize how important it is for him to control himself in order to succeed in school and in other situations.
10. Put him in a special class which has the structure and reward contingencies which he needs.
11. Help him see how other children behave in these various situations and praise him for doing the same.
12. Realize that Donny is probably not getting the attention he needs and start being more responsive to him.

D. Your son is one of the better players on his junior soccer team which has been winning most of its games. However, you are concerned because he just told you he failed his unit spelling test and will have to retake it the day after tomorrow. You decide that the best thing to do is:

13. Ask him to talk about how he plans to handle the situation.
14. Tell him he probably ought to decide to forego tomorrow's game so he can catch up in spelling.
15. See if others are in the same predicament and suggest he do as much preparation as the others.
16. Make him miss tomorrow's game to study; soccer has been interfering too much with his school work.

E. The Rangers spelling group has been having trouble all year. How could Ms. Wilson best help the Rangers?

17. Have regular spelling bees so that Rangers will be motivated to do as well as the other groups.
18. Make them drill more and give them special privileges for improvements.
19. Have each child keep a spelling chart and emphasize how important it is to have a good chart.
20. Help the group devise ways of learning the words together (skits, games, and so on).

F. In your class is a girl named Margy who has been the butt of jokes for years. She is quiet and usually alone. In spite of the efforts of previous teachers, Margy has not been accepted by the other children. Your wisdom would guide you to:

21. Prod her into interactions and provide her with much praise for any social initiative.
22. Talk to her and emphasize that she should make friends so she'll be happier.
23. Invite her to talk about her relations with the other kids, and encourage her to take small steps when she's ready.
24. Encourage her to observe how other children relate and to join in with them.

G. For the past few weeks things have been disappearing from the teacher's desk and lunch money has been taken from some of the children's desks. Today, Marvin was seen by the teacher taking a silver dollar paperweight from her desk. The teacher phoned Marvin's mother and spoke to her about this incident. Although the teacher suspects that Marvin has been responsible for the other thefts, she mentioned only the one and assured the mother that she'll keep a close eye on Marvin. The best thing for the mother to do is:

25. Talk to him about the consequences of stealing and what it would mean in relation to the other kids.
26. Talk to him about it, expressing her confidence in him and attempting to understand why he did it.
27. Give him a good scolding; stealing is something which cannot be tolerated and he has to learn that.
28. Emphasize that it was wrong and have him apologize to the teacher and promise not to do it again.

H. Your child has been getting average grades, and you'd like to see her improve. A useful approach might be to:

29. Encourage her to talk about her report card and what it means for her.
30. Go over the report card with her; point out where she stands in the class.
31. Stress that she should do better; she'll never get into college with grades like these.
32. Offer her 3 dollars for every A and 1 dollar for every B on future report cards.

Scoring Information. The procedure for scoring the questionnaire begins by averaging the eight ratings in each of the four categories. The four categories are highly controlling (HC), moderately controlling (MC), moderately autonomy supportive (MA), and highly autonomy supportive (HA). The four subscale scores (composed of the average of the eight responses for that subscale) can be used separately, in multi-variate analyses, or they can be combined into one overall reflection of the Adult's Orientation Toward Control Versus Autonomy Support with Children. The original procedure for combining the four subscales into one total scale score, as described in Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan (1981) involved weighting the average for the highly controlling responses with a -2 (minus two); weighting the moderately controlling average with -1 (minus one); weighting the average for the moderately autonomy supportive subscales with +1; and weighting the average for highly autonomy supportive subscale with +2. The algebraic sum reflects the adults' orientations toward control versus autonomy support, with a higher score reflecting a more autonomy-supportive orientation and a lower score or a more negative score reflecting a more controlling orientation. However, more recent work (e.g., Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, in press) has indicated that the so-called moderately autonomy supportive subscale actually acts more like a Slightly Controlling subscale. Accordingly, Reeve et al. recommended weighting the MA subscale 0 (zero), rather than -1 (minus 1). The items making up the subscales are as follows.

HC 3, 5, 10, 16, 18, 21, 27, 32 MC 1, 8, 9, 14, 19, 22, 28, 31 MA 4, 6, 11, 15, 17, 24, 25, 30 HA 2, 7, 12, 13, 20, 23, 26, 29

References

- Deci, E. L., Schwartz, A. J., Sheinman, L., & Ryan, R. M. (1981). An instrument to assess adults' orientations toward control versus autonomy with children: Reflections on intrinsic motivation and perceived competence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73*, 642-650.
- Reeve, J., Bolt, E., & Cai, Y. (1999). Autonomy-supportive teachers: How they teach and motivate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 537-548.

Appendix H: General Consent Form



College of Education

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 St. Louis, Missouri 63121-4499
 Telephone: 314-516-5000
 Fax: 314-516-5348
 E-mail: nshdc@umsl.edu

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities

Autonomy-Supports in Teachers PD

Participant _____ HSC Approval Number _____

Principal Investigator Natalie Wiemann PI's Phone Number 314-486-2840

1. You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Natalie Wiemann and Phillip C. Boyd, under the supervision of Professor Brenda Bredemeier, Ph.D. The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of a series of workshops on teachers' intentions to provide students with autonomy-supports in the classroom.
2. Your participation will involve:
 - A) Participating in one of two focus group interviews with the researchers stated above taking place at the end of the school year.

 Approximately 6-8 teachers will be involved in each focus group interview. Selected teachers from Pond Elementary School will be invited to participate.

 During the focus group interview, you will be asked to respond to questions about your experiences during the professional development sessions led by the researchers.
 - B) The amount of time involved in your participation will be approximately 60-90 minutes. The interview is to be conducted at your school site at a time that is mutually agreed upon between you and the researchers.
3. There are no anticipated risks associated with this research. There will be no performance-related questions. All participants will be requested to keep information from the interview confidential.
4. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the knowledge about professional development aimed to increase teacher knowledge regarding providing students with autonomy-supports.
5. Your participation is voluntary and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.

6. The focus group interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed. By agreeing to participate, you understand and agree that your data may be shared with other researchers and educators in the form of presentations and/or publications. In all cases, your identity will not be revealed. In rare instances, a researcher's study must undergo an audit or program evaluation by an oversight agency (such as the Office for Human Research Protection). That agency would be required to maintain the confidentiality of your data. In addition, all data will be stored on a password-protected computer and/or in a locked office. The audio recording will be destroyed 12 months after the conclusion of the study.
7. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, or if any problems arise, you may call the Investigator, Natalie Wiemann, 314-486-2840 or the Faculty Advisors, Dr. Brenda Bredemeier and Dr. David Shields, 314-516-6820. You may also ask questions or state concerns regarding your rights as a research participant to the Office of Research Administration, at 314-516-5897.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

 Participant's Signature

Date

 Participant's Printed Name

 Signature of Investigator or Designee Date

 Investigator/Designee Printed Name

Appendix I: Focus Group Consent Form



College of Education

One University Blvd.
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 Telephone: 314-516-5000
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 E-mail: nshdc@umsl.edu

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities

Autonomy-Supports in Teachers Professional Development

Participant _____ HSC Approval Number _____

Principal Investigator Natalie Wiemann PI's Phone Number 314-486-2840

1. You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Natalie Wiemann and Phillip C. Boyd, under the supervision of Professor Brenda Bredemeier, Ph.D. The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of a series of workshops on teachers' intentions to provide autonomy-supports for students in the classroom.
2. Your participation will involve:
 - A) Completing an anonymous online survey twice that includes demographic information and a series of statements and scenarios that you will be asked to respond to.

Up to 100 teachers may be involved in this research. Teachers from Chesterfield and Pond Elementary Schools are being invited to participate in data collection.
 - C) The amount of time involved in your participation will be approximately 15-20 minutes per survey. Surveys will be administered twice (once in November, 2015 and again April, 2016).
6. There are no anticipated risks associated with this research.
7. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the knowledge about professional development aimed to increase teacher knowledge regarding providing students' autonomy-supports.
8. Your participation is voluntary and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.
6. By agreeing to participate, you understand and agree that your data may be shared with other researchers and educators in the form of presentations and/or publications. In all cases, your identity will not be revealed. In rare instances, a researcher's study must undergo an audit or program evaluation by an oversight agency (such as the Office for Human Research Protection). That agency would be required to maintain the confidentiality of your data. In addition, all data will be stored on a password-protected computer and/or in a locked office.

7. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, or if any problems arise, you may call the Investigator, Natalie Wiemann, 314-486-2840 or the Faculty Advisor, Dr. Brenda Bredemeier. You may also ask questions or state concerns regarding your rights as a research participant to the Office of Research Administration, at 314-516-5897.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

Participant's Signature

Date

Participant's Printed Name

Signature of Investigator or Designee

Date

Investigator/Designee Printed Name

Appendix J: Complete Coding Chart

Analysis of Focus Group Interviews

Data Column Key

Black ink-Veteran Teacher Group

Blue ink-New Teacher Group

Category 1: Intrinsic Motivation

Subcategories	Property	Dimension	Data
Trust in Student Competence	Social Competence	Trust to Distrust	<p>AV-“I’ve never really allowed students to decide what their discipline was going to be.” (124) ...”So the survey question really impacted me and I was like, I’m going to try that. That seems like it might work. And it did.” (142-143)</p> <p>EV-“I was always afraid to bring up things...I wasn’t comfortable having conversations like you it’s different for him because you know and now I’m like, okay guys, we need to have a class meeting you know and we need to talk about how does everybody learn and talking about it’s ok.” (363-373)</p> <p>DV-“And now everyone is so open about it because they’ve seen the benefit of kids will support each other more when they understand the situation.” (397-399)</p> <p>BV-“I’m working with 6 and 7 year olds and they get a think sheet and I take them outside and we have a conversation about it, the amount of information and knowledge and awareness that they have kinda shocks me because I wouldn’t expect it.” (662-666)</p> <p>BV-“I think we underestimate them a lot of times. I think they know a lot more than we give them credit for.”</p>

			<p>(668-669)</p> <p>DV-“A barrier is we do have some of those kids with special needs that don’t respond, don’t understand intrinsic motivation.” (967-969)</p> <p>AN-“I would never have even thought to not have my students involved in making the, like, classroom expectations and things. That might be different for other teachers in the building- they would be like what, no, we just have them set.” (46-49)</p> <p>CN-“I’ve seen both sides and seen, you know, really, you know, this, really the side where they make the decisions is much better, it’s much more, they are more involved.” (39-41)</p> <p>CN-“And I think when it starts the kids are like what are you doing, like, what do you mean I get to come up with the rules. That’s not, that’s not how it works. You just tell me...I think it’s so ingrained. I guess that ageism thing we were kind of talking about you know. We just have to break that. It’s tough for them, but it’s tough for us too.” (331-335)</p>
	<p>Academic Competence</p>	<p>Student Driven to Teacher Controlled</p>	<p>FV-“I think an effective reward for kids that would be more challenging work and more interesting work...so this would be a great school for that kind of thing where instead of giving pawsitives we give them autonomy to investigate subjects of interest to create projects of interest using technology.” (807-815)</p> <p>DV-“I think that’s more of, my kids who do that do it at home on their own time. And I encourage well, you know if that’s something</p>

		<p>you're interested in you start researching at home." (831-834)</p> <p>DV-"We don't have room in our schedules for that kind of interesting challenging stuff that would be of more intrinsic motivation...we have so much curriculum to cram in." (842-846)</p> <p>CN-"We can't really give them as much of the you guys choose that path. I feel that sometimes, I feel that sometimes we're a lot more, ok, this is what it's gotta be because we want them to be ready for middle school, we want them to be ready for that first day when they walk in." (80-84)</p> <p>DN-"I think autonomy-supportive is just getting each student to be independent and in charge of their own success and their own learning and just having them set their own goals and just start learning what it's like to be an independent learner for life." (204-207)</p> <p>AN-"I think that's something that, you know, we can help them [students] and try to help them feel successful in some area and maybe it will help them understand how to work hard in a different area that maybe they don't like as much." (214-217)</p> <p>CN-"It's that confidence. They really need that confidence, you know. I teach math and I can't tell you how many kids walk in at the beginning of the year saying I hate math...if you're confident in it, it doesn't matter if you're the best at it." (218-223)</p> <p>BN-"It's especially fun and especially exciting when it's those kids that rarely follow through on certain things...that's a big part of what we've all said about having them</p>
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			<p>find success and having them set up their goals and what that feels like but also celebrating...that's really important." (243-247)</p> <p>AN-"We want our kids to be so intrinsically motivated, we want them to want to succeed because, you know, they want it on their own." (406-407)</p>
	<p>Democratic Competence (Student Voice)</p>	<p>Encouraged to Discouraged</p>	<p>CV-"I remember like the first time trying to do the rules with the kids, have them come up with it worrying like what, how are they going to come up with the rules for our classroom? No, that's the teachers job. But, I mean it worked out and I still do that every year not." (277-280)</p> <p>AV-"It's just harder I think though that/when we have those four words that we need to focus on...to be able to allow that those are rules so it's really to me, their interpretation of what that means." (280-288)</p> <p>FV-"I mean I knew I was suppose to be letting them have a say...so what we did do with my 4th graders is we took the expectations off the wall and we put them down in the middle of the circle and as a group we revised them." (333-335)</p> <p>CN-"I want to give them choice and all that kind of stuff, but at the same time I have such high expectations so that they can be ready for next year. So there's that fine balance I think." (88-90)</p> <p>CN-"I know with like class meetings...we get one a week sometime. But I would love to sit down and have that time with my kids, you know, just see what's going on in their lives, what's going on, you know, in this school setting</p>

			<p>because I think sometimes we focus a lot on they're at their desk, they're doing their work and that's what I need them to do." (267-272)</p> <p>BN-"Our group of kids are not the, not the most intrinsically motivated. Umm, yeah, we really struggled with that this year, and so umm, getting them to create their own goals, just what we're talking about has been a challenge." (299-302)</p> <p>AN-"I think it's always good to...hear from a perspective of a kid or two. Just hearing from a kid...because you know, you don't realize it...you just think like oh they're eight, like, but...they remember the good and they remember the bad from third grade." (524-531)</p> <p>CN-"I don't think they are given enough credit, they're not given enough credit. Like they're 11 and I think they've only experienced the world for 11 years but they have such a story with them, they have such a you know identity there...but you know, they have great ideas. And I think it's just giving them the voice to come out and listen to them." (533-541)</p> <p>DN-"The ageism is found in teaching so much." (548)</p>
<p>Letting Go of Control Model of Schooling</p>	<p>Teacher Influences/Experiences as Students</p>	<p>Empowering to Controlling</p>	<p>DV-"Teachers teach the way that we were taught. And so I grew up in the timeframe where it was, you did exactly what the teachers did and it was a very rigorous day and you worksheet after worksheet, ditto after ditto...But, you know, so when, I always knew that I wanted to be a teacher so even growing up when I played teacher, that's how I played teacher. So</p>

			<p>going through college I was even watching teachers teach that way.” (244-260)</p> <p>DV-“I was just going to say that the intrinsic and extrinsic is one of the biggest topics that you guys brought to our attention..that again, we know what we should be doing but I have the hardest time getting that to work. Like it’s not as meaningful to them, they’re not producing as much” (678-687)</p> <p>EV-“It was brought to my attention and you don’t learn that stuff in school.” (1599-1600)</p> <p>CN-“As a newer teacher, you know, we come out of the college setting and then it’s like what you guys are kind of talk was in kind of where we kind of been brought up a little bit. You know, you know some of the teachers that have been taught, for , you know been teaching a little bit longer, maybe their, the training they received was different than the training we kind of received.” (29-34)</p> <p>AN-“We really talked a lot about like, you know, the student voice and choice, and class meetings. And I definitely, when you were saying, we were definitely, you know-like in college that’s all we talked about.” (43-46)</p>
	<p>Awareness/Understanding Of Need to Let Go of Control Model</p>	<p>High to Low</p>	<p>DV-“You worry about those things, you put it in their hands and they make the wrong decision. Do you let them have that natural consequence of this decision isn’t a good one or do you then try to guide them in a different direction, like, oh, let’s try to do this but then you are taking the control back out of their hands.” (271-275)</p> <p>BV-“I think it’s also</p>

			<p>reassuring cause like we want to go to that path and we're making like as committees, we're making all these goals and we're not there yet but I think like you guys coming in and saying I mean this has been proven, this is a good method. It's also reassuring to everybody that what we're doing is not just BS but yes, it's actually good for the students." (347-352)</p> <p>BV-"We've even talked in our committee because we are PBIS so it is right now a lot of external..but so like we just had our meeting on Monday and we talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic." (534-538).</p>
<p>Dependence on Rewards</p>		<p>High to Low Dependence</p>	<p>AV-"At the end of our day, we give out little reminders to let the parents know how their day was. It just says, 'I had a pawsitives day'...That's our communication system with the parents. So then they have to respond and go back home, and say, well, I didn't get my pawsitive because and explain why." (137-142)</p> <p>EV-"So how though? If we stop giving out pawsitives, okay now what? We can't just go cold turkey...what now?" (540-543)</p> <p>AV-"Well I think we, because of the health things we've gotten rid of the candy and some of those and I don't think classroom teachers are also doing treasure boxes and the money and stuff where we use to each teacher did that." (557-560).</p> <p>EV-"I like how it's all how everybody was doing the same thing.</p>

		<p>Yes, we were handing out a pawsitives, but everybody it was the same language.” (568-570).</p> <p>DV-“Like it’s not as meaningful to them and so therefore, they’re not producing as much.” (686-687).</p> <p>DV-“Right now, we are trying to build a word on the board, umm, every time they have a good day or they’ve been good listeners or whatever they get a letter added to the board and then once they’re finished they get an extra recess. You know, like that’s STILL extrinsic. But I feel, like it’s better than handing out candy. But like that’s me baby stepping.” (688-692)</p> <p>EV-“I’m like I’ve never been more proud of anyone in my life in this moment right here and then I gave him a pawsitive. But did I want to give him candy? You know, no, but my reaction was the same yesterday...I just wanted to do more, I didn’t know, I didn’t know what else, you know. (752-766)</p> <p>FV-“I can see 95% of the student body responding really well to intrinsic motivation and there’s going to be outliers in every single classroom-the kiddo that needs the little behavior chart with the smilies...save those external rewards for the outliers...and try to wean them off of them.” (959-965)</p> <p>AN-“The kids just like you know resist that and then I feel like, we hve those, you know, struggling kids and we just start putting those extrinsic motivation things out to them and then it, I just feel like doesn’t help and then it just snowballs and then you’re like, where do you</p>
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			<p>stop?” (408-412)</p> <p>AN-“With the older grades...if they haven’t been working with that intrinsic motivation in kindergarten, first, second grade then how do you, you know, it’s hard for them to understand that I’m not just working for a reward.” (413-416)</p>
<p>Parents as Partners</p>	<p>Systems of Rewards & Consequences</p>	<p>High to Low Dependence</p>	<p>DV-“I feel like that’s where parents feel like, Well, they always do the right thing so then I don’t have to say way to go on getting that A and not giving them twenty dollars for an A.” (801-805)</p> <p>DV-“Our kids are so use to that intrinsic I mean extrinsic.” (585)</p> <p>DV-“We know we can’t be doing that and that’s not good for our kids [rewards] but getting that out to our parents in this school because these kids are so use to [rewards.]” (629-632)</p> <p>AV-“But you get a trophy for JUST participating now...society as made that...society says you showed up today, here’s a trophy.” (699-700; 713)</p> <p>AV-“We teach in a very affluent community so their parents don’t give them a hug, their parents say, here, go play with my phone and let me buy you a phone so you can play with it because you’re doing such a great job. (734-737)</p> <p>DV-“They get stuff all the time. ‘Here’s twenty dollars...for everything” (738; 740).</p> <p>EV-“Just like that [snapping her fingers] and they are constantly, whatever they want, they get!” (746-747)</p> <p>AV-“They’re taught at home if a parent says 6 times to do anything, the parent ends up just doing</p>

			<p>it themselves so they don't follow expectations at home." (1049-51)</p> <p>DV-"I have parents pick up kids early during an AR incentive if they didn't meet their reading goal so they weren't able to participate...so they don't let them suffer the consequences." (1054-1059)</p>
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Category 2: Trusting Adult Culture

Subcategory	Property	Dimension	Data
Risk/Safety	Conversation/Sharing Out	Safe to Unsafe	<p>EV-"You know just having these types of powerful conversations in staff meetings or PLC's. You know that idea that she just brought up, that wouldn't have come up without having these powerful sessions." (158-161)</p> <p>DV-"Last year we did something to where we were sharing out, shared best practice...yes, but then it stopped....it made us have really good conversations with each other too." (174-179; 194)</p> <p>EV-"We are like the kids too afraid to talk about it." (482)</p> <p>EV-"Give us some time to talk just like this you know like most of the stuff in our staff meetings can be via email, no offense But the stuff you guys brought in, it brought up really good conversations." (914-917)</p> <p>BV-"Even one person sharing out something that they tried or courageously went out there and did and maybe failed. But so I think that would be helpful just to hear from other teachers that maybe did try and then maybe it was successful or was not successful." (1307-1310)</p> <p>DV-"It's like you were saying, you have those kids that are always talking and engaging and then you have</p>

		<p>those other kids that have great things to say but don't necessarily say it. We have teachers the exact same way. In a smaller group, people feel safer in speaking out in front of them." (1347-1351)</p> <p>EV-"We have committee people that don't say a word. They come in and then they leave. They do not say a word. And they are not told you need to participate more, you need to be more engaged. It's okay. It's acceptable." (1387-1390)</p> <p>FV-"I don't mind speaking up if I don't feel like I'm not going to be judged or attacked verbally or nonverbally...I'm super sensitive to nonverbal communication more than the average person and if I feel like people are rolling their eyes or any of that then I'm not going to talk." (1397-1404)</p> <p>DV-"See that's the fear of speaking out or being judged or thinking that. My fear is what I'm saying is stupid and people are just going to be like what a joke." (1409-1412)</p> <p>AV-"I'm just wondering because knowing who was in there, I just don't think they were probably as verbal but this is not our first rodeo. We've been doing this for a number of years." (1433-1435)</p> <p>DV-"I'm just saying this is also safety in know what we say is...we're tenured teachers...I think that makes you feel a little bit safer about speaking out whereas the newbies are a little more careful because they...may not get a job next year, people won't like me." (1438-1446)</p> <p>EV-"It's more than just the newbies too." (1451)</p> <p>EV-"Like some way where we could share best practices cause we learn best from each other. In this building there is a lot of good people that I've learned from." (1506-1509)</p>
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			<p>EV-“A post-it note would be better than what we’re getting now.” (1507)</p> <p>DV-“Everything you said that is best practices for students is just the same for adults. You know, the modeling, the reflecting, the discussion.” (1541-1543)</p> <p>AN-“When it’s a smaller group you just feel more comfortable and when you know we’re having conversations engaging rather than just listening. I think those breakout sessions when we did that was really, really helpful.” (567-570)</p> <p>AN-“I’m like, Oh God, will I say the wrong thing?”(610)</p> <p>AN-“As adults I think that’s also a big thing, getting that chance to like talk out your ideas and then to like alright, now I want to share that to the common, everyone, to the good of the group.” (614-616)</p>
	<p>Peer Observations</p>	<p>Safe to Unsafe</p>	<p>DV-“Not an email but a time for teachers to get together to see what that looks like in their room. Show us what it looks like.” (911-912)</p> <p>FV-“So observing you, observing our peers that are very good at this giving kids more autonomy, encouraging them to have more of a say. I would love that.” (1465-1468)</p> <p>AV-“Cause we use to go visit rooms and watch class meetings when we first started something.” (1470-1471)</p> <p>BV-“Or like videos of you guys modeling a lesson or something.” (1475)</p> <p>DV-“Well I’m such a visual learner and seeing something makes it way more powerful...it’s like that picture or that video sticks in my head...a video or being able to actually witness a teacher doing this in their room sticks with me much longer” (1483-1489)</p>

			<p>FV-“I like seeing it though” (1525)</p> <p>FV-“I think we need to go on a fieldtrip to your school [to facilitator]” (1545)</p> <p>DV-“Just witnessing it, being able to take a fieldtrip and go and do that and do that stuff and being able to watch those teachers, it was so empowering to me just made me think I could do it because there’s a lot of things that sound good on paper or you read in an article and you think, ‘wow, I’m so glad that worked for that teacher, but I don’t know how to do that.” (1570-1575)</p> <p>FV-“It would be neat to see schools that are functioning as whole schools doing everyone’s on the same page doing the same thing and that it effects the whole morale of the school, the whole tone of the school.” (1580-1583)</p>
<p>Relationship Building</p>	<p>In School</p>	<p>Positive to Negative</p>	<p>EV-“They like teachers like that. They like teachers that come in, do their jobs, don’t complain about anything, aren’t vocal about it. Our administrators like that.” (1356-1358)</p> <p>DV-“I was told before that I was liked because I stayed in my room...staying quiet.” (1366-1367; 1382)</p> <p>EV-“We have committee people that don’t say a word, they come in and then they leave.” (1387-1388)</p> <p>EV-“We learn best from each other. In this building, there is a lot of good people that I’ve learned from.” (1508-1509)</p> <p>BN-“When we went around and said the positive things within the staff... There were a couple of times throughout the year that I really needed a mental reset to just deal with adults in the building. So that was really positive because I think that without my positivity with my peers,</p>

			<p>it's gonna effect my students.”(474-475; 480-483)</p> <p>AN-“It was kind of good to hear from everyone and hear positives from everyone.” (488-490)</p> <p>AN-“Staff to staff relationships are so important, especially as newer teachers.” (495-496)</p> <p>CN-“I think that’s so important to be able just to see people...the positive things,. I think that negative comes up quite a bit more often than the positive.” (509-511)</p>
	Outside of School	Expected to Avoided	<p>EV-“I mean like we have events, like M... has a walk so there would be 7 or 8 staff members, you know talking about community and community service.” (455-457)</p> <p>AV-“Our next PAWS event...we have a 5K that our dads put together and the next one is for diabetes.” (466-467)</p> <p>BV-“I know that’s a focus that we’re going to try to shoot for next year to be that model not just inside of the school but outside of the school as well just so that the kids can like make connections that we are people and we do great things too.” (1158-1161)</p>

Category 3: District/Building Alignment

Subcategory	Property	Dimension	Data
Shared Mindset	Staff buy-in	High Agreement to Low Agreement	<p>BV-“We all need to do it because then the students know from year to year to year. Then it starts becoming a habit and they expect it and they know what to expect” (878-880)</p> <p>FV-“My ability or tendency to give kids control or not give them control has been affected by the school’s environment</p>

			<p>that I've taught in." (302-304).</p> <p>BV-"How do we move forward with, like, you know, explaining those things to people?" (507-508)</p> <p>BV-"How do you get everybody involved? How do you make the difference? How do you make the change? Not just one classroom but like how do we impact everybody?" (514-517)</p> <p>AV-"Once we decide where we're starting though, of what we are going to do...we have to have a plan." (1471-1473)</p> <p>CN-"I mean we have great staff here but I think if we're not all on the same page with something, then it doesn't carry over." (433-434)</p> <p>CN-"We've only been doing this a few years so we've got to work our way up the totem pole and I think it's, you know, like getting that balance of ok, take old school and new school and kind of mesh them together." (443-446)</p>
	<p>Training</p>	<p>Strong Focus to Minimal Focus</p>	<p>BV-"I think it's all about training teachers to get into that mindset, esp. older teachers, we've been doing this for so long. It's changing and I think we always have to be in the mindset to be ever changing." (236-239)</p> <p>DV-"Teachers need professional development on how to do that in their classrooms. We need someone to teach people what [this] looks like." (899-901)</p> <p>DV-"Not an email but a time for teachers to get together to see what that looks like in their room. Show us what it looks like." (911-912).</p> <p>BN-"It kinda reminded me kind of what (Name) was saying that some of the teachers we work with aren't right out of college and they aren't, of the same, necessarily teaching mindset." (61-63)</p>
<p>Policies/Practices</p>	<p>Curriculum</p>	<p>Alignment to No Alignment</p>	<p>BV-"I feel like there are certain things we have control over and then there are a lot of things we don't. Like moving</p>

		<p>forward like as a district because they're the ones that control what we do a lot of times so how do we explain these to people?" (504-507)</p> <p>FV-"I know in [school district name] their elementary metaphor is school's a museum and the kids create these huge displays based on their learning and then they have museum nights where kids serve as docents and they're explaining all their learning." (807-812)</p> <p>DV-"I mean, you know, there is just no room in our schedule, and I think that is another barrier for us is that we don't have room in our schedules for that kind of interesting, challenging stuff that would be more of an intrinsic motivation." (842-845)</p> <p>DV-"It makes it harder to give the kids that autonomy because we are being told what you need to teach and this is how we want you to teach it." (850-852)</p> <p>AV-"And it would be nice to give kids these opportunities but it's taking away from their opportunity to learn the curriculum, because we are all so tied, handcuffed to that." (1226-1228)</p> <p>DN-"Within just this environment, we can't control as much as we want to, we can't control outside but we can control how they feel about themselves here." (180-182)</p> <p>CN-"What am I doing in my own classroom? Am I doing this? I want to be doing this...I'd love to sit down and have that time with my kids, you know, just to see what's going on in their lives." (263-270)</p> <p>AN-"I mean our days are just so packed and we have to figure out how to kind of make it a part of our day, part of our lessons and just kind of getting better at that and incorporating it with the reading lesson or with the math." (363-365)</p> <p>BN-"I feel pretty good about</p>
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			<p>class meetings. And you know, some of the other things you presented, I'm like oh my gosh, love that, I'll do it next year." (395-397)</p>
	Leadership	Alignment to No Alignment	<p>EV-"I think Carlos needs to be onboard. I think Carlos needs to be more verbal about it and promote it and expect it and say hey, we're going to take baby steps but this is what I want to see." (1254-1256)</p> <p>DV-"I feel like he's (Carlos) giving that autonomy to us." (1268)</p> <p>CN-"[Superintendent's name] said at the beginning of the year, you know about building relationships. His big thing this year was, "I'm not about test scores, you know... Great, we want to do good and all that, but if you have that relationship the kids are going to do so much better for you." (370-374)</p>
Accountability		High to Low	<p>BV-"Kinda like what we did with PBIS. I mean we came through PBIS cold turkey. Like we started it hands on and then the whole school was required to do it so like I feel like in order for that autonomy to work in a school like ours I think that it needs to be school wide." (881-884)</p> <p>DV- "I would say another barrier if we would want everyone held accountable we need somebody to teach some people what that looks like." (900-902)</p> <p>EV-"But someone needs to put their foot down. Otherwise, we're going to have the same conversation next year and next year where we've been for the past three years." (1275-1277)</p>

Category 4: Dealing With Diverse Needs

Subcategory	Property	Dimension	Data
SES/Class		Privilege to Lack	<p>EV-"Our kids are use to getting things in this school." (587)</p> <p>AV-"Some of the friends that you work with, their climate is</p>

		<p>totally different than the 23 in our class, than the general population. So you're looking at kids that are different." (589-592)</p> <p>DV-"I still have parents that pay for good grades...They're like I hope they have an A because they're suppose to get their twenty dollars. That's how they're raised, not how we were raised. It's our community here." (604-609)</p> <p>AV-"We teach in a very affluent community so their parents don't give them a hug, their parents say, here, go play with my phone and let me buy you a phone so you can play with it because you're doing such a great job. They get stuff all the time." (734-737)</p> <p>EV-"One of my students did his homework all by himself for the very first time and I seriously wanted to take him to Disney Land. I was, I went crazy. I had tears down my face. I was so excited for him" (748-750).</p> <p>DV Continues, "That's not a kid that normally gets that" (778).</p> <p>EV Continues, "But for the rest of our kids, not the rest of our kids, the majority of our kids" (791-792).</p> <p>EV-"Whatever they want...they get!" (747)</p> <p>EV-"His mom, her goal is to keep him alive and off the streets." (786)</p> <p>CN-"I mean they live in a crappy part of town... He can't go outside because there's a shooting three blocks down the street, you know. He can't go outside because somebody's car got jacked last night and they don't want the kid anyway..it's just that perspective like we don't think about out here...our kids they go home and just go outside and play." (118; 129-133)</p> <p>AN-"That's like, you know not the norm here, so I think it's even harder for those kids that we do have and you kind of forget about that. You don't realize it because it's not what we deal with with most of our students." (139-142)</p>
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<p style="text-align: center;">Empathy</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Student Accountability</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">High to Low</p>	<p>EV-You know having those conversations about not everyone is getting the same, we're not all on the same page made me really like reflect back on ok it's ok if I'm treating this kid differently. Not everybody knows his background, not everybody knows his circumstances." (151-154)</p> <p>DV-"I was having a harder time switching gears to be more empathetic...here it was like I did a 360. I'm like you get plenty of hugs at home. Not that I don't hug on my students, but at the same time I can't, I'm having a harder time empathizing with them. "Well, I didn't get my homework done because I had soccer practice. Or umm, I just wasn't feeling well so I just didn't feel like doing it. It's like tough, you know, you're nine and then I think, you know, they're nin." (1026-1035)</p> <p>DV-"How am I suppose to be empathetic to kids because their parent's choices to not want their kids to ever have anything bad happen to them?" (others agree) (1059-1061)</p> <p>DV-"So you know, I'm trying to be more empathetic but I have a really hard time doing that at this school. Like I understand why we should be more empathetic and for those kids who have really bad situations that they are in, I am, but then I feel like I'm not being fair to the other kids." (1071-1077).</p> <p>EV-"Even when we rode the buses, we got to ride the bus to go see where our VIC students really lived. And I'm like going to tell you when I first started here, I'm like, you have an hour bus ride home, you can get it done, I'm like and then actually seeing it and actually going on it...the bus ride is awful. It's like 90 degrees in here and no support at home...I'm like dude, I'm a witch, we can get that done today." (1586-1599)</p>
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			<p>CN-“I just know, ok, he’s only going to get half this done tonight and I just have to be okay with that. And that was tough for me, kind of like, be like he’s not doing it out of disrespect or anything like that, he’s just doing it because they don’t have the time to do it. She’s helping to get all the kids have some sort of special needs at home, so she’s doing the best job that she can do...I have to just kind of have to step in and cover those things.” (118-125)</p> <p>AN-“And realizing like that this kid is different, we’re gonna have to do it. That kid can’t have the same thing as all those other kids. We need to change it, we need to adapt it and everyone doesn’t need to be doing the same exact thing.” (142-145)</p> <p>CN-“I think that even just outside of even just the social aspect, which is general in the classroom too...It’s equal but not always fair you know. Everybody’s getting an equal amount but what we’re not, we’re doing is not always the same, you know, thing, you know. They may have less homework but it’s just because they’ve got so much other stuff to do. And that just goes even beyond our city kids and our, you know, kids that, you know, there are some county kids who, they’ve got rough times going on you know. Mom and Dad are going through a divorce. I think last year I had a kid who the mom just disappeared, like just left.” (146-154)</p>
	<p>Social Background</p>	<p>High to Low</p>	<p>DV-“So you know, I’m trying to be more empathetic but I have a really hard time doing that at this school. Like I understand why we should be more empathetic for those kids who have really bad situations that they are in but then I feel like I’m not being fair to the other kids.” (1071-1077)</p> <p>BV-“So we have our little friends that don’t bring their snack everyday; you know, their situation at home so I have snacks for them every single day and all my other kids are pretending that they don’t have a snack...So it’s</p>

			hard to be empathetic sometimes because you are more empathetic to some students (others agree) than others for different reasons at the same time.” (1084-1092)
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Category 5: Professional Development (PD)

Subcategory	Property	Dimension	Data
PD Process	Reflection	Helpful to Inhibiting	<p>EV-“You know just having these conversations in staff meetings or PLC’s. You know that idea she just brought up, that wouldn’t have come up without having these powerful sessions.” (158-161)</p> <p>FV-“That video on the first day was so powerful and then our conversation after the video. It really helped us think about that kids come from, all different kids come from different backgrounds and bring that to school and that affects their behavior and motivations.” (1017-1021)</p> <p>AV-“Maybe 10 minutes of follow-up from the leader in the building to say okay, so this is a wrap up, this is what I hear and these are how I think [the school] should be able to do it and this is what I’m going to be expecting to see.” (1286-1289)</p> <p>FV-“Maybe throughout the sessions that we divide the staff into smaller groups with someone assigned as a facilitator and have these meaningful discussions at some point before the end.” (1321-1323)</p> <p>CN-“I think the spirit read was hard for me. I’m just a very visual person so like when someone is reading a line I want to see where it’s at and the context that it’s in.” (572-574)</p> <p>BN-“I liked when we wrote down lines on that big chart paper.” (588-589)</p> <p>AN-“Also we had a sheet and we went to and we wrote down little quotes that we liked and that kind of thing was fabulous.” (591-592)</p>

	Experiences	Helpful to Inhibiting	<p>EV-“But then bringing those things that we learned in slowly as we were still getting all those things done. I think it’s made a huge impact.” (342-344)</p> <p>DV-“I’m telling you when I went to that school...and we got to watch teachers and it was you know, the open room, there were no classrooms and in my head I could NOT picture how this worked and I went in with such a negative attitude, “This is just going to be awful.” ... And I was just amazed!” (1547-1561)</p> <p>FV-“It would be neat to see schools that are functioning as whole schools doing everyone’s on the same page doing the same thing.” (1580-1581)</p> <p>DV-“Just witnessing it, being able to take a fieldtrip and go and do that stuff and being able to watch those teachers...it was so empowering to me just me think that I could do it.” (1570-1573)</p> <p>EV-“I think modeling and hands on is the best way this staff learns as well.” (1585-1586)</p>
PD Outcome	Personal	Change to No Change	<p>EV-“I took it both ways. Well, I’m like I do that, OK, good job...or I would be like ok ...never before would I think about...those conversations ...made me reflect back on ok it’s ok if I’m treating this kid differently.” (146-153)</p> <p>EV-“Back in the day, I would have never had that type of conversation in my classroom. (381-382)</p> <p>FV-“I was thinking about what you guys taught us and you taught us about the importance of intrinsic rewards and so I know I started off giving a lot of pawsitives before you guys came, handing out pawsitives left and right but then I was like, wait a minute that’s an external reward, maybe I should be, we should be focusing on intrinsic so I just started handing them out less and then I ran out and then</p>

		<p>working towards that intrinsic motivation where they want to do well because, “Wow, look what you produced.” (487-495)</p> <p>BV-“Well and we’ve even talked in our committee because we are PBIS so it is right now a lot of external, you know, motivation, but so like we had our meeting on Monday and we just talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic.” (534-538).</p> <p>EV-“I’m like keep doing it, keep doing it, you know but those conversations [with students], those, that’s what you’ve taught us.” (775-776)</p> <p>BV-“We had that discipline conversation...after that meeting the counselor and I met and we’re look okay let’s come up with some new plans for this kiddo and we made these new cards and we made them and we had him come up with ideas.” (989-996)</p> <p>BV-“So I think that was a good conversation we had there too because we were able to switch that and instead of giving me the cards that we learned that...we turned it to him.” (1002-1005)</p> <p>DV-“Perspective-taking-I used a lot of that one.” (1124)</p> <p>EV-“One idea I got about engagement is I kinda hear from the same people in my class but then their stuff is so good...I’ve been trying to focus on those kids that could possibly be good leaders that nobody would ever pick.” (1188-1191)</p> <p>BN-“I just feel like a lot of stuff you guys talked about was refreshing to hear and it aligned with a lot of my beliefs about teaching.” (58-60)</p> <p>CN-“[PD] caused me to think more, ok, what happens when they get on that bus, you know, what do they go home to, what is their life like and all that.” (159-161)</p> <p>DN-“I think just all the more reason to give each kid a sense</p>
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			<p>of belonging while they're here. I think that's just been the overall gestalt of what really resonated with me these past couple of months-it's just been every kid needs to feel valued." (177-180)</p> <p>CN-"I think that kind of helped energize me, kind of showed me you know, ok I know what I should be doing. How can I continue to build up that structure?" (279-281)</p> <p>BN-"[PD] reminded us of how to do it, but it also reminded me that it was possible and I think that it's easy to lose sight just in the like day to day." (293-295)</p> <p>CN-"I think really for me personally it's just reaching that hard to reach kid and thinking about what happens to them, you know, that perspective...how can I build that relationship. I think that's kind of what I took away the most." (315-318)</p> <p>DN-"[PD] reminded me of why I'm doing it and what I'm doing and it was really refreshing to get that." (342-343)</p> <p>AN-"We get so caught up with so much other stuff...what we have to do, what we need to do, coming in every single day...[PD] like so excited to get in there and do these things." (282-288)</p>
	<p>Collective</p>	<p>Change to No Change</p>	<p>BV-"I think it's also reassuring cause like we want to go to that path and we're making like as committees, we're making all these goals and we're not there yet but I think you guys coming in and saying, I mean this has been proven, this is a good method." (347-350)</p> <p>DV-"And now everyone is so open about it because I think they've seen the benefit of how kids will support each other more when they understand a situation. So these kinds of workshops that we've had I feel like kinda opens that up." (397-400)</p> <p>EV-"It was brought to our</p>

			<p>attention, brought to us as, Hey, it's okay to do this and Carlos totally supported, you know, both of you guys coming." (529-531)</p> <p>BV-"We've even talked in our committee because we are PBIS so it is right now a lot of external motivation but so like we just had our meeting on Monday and we just talked about how we could change all of this for next year to make it more intrinsic." (534-538)</p> <p>EV-"We're trying all these strategies but there's barriers that are up against us. We're going to break them." (709-711)</p> <p>DV-"I would say another barrier if we would [hold] everyone accountable we need somebody to teach some people what that looks like." (900-902)</p> <p>EV-"It brought up her example that I would have never thought could have happened in kindergarten...But I did think worse case scenario and then after that I thought dude, kindergartners can do it then 5th graders can." (917-923)</p> <p>FV-"That video on the first day was so powerful and then our conversation after the video. It really helped us to think about that kids come from, all different, kids come from different backgrounds and bring that to school and that affects their behavior and motivations." (1017-1020)</p> <p>BV-"I think we've made strides." (1147)</p> <p>BV-"I think all of these have just been a good reminder of where we need to go...so I think this is exciting. I think this has reminded us that this is the direction we need to go and let's just push through it." (1240-1251)</p>
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