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Education is UNESCO's top priority because it is a basic human right and the foundation on which to build peace and drive sustainable development. The International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa, established in 1999, is the only UNESCO Category One Institute in Africa and is mandated to strengthen teacher development throughout the continent. The Institute is also the Teacher Cluster Coordinator under the framework of the African Union's Agenda 2063 and the Continental Education Strategy for Africa 2016-2025.



The Global Education 2030 Agenda

UNESCO, as the United Nations' specialized agency for education, is entrusted to lead and coordinate the Education 2030 Agenda, which is part of a global movement to eradicate poverty through 17 Sustainable Development Goals by 2030. Education, essential to achieve all of these goals, has its own dedicated Goal 4, which aims to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all." The Education 2030 Framework for Action provides guidance for the implementation of this ambitious goal and commitments.



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Africa

Teacher Support and Motivation Framework for Africa: Emerging Patterns

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Foreword

This publication, a critical literature review and analytical framework, is part of the initial phase of the development of UNESCO-IICBA's Teacher Support and Motivation Framework (TSMF) for Africa. It also serves as a resource for African countries and, we believe, will contribute to accelerating the development of sound teacher motivation policies across the continent.

Teachers are at the core of achieving the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs); in particular, teachers are central to meeting Goal 4: 'Ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning.' In fact, target 4.c, that aims to 'substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers,' simultaneously acknowledges the shortage of and demand for qualified educators. In addition, teachers are at the forefront of the African Union's Continental Education Strategy (CESA) for Africa 2016-2025 which identifies teachers and teaching as a priority area for the region.

One of the key questions that underscores these goals is how can African countries facilitate the growth of well-motivated teachers with the mind-set, attitudes, competencies and conditions to provide quality education?

The low motivation of African teachers has been well documented (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Bennell, 2006; Garrette, 1999). Whether it is low-pay, difficult working conditions, and/or inadequacy of teacher qualifications, understanding the challenges of the profession are vital to increasing the pool of quality teachers. To the same end, it is also important to understand what draws teachers in and what conditions are necessary for their engaged persistence and retention.

The commitment, drive, satisfaction and motivation of African teachers, are essential to achieving national, continental and international goals. Thus, with this publication, IICBA is disseminating the initial phase of its research project, with the ultimate goal of developing a Teacher Support and Motivation Framework (TSMF) for Africa.

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UNESCO-IICBA conducted this phase of TSMF in collaboration with the African Union's Human Resources, Science & Technology Department (AU HRST), Education International (EI), International Labour Organization (ILO), Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) and Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE).

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Background

Recommendation from World Teachers' Day 2016

African Union Conference Center, 26 September 2016

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

The UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (UNESCO-IICBA), in collaboration with the African Union Commission (AUC), Education International (EI), the International Labour Organization (ILO), and the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) held a one-day seminar on Teachers' Support and Motivation at the African Union Conference Center in Addis Ababa. The seminar commemorated the 50th Anniversary of the ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers (1966) and World Teachers' Day, observed on 5 October 2016. H.E. Dr. Martial De Paul Ikounga, the AU Commissioner for HRST, opened the seminar. IICBA presented its new publication entitled: *Teaching Policies and Learning Outcomes in Sub-Saharan Africa* – a collaboration between IICBA, UNESCO member states in Africa and the International Task Force on Teachers. The participants comprised of experts from EI, UNESCO, ADEA, ILO, AUC, universities and teacher training institutions in Africa. The seminar came to the following conclusions and recommendations:

Preamble

We must recognize that learning achievements will not significantly rise across Africa without real investments in teachers. However, the challenges teachers face in improving teaching and learning at the classroom level are complex and multi-dimensional. The recommendations below call for countries to invest in **comprehensive and holistic teaching policies** that are fully integrated within broader efforts to raise the quality of education and instruction.

Standards setting and monitoring at global, regional and sub-regional levels within the framework of the Sustainable Development Goals and the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) **must be informed by existing teaching policies at the country level, as well as, regional positions and perspectives.**

Proposals for elevating the status of the teaching profession must **build on the intellectual capital, policy instruments and partnerships** that have already emerged **from dialogue, harmonization and cooperation processes in the region.**

Above all, **the voice of African teachers must be heard.** Dialogue with teachers on the daily realities of teaching and learning in Africa's classrooms should inform support and motivation frameworks that will have a real impact on learning outcomes at all levels.

Towards investments in holistic and interconnected teaching policies

Investing in teachers is transformative in Africa, both for individual learners and the broader education improvement agenda. Considering the impact caused by the current teacher gap, poorly trained teachers and poor quality schooling in relation to educational advancement and upward social and economic mobility, this meeting recommends **integrated investments across all policy dimensions of education systems impacting teachers' recruitment, deployment, utilization, professionalization, status, motivation and teaching practice.**

- Sub-Saharan Africa faces the greatest challenges in teacher recruitment by a large margin accounting for more than one-half (63%) of the additional teachers needed to achieve UPE by 2015 or two-thirds (67%) by 2030.

Ensuring that teachers have a voice

Recognizing **the critical role of teachers to ensure successful education policy reforms, and the need for the teaching profession to adapt to, and be more relevant for, the African continent's social demands**, this meeting recommends:

- Greater focus at the policy level, and within global and regional monitoring mechanisms, for SDG4 and CESA, on social dialogue with teachers unions and representative bodies to understand teachers' needs and concerns, to promote engagement and innovation at classroom level and to identify solutions proposed by teachers to the major pedagogic and professional development issues affecting the teaching profession.

Professionalization and the status of teachers

Building on internationally agreed upon standards and national frameworks, this meeting underscores that **the issue of teacher professionalization in Africa is paramount**. Countries must **invest in re-valorizing the status of teachers and teaching as a profession**, with observance of minimum standards for teachers' education, training and professional development across all categories of teachers, including:

- i) Definition of core national standards for key teacher competencies;
- ii) Reflection on the changing role of higher education institutions, teacher preparation programs and institutions in teachers' professionalization and development;
- iii) Reflection on the role and management of continuous professional development (CPD) of teachers linked to careers paths and promotion.

Providing the right incentives to enhance teachers' motivation

Recognizing that teacher motivation and morale are affected by both monetized and non-monetized benefits, this meeting recommends an expansion of the discussion on teachers' incentives and support strategies to include:

Salaries and social protection – Ensuring pay scales and remuneration are commensurate with the status of the teaching profession and no less than those of other public sector workers, with adequate access to health coverage and social services, housing and transportation

- According to UIS data, sub-Saharan Africa will have to spend US \$5.2 billion more per year to pay the salaries of the additional teachers that the region requires by 2020.

Teachers' professional autonomy – Valorizing teachers' pedagogic expertise and empowering them to adapt education contents and contextualize teaching practices in view of learners' progress and classroom contexts, while maintaining national standards and curriculum coverage.

School leadership functions – Investing in school leadership roles towards the promotion of collaborative and supportive working environments at school level, including opportunities for teachers to access peer learning and support and ensuring that teachers have adequate access to educational resources and instructional materials

Empowered school governing bodies – Giving parents and the community the power to work in collaboration with teachers in raising the quality of schooling and ultimately, learning outcomes.

Providing quality support for newly trained teachers

Recognizing the frequent disconnect between pre-service programs and the realities of teaching in different urban and rural contexts in Africa, this meeting recommends:

- Familiarizing new recruits with teaching practice through placement opportunities in diverse rural and urban contexts during pre-service training;
- Providing induction and mentorship programs for all beginning teachers;
- Training in pedagogies and assessments relevant to large class sizes and diverse learning needs, and schooling in resource poor, vulnerable and crisis affected areas.

Improving and expanding CPD programs

Recognizing that teaching is a lifelong profession and that teachers need lifelong learning opportunities, this meeting recommends:

- Free, high quality professional development for teachers at school and cluster levels;
- Clearly defined guidelines for career advancement, school leadership and management roles.

Ensuring adequate support for TVET teachers

Recognizing the demographic divide of access to technical and vocational education (TVET) in Africa, and particularly in support of the vision and goals of CESA and its corollary TVET strategy, this meeting underscores the urgency of:

- Increasing the attractiveness of recruitment to TVET teachers at all levels and all forms;
- Introducing more flexibility into national TVET curriculum guidelines, with greater professional autonomy for TVET teachers to bridge the gap between national TVET guidelines and local labour markets.

Executive Summary

*‘We will ensure that teachers and educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well-trained, professionally qualified, **motivated and supported** within well-resourced, efficient and effectively governed systems.’*

- 2016 Incheon Declaration

Why Teacher Support and Motivation Framework for Africa?

In order to facilitate quality teaching and learning, teachers need to be supported and motivated. Understanding the triggers for teacher motivation is key to attracting and retaining teachers in the profession and an important component of building positive teaching and learning environments at the school level.

Policies lean towards input approaches, which serve as crude proxy for the quality of teaching; Inputs such as the quality of recruitment, teacher training and professional qualifications ignore the importance of teachers’ motivation in the ‘production’ of quality education (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

The low professional morale of African teachers has had a very real impact on different dimensions of education systems (beginning at systems level through strike action, high rates of attrition, and low teacher commitment to education reforms) and school-based dimensions of education quality (absences, low commitment to teaching duties, poor instructional preparation, underutilization of class time and lack of overall commitment to school goals (Muvunyi, 2016).

Resolving the education crisis will require a more comprehensive understanding of the causes of the teacher motivation crisis, its consequences and how countries can work to holistically and effectively to support teachers in different contexts. By doing so, it will be possible to know how to raise teachers’ morale and their quality of pedagogy so that learning outcomes can be improved.

Within a broader education strategy designed to improve the quality of instruction and learning outcomes, a teacher support and motivation framework for Africa is a critical tool that can be used to improve access for vulnerable populations, to increase literacy rates, and ultimately to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.

Why this Study?

On 26 September 2016 at the African Union Conference Center in Addis Ababa, UNESCO-IICBA, in collaboration with the AUC, EI, ILO and ADEA held a seminar on Teachers’ Support and Motivation. The seminar commemorated the 50th Anniversary of the ILO/UNESCO recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers (1966). Recognizing that learning achievements will not significantly increase across Africa without real investments in teachers, the seminar also came to seven recommendations towards comprehensive and holistic teaching policies, including **‘Providing the right incentives to enhance teachers’ motivation.’**¹

¹ http://www.adeanet.org/en/system/files/wtd_2016_recommendations_final.pdf

On 23-24 January 2017, IICBA and partners held a workshop titled: The Literature Review and Research Tools on Development of a Teacher Support and Motivation Framework (TSMF) for African countries. As part of the preparatory process for the development of a TSMF for Africa, it was agreed that the review would:

1. Seek conceptual clarification on what we mean by teacher motivation;
2. Identify the nature and scope of factors affecting teacher motivation in different contexts;
3. Identify the extent to which teacher motivation strategies are adequately addressed within existing national education/teacher policies and supporting legislation in SSA countries;
4. Identify intervention frameworks developed by international development partners, civil society, private sector, community organizations, local action networks, social entrepreneurs, philanthropic and development foundations;
5. Identify best practice examples and articulate lessons learned, including success factors, barriers to implementation and challenges to the scaling up of effective interventions;
6. Identify approaches to measuring the effectiveness of TSMFs at national and school levels, focusing on the impact on education quality, teachers' conditions of service and learning outcomes.

Scope and Methodology

Much of the existing literature on teacher motivation in African countries focuses on in-service teachers at primary and secondary school levels. There is a lack of studies focusing on career choice and decisions to enter into practice. In addition, research on the motivation of teachers to choose between different subject-specializations (languages, math, science etc.) are rarer, even though they exist in Egypt and Tunisia.

As a result of the limitations of the literature, this present review focuses more on pre and in-service teachers at primary and secondary school levels and harnesses general knowledge on teacher motivation for all categories of teachers – formally trained, contract, and community-hired. This review examines countries across the full continent of Africa.

Literature was identified using online searches and focused on teacher motivation research sourced from non-governmental organizations (NGOs), doctoral students in academia, education institutions and United Nations agencies to capture insights and seek out good practice in the African context. The information, analysis and conclusions contained in this review are a synthesis of assembled data and practices across the continent.

In addition to comprehensive NGO reports and specific doctoral studies, this critical review benefitted greatly from the findings of the recent 2016 African Union study on **Teacher Training, Working and Living Conditions in Africa**,² requested by the Heads of States and Government in line with the goals of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025).

In relation to the gender dimensions of teacher motivation, this review also benefitted from the 2011 report '**Increasing Female Primary School Teachers in African Countries: Barriers and Policies**,' produced through a grant from the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) to the University of Maryland.

² The study was carried out in all 54 member states and was funded by the Open Society Initiative of Southern Africa (OSISA). It mapped out teacher training, working and living conditions across Africa, using the member state as the unit of study, and drew on national aggregated data from Ministries of Education, teacher support institutions and research partners in the field of teacher development.

Value-Added Contributions

This study contributes a more comprehensive synthesis of research, literature, policy and practice on teacher motivation in Africa. Second, it moves beyond a narrow focus on salaries, the quality of teacher training and professionalization. Rather, it address a broader range of extrinsic and intrinsic factors impacting on teacher’s motivation and well-being.

It also considers the particular challenges facing teachers in rural, remote and crisis affected areas, including the contextual and systemic obstacles faced by female teachers and the types of support framework necessary. Indeed, by breaking down the factors into different categories (context, system, school, teacher), it moves the discourse beyond typical policy level solutions to identify school and local level support strategies that could impact on raising teacher morale ‘in-situ’ and that could be fundamental in building country support frameworks.

Lessons Learned

What is teacher motivation?

There are many different layers, measures and levels of understanding of what drives teacher motivation (Richardson 2014) and how it impacts on teachers’ behaviors and their teaching practice. Teachers have different intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for wanting to get into the profession, as well as, reasons for leaving or staying.

On one hand, the literature suggests that motivation is highly personal for individual teachers, who are affected by a unique combination of satisfiers, personal expectations and motivating drivers. Therefore, it is very difficult to make broad generalizations. Nonetheless, a number of analytic frameworks and diagnostic tools developed by organizations such as Volunteer Services Overseas (VSO), Save the Children USA and the Working Group on Teacher Motivation (supported by the Teacher Task Force and Education International) has enabled us to organize the influencing factors into a number of broad categories such as:

- Overall Context;
- System level;
- School level;
- Teachers.³

To this extent, the analytical frameworks have been extremely useful in building an understanding of how teacher motivation is influenced by different contextual, policy, management and qualitative dimensions of education systems, as well as factors that are more personal to teachers themselves.

Common factors affecting teacher motivation

There are frequent reports that teacher morale is low and declining across Africa (Richardson 2014) and a very sizeable proportion of teachers, especially at primary level, have low levels of job satisfaction. Questionnaire surveys, focus group discussions and interviews with individual teachers also indicate that teaching is not always a first-choice career option in Africa. In Kenya, ‘*only a minority of teachers have a long term commitment to their profession*’ (Hyde et al., 2005, p.22, cited by Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007, p.39).

³ These more or less follow the analytic framework of the Teacher Motivation Working Group (2014).

While many teachers and other education workers are committed to developing education systems and to countries education goals (Frisoli, 2013), they are worn down and demoralized by a wide range of factors that prevent them from doing their job as they would like.

The evolving context for education

The evolving context for primary and secondary education teachers in Africa since the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) has had a massive impact on morale within the teaching profession.

Teachers and their unions, who have long been dissatisfied with their pay and working conditions, underscore that they are being asked to accept vastly increased workloads and radically reform their teaching practice with few rewards, sense of recognition, encouragement, resources, or even proper support (VSO, 2002; Hyde et al., 2005; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Guajardo, 2011; UNESCO, 2012).

The teachers' unions highlight that most of the additional resources for UPE have been used to increase enrolment capacity and fund changes to curriculum, textbooks and pedagogy without giving sufficient attention to low pay, poor teaching conditions and decreasing levels of job satisfaction (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

The situation of teachers is aggravated by teacher recruitment freezes (Zambia), the non-replacement of teachers who are on study leave (Sierra Leone), and very frequent in-service training, which increases the workload of teachers who remain (Frisoli, 2013).

With the addition of limited voice and decision-making authority over their work many teachers felt that they are being coerced into accepting the new reforms (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). This assertion is supported by research conducted in thirteen African countries where teachers argued that policies were 'handed down' to them to implement without asking for their input (Asimeng-Boahene, 2003).

Low salaries and compensation

All the 12 Bennell & Akyeampong (2007) country case studies identified the serious inadequacy of teacher pay at the core of the teacher motivation crisis in Africa. In real terms, teacher pay has declined precipitously since the late 1980s. For example, taking into account increases in the cost of living, the starting income of an A2 teacher in Rwanda in 2007 was, in real terms, nearly eight times less than the starting income in 1990 (Bennell, 2005).

Bennell underlines that teachers' pay and other material benefits are far too low for individual and household needs to be met. Limited education budgets, fiscal crises and pay freezes also mean that there is little realistic prospect of sizeable pay increases (in real terms).

Working environment and living conditions

The poor condition of school buildings and learning facilities, lack of school-based support and school leadership further contribute to declining morale. Teachers point to the poor conditions of teaching in rural and remote areas, including living arrangements and long distance to work (Cobbold, 2007). The working environment in Nigeria has been described as the most impoverished of all sectors of the labour force (NPEC, Nigeria, 1998 cited in Adelabu, 2005). Facilities in most schools are dilapidated and inadequate as noted by Adelabu (2005) and Sanusi (1998).

While governments and key development partners recognize the critical importance of improving the living and working conditions of teachers, particularly those living in rural and remote areas, financial

commitments to support teachers' well-being are not prioritized or respected within national education laws or teacher policies. As a result, Ministries of Education face challenges when attempting to staff teaching positions in rural areas, particularly with women in countries where girls are culturally undervalued and under-represented in the education system.

Declining status of the profession

In many countries, teachers no longer perceive themselves as enjoying a high occupational status. This is due, in part, to changing recruitment policies and changes made to pre-service training programs which allow for lower qualification entry requirements.

Given that the countries with the greatest shortfall in teachers are often those with low secondary enrolment ratios, there is often only a small pool of educated adults from which to recruit. This means that many countries face a choice between recruiting underqualified teachers or allowing teacher-pupil ratios to escalate.

The official, or unofficial, recruitment of underqualified teachers has been legitimized at the national level through the creation of 'contract' positions, or the creation of a lower grade of teacher, who is trained but has received fewer years of schooling prior to training (Ankomah, 2006). As a result, a significant proportion of people, who themselves only received a lower secondary education or even primary education, become teachers (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2006).

The reduction of pre-service training in many African countries to just one year of college, followed by one year of supervised on the job training, has lowered the overall prestige or standing of teaching in relation to other professions. The perceived shift in status is also seen by many as a result of the drop in pay in real terms of primary public teachers.

Opportunities for autonomy, self-actualization, empowerment and decision-making control within the classroom and school environment

These intrinsic drivers have a profound impact on teacher motivation but their importance has been underestimated within African education systems. In time, teacher morale has been worn down through lack of achievements and goal realization, sense of powerlessness and isolation. Few public school teachers and educators get to achieve the levels of altruistic accomplishment and job satisfaction they desire.

Taken together, the overall climate for teaching promotes an unfavorable outlook on the teaching profession (VSO, 2002; Kanu, 2005; Bennell & Akyeamonong, 2007; UNESCO, 2012). There is also a sense of little progress over time. Many seasoned teachers indicate that conditions have not improved much over the past 20-30 years. For example, in Tanzania, noted that *'teachers have experienced low and irregular salary payments, lack of proper housing, inadequate teaching facilities, low status and limited opportunities for professional development'* (Education and Training Policy, 1995, p.31).

Many good teachers are leaving the teaching profession within the first three years, while those who stay perceive, or enjoy, few opportunities and rewards for enhancing their professional capacities (Mark, 2015). Thousands more are dropping out, simply not turning up for work, or teaching unenthusiastically in ways that do not advance learning.

Traditional support strategies

Given the complex economic and social contexts in which education is delivered across the African continent, governments have tended to design and implement ‘solutions’ to the teaching crisis that appeal to extrinsic drivers of motivation, focusing on salaries, professionalization and status of teachers. Governments and key development partners have also sought to mitigate the material, living and working conditions of teachers living in rural and remote areas. Yet, across the continent there is practically no enforcement of teachers’ rights to a decent living wage, or other promised supports to their well-being derived from national policies, guidelines and legislation and international instruments such as the ILO/UNESCO’s recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers (1966).

Moreover, three key shortcomings of extrinsic strategies were identified:

- They tend to be unsustainable in the long-term as they usually depend on external financing and technical support;
- They tend to be piecemeal, addressing one or two dimensions of teacher motivation or well-being in isolation of other factors;
- They do not consider teachers as having ‘agency,’ but only as ‘agents’ of education systems.

The need for holistic responses and school-based support frameworks

The interconnected nature of factors impacting on teacher motivation suggests the need for comprehensive and holistic strategies which embrace both extrinsic and intrinsic drivers and bridge systemic and school-based solutions at local and policy levels.

At systems level, the policy discourse needs to extend beyond the narrow focus on recruitment, salaries and the quality of teacher training to include all other dimensions impacting on teachers’ motivation and well-being for all categories of teachers. This needs should extend both vertically from early childhood care and education (ECCE) to higher education, and horizontally from recruitment to retirement.

While advocacy, dialogue and diagnostic frameworks are clearly needed at policy and systems level in support of greater investments, at school level (and given the daily challenges and pressures under which teacher’s work) country-level research reinforces the need for greater financial investments in school-based teacher support frameworks, effective school leadership and teacher professional development (TPD) initiatives.

There are promising examples all over Africa of school improvement and teacher professional development initiatives that:

- Open up opportunities for autonomy and self-actualization in the classroom, managing instructional tasks and overcoming teaching/learning barriers;
- Help teachers to cope with issues related to class size, student behavior and classroom discipline;
- Provide support to teachers, especially newly qualified teachers, to feel less overwhelmed by large class sizes and the pedagogic demands of new subject contents and curriculum reforms;
- Help teachers in rural or remote areas to overcome feelings of isolation or lack of connectedness to other teachers in the professional community;
- Create more supportive and safer environments for female teachers and challenge gender role;
- Offer psychosocial and emotional support to teachers in post-crisis situations.

Promising initiatives led by STIR Education, Save the Children, VSO, Ashoka Change Makers and the Aga Khan Foundation combine voice, empowerment and the creation of teacher learning communities and hold great promise for improving teachers' professional motivation and bolstering their well-being. These need to be properly connected into broader education ecosystems, with parallel investigation into how they can be scaled up.

School leaders, teachers, local education officials and administrators must also collaborate to provide support frameworks for teaching and make teachers feel valued as professionals (Asimeng-Boahene, 2003; Bennel & Akyeampong; Kirk & Winthrop, 2007).

Secrets of Success

A growing evidence base suggests that school level initiatives tend to be successful. This is because the initiatives develop the individual and collective capacity of teachers 'in-situ' at school level, as part of a team of professionals delivering quality teaching and learning in schools (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

The literature review further suggests that the projects showing the most immediate impact and sustainable results (according to teachers and NGOs) are those which:

- Recognize that the starting point and first resource for teacher motivation strategies must be teachers themselves and, thus, open up opportunities for participative reflection on school improvement strategies;
- Look to teachers to reflect on their practice and propose micro-innovations to educational and instructional challenges in the classroom;
- Promote effective school leadership, support and management;
- Include a focus on support, guidance and counselling in difficult teaching contexts - especially for female teachers, in crisis and post crisis situations and for newly-qualified teachers;
- Provide opportunities for collegiality within the school community (or clusters of schools) and broader support through learning communities, forms of peer learning and on-going professional development.

Monitoring and Evaluation

There is little precedent on how to assess the impact of teacher motivation strategies. Thus, there is not common, reliable baseline data - apart from the data and evidence emerging from doctoral research, NGO studies and qualitative teacher surveys accompanying learning assessments.

Monitoring activities on teacher motivation are needed to:

- Establish the evidence base for investments in teacher support frameworks;
- Ensure that relevant stakeholders have access to knowledge to inform debates and decisions about how to improve teacher motivation locally and nationally.

There is convincing argument for experimental monitoring strategies that combine voice and empowerment within the monitoring process. It would offer a way to understand whether there are changes in the quality of teacher's experiences over time, as well as changes in teaching practice and learning.

Randomized control trials, which have been employed by NGOs and academia, have proved influential in building a strong evidence base, while securing the engagement and mobilization of teachers from the very early stages.

Conclusions and Take-Away Messages

The country research suggests that the ways in which national education and teaching policy bear on teacher motivation are similar across countries - irrelevant of country context or education systems - through shifting recruitment policies, low and irregular pay and remuneration, weak systems for professional development, lack of career structure and support, weak supervision and management at all levels. Living and working conditions are also critical to understanding the teacher motivation crisis in Africa (African Union, 2016).

Heightened attention should be given to issues related to teachers' autonomy, self-actualization and intrinsic drivers of teacher motivation experienced at school level. These are important starting points for raising teacher morale. Furthermore, needed is a better understanding of gender as a crosscutting dimension of teachers' experiences, of becoming teachers, the practice of teaching at school level, the likelihood of continuing in the profession, and females getting into leadership positions.

This research reaffirms the evidence of a deeply ingrained teacher motivation crisis in Africa. However contrary to the tendency to view this crisis as unmanageable, it finds evidence of good practice through school improvement and Teacher Professional Development (PD) initiatives that are succeeding in improving teacher morale. The greatest potential appears to be through those school improvement initiatives that address multiple issues related to voice, empowerment and professional development alongside teachers' need for support and consideration of their working and living conditions.

The present review is not exhaustive; however, it seeks to highlight the diversity of experiences and innovations in Africa and build a picture of what is possible from the ground up. Given the urgency of the education crisis and seemingly intractable nature of many of the challenges, there is an urgent need to listen to partners working at school level. A common vision of partnership building and resource mobilization is needed to achieve the SDGs and CESA targets. To this extent, the study can also make a strong contribution to the teaching and learning debates within SDG4.

Part I

Introduction

I.1 Growth of Interest in Teacher Motivation

The past two decades have witnessed a marked increase in interest in teacher motivation in Africa. NGOs such as VSO,⁴ ActionAid, Save the Children and the Aga Khan Foundation were amongst the first development partners to document the critical importance of teacher motivation to teaching practice and education quality, producing seminal studies as early as 2001/2002.

Doctoral theses in countries such as Tanzania, Rwanda, DR Congo, Uganda, Kenya, Nigeria (among others) have further sought to understand teachers' influences in their career choice, how the impact of various factors on job satisfaction, their capacity to teach, willingness to remain in teaching and the extent of a teacher crisis (if any).

At policy level, the growing attention given to teacher motivation is unsurprising. There is high levels of teacher absenteeism and attrition across Africa, low professional commitment to teaching duties and the massive teacher shortages accompanying the drive for education for all. The need to properly remunerate teachers, increase 'quality' time on task and keep teachers in the profession have been pressing policy questions and constant refrains of education conferences, development agencies, commissioned studies and other reviews (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Until recently, however, education decision makers and international development partners have skimmed over, or not treated in a holistic way, the issues that trigger low teacher morale and declining motivation. Nor have they fully investigated the linkages between low teacher motivation and education quality. As a result, potential remedies and support frameworks for addressing the teacher motivation crisis have been absent from national education plans.

The 2007 cross national comparative study by Bennell and Akyeampong, involving 12 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and South East Asia, was ground-breaking in its scope and attempt to undertake a systematic investigation of both intrinsic and extrinsic teacher motivation issues, patterns and impacts.

It contributed to a growing evidence base on how contextual, systemic, policy, school, community and teacher level factors impact teacher's motivation and, in turn, on their commitment to their professional duties, performance, well-being and sense of professional pride.

The study suggested powerful arguments for heightened attention to, and investments in, teacher support and motivation strategies. These arguments have been reinforced by further country level research within academia and studies by Save the Children USA (Guajardo/Save the Children, 2011) and the Teacher Motivation Working Group (2014) among others.

⁴ The VSO Valuing Teachers Research series, for example, investigated the motivations and challenges facing teachers in 15 low-income countries including Cameroon, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Tanzania and Zambia.

Box 1. Studies looking at the teacher motivation in low-middle income countries

In 2002, **Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO)** through its research series '**Valuing Teachers**' noted that teacher motivation is fragile and declining in Africa. Based on three country case studies in Malawi, Zambia and Papua New Guinea, the report focused on four main areas: i) the employment conditions of teachers; ii) their situation as educators; iii) their relationship with the local community; and iv) their voice in educational policy.

The report revealed a plethora of negative factors across these areas and not many redeeming features in the educational systems involved. Of particular concern was **poor teacher management at all levels**, from the ministry of education to schools, and teachers' perception that the decline in their pay had adversely affected their status, both locally and nationally.

Other specific issues included: delayed salary payments, housing shortages, insufficient upgrading opportunities, lack of learning materials, a decline of inspectorate services and insufficient involvement of teachers' representatives in policy making.

The VSO report concluded that 'a potential crisis in the teaching profession threatens the ability of national governments to reach internationally agreed targets to expand and improve education. In many developing countries, the teaching force is demoralized and fractured' (VSO, 2002, p. 1).

A 2005 report by the **Global Campaign for Education** identified the main reasons for the decline of teacher morale as '*large class sizes, erosion in the quality of teacher training, the employment of para-teachers, other cost cutting measures such as multiple shifts, and poor pay*' (GCE, 2005, p. 1; cited by DFID, 2007, p.8).

The **2011** study by **Save the Children (Guajardo/Save the Children and, 2011)** underlined that although teachers faced increasing workloads and demands, the seven motivational supports they needed were decreasing or stagnant. Limits to the motivational supports include:

- 1) Teacher salaries are generally low and irregularly paid
- 2) Social respect for teachers has fallen
- 3) Teachers face weak accountability with little support
- 4) Teaching is often a second-choice job with few opportunities for professional development
- 5) Teachers face unclear and constantly changing policies in addition to poor management
- 6) Teachers rarely have an opportunity for input into school management and ministry policy
- 7) Teachers have few or poor learning materials and poor physical facilities

Research in middle income countries has also found low levels of teacher motivation. **IIEP (2004) surveys in Argentina and Mexico**, for example, found that '*teachers' ambitions tend to gravitate around two poles. Either they want to be managers (at either the school or higher levels) or they want to do other types of education related work, such as writing textbooks and educational planning*' (IIEP, 2004; cited by DFID, 2007, p.8,).

I.2 The Importance of Teacher Motivation for Policy and Practice

From a policy and practice perspective, greater investments in teacher motivation strategies are needed for a number of reasons.

Teacher motivation and education reform

Education reforms efforts are thwarted by many factors, including the scarcity of financial resources, little institutional capacities, the rapid expansion in enrolment rates, the poor condition of schools and classrooms and inadequate teaching and learning resources. However, the lack of attention to teacher motivation as a factor in teacher's acceptance of educational reform efforts is a major oversight (Davidson, 2005). As VSO (2002) has stated:

The fundamental importance of the teachers' role in ensuring effectiveness of education must be recognized, understood, and taken into account if these international efforts to achieve development targets in education are to be successful. Further, the rights of teachers must be realized in order to secure and strengthen their own commitment to achieving quality education for all (p.1).

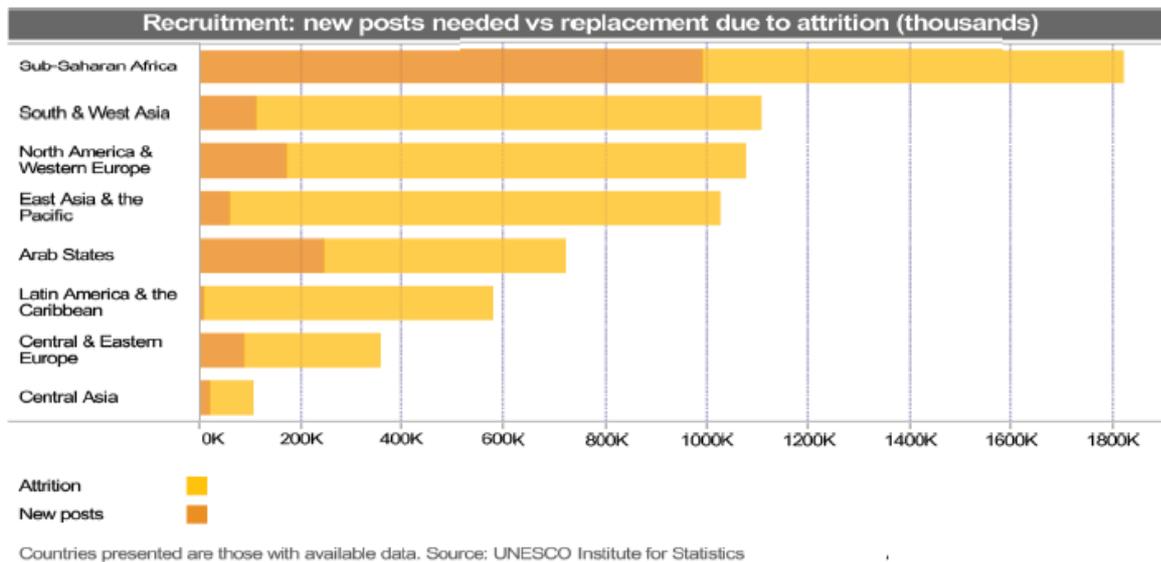
Nurtured, motivated teachers are much more likely to work toward the successful implementation of educational reform and legislative initiatives (Neves de Jesus & Lens, 2005). A teacher's willingness to implement educational reforms is particularly sustained by **supportive and positive emotional climates at school level** (Terhart, 2013).

In those countries where teachers feel that additional demands are being made on top of already poor conditions of service, strikes (or the threat of industrial action) has been common. Most of the 12 case study countries in the Bennell & Akyeampong (2007) cross-national study had experienced intermittent or prolonged strike action since 2000. This was especially true for Ghana, Kenya and South Africa.

Recruitment and deployment

By 2030, the world will need 25.8 million primary teachers — 3.2 million of whom will be new, and 22.6 million to replace existing teaching force (UIS, 2015; cited by International Task Force on Teachers Education for All, 2015).

Africa faces enormous challenges in terms of the sheer numbers of teachers needed to match net primary school enrolments, with the majority of teachers needed for schools in rural and remote areas which often represent unfavorable postings. In these areas, female teachers are in particularly short supply.

Figure 1. Recruitment: new posts needed vs replacement due to attrition

Capturing the demographic dividend for teacher recruitment

Across Africa, the population is growing faster than in any other region with the number of 15-24 year-olds rising in the last decade from 133 million to 172 million (The Guardian, 17 July 2012). *'The median age is now 18, which is seven years younger than in South Asia and 16 years below China; in addition'*, the continent *'will soon benefit from a sharply rising ratio of people of working age'* to those in the age-range of non-working dependents (The Guardian, 17 July 2012).

The need to leverage this demographic dividend towards countries' economic development and the preparation of young people for employment dominates much of the policy discourse. But there is a parallel need to leverage the youth dividend for the teaching profession – attracting suitably qualified candidates into the teaching profession as opposed to other employment sectors.

Knowledge is needed on the kinds of investments, incentives, rewards, training approach/practice that might positively contribute to attracting suitable young candidates into the profession and deploying them where they are needed most.

Equitable and efficient deployment of teachers within countries

Teacher motivation is connected to one the major staffing challenges for public education systems - how to achieve an equitable spatial distribution of teachers across rural and urban areas (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Poor incentives and the daily difficulties of living and working result in far too few newly qualified and experienced teachers (especially female teachers) desiring to work in rural areas within Africa (Bennell, 2005). Compared to their urban counterparts, the difficulty of work, and rates of vacancies, absences and teacher turnover are usually higher in rural schools.

The task of recruiting, training and retaining qualified teachers and strong school leaders has been further complicated by instability and crises in countries such as Cote D'Ivoire, DR Congo, Liberia, South Sudan and Sierra Leone.

The implications are drastic for Universal Primary Education since the large majority of poor and marginalized populations in low and middle-income countries are rural dwellers. The provision of quality education and learning outcomes are at stake, and millions of children risk missing out on their right to quality primary and secondary education (Bennell, 2005).

Recruiting more female teachers to the profession

Evidence suggests that female educators make a big difference to girls' education, particularly in areas where girls face the largest cultural and community barriers to schooling and learning. The recruitment and retention of female teachers in Africa is thus critically important (Mulkeen 2010).

Data for African countries indicates that the percentage of female primary school teachers ranges from 12% in Liberia to 82% in the Seychelles. At the secondary level, the proportions range from 4% in Liberia to 64% in Lesotho. There are 28 countries where women make up less than half the teaching force (Haugen et al., 2011)

In many countries, fewer females are available to be teachers because they do not complete schooling (Nwaobi 2007). The vicious circle continues as the areas that need female teachers the most, have the fewest with the necessary education (Herz & Sperling, 2004; Lloyd, Mete, & Grant, 2007; UIS, 2010).

Low net female secondary enrollment rates, gender bias, cultural and institutional factors come together to influence dissuade them from becoming teachers, reducing positive experiences in their practice at school level and staying in the profession (Diko, 2007; Dunne, 2007; Molyneaux, 2011). These must be addressed as part of broader efforts to address Africa's teaching crisis.

Teacher motivation and accountability

A common societal perception and complaint about African teachers is that they are ill-trained and ineffective. For instance, STIR Education NGO (2016) has noted: 'Many perceive them as the main culprits in failing schools – a perception that's not entirely unfounded.'

As Bennell (2005) has highlighted, professional conduct is low and falling across developing countries and high levels of teacher absence are one of the most common factors undermining education quality in rural areas throughout Africa. The World Bank (10 January 2013) has reported that '*teacher absenteeism accounts for the loss of up to one-quarter of primary school spending*'.

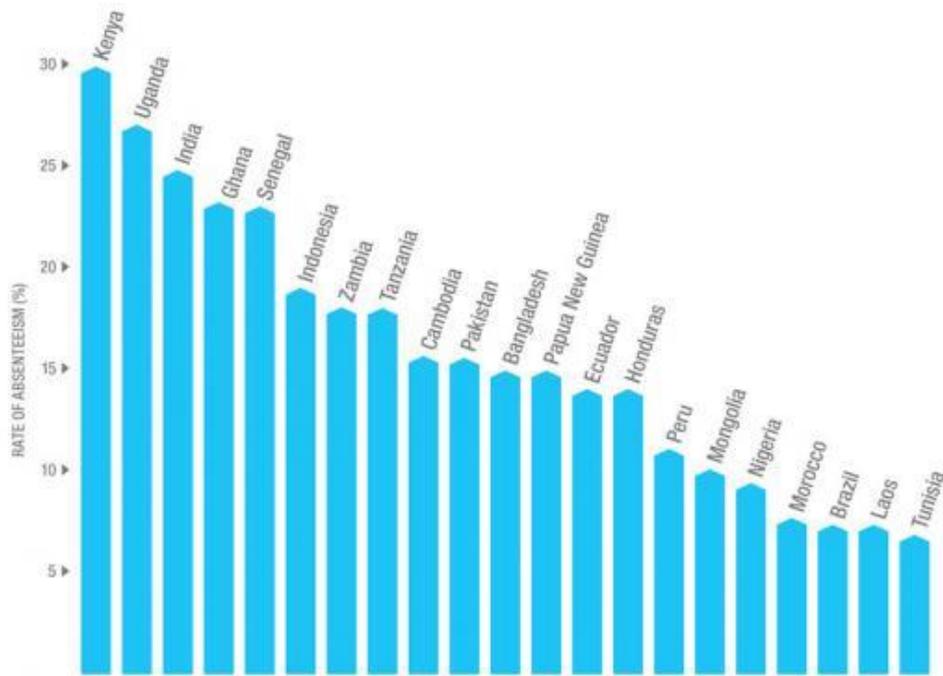
In general, teachers are not sanctioned by school leaders or school inspectors for not being on duty. In fact, inspectors rarely visit schools in the rural areas of some African countries where inspector-teacher ratios can be as high as 1 to 700 (Mulkeen/World Bank, 2010). Those who do visit, seldom used centralized or standardized systems to report weaknesses in schools or individual teachers. As Akyeampong and Asante (2005) have stated:

School visits often focus on factors like number of books and quality of facilities, not pedagogical issues. Consequently, vices such as lateness, absenteeism, drunkenness etc. abound. Circuit supervisors do relatively little – just check staff numbers and enrolments rather than offer professional advice and support to teachers (p. 40).

Figure 2. How often do teachers miss class?

HOW OFTEN DO TEACHERS MISS CLASS?

Survey findings of teachers absenteeism from 2004 to 2011



Source: World Bank

www.transparency.org

#HonestEducation

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Towards improving school accountability, a combination of carrot and stick measures have been introduced across Africa. Governance reforms and decentralization measures over the past 15 years have seen responsibilities and decision making powers devolved to the school level, with communities being relied upon more and more to hold schools and teachers accountable.

At the same time, the interest in teacher motivation is also driven by a realization of the tangible and intangible cost of low teacher morale on education systems. Research has shown that teachers who are motivated and satisfied with their jobs are absent less and are less likely to leave their jobs (Jesus & Conboy, 2001; Porter & Steers, 1973).

Since the budget for teacher salaries in public schools in some African countries is as high as 70% of the total education budget allocation, and comprises the largest line item, investing in strategies that enhance teacher motivation would lead to substantial savings for the education sector in terms of reducing attrition, recruitment and retraining costs (Burns and Guajardo, 02 March 2016).

Teacher motivation, education quality and learning outcomes

The Bennell & Akyeampong (2007) report concludes that teacher commitment is one of the most important determinants of education quality and student learning outcomes.

As a 2004 study in Nigeria by Ofoegbu noted, low teacher motivation is closely linked teachers' attitude to work, their desire to participate in pedagogical processes and to try out new techniques (Ofoegbu, 2004). Where teacher motivation is low, different dimensions of education quality inevitably suffer, beginning with low commitment to teaching duties, poor instructional preparation, underutilization of class time and overall commitment to school goals (Muvunyi, 2016).

All of these issues are indications of teachers who are unhappy with where they are working and, more generally, with what they are doing (Muvunyi, 2016). Indeed, the symptoms of the teacher motivation crisis at school level generally mirrors the crisis in education quality.

The influential 2014 report on Teacher Issues in Sub-Saharan Africa (TISSA) underlined that the motivation of teachers is one of the critical factors affecting the quality of education across the continent. High rates of absenteeism (due to economic necessity and other factors) impacts concretely on the number of teachers ready for service in schools, leading to higher teacher-pupil ratios and increased workloads for colleagues.

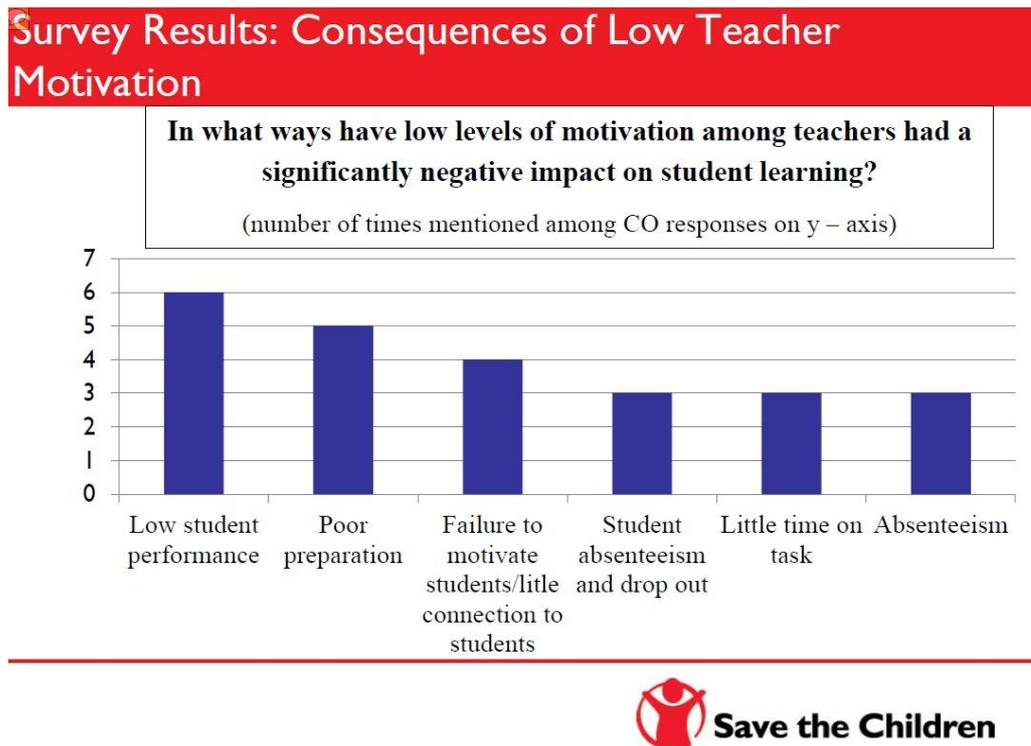
In Zambia, student-teacher ratios average 76 to 1 in first through fourth grades (Mulkeen 2010). These ratios make a huge difference in student achievement and schools may be forced to recruit teachers who are underqualified and only hold superficial subject knowledge (Clark, J., and Linder, C. 2006).

Absence or moonlighting can take its toll on teachers' concentration on their teaching duties in other ways, leaving little time for planning, which also affects teaching quality (Sinyolo 2007, Molyneaux 2011). For instance, as Bennell (2005) remarks,

In Sierra Leone...there are pervasive concerns that the extent of after-school tuition adversely affects teacher commitment in official classes. Some teachers deliberately do not teach the full syllabus thereby forcing students to attend private classes....Given high levels of poverty in rural areas, private tuition markets are too thin for teachers to increase their incomes to any significant degree. Even so, teachers commonly sell cakes and sweets to their own pupils during break times at primary schools. In Zambia, competition for the time of the teacher has greatly affected their concentration on school work (p. 3-4).

As numerous studies have shown, teacher motivation is particularly important in schools that lack resources. Here, a teacher's energy, drive or commitment to their learners may be the main factor influencing the quality of education by mitigating the effects of poor resources, school organizational conditions and leadership practices. This assertion is reinforced by research showing that '*the quality of the student's learning outcomes and knowledge assimilation is greatly improved by the level of teacher dedication and motivation*' (MoE, 2012; Ursulla et al., 2015; Zablon, et al., 2016).

Figure 3. Survey Results: Consequences of Low Teacher Motivation



I.3 Shortcomings of Existing Strategies

In spite of significant investments in teacher recruitment and pre-service training programs across Africa since 2000, it has become clear that typical ‘input’ remedies for resolving the teaching crisis have been insufficient conditions for improving the status, morale and attractiveness of the teaching profession. The analysis of literature indicates below reasons.

Policy emphasis on teacher effectiveness in isolation of contextual and systemic challenges

There tends to be common agreement that successful educational reforms are anchored in sound policies.

Towards strengthening teacher policy, in a report entitled *Teacher Policies that Work*, the World Bank recommended the following ten major areas of consideration (Vegas et al., 2010):

1. Considering requirements to enter and stay in the profession;
2. Teacher preparation (such as entrance requirements and level of education required);
3. Entities responsible for recruitment and employment;
4. Workload and degree of autonomy;
5. Professional development;
6. Compensation;
7. Determiners of retirement rules and benefits;
8. Monitoring and evaluation of quality (including criteria used);
9. Teacher representation and unions; and
10. The recruitment and employment of school leadership.

These areas are also taken up in the African Union study. The World Bank's Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER), suggests that teachers' effectiveness can be enhanced if policies are defined for eight areas of teacher management. These are:

1. Setting clear expectation for teachers;
2. Attracting the best into teaching;
3. Preparing teachers with useful training and experience;
4. Matching teacher's skills with students' needs;
5. Leading teaching with string principals;
6. Monitoring teaching and learning;
7. Supporting teachers to improve instruction; and
8. Motivating teachers to perform.

As Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy (2014) have noted, protocols for recruitment, teacher profiles, good teacher training and teaching practice are consistent with evidence about effective instruction internationally. But they *'seldom take into account the difficulties under which they [teachers] live and work'* (VSO, 2002, p.1).

They also tend to ignore that low-income countries must address policy challenges in the context of severely constrained education budgets. **Across Africa, the non-implementation of policies is another key challenge to education reforms** (Pôle de Dakar, 2014). Excellent policies with a potential impact on teacher motivation have been formulated, but the implementation of most of these policies remains a big challenge (Museveni, 2016).

At the same time, and as a number of researchers have argued, it can be unfair to view low education quality largely through the lens of raising teacher effectiveness or policing teacher misbehavior (Mulkeen, 2005). Other researchers argue that high rates of teacher absenteeism and low professional conduct are indicators of deep seated problems within education systems.

Systemic failures, including failure to pay teachers on time, very poor living and working conditions, with few rewards or incentives to aim higher, all wear down teacher morale and damage the system *'Teachers in rural schools feel especially neglected by the authorities and perceive unfair treatment in terms of salary, promotion, transfers and other benefits. Such perceptions deepen management and discipline problems'* (Mulkeen, 2005, p.21).

Meanwhile, if systems and structures set up to actively support and manage teachers are dysfunctional, teachers are likely to lose their sense of professional responsibility and commitment (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

In short, the interplay between systemic weaknesses, low job satisfaction, understaffing and a weak culture of teacher support, management and accountability creates the conditions for low teacher effectiveness and poor teacher conduct - especially in rural schools (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). These must be addressed holistically in attempts to address teacher effectiveness issues.

Failure to address the teacher motivation crisis through holistic, joined up policymaking

As suggested, teachers' professional commitment and attitudes to their work are interrelated with their working conditions and social environment in a complex way that needs to be better understood, if efforts to improve education quality are to succeed.

In poor local contexts where teachers face extremely challenging classroom situations and their physical, social and emotional needs are not being met, the conditions of service can leave them feeling overwhelmed and undervalued (Frisoli, 2013). Additional vulnerabilities and constraints are experienced by female teachers and those working in crisis-affected and post-conflict situations.

Government policies, on the other hand, tend to make investments in one dimension of teacher recruitment, professionalization and welfare as a result of trade-offs with another. In Tanzania, for example, the Primary Education Development Program (PEDP) involved policy choices and trade-offs between teachers' workloads, salaries and class sizes with the need to expand access to education on the other (Sumra, 2004). Although attention was paid to improving teachers' professional knowledge and skills, far less attention was focused on their material welfare. As Sumra (2004, p. 2) states '*Many teachers have minimal material or intellectual support, and their salary is often insufficient to maintain them and their families*'.

Investments are needed in holistically-conceived support frameworks at the school and local level that go beyond typical policy considerations and address teacher motivation issues in an interconnected manner.

Teachers, and especially newly qualified teachers, need help from school leaders and external supporters to cope with the pedagogic, physical and psychological demands of teaching - whether related to class size, student behavior and classroom discipline – as well as other systemic and contextually relevant demotivating factors. More knowledge is also needed on the role of local/district educational authorities in terms of working alongside school leaders in ways that raise teacher motivation in low resource contexts (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

Box 2. Looking at teachers' welfare and motivation through a broader lens

Besides monetary and professionalization measures, Lloyd, Mete and Grant (2007) assert that **addressing security and safety concerns must be a major consideration in remote and rural schools**, especially those in **crisis affected areas** and particularly when looking to increase the **number of female teachers**.

Bennell (2004) also asserts that **policy makers must take a more holistic, psychological approach in addition to simply raising salaries**, reflecting on the positive benefits of salary for teacher morale more generally. Paying teachers sufficiently so they are assured that they can meet their basic needs (food and shelter) fosters a positive thinking regarding their occupations. This also leads to a psychological shift in their perceptions of the value of the teaching profession as a whole, thereby allowing a stronger societal shift where teaching is considered a more prestigious profession overall (Bennell, 2004).

Failure to consider teachers as 'Agency'

In her study of teacher motivation in India, Stacki (1995, p. 14) argues, '*...too often teachers have been silent recipients – not included in policy-making efforts, in governance and management decisions, in day-to-day instructional strategies and decision-making.*'

As Vinod Karate, Director, India Program Design and Partnership, STIR has also noted: '*... despite having solutions developed by multiple agencies within the government and outside, both non-profit or for-profit, the change on the ground does not happen as the most important cog in the wheel, teachers, are not connected to solving the problem*'.⁵

⁵ <https://yourstory.com/2015/10/stir-education/>

The transformative power of teachers as problem-solvers and change-makers in their own classrooms, and their essential role in improving educational effectiveness, tends to be ignored in 'input' approaches to enhancing teaching quality.

Indeed, Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy (2014) have highlighted how teachers' drive and motivation in the 'production' of quality education is overlooked in much of the literature and policy dialogue. As a result, the value of investments in school-level teacher motivation strategies that bolster responsibility, autonomy and influence in classroom decision making is also overlooked.

Such an oversight reinforces negative perceptions about teachers as ineffectual, resistant to change or unwilling partners in the achievement of national education goals:

Teachers are often blamed for the problems of the school system and students' deficient learning achievements...Teachers, themselves products of a poor education system, are often seen as obstacles to educational change rather than key human resources (DESO/SIDA, 2000, p.15).

These perceptions have, in turn, led to policy recommendations that place more importance on the supply of qualitative education inputs such as curriculum renewal, textbooks and equipping classrooms in improving school effectiveness (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

Failure to consider intrinsic motivation factors

Last but not least, and connected to the above, traditional policy approaches skim over the importance of teachers' intrinsic motivation to their feelings of job satisfaction and commitment to teaching practice (Bennell, 2005).

It is now understood that teacher motivation is affected by policies which transfer trust and responsibility to teachers, strengthen their capacities to achieve meaningful tasks and responsibilities, be recognized and rewarded for those achievements and to grow in knowledge and skills (Abbott, 2008).

Herzberg's theoretical work on motivation suggests that attention to intrinsic satisfiers is needed to fulfill teachers' psychological and professional growth needs. Indeed, proponents of intrinsic motivation emphasize that high levels of support, voice, empowerment and collaboration can lead to higher levels of self-esteem and job motivation (Bennell & Akyeamonong, 2007).

Part II

Definitions and analytic frameworks for understanding teacher motivation

II.1 Defining Motivation⁶

Motivation is one of most often-researched topics in the field of psychology and education and is generally viewed as the **energy or drive** that moves people to do something.

Williams and Burden (1997) differentiated two aspects of motivation: ‘initiating’ motivation which is concerned with the reasons for doing or deciding to do something, and ‘sustaining’ motivation which refers to the effort for sustaining or persisting in the activity.

Similarly, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2001; 2011) identify two dimensions on which most researchers agree: the ‘direction’ and ‘magnitude’ of human behaviour. In this framework, motivation specifies the reason why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the effort and how hard they are going to pursue it.

II.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Drivers of Teacher Motivation

These definitions have an obvious relevance for the teaching profession, including recruitment and retention. As it pertains to teacher motivation, Sinclair (2008, p. 37) has defined it as *‘what attracts individuals to teaching, how long they remain in their initial teacher education courses and subsequently the teaching profession, and the extent to which they engage with their courses and the teaching profession.’*

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) highlight two similar dimensions of teacher motivation namely - the motivation to teach and the motivation to remain in the profession. Their literature review settled on four featured components of teacher motivation:

- Prominent intrinsic motivation which is closely related to inherent interest of teaching;
- Social contextual influences relating to the impact of external conditions and constraints;
- Temporal dimension with emphasis on lifelong commitment; and,
- Demotivating factors emanating from negative influences.

Other definitions or frameworks for analysis differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation

Ofoegbu (2004) suggests that a teacher who is intrinsically motivated may undertake a task for its own sake, for the satisfaction it provides or for the feeling of accomplishment and self-actualization.

Intrinsic motivators might include teachers entering the profession to help young people learn and to make a difference in students’ lives (Sturman, et al., 2005). In order to persist and do excellent work in difficult work of teaching, teachers need to feel a sense of accomplishment.

⁶ Summarized from Teacher motivation: Definition, research development and implications for teachers. Jiying Han, and Hongbiao Yin. <https://www.cogentoa.com/article/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1217819.pdf>

Other intrinsic sources of joy, satisfaction and pleasure in teaching occur when teachers get everything done they need to (Hatch, 1992); when colleagues are supportive of their efforts (Erb, 2002); and when teachers believe that parents are responsible, supportive of their efforts, and respectful of their judgment (Lasky, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation

An extrinsically motivated teacher may perform the activity/duty for professional advancement or in order to obtain some reward such as salary (Ofoegbu, 2004). Extrinsic motivators or satisfiers might include status, job security, leadership / supervisory roles and fringe benefits (Silver, 1982).

A motivated teacher is one who not only feels satisfied with his or her job, but is empowered to strive for excellence and growth in instructional practice (Oregon School Boards Association, 2009).

II.3 Analytical Frameworks Proposed in the Research Domain

The different factors that affect teachers' motivation and morale have been classified and analyzed within different frameworks. The section below offers a very brief overview of three important analytic frameworks that have been developed by education experts, researchers and academics.

Paul Bennell and Kwame Akyeampong, 2007

The 2007 study by Bennell and Akyeampong identified 8 areas as having an impact on teacher motivation, namely: i) teacher and school accountability; ii) security and conflict; iii) the policy environment; iv) teacher competence; v) vocational commitment and occupational status; vi) pay; vii) working and living conditions, and; viii) teacher and system management.

Save the Children and Guajardo, 2011

Save the Children has sought to establish a framework of analysis for teacher motivation in developing countries and provide actionable recommendations for NGOs to improve teacher motivation where it is negatively impacting processes and outcomes (see **Figure 4** and **Figure 5**).

Figure 4. Draft framework of analysis: reinforcing teacher motivation

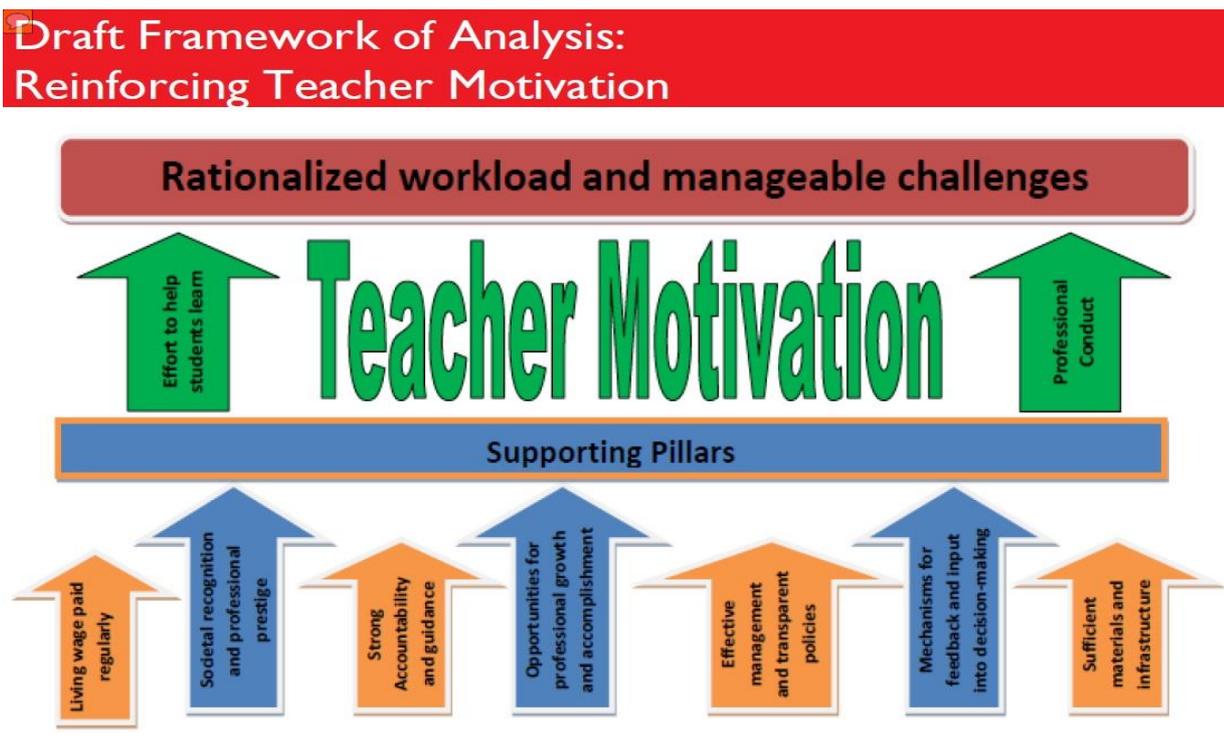
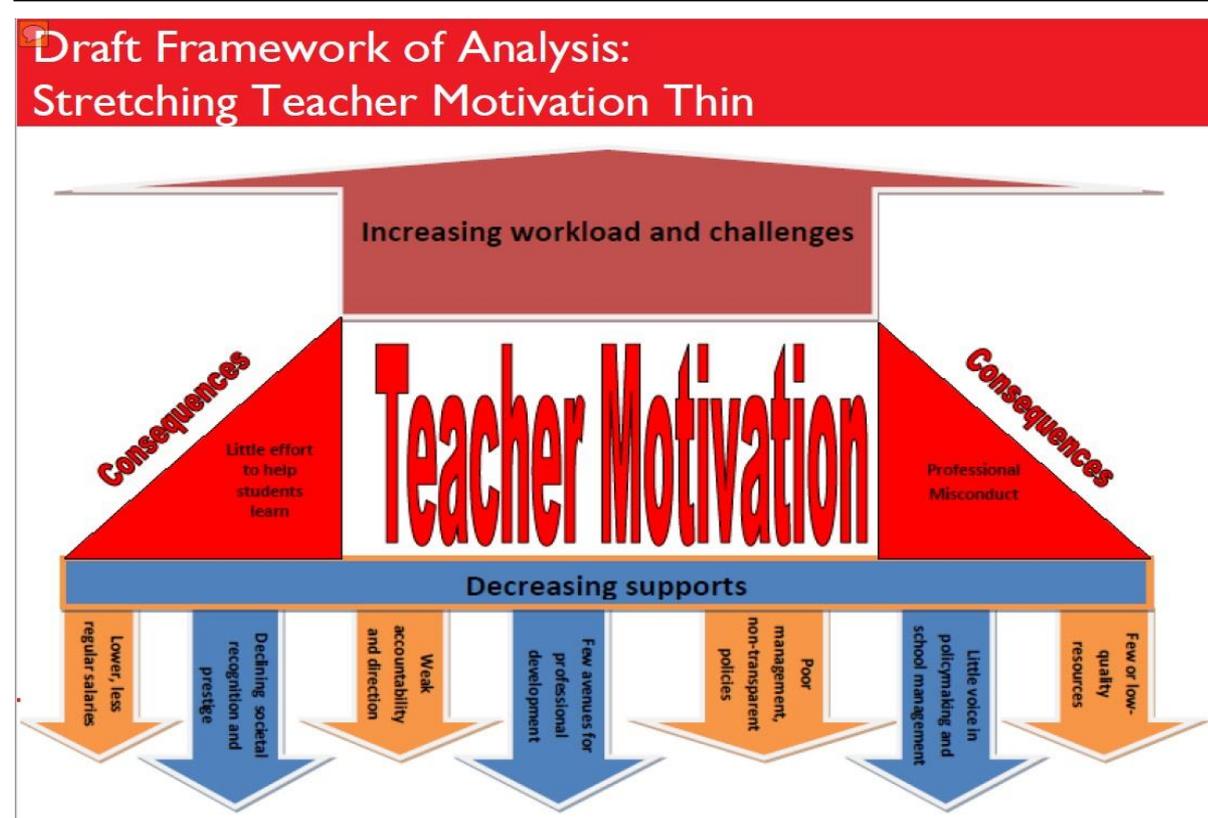


Figure 5. Draft framework of analysis: stretching teacher motivation thin



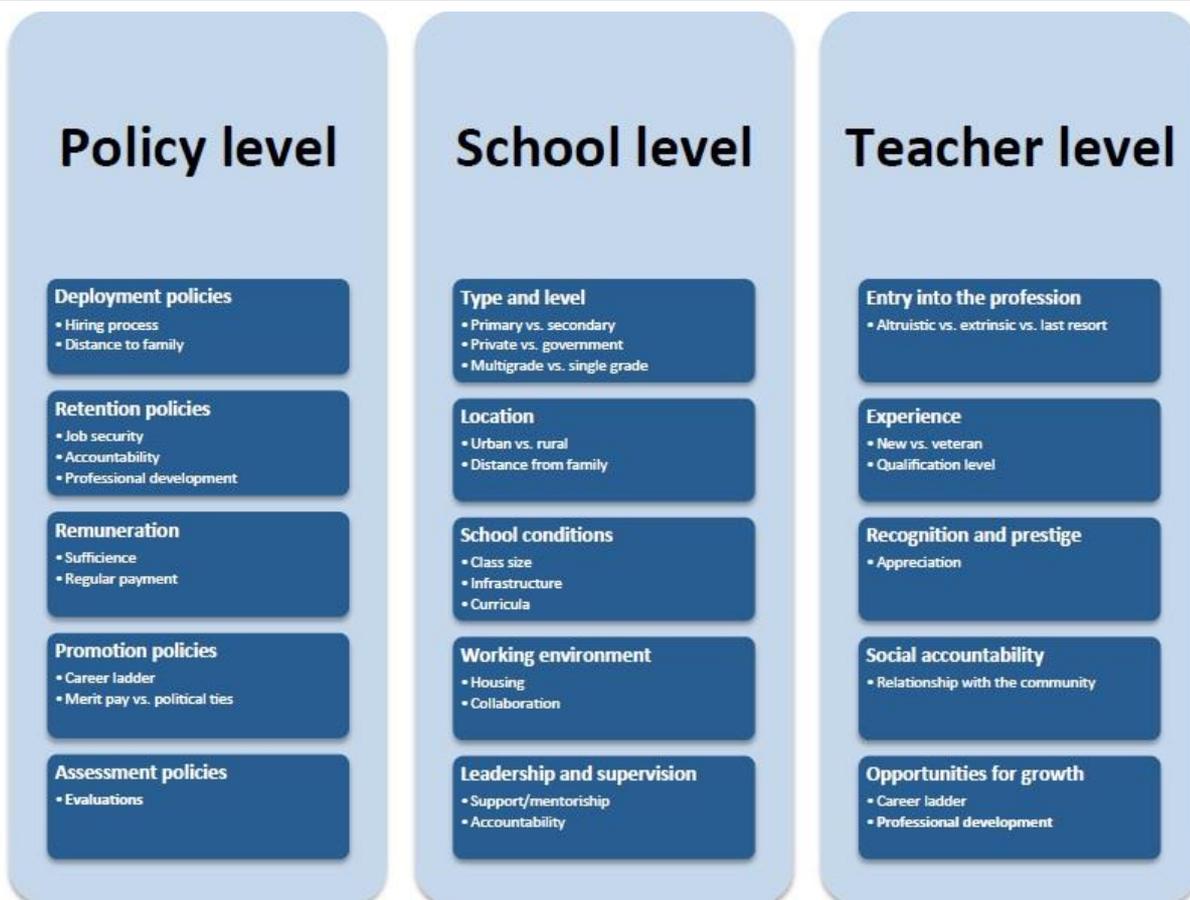
Guajardo argues that the factors that determine motivation of teachers can be organized into 8 categories:

1. Workload and appraisal;
2. Learning materials and facilities;
3. Remuneration and incentives;
4. Recognition and prestige;
5. Voice and accountability;
6. Institutional environment;
7. Career development;
8. Working conditions and school environment.

Emily Richardson 2014

In her 2014 study, *Teacher Motivation in Low---Income Contexts: An Actionable Framework for Intervention*,⁷ Emily Richardson identified 3 levels of contributing factors that influence teacher motivation and job satisfaction in low-income countries (see **Figure 6**).

Figure 6. Three levels of contributing factors on teacher motivation in low-income countries



⁷ Made in association with the Teacher Motivation Working Group

Adelabu, 2005

Similar to Frase, Adelabu classifies the factors impacting on teacher motivation according to three main categories: job context, job content and adds reward system.

1. *Job context*: Public schools in Nigeria are a collection of dilapidated buildings, many without toilets and other basic facilities. The schools are staffed by tired and frustrated teachers and attended by poorly fed, disenchanted pupils. This environment does not engender high job morale.
2. *Job content*: Teachers', particularly in elementary schools, are seriously overworked. A typical government teacher is required to teach between seven to eight periods each day to classes, which frequently have more than forty pupils. Teachers are also expected to assist with other school-based activities that are sometimes labour-intensive.
3. *Reward system*: The reward system in terms of pay packets and promotion does not appear to have job motivation as its goal.

II.4 Attracting and Retaining Effective and Motivated Teachers

According to Vegas and Umansky (2005), strategies for attracting and retaining qualified and motivated teachers in an education system can be categorized into three strategies namely: professional rewards, financial incentives and accountability pressures as indicated in **Figure 7** below.

Figure 7. Strategies for attracting and retaining qualified and motivated teachers



Vegas and Umansky (2005) Teacher Incentive Framework

- The **professional reward** category consists of strategies designed to: stimulate the teacher's intrinsic anchors of motivation; enhance teachers' recognition and prestige in society; enhance the working conditions of teachers and provide avenues of professional growth.
- The **financial category** consists of strategies focusing on: bonus pay, streamlined pensions and benefits scheme, competitive salary and fair salary differentials among others.

The **accountability pressures** focus on: job stability, managerial feedback, and client feedback.

Part III

Factors impacting on teacher motivation

III.1 Context

This section looks at the broader regional context for education delivery, alongside how actual delivery is affected at school level by an array of demotivating contextual factors related to instability, school location and difficult working conditions (Johnson, 2006; OECD, 2009; Shriberg, 2007).

III.1.1 The evolving regional context for education

African education systems have seen massive transformations and expansion over the past two decades, with more children in the primary cycle than ever before, gender parity and near universal levels of primary education in many countries. Nevertheless, and in spite of expanded access to education, the region has not been rewarded with a commensurate increase in the quality of schooling and, more critically, higher learning outcomes.

National monitoring reports, regional and international assessments confirm significant gaps in learning achievements within and across countries - with large numbers of learners in the early primary grades lacking in foundational reading and mathematics skills, primary level drop-out rates still high and many children reaching adolescence without basic numeracy skills.

Looking to the future, the African Union recently launched the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025)⁸ which envisages a new generation of African citizens who are effective change agents for the continent's sustainable development. Teachers are situated at the heart of this strategy as part of *'qualitative system[s] of education and training [that] provide the African continent with efficient human resources adapted to African core values'* (p. 7).

At a time when teachers are being asked to ramp up their contribution to national education success, the context for primary and secondary education teachers since the introduction of UPE has had a massive impact on morale within the teaching profession.

Teachers and their unions, which have long been dissatisfied with pay and working conditions, underscore that they are being asked to accept vastly increased workloads which radically reforms their teaching practice with few rewards, little recognition or encouragement, resources, or even proper support to do so (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Guajardo, 2011; VSO, 2002; UNESCO, 2012; Hyde et al., 2005:8).

The unions highlight that most of the additional resources for UPE have been used to increase enrolment capacity and fund changes to curriculum, textbooks and pedagogy without giving sufficient attention to teacher professional development that will enable them to deliver value within the reformed education systems. Nor do national education plans take into account already poor conditions of service, low pay and decreasing levels of job satisfaction (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

The situation of teachers is aggravated by teacher recruitment freezes (Zambia), the non-replacement of teachers who are on study leave (Sierra Leone), and very frequent in-service training, which increases the workload of teachers who are left behind (Frisoli, 2013).

⁸ Adopted by the African Union Heads of State and Government during their Twenty-Sixth Ordinary Session on 31 January 2016 in Addis Ababa

Coming on top of limited voice and decision-making authority over their work, the end result is that many teachers feel that they are being coerced into accepting education reforms (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007) and policies are “handed down” to them to implement without their input (Asimeng-Boahene 2003).

III.1.2 Teacher motivation, school location and environment and culture

The difficulties of teaching in impoverished rural and remote areas in Africa are covered in numerous qualitative research studies.

Schools experiencing difficulties are typically found in hard-to-reach areas characterized by a sparse population, high levels of child labour in agriculture, displaced and nomadic populations, limited infrastructure, strong cultural practices, endemic malnutrition among learners and the HIV/AIDS pandemic – all of which make for an interrupted teaching and learning process (Frisoli, 2013).

The school environment itself is another important determining factor on teacher morale. Dilapidated school buildings, classroom congestion, the lack of desks and furniture, staff rooms, and absence of toilet facilities have all been cited as affecting teacher morale in country studies. Other factors include the availability of teaching and learning materials, school leaders’ management styles and access to teacher support services, discipline conditions and the influence of school culture (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1997).

Box 3. Security and safety issues in outside and inside the classroom present additional vulnerabilities

A 2004 study in Nigeria showed that if a teacher experiences the classroom as a safe, healthy, happy place with supportive resources and facilities for optimal learning, he/she tends to participate more than expected in the process of management, administration and the overall improvement of the school (Ofoegbu, F.I. 2004)

Shriberg’s (2007, 2008) research in Liberia adds a gender dimension to the influence of the school environments on female teacher’s experiences, reinforcing the findings of qualitative study in Botswana and Ghana (Dunne 2007) which concluded that schools are extremely gendered places – everything from differences between female status, roles and responsibilities to those of their male colleagues, to use of space and decision making.

Shriberg’s study found that sexual violence and the exploitation of female students and teachers was common in schools. There is little done to ensure compliance with professional codes of conduct or to drive higher levels of professional conduct by male teachers.

In Liberia, administrators were reluctant to discipline perpetrators because they feared those teachers would leave, and finding a replacement was difficult due to teacher shortages and long bureaucratic processes that burden school hiring and firing processes. Therefore, these administrators were – in essence – institutionally supporting violence against girls and women (Shriberg in Haugen et al., 2011).

Classroom management and discipline issues further pose challenges to all teachers, and especially in rural schools where teacher to student ratios can be 1:50 and higher. Large classrooms and unruly learners make for an unhealthy learning environment and reduce teachers to crowd controllers instead of knowledge generators / facilitators (UIS, 2012).

III.1.3 Teacher motivation and socio-economic considerations

In Africa, there is an underlying political economy that constrains teachers’ ability to deliver education and to become critical pedagogues (McLaren, 1998; Novelli & Smith, 2011; Robertson & Dale, 2014).

The combination of low and irregular pay and economic necessity mean that teachers are often absent to supplement their salaries through secondary employment activities, including private after-school tuition, vending, taxi driving and, in rural areas, and selling agricultural produce. Teachers also moonlight as teachers at other schools.

The physical remoteness of rural schools often correlates closely with high rates of absenteeism and moonlighting activities. As Brandt (2014) observed in his doctoral study in DR Congo, if teachers are impoverished and coping with their most basic needs, the quality of education is not the primary or sole concern of their everyday actions.

Country studies also highlight the lack of suitable housing, social amenities and infrastructure, transport and accommodation costs as factors wearing down on teacher morale. In Zambia, teachers in remote rural schools can spend up to half their salary just on transportation and accommodation costs incurred during the monthly visit to the District Education Office to pick up their paychecks.

For women, it is very difficult to relocate to rural and remote areas where socio-economic and living conditions are harsh. In some cases, qualified female teachers are available, but they refuse to move because of the perceived lower quality of life (Mulkeen 2010). At the local level, this seriously affects the number of female teachers in the classroom. In Uganda, for example, females comprise 57% of teachers overall, but only 15% of teachers in rural areas. Conversely, in Lesotho, teachers are recruited locally, and this country has the highest proportion of female teachers in rural areas in Africa (Hauge et al., 2011).

III.1.4 Teacher motivation and the HIV/AIDS epidemic

The impact of HIV/AIDS on education systems has reduced the supply of educators in Africa and other developing countries (Nilsson, 2003). In one African country, the mortality rate amongst educators in 1998 was 39 per 1000 (Badcock–Walters & Whiteside, 2000). In Zambia, the number of primary school teachers who died in 2000 was equivalent to 45% of all teachers educated in the same year (Haugen et al., 2011).

HIV/AIDS affected teachers are frequently unable to work, while others leave to care for sick family members. Absence from teaching duties negatively impacts other teachers who have to share the work burden. Again in Zambia, research has estimated losses of 20 million teacher hours – equal to leaving 498,000 children without education for a year – between 1999 and 2010. In eight case study countries, HIV/AIDS was responsible for 3%- 66% of teacher attrition, with rates tending to be higher in urban areas.

Working with HIV/AIDS related orphans can generate a stressful work environment. Teachers are expected to treat these children with understanding and compassion, but many may not be equipped with the skills needed to handle children who have been traumatized by the loss of their parents (Haugen et al., 2011).

Finally, the disease affects management capacity – in Malawi for example, district education officers had high attrition rates due to dying or leaving to care for others (Mulkeen 2010).

III.1.5 Teacher motivation, instability and post crisis situations

Crisis and post crisis contexts are unique in how they can impact the social, emotional and physical wellness of teachers, even if some of the same barriers to teaching are shared with colleagues in low-resource contexts (Johnson, 2006; Shriberg, 2007; OECD, 2009; & Bond, 2010),

In crisis affected areas, teachers who are not only seen as educators, but as community leaders and nurturers for children in times of crisis (Kirk, 2004; INEE, 2010; IRC, 2011; & Torrente et al., 2012) have the stressful role of providing education to young students in the midst of multi-scalar reconstruction agendas

(Brandt, 2016). They may be expected to address sensitive conflict-related issues in the classroom related to trauma and emotional problems for which they have received minimal, if any, training and support (Sommers, 2004; Tomlinson & Benefield, 2005).

Meanwhile, although post-crisis situations seem to resolve one of the demotivating factors of being a teacher, that is, feeling unvalued and unappreciated in the community, teachers themselves have psychosocial needs and their sense of well-being is also impacted by crisis (Asimeng-Boahene, 2003; INEE, 2010 & IRC, 2011). In fact, they can inadvertently reproduce trauma that children have faced (Buckland, 2005; Mosselson et al., 2009; INEE, 2010; & IRC, 2011).

Teachers, and especially those who are underqualified and exhibit outward signs of trauma, lack forums where they feel supported and are able to become "well" as individuals and as teachers (Asimeng-Boahene, 2003; Kirk & Winthrop, 2007; & Bennell & Akyeampong, 2011).

Finally, reports suggest that the remuneration of teachers in post crisis situations is often lower and inconsistent and their support even less frequent (Brandt, 2014). They are often the last in line for resources and professional development (Buckland, 2005; Mosselson et al., 2009; INEE, 2010; & IRC, 2011). The most experienced teachers, or those with transferable capital to work in more lucrative secondary schools or with humanitarian organizations, often leave (Kirk & Winthrop, 2007).

III.2 Systemic or Policy Factors

Figure 8. Survey results on workload and challenges

Survey Results: Workload and Challenges				
What types of hardship(s), if any, do teachers face?	All	Latin America	Africa	Asia
Large class sizes	94%	75%	100%	100%
Lack of quality materials	81%	50%	83%	100%
Remote deployment	69%	50%	83%	67%
Poorly performing students	69%	75%	50%	83%
Multiple shifts	56%	25%	100%	33%
Mixed-grade classes	56%	75%	50%	50%
Other	56%	50%	67%	50%
Non-native language of instruction	50%	25%	50%	67%
Unsupportive communities	50%	25%	67%	50%
Mixed-ethnicity/language classes	38%	0%	33%	67%
Poorly behaved students	31%	25%	17%	50%
HIV/AIDS or other health issues (teacher or students)	25%	0%	50%	17%

(N = 16)



III.2.1 Recruitment practices

The profile and motivation of teachers to enter and remain in the profession has been strongly affected by shifting recruitment policies and processes in Africa (African Union, 2016). Due to the need to rapidly recruit teachers to match UPE enrolments, a good number of African countries, especially in the Sahel, have taken to recruiting teachers outside of the traditional terms of engagement.

In francophone Africa, for example, governments have tried to lower the status of *fonctionnaire* (civil servant) teachers and less well qualified 'contract' teachers working on a separate pay scale to provide a remedy to shortages in the face of needing to achieve national education needs.⁹

Some see this as part of a wider trend towards the de-professionalization of teaching. More generally, the development of a two-tier pay system with segmentation between two groups of teachers has obvious consequences for teacher morale and status and has resulted in tensions within the teaching force (African Union, 2016).

In Benin, for example, the use of contract teachers was seen as undermining one of the basic elements of teacher identity: that of being a respected civil servant with a decent steady salary, job security and high social status (African Union, 2016).

Advocates of teachers' rights underline that the policy of contract teachers frequently violates labour rights as codified in the fundamental principles of the ILO. Contract teachers are usually not members of trade unions that can negotiate collective agreements on their behalf. Indeed, the policy of using contract

⁹ Contract teachers in the sub-region are paid between 33 per cent (Mali) and 200 per cent less (Niger) than regular teachers.

teachers in Senegal resulted in a complaint by Syndicat Unique des Enseignants du Senegal (SUDES) to the ILO (African Union, 2016).

Part of the complaint responded to a concern over a lack of consultation, or social dialogue, regarding the policy to introduce contract teachers. Most importantly, the allegation pointed to the possible violation of the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), as well as the Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers, 1966 (ILO/UNESCO Recommendation).

Box 4. The implications of contract teachers: The experience of francophone West and Central African countries¹⁰

The use of contract teachers has been most marked in West and Central Africa in the last ten years where the teaching force in some countries is now constituted up to fifty percent of contract teachers (Fyfe, 2007).

Niger now has over half of its teachers under contract compared to Senegal's 42 per cent, whilst other significant users of the system include Guinea (39 per cent); Togo (31 per cent); Burkina Faso (24 per cent); and Cameroon (20 per cent).

Ivory Coast and Chad have no contract teachers, but Chad has relied heavily on community teachers subsidized by the State - a practice that operates in parallel to contract teachers in other countries such as Benin.

One of the main driving issues towards the explosion of contract teachers is high salary costs and finance-driven reforms aimed at containing unit costs. Teachers in West Africa and Central Africa – particularly those from the Sahel region – are among the best paid in the world when using the standard measurement of salaries compared to national income.

In 2000 the average teacher in the Sahel countries earned 6.4 times GNP per capita. In the rest of Africa, it was about 4.4 times; in Asia about 2.9; in the Middle East and North Africa about 2.3; and in Latin America 2.3 times the per capita income (African Union, 2016). At current average salary levels, increasing the number of teachers has seemed financially impossible given simultaneous constraints on government revenues and budgets.

Two further dimensions of changing recruitment policies with an impact on teacher motivation are the behavior of employing authorities and job security.

In countries such as Sierra Leone, the actions of **employing authorities** has been a major concern. Here, most schools are owned and managed by churches, most of which lack basic management capacities and teachers complain bitterly about unfair recruitment and transfer practices. Some are even required to give part of their salary to the church as a 'tithes' (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

The issue of job security is another dimension. In Kenya, a study by Ogochi (2014) in Transmara West District showed that job satisfaction tends to be low among teachers who are on temporary appointments. Even when teachers are officially appointed, in some countries, it can take up to a year for them to be put on the government payroll. The impact on the morale of newly qualified, young teachers can be quite devastating (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

¹⁰ Summarized from: Fyfe for ILO, 2007: The use of contract teachers in developing countries: Trends and impact. Accessed 10.03.17.

III.2.2 Representation and voice

Teacher unions represent teachers' interests nationally and hold sufficient power to affect education policies in general, and teacher policies in particular (African Union, 2016). But a major issue demotivating many school level teachers is that the vast majority will never be involved in debates around emerging education priorities or reform efforts.

Decisions on education reforms are communicated, or trickle down, to teachers as immutable decisions, often divorced from their daily situation (Mulkeen / World Bank 2010). There is little policy dissemination to build engagement, or to seek teacher's contributions towards policy adjustment.

Mechanisms for channeling messages from the classroom through functioning School Appraisal and Supervision, or opportunities for participatory dialogue, are generally weak across the continent and not considered reliable vehicles for airing concerns on teaching and working conditions, or prodding decision makers towards qualitative improvements.

As a result, teachers' sense of ownership of national education policies and reforms is low. This lack of participation has led to bubbling frustration and anger at decisions taken by central ministries without regard to the real conditions of schooling, teacher's needs or perspectives (World Bank 2009).

III.2.3 Salaries

The Bennell & Akeampong 2007 study, and other studies since, have affirmed that salary (along with non-monetary compensation) is a key determinant of the attractiveness of the teaching profession and is one of the major factors affecting teacher motivation and performance (African Union, 2016).

There is some diversity across the continent in terms of pay levels and what is included in the teachers' salary. Some countries include health insurance, housing, commuter, credit advantage and other related allowances such as hardship allowance in place for their teachers. In others, the salary falls on, or even below, the poverty line and teachers are unable to make a decent living (African Union, 2016).

Overall, however, teachers are poorly paid, qualification levels are not compensated accordingly **Invalid source specified.** and primary and secondary school teachers are unable to meet their basic needs (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Survey data from teachers unions in six countries in Africa (The Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia) suggests that teachers are paid much lower when compared to other professionals with comparable numbers of years of education (Sinyolo 2007). Not only are pay levels very low, teachers are not paid on time due to poor financial administration and fiscal crises (African Union, 2016).

Within a labour market perspective, education systems which pay attractive salaries relative to comparable professions will be more successful in attracting and retaining good quality teachers. ... Where teacher salaries do not reflect the level of education, training and responsibilities required, or allow teachers to live decently without taking on second jobs, the teaching profession loses prestige, adversely impacting on recruitment, motivation and retention (p.24).

UNESCO Teacher Policy Guide, 2015

Low salaries jeopardize teacher physical well-being when they cannot afford to nourish and shelter themselves and their families (IRC, 2011; Penson, 2012). In a considerable number of countries, teachers'

salaries are barely above the poverty line. In Zambia, for example, the average monthly salary for elementary, lower secondary, and upper secondary teachers is \$200, \$300, and \$325 respectively.

Calculations from a local NGO calculate the poverty line (a comprehensive budgetary projection for a family based on the cost of basic necessities) at \$375 per month (African Union, 2016). Primary school teachers earn well below that.

Many countries also have poor or unreliable systems of delivery for teacher salaries – especially to rural areas. Administrators, or teachers, have to travel long distances to receive their salary – usually in cash (Sinyolo 2007, Mulkeen 2010). In Sierra Leone, ‘late payment of salaries makes teachers dissatisfied with their jobs’ (Harding & Mansaray, 2005, p. 27). Unpaid teachers do not typically come to school on time.

Last but not least, research indicates that teacher remuneration in some African countries has become ‘feminized.’ UIS (2010) has stated:

In general, as the prestige of an occupation declines, the proportion of female workers tends to increase. This in turn often corresponds to lower levels of remuneration. Primary teachers’ salaries in Central and West African countries, where the teaching profession often carries status – and is thus predominantly male – are substantially higher than the salaries paid in Southern and Eastern African countries where women dominate. Reasons for this are historical and cultural. Traditionally, in the latter group of countries, education was the responsibility of missionaries whereas in Central and West Africa, teachers were part of a well-paid civil service (p. 62).

III.2.4 Professional development and upgrading

Teacher professional development (TPD), including in-service training and upgrading, affects the skills and knowledge that teachers bring to the classroom, but it also affects the social status of the profession, the motivation and decision to become a teacher in the first place (African Union, 2016).

In many African countries, novice teachers have no formal induction, support or even monitoring mechanisms. An unsupervised probation period is common (African Union, 2016). As a result, teachers do not always receive high quality, useful training and classroom experience that prepares them for classroom realities and especially difficult school contexts.

There is little support for in-service teachers on how to improve their instruction and classroom management. The appraisal system, which would help in determining the missing capacities, is not effectively implemented.

According to the 2014 TISSA report (Pôle de Dakar, 2014), equipping teachers with the skills needed to succeed in the classroom is crucial in keeping them motivated and engaged in the teaching profession. But effective professional development and learning requires time, resources and supportive institutions.

The African Union (2016) study found the provision of in-service teacher professional development (TPD) or ‘professionalization’ is not well grounded on the continent, and the resources needed to establish high quality training and support frameworks are lacking within the ministry budget allocations.

The process of professional development is carried out through ad-hoc in-service programs mounted by ministries of education and other development partners at country level. Thus, where TPD is practiced, infrequent, poor quality programs heighten the sense of neglect felt by teachers (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Box 5. TPD in post crisis situations

Teacher training usually stops during crisis situations. NGOs pick up training as part of their services when governments are unable or unwilling to do so (Buckland, 2005). Most of such training usually takes the form of short, uncoordinated workshops with minimal evidence of impact on teacher practice (Buckland, 2005).

Organizations working in these contexts, like the International Rescue Committee (IRC), Save the Children (SC), Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), Education Development Center (EDC), UNICEF, War Child Holland, and Research Triangle International (RTI), to name a few, currently implement quality education programs using TPD as a cornerstone of their education interventions (African Union, 2016).

The experiences of TPD for teachers in post-crisis environments has received scant attention internationally (INEE, 2010; IRC, 2011; UNESCO, 2011; & UNESCO, 2012). Some research indicates that, when there is a lack of coordination, this can have a negative impact on teachers by providing them with so many different forms of TPD and interventions that they add to teacher time commitments, workload and overall stress (Tomlinson & Benefield, 2006; Mosselson et al., 2010).

III.2.5 Career progression

According to the UNESCO Teacher Policy Development Guidelines (2005), career paths allowing for progression and continuous professional development throughout a teacher's career are crucial to attract, motivate and retain teachers. A career path should provide meaningful rewards and financial and non-financial incentives to motivate teachers to progress; be linked to significant TPD options; and be equitable, allowing equal opportunities in career progression.

Limited career progression opportunities

In Africa a perennial complaint is that career progression opportunities are limited, are unlinked to professional development and salaries increase very slowly over time. Both good and bad teachers get promoted together which many teachers find demoralizing (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). The African Union study *'did not find a single, linear pathway or career trajectory for teachers. Instead, career paths are often cyclical and even recursive'* (Broad, 2006, p.11).

Promotion to school leadership positions is one of the few options available, but is not typically based on performance and merit, but years of service and other non-professional factors. In countries, such as Malawi, promotions are even based on interviews which have been widely criticized for their lack of transparency (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

As a result, not many teachers and school leaders perceive a correlation between teaching effort and attractive career outcomes (Guajardo, 2011). Rewarding excellent teaching is either not done at all or is done superficially without any increase in professional responsibilities (Abbott, 2008).

Gender dimensions of career progression

Deeply ingrained gender issues also lead to career progression practices favoring male colleagues and demotivating women teachers (Haugen et al., 2011). For example, women are often assigned to lower primary grades with extremely large class sizes so that the burden of teaching large numbers of young students falls almost exclusively to women (Bennell 2004, Shriberg 2007).

In a study in Uganda, female secondary teachers reported that they were expected to teach more classes

per week, take on more tasks and earned less because they had fewer opportunities to earn extra money outside the classroom than their male counterparts at the same school (Molyneaux 2011).

In Botswana and Ghana, women reported being overlooked for promotions due to family responsibilities, and male administrators used negative words to describe them that prevented their promotion (Dunne 2007). Male students were also more likely to challenge the authority of female teachers and refused their punishments, behaviors that they did not exhibit with male teachers (Dunne 2007).

Box 6. Women in leadership positions

Male teachers fill the vast majority of leadership positions across Africa. In South Africa, Diko (2007) noted that the post-apartheid constitution explicitly stated there must be gender equity in education and featured the strongest policies to promote gender equality. In practice, however, few women hold top administrative positions and are pushed out of roles considered masculine.

Even when women assume leadership roles, gender can still work against them. Female secondary department heads stated that male teachers often disregard their authority, deferring to male supervisors instead.

Supervisory councils were intended to give voice to all stakeholders at the school level, but the committee (dominated by males) stated that the most powerful male member should be given authority to make all of the decisions and females were virtually voiceless in the decision process (Diko 2007).

A qualitative study in Botswana and Ghana (Dunne 2007) reported that female head teachers consistently had to fight for legitimacy in the eyes of male teachers and had to deal with men who refused to honor their authority.

Teachers in Liberia also reported that all members of the education community – including parents, other teachers, and administrators paid female teachers less respect (Shriberg 2007).

III.2.6 Appraisal and evaluation

Both internal and external appraisal, inspection and supervision have an influence on teachers' work, their competence in performing it (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014) and their motivation levels.

Given that a teacher's on-the-job effectiveness matters as much as his/her formal qualifications, the African Union study looked at whether school teachers are appraised or evaluated on a regular basis, how information is gathered to assess teachers' performance and what the results of teacher performance evaluations are used for.

The study found that assessment of teachers is not a common or transparent practice and where it is carried out, little sensitization is offered to the teachers on how they will be appraised or what indicators will be used to determine performance. In some countries, appraisal is not carried out for pedagogic feedback or support purposes, but mainly for purposes of administration or discipline (African Union, 2016). This means that teachers' performances are separated from rewards and career opportunities and teachers work without a clear plan or goals to achieve.

III.3 School level

Aside from contextual issues at school level described earlier, a number of dimensions of school governance and accountability have had a carrot and stick impact on teacher motivation since Dakar in 2000.

III.3.1 Governance and school management

Models of school based management (SBM) in countries such as Kenya, Madagascar, Mozambique, Rwanda and Senegal have engendered significant changes to school management responsibilities (Chapman & Adams, 2002; Oduro, Fertig & Raviera, 2007) with the aim of improving day-to-day decision-making, school autonomy and accountability.

Such reforms were expected to increase community demand for better services, while allowing for more flexibility, innovation and competition to help raise education standards and the quality of services (Barrs, 2005). At the same time, governance reforms have been strongly linked to accountability for school management and professional conduct.

The evidence suggests that SBM policies have in many ways changed the dynamics of schooling. Teachers have been more energized to get involved in decision making, school improvement projects and improving education outcomes (Bruns et al., 2011). School management committees (SMCs) have also helped to create stronger linkages between the schools and the community in ways that positively affect the motivation of teachers - in the first instance by raising the status of teaching in the eyes of the community and, in the second, through the involvement of parents in the maintenance of school facilities and housing of teachers.

Nonetheless, the literature on the politics of decentralization also indicates that many of the expected benefits of decentralized and shared management have not come through (Nyei, 2014). In the first instance, decentralization measures have often complicated the work of school leaders and teachers in situations where little parallel work was carried out to boost their management capacities (related to organizational management, budgeting, planning and resource management), or to reduce the practical constraints to working effectively in challenging contexts (Oplatka, 2004).

Second, where school leaders' management style is autocratic, this has specifically thwarted efforts to work through School Management Committees. In Nigeria, teacher consultation is minimal and the overall management is 'high-handed' with minimal teacher consultation (Adelabu, 2005, p. 6)

Finally, school based management has also come short in the context of poor rural areas where 'local elite close up the spaces for wider community representation and participation in school affairs' (Kingdon et al., 2014, p.2).

III.3.2 Leadership – direction and accountability

International research suggests that many of the practices, behaviours and competencies of effective school leaders have a positive impact on teacher morale (Day & Sammons, 2013; Robinson et al., 2009) and contribute to lowering the number of days missed from teaching.

Unfortunately, there is often little training or preparation enabling head teachers to play their pivotal role. Most school leaders' preparation is informal, practical and happens within the workplace (Bush & Oduro, 2006; DeJaeghere, Williams, and Kyeyune, 2009; Ibrahim, 2011).

In countries such as Kenya, Uganda, Ghana, South Africa for example, there are no system-wide provision or funding for initial preparation of school leaders within the institutionalization of a well-staffed and resourced management training systems (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

This finding follows on a 2010 report synthesizing the results of case studies of eight African countries – The Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Uganda, Zambia, Zanzibar, Liberia, and Eritrea – where Mulkeen (2010) reports that a majority of head teachers are untrained and that schools are rarely monitored.

Unsurprisingly, the majority of teachers in Bennell & Akyeampong’s study did not feel that they were well managed. Nor did they feel that they had received the support needed from school leaders. In a qualitative study of 35 beginning teachers in southern Zambia, researchers found that the lack of mentoring and support for new teachers, combined with their deployment to rural schools adversely impacted their job satisfaction (Thomas, et al., 2014).

III.4 Teacher Level

III.4.1 Recognition, autonomy and empowerment

Research on teacher motivation in North America suggests that the more teachers and school leaders receive recognition, are trusted to carry out interesting professional responsibilities and receive growth opportunities, the more likely they will perceive good teaching as instrumental in attaining these desirable indirect outcomes (Silver, 1982).

Studies further suggest that the empowerment of teachers usually results in heightened motivation and a preparedness to commit to school level activities. Failure by an employing authority or school leader to evidence trust in the judgements and skills of teachers is disempowering and demoralizing (Tsang, 2016).

In a study of work content factors in a questionnaire administered to 73 San Diego School District teachers, Frase and Sorenson (1992) identified three major areas that relate to teachers’ job satisfaction.

- Feedback is most highly related to job satisfaction; yet teachers habitually get inadequate, precise and/or useful feedback regarding their teaching.
- Autonomy is strongly related to teachers’ satisfaction for some teachers. Autonomy does not mean freedom from interference in the classroom; rather it is viewed as the freedom to adjust the curriculum, teaching practice developing positive relationships to accomplish tasks.
- Collegiality is manifested through challenging and stimulating work, being involved in school improvement and taking charge of groups developing curriculum. In high-income countries collegiality appears to be related to strong schools (Johnson, 1986; Glatthorn & Fox, 1996).

The African Union 2016 study found that teacher autonomy was gaining prominence in some countries and more teachers are becoming more involved in decision-making that affects their work. However, most countries have not reached this level of engagement with teachers.

III.4.2 Workload

Large classrooms and resources were found to be critical factors affecting teachers’ workload and motivation (African Union, 2016). Many countries in the study were found to have a high teacher/pupil ratio of up to 1:80, far beyond the EFA recommendation to maintain teacher to pupil ratios at 1:35. Teachers who are not civil servants are not compensated for large classes and additional tuition sessions.

The examination based curriculum has led to unhealthy competition that adds extra workload for teachers. In addition, the AU study (2016) found that teachers are often expected to provide guidance and counseling for children with emotional, cultural, maturation and physical needs and these added responsibilities are not generally recognized by employers, but are expected to be carried out.

III.4.3 Capacities to deal with classroom challenges

Even when teachers have acquired the minimum qualification requirements and think they are professionally competent, the demands of UPE, the quick succession of reforms and sheer volume of class sizes have meant that teachers face new and difficult challenges in managing instructional tasks and children's behavior in classrooms.

Some country reports in the Bennell & Akyeompong study (2007) state that classroom discipline is a growing problem as teachers struggle to cope with a growing proportion of students who are over-age and from families that are unfamiliar with schooling and the expectations of school behavior.

Teachers in Kenya, have been unhappy about the introduction of laws which forbid the use of corporal punishment. Most feel that they are being deprived of an important part of their disciplinary arsenal just a time when student behavior is becoming an increasingly serious issue.

III.4.4 Job satisfaction and emotional well-being

Job satisfaction is an important indicator of teachers' psychological well-being and it reflects the extent to which teachers like teaching (Hirschfield, 2000). Teaching satisfaction is therefore one of the foci of research into the effect of emotional intelligence (or emotional labor) on teachers' work (Zhang & Zhu, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Platsidou, 2010; Wong et al., 2010; Chuang & James, 2011; Kinman, Wray, & Strange, 2011; Anari, 2012).

Teachers experience positive emotions when they are making progress toward a goal (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and more positive emotions, in turn, generate more teaching ideas and more innovative teachers (Abbott, 2008). Teachers experiencing high levels of collegiality and occupational solidarity, social and emotional affiliation are also much more likely to have higher levels of self-esteem and subsequently job satisfaction (Abbott, 2008).

Goal achievement and positivity are, in turn, reflected in the care shown for students, with studies suggesting that students who believe their teachers care about them are more motivated in their learning (Phelan et al., 1992; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Wentzel, 1996; Wong & Dornbusch, 2000). Even though a teacher may try to hide his/ her negative emotions and feelings, students are often aware of, and are influenced by them (Sutton & Wheatley 2003).

Negative emotions, including impatience, frustration and anger arise from a number of sources related to goal incongruence (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), students' misbehavior and violation of rules (Hargreaves, 2000; Sutton, 2000); uncooperative colleagues (Nieas, 1989; Bullough et al., 1991; Erb, 2002); work conditions and factors outside the classroom that make it difficult to teach well.

Negative emotions can affect teacher's intrinsic motivation, efficacy, beliefs and goals (Pekrun et al., 2002 p. 97) and subsequently negatively influence teaching and student learning.

Part IV

Teacher motivation patterns emerging from the research

IV.1 Qualified versus Non-Qualified Teachers

Ensuring that all teachers are qualified might be expected to be an important way of improving and maintaining high levels of professional commitment and motivation. However, in nearly all the country cases in Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) study, there were no sizeable differences between the motivation levels of qualified and unqualified teachers, even given that unqualified teachers are paid much less and many are frustrated by limited opportunities to acquire basic teaching qualifications.

Part of the explanation is that unqualified teachers tend to have lower job expectations than qualified teachers. As the Lesotho report highlighted, *'good academic results may embolden teachers to have higher expectations for other aspects of the situation, such as pay, working conditions and instructional support'* (Urwick et al., 2005, p. 24). In many countries, the unqualified teacher is just grateful to be employed at all.

Typically, the whole issue of qualifications and motivation is strongly age-related. Younger teachers are better educated and have acquired higher professional qualifications. But even if they are able to find schools in preferred locations, motivation levels do not appear to be higher. Indeed, in some countries, it is quite clear that younger teachers are seriously demotivated.

IV.2 Rural versus Urban

It is commonly assumed that working in rural schools in Africa is considerably more difficult, and subsequently more demotivating than working in urban schools due to the poor living and working conditions. However, the findings from country studies show that this is not always the case. Teachers who work at schools in their home (rural) area can have higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues who are 'strangers' in the locality (Bennell & Akyeompong, 2007).

One explanation for this is the existence of teacher support networks. Locally-based teachers are more likely to have supportive extended family and social networks, be known to the community, and have higher levels of commitment to promoting education and development activities in the area. They are also likely to have access to land. Such patterns are witnessed in other countries worldwide.

A study on job satisfaction in rural north-west China revealed striking differences in levels of teacher motivation between rural and economically diverse urban centers. Teachers in the latter communities were less satisfied, while teachers in the rural villages with fewer residents were engaged in rural enterprises and felt more engaged and involved in their work (Sargent & Hannum, 2005).

The main attraction of towns and cities is that it is easier for partners to find work, there are more opportunities for further study, and, in general, the level of amenities is much higher. However, this is sometimes offset by the much higher costs of urban living (particularly rent and transport). As a result, not all urban-based teachers are happier.

In some countries, there are differences in motivation between rural/urban areas by age and level of experience. Motivation levels among older teachers in rural areas in Tanzania tend to be higher since they

are more satisfied with their careers than younger teachers. Younger teachers in rural areas, on the other hand, are less satisfied with their jobs (Bennell & Mukyanuzi, 2005). One recurring explanation is that older teachers with longer tenure feel a greater connection to their communities, enhancing their non-financial motivations. *‘Moreover, older teachers often have a greater sense of job security, particularly in public school systems’* (Alcázar et al., 2006; cited by Richardson, 2014).

IV.3 Primary versus Secondary

Motivation levels appear to be generally higher among secondary school teachers in most of the case study countries. This is evidenced by the fact that large proportions of primary school teachers (especially Ghana) want to upgrade their qualifications so that they can become secondary school teachers. But, again, there are exceptions.

In Tanzania, for example, secondary school teachers were considerably less satisfied and motivated than primary school teachers. Nearly half of the teachers interviewed reported that they were ready to leave teaching (Bennell & Mukyanuzi, 2005). In Malawi, on the other hand, interview data showed that secondary school teachers tended to be better motivated. In this context, teachers’ living conditions, which are notably better for secondary schools, was a key factor (Kadzamira, 2006).

IV.4 Private versus Government Schools

The emergence and expansion of low-cost private schools in low-income countries has been argued as means to achieving goals of universal access and increasing quality (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

In the Bennell & Mukyanuzi, (2005) Tanzania study, teacher job satisfaction and motivation were reportedly higher in private schools, in comparison to government schools. Smaller class sizes, closer supervision by management and proprietors, and to some extent the availability of resources were all important factors in explaining this disparity (Kadzamira, 2006). Other factors influencing motivation in private schools are higher pay, better working and living conditions, and more effective management.

These findings seem contradictory to the idea that teachers in low-cost private schools that target lower income families are often less qualified, have lower salaries and weak job security in comparison to their public school counterparts.

One explanation is that teachers are more accountable to their clients (children and parents) and their managers (head teachers and district and local level officials) in private schools and are less likely to be absent or not actively teaching in the classroom. Another contributing factor is that private school teachers may be more compliant with employer expectations in relation to the use of instructional programs, materials and practices (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Several studies have shown that when accountability systems in government schools are weak at both the school and district level – and there is little information shared with parents or parent awareness about how to hold schools responsible for teacher’s professional conduct – there is not much that can enforce the professional behavior of teachers.

There are many exceptions to these rules, mainly because private schools are so diverse with respect to size, fees and client groups. Researchers also note an absence of consistency in defining high quality teaching in the literature on privatization, and the difficulty in comparing findings between schools or countries.

In short, the evidence that teaching motivation and the quality of teaching is better in private schools does

not have any hard and fast rules and is not conclusive at the present time. In Kenya, for example, 'although (private school) salaries are regarded as generally satisfactory, the increasing competition between private schools coupled with the pressure of free education in the public sector has led to a lot of stress and has contributed to low morale in these schools. Morale at private schools catering for low-income groups is poor since most teachers are unqualified, are paid a pittance, and have to endure extremely poor working conditions' (Hyde et al., 2005, p. 22).

IV.5 Male versus Female

A few studies have highlighted differences in levels of motivation between male and female teachers, while others found no statistically significant variation (Richardson, 2014).

Bennell's (2004) study on teacher motivation in Africa and Asia found that motivational patterns were different among men and women. Men were more concerned with extrinsic rewards whereas women focused on intrinsic rewards in terms of the satisfaction of teaching and working with children. Similarly, in a study of pre-service English teachers in Turkey, female teachers reported altruistic and intrinsic motivations for entering the profession, in comparison to male teachers (Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012).

In contrast, Razzaque's (2013) study of pre-service teachers' motivations for joining teaching in Pakistan found that male prospective teachers appeared to have chosen teaching for intrinsic and social contribution reasons, more than female teachers. Female teachers indicated that they chose teaching more for personal utility factors, such as time for family and job security.

Several studies, on the other hand, found no major motivational differences between male and female teachers. Bennell and Mukyanuzi's (2005) study in Tanzania found that there were no significant differences between genders with respect to teachers' personal statements concerning motivation. Likewise, Ramachandran et al. (2005) found that there was no correlation between gender and motivation levels among public school teachers in India. Alcázar et al., (2006) also found that male and female teachers had similar responses during interviews. Their absence rates were comparable, as well.

Part V

Approaches to overcoming the teacher motivation crisis

V.1 Approaches Based on Social Dialogue

Teacher unions have a unique role to play in policy formulation and implementation (Sinyolo 2007). But teacher unions are typically involved in later stages of policy development and their involvement is not institutionalized. Moreover, their involvement tends to revolve around collective bargaining for labour rights and working conditions.

Teachers and their representative organizations must be drawn in earlier and more meaningfully into the dialogue emphasizing how contextual, systemic and school level challenges affect morale and motivation within the teaching corps in local poverty contexts and the need for investments in TPD and support frameworks to enable teachers to overcome these challenges.

Sinyolo (2007) recommends that, *'the unions should ensure that they maintain a balance between their trade union and their professional roles. This means that they should strike a balance between fighting for improvement of salaries and working conditions of educators and their role of defending the quality of the teaching profession and the education system'* (p. 71).

Furthermore, he supports the practice of excluding underqualified teachers, but maintains that unions have a responsibility to fight for government in-service training and certification of unqualified teachers already working in schools. Sinyolo (2007) notes that failure to do so, *'may lead to the emergence of new unions catering for the interests of these teachers. Such a move would divide or further divide and weaken the teacher trade union movement'* (p. 69).

V.2 Approaches Based on Remuneration and Incentives

V.2.1 Salaries

As noted by the SC report, Making Schools Work (Bruns, Filmer & Patrinos, 2011, p. 183): *"The 'intrinsic' rewards of teaching—even if they are explicitly maximized by a well-managed school system—cannot substitute indefinitely for financial remuneration"*.

In his doctoral study in DR Congo, Brandt (2014, p.x) affirms: *'Any policies and reforms in the education sector... are doomed to fail if they do not take into account teachers' income situation.'*

The Guidebook for Planning Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction (UNESCO, 2006) also states: *'One cannot talk about intrinsic motivation and higher level needs without the basic physical needs related to having enough money for food, shelter and security being met first.'*

Figure 9. Teachers and unions should be involved in finding a solution

TEACHERS AND UNIONS SHOULD BE INVOLVED IN FINDING A SOLUTION

In some parts of the world teacher unions are critically important to educational quality and have broadly positive working relationships with government and local educational employers. Virtually all top performing countries on international educational measures have strong unions that participate in setting the educational reform agenda. The unions provide important feedback on the actual conditions of teaching and learning. In some contexts, they provide infrastructure for educational systems where such capacity does not otherwise exist. Some are capable of fostering innovation, bringing needed new educational practices into being. (Bascia, 2013)

1. Education policies can only be effective if those responsible for implementing them are involved in shaping them.
2. In some countries, engaging teacher unions has improved policies aimed at helping disadvantaged students. In Bolivia, unions helped ensure that indigenous rights were written into the constitution. Their promotion of instruction in indigenous languages contributed to a decrease in illiteracy.

BUT

policy-makers do not engage closely enough with teachers or their unions. It's time for this to change!



Two teachers stand as panelists next to global policy makers
Crédit : UNESCO/Mulugeta.Ayene

4
ADVOCACY TOOLKIT for TEACHERS TO PROVIDE A QUALITY EDUCATION

Box 7. Salaries and incentives

Recognizing the deleterious effect of low and irregular pay on the teaching profession, certain countries have made efforts to raise salaries and conditions of service. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) note that in **Kenya** for example, there was a major motivation crisis among teachers in the 1990s, but that improvements in pay and other conditions of service since 2000 have gone some way to stabilizing this.

A critical policy intervention by the Kenyan government is the harmonization of public sector salaries through the Public Sector Remuneration and Benefits Policy 2015 (SRC, 2015) and the establishment of Salaries and Remuneration Commission (SRC, 2015) which regularly sets the benefits for public servants.

Through the salaries and remuneration commission, the government adopted a private sector approach in the management of public servants with the introduction of performance contracting. From the job evaluation report of 2016 (SRC, 2015), it is clear that teachers in Kenyan public schools are now getting competitive benefits in comparison with peers of similar economic value in public service.

In **Rwanda**, the government is implementing reforms in the public service sector aimed at providing competitive incentives to teachers, e.g. salaries indexed on international benchmarks, housing, bonuses for

performance, and credit facilities as a means of increasing teacher motivation (VSO Rwanda, 2009; MINEDUC, 2010; Save the Children, 2015).

Since Rwanda prides itself in performance-based reward systems, teachers are subjected to annual performance assessments by their head teachers, the results of which are discussed with each participant and made available to District Education Officers for future decision making (Walker-Keleher, 2006; MINEDUC, 2008; VSO Rwanda, 2009; MINEDUC, 2010).

Sizeable pay awards in **Nigeria** and **Zambia** have also been crucial in stemming the plummeting motivation levels that characterized much of the 1990s.

V.2.2 Holistically conceived incentives towards more equitable deployment

Ministries of Education have experimented with compensation policies and targeted incentives to attract teachers to areas experiencing critical shortages and ramped up their efforts to ensure that teachers spend more hours on task through bonuses, performance/merit based systems and other incentives.

In **The Gambia**, a salary bonus of 40% for teachers who taught at target hardship schools led to experienced teachers requesting postings to those areas. The program was successful because it targeted the highest need schools. Uganda also offers 30% hardship pay (Mulkeen 2010).

Mulkeen (2010) found that the countries in her case study that offered a housing incentive, particularly in poor and rural areas, tended to have better luck attracting teachers. In addition to providing safe places to live, one school district in **Zambia** offered the additional incentive of a special loan for female teachers to buy solar panels to supply electricity to their homes if they taught in remote schools.

V.3 Approaches Based on Teacher Professional Development (TPD) and Support

Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) make a strong argument that in order to develop an effective corps of teachers, teacher development policies and interventions must extend beyond developing teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills (human capital) to developing their collective capacity (social capital) and authority (decisional capital) to improve student learning.

New directions in effective and meaningful staff development hold great promise - not only for developing teacher's competence, but their sense of self-efficacy and worth as a result of interaction with teachers facing similar challenges, teacher exchange and relationship building (Smith et al., 2003; Gaible & Burns, 2005; Avalos, 2011).

School-based models of pre-service and in-service training raise teacher motivation and the quality of teaching (Dembélé, 2005) when they include 'practice-by-doing', coaching and mentoring and expose students to competence pedagogies to a greater extent than traditional college-based courses (Barrett et al., 2007).

In particularly challenging and adverse environments, TPD can be harnessed to help teachers feel emotionally well, supported and equipped for the double roles of teacher and nurturer. Certain types of TPD are also needed to create a supportive atmosphere for female teachers.

Box 8. The potential of site-based TPD

In middle-high income countries, school reformers have long called for new forms of site-based TPD that bolster teacher's intrinsic motivation, including opportunities to take control over instructional techniques and curriculum development as contextually relevant to different classroom situations.

New "reform" TPD, which became popular in the US during the 1990s, employs site-based training where learning occurs in teacher groupings, study circles, inquiry groups, and practitioner research groups (Smith et al., 2003; Smith & Gillespie, 2007) by school or by school cluster (Gaible & Burns, 2005; Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Avalos, 2011).

Supporters of site-based TPD claim that it allows teachers to discuss context-based issues, refine instructional practices, and participate collaboratively in a teacher community (Suda, 2001; Gaible & Burns, 2005; Smith & Gomez, 2011). Other research suggests that the effectiveness of TPD is not so dependent on the type of TPD. Rather, it highlights providing prolonged training opportunities over a sustained period of time, providing ample space for teachers to work collectively, and inserting job-embedded features, such as active learning, peer learning and collaborative group work (OECD, 2009; Smith et al., 2012).

V.3.1 TPD in post crisis situations

It is well-accepted that teachers need training in how to provide psychosocial support to children in post crisis situations – thus enabling schools to provide children with a sense of normalcy, to cope with trauma, to recover, to bounce back, and to gain hope for the future (Buckland, 2005; IRC, 2011; UNESCO, 2011 & 212; Torrente et al., 2012).

However additional psychosocial support is needed for teachers to enable them to discuss psychological aspects of their teaching experiences during crisis in conjunction with their wider social experiences involving relationships, traditions and cultures (INEE, 2010; & IRC, 2011). Providing this type of support contributes to teachers' well-being - defined as a positive condition of physical, emotional, social, cognitive and spiritual health (INEE, 2010; IRC, 2011).

Box 9. Teacher Learning Circles in post-crisis situations¹¹

The model known as "Teacher Learning Circles" (TLCs), currently being piloted by the International Rescue Committee (IRC), holds great promise for teachers in post-crisis contexts to gain content knowledge, adopt innovative quality teaching techniques and provide enhancements to teacher well-being and motivation (IRC, 2011).

'TLCs are understood as in-service, school-based study groups where teachers regularly meet to provide support to one another to create a nurturing, collaborative and collegial action-research environment' (Suda, 2001; Johnson & Yahampath, 2003; Smith et al., 2003; Emerson et al., 2010; Smith & Gomez, 2010; Frisoli, 2014).

In this venue, teachers can share and learn content-related strategies related to sensitive issues, such as instructional practices for the psychosocial well-being of children (Tomlinson & Benefield, 2006; IRC, 2011). In addition, and because TLCs promote collaboration and support within the teaching community, they can help teachers socially and emotionally impacted from trauma (IRC, 2011). In improving teacher well-being, this brand of TPD in turn positively impacts the quality of teaching (INEE, 2010).

¹¹ Summarized from Haugen et al., 2011

"Teacher Learning Circles" are currently being implemented in Katanga province in southeastern Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) for early grade reading teachers. The project partners with local education offices and officials to run and sustain these teacher networks. In this way, it is building an enabling environment for teacher collaboration and development. The findings of the research suggest that, in 'well-functioning TLCs, communities are more stable, teachers effectively manage challenging working conditions, view themselves as professionals, are supported by their communities, participate in an encouraging school community that is fostered by the Head Teacher (HT), and regularly participate in sustained TLCs' (Frisoli, 2014, ix).

V.3.2 TPD towards safe school environments for female teachers

Recruiting females to fill vacancies in rural and hard-to-reach areas is only a first step. Women need to be both attracted to the profession and motivated to stay (Haugen et al., 2011).

To this end, schools need to address challenges to female teacher morale based on gender bias and unfair practices in the school environment. This entails educating all stakeholders in the educational community to overcome the bias that comes with male privilege.

Box 10. FAWE Centers of Excellence: The Gambia, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda, Senegal and Tanzania

With a view to encouraging a more supportive and welcoming environment for female teachers, and towards increasing the pool of potential female school teachers, FAWE promotes gender sensitive teacher training at school level.

The establishment of gender focused "best practices" schools in five countries by FAWE saw real results in recruiting girls for schools, retaining them, and providing them quality educational experiences (Nsubuga 2006). But teachers and other stakeholders – including all students – also received gender sensitivity training, and teachers received in-service training on gender responsive pedagogy. These schools further trained school managers on gender responsiveness.

FAWE reports their teachers in these schools are more responsive to gender issues in school processes, and that girls in the schools reported receiving more support from their teachers. Training in gender responsive teaching methodologies has increased girls' participation in class, led girls to interact more with their teachers, and improved girls' academic performance.

V.4 Appraisal/evaluation as Part of Teacher's Professional Development

Recognition and feedback have been cited as important motivators for teachers, so it would seem natural that teacher appraisal and evaluation is an obvious vehicle for using these incentives to direct the teachers on the path towards professional growth and improvement (Frase, 1992).

In Tanzania and Kenya, the streamlining of performance monitoring and appraisal in schools by the CED and SMCs is having a positive impact on teacher motivation (Leah, 2014; Huma, 2014; Kemunto, et al. 2015; Onjoro, et al., 2015; Zablon, et al., 2016).

NGOs such as STIR Education suggest that teachers need a different type of school-based appraisal system where they are placed at the center of the evaluation activity. They have recommended the following:

- Ask the teacher to consider his or her duties, responsibilities, contributions and outcomes, and

direct the evaluation from their perspective;

- Use multiple and variable sources, such as student and parent surveys, peer review of materials, logs of professional activity and pupil test-score data; and
- Use the results of a teacher evaluation to encourage personal professional dossiers, publicize aggregated results, and support teacher promotion systems.

V.5 Approaches Based on School Improvement and Community Involvement

A new generation of school improvement initiatives focuses on generating a holistic set of interventions and creating a supportive environment in which teachers feel valued and have an increased sense of self-worth.

Indeed, many of the key features of school improvement initiatives have been found as having a significant influence on teacher motivation and education quality, including: i) building effective school leadership and organizational management; ii) empowering teachers by bolstering their autonomy and decision-making capacities; iii) providing guidance to teachers in implementing reforms and improving student outcomes; iv) the promotion of learner-centered school and classroom learning environments; v) improving the availability teaching and learning materials (TLM); vi) increasing teachers and community involvement in decision making and oversight.

V.5.1 Building effective school leadership

Effective leaders support teachers by providing direction and support in execution of their duties. They also:

- Involve them in the definition of school goals;
- Work with teachers to address basic resource challenges and transforming existing resources into more effective aids to teaching and content knowledge (Gustafsson, 2005; Taylor et al., 2012; Tavares, 2015); and
- Create workplace conditions and relationships that support teaching and learning (such as time for teachers to plan and learn together, and parent/community involvement etc.).

Countries such as South Africa have institutionalized school leadership training in partnership with departments of education at universities as part of wider strategies to improve educational standards at school level, and to ensure that school leaders management practice contributes to school improvement.

Box 10. Advanced Certificate in Education: School Leadership (ACE), South Africa

The former South African Department of Education has introduced a new threshold qualification for would-be school principals. The ACE program helps to ensure that candidates are able to engage with leadership and management issues in a sustained way.

The course, initially badged as an Advanced Certificate in Education: School Leadership (ACE), was piloted in six provinces from 2007-2009 and was open to serving principals as well as to deputy principals and school management team members aspiring to become principals. Participants were nominated by the provincial departments of education.

The ACE is being delivered by universities through a common framework agreed with the national Department of Education and the National Management and Leadership Committee (NMLC). The first pilot cohort involved only five universities, and the Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance. The intention of the course is that it should be different from typical university programs in that it is practice-based. This emphasis on practice resulted from the evidence (e.g. Department of Education, 1996) that,

although many school leaders hold university qualifications in management, their collective impact on school outcomes had been minimal. Their focus appeared to have been on achieving accreditation rather than improving their schools.’

Source: Bush et al., 2011, p. 32

In Mozambique, the capacities of an effective school leader are viewed as one of the most important school resources (see **Box 11**).

Box 11. The role of School Leaders in the Schools Project, Cabo Delgado Province, Mozambique From an interview with Marcelo Silberano, Regional Director for The Aga Khan Development Network¹²

Q: What resources are currently most needed by both your organization and by the school systems in Mozambique overall?

A: *“The first resource is not materials. It is in having a good school director, a good management team in place. This is one of the biggest issues here in Mozambique. Having a good director is not the only thing that matters, but this will make a huge difference in a school.*

In schools with basic needs being met, without a good leader, the performance is not good. With schools in which are missing a lot of things, but which have a good school manager, there at least is direction and a basic functioning in the school.

For example, ADK conducted a study in Cabo Delgado and found that the biggest issue facing the schools is that the teachers are simply not showing up. Even if they are in the school they are not in the classroom. Even if they are in the classroom, the time spent actually teaching is very small. This is the biggest issue.

If there is a good management, that can oversee the lessons and oversee the teachers, instead of allowing teachers to do whatever they want, this will make a tremendous difference in the school system here in Mozambique.

Human resources are the most important resources. Supervision is critical, in terms of meeting with the teachers, lesson planning, and time structure. Teachers can often not show up for a week, and everything is ok when they return, no questions asked. ADK determines if a school is a good investment based on the leadership, as well as a good school council, which can also control the school leadership as well as the community and can also serve to assess the community needs and make that connection possible. A good school council, a good headmaster, will help to solve the other problems and issues on the ground.”

Q: How can the quality of the leadership be improved?

A: *“It is not only training, this is only one thing; to specifically train for one issue is one thing, in terms of school management, vision, mission, objectives, targets, etc. for the school and for the leadership to have a plan to meet these targets, but if the incentives are not there, in terms of not only salary and money, but also in recognition by the government that the headmaster is effective, then the process will falter.*

Such incentives as a radio or a bicycle at the end of the year, and also recognition in front of other people, in terms of big meetings and prizes, can work in the sense of the system not having the money for increasing general salaries for teachers or headmasters.

¹² <http://theschoolsproject.org/mozambique-the-aga-khan-foundation-pemba/>

Small things that are needed in the different rural communities, that do not require a lot of money, should be used. The recognition that can be given by leaders is also very key in this culture. Intrinsic motivation must be used, as there is a lack of external funding to help to change the mentality of the people.”

Q: How else can the quality of leaders be more ensured, to create a lasting culture of progress in the school system?

A: “We also need to look at how we choose our headmasters. There must be prerequisites and qualities that are being looked at, there must be more involvement of the communities, to find people who have true leadership capacity, not just incumbent teachers or family members of leaders. Giving the power to the local leadership to make decisions at the school level, giving them autonomy, is also very important. The system here is very bureaucratic; there is not power currently for headmasters to take the measures to really discipline teachers who are not doing their jobs. The teachers who go to work and do not go, at the end of the month, get paid the same amount. The headmasters must have more local power and autonomy to permit the schools to run in the right direction. If someone is in the position, without the power, then they will be completely ineffective. Power must be passed down to the local level.

Mozambique is still very poor; books and materials must be provided to the schools at the basic level, to make the schools better, but the human element is the most important.”

V.5.2 Involving the community in teacher support and accountability initiatives

A core driver of quality school improvement initiatives is the generation of meaningful connection between teachers, parents, students and community members. Community mobilization helps to improve teacher recognition and prestige and teachers’ living conditions. At the same time, communities are being mobilized to demand accountability from county leaders and school management is improving teacher motivation and the overall quality of education.

Box 13. Community support to teachers

The 2011 Save the Children (**Guajardo/Save the Children, 2011**) study noted that school improvement initiatives involving the community in teachers living and working conditions can be effective in raising teacher morale. In its planning recommendations, the report suggested that schools could achieve results by:

- 1) Encouraging non-monetary community contributions (childcare, labor, security, cleaning, cooking classroom assistance)
- 2) Providing remote deployment support such as bicycles, mobilizing the community to build/provide housing and other support, ensuring access to resource centers and training, etc. (very successful)
- 3) Offering training on large class size management, active learning, and measurement (very and somewhat successful)

Within the formal education system, schools at all levels in **Rwanda** are implementing community mentorship programs. One of the spin-offs of this program is the strengthening of teacher effectiveness through mentoring, coaching school leadership and community engagement through innovation. The program brings the teacher closer to the community, hence improving teacher relevance in the community, accountability, social standing and motivation (Innovation for Education, 2015).

The government of **Tanzania** is also implementing the community sensitization and mobilization policy as a means of reviving and strengthening teacher-parent relationships, school committees/boards to support teachers especially in remote, rural and difficult areas (MEVT, 2014).

Collective accountability

At the community level, the government of **Tanzania** is focusing on mobilization of local communities to demand accountability from school administrators and teachers, thereby improving teacher motivation and overall quality of education. The strategy involves the strengthening of Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs), enhancing their oversight mandate to get involved in the approval of schoolwork plans and budgets (MEVT, 2007; MEVT, 2014). Other initiatives include the promotion of cost-sharing philosophy as a mean of encouraging parents to have more interest and a say in how schools are managed.

In **Rwanda**, the education for innovation program, PTA and community based electronic service delivery monitoring systems, like the daily attendance student and teacher reporting system are strong community based systems for accountability and teacher appreciations in Rwanda (Innovation for Education, 2015). At community level, the government of Rwanda has developed Education Management Information System (EMIS) to capture critical indicators of performance at schools for both teachers and students. The governance policy of using citizens as auditors of government agencies performance is motivating teachers to work harder. Also schools are required to publish critical information to the community like budget allocation, funds release and budget performance, and through PTA and the community innovation programs community members can inquire into the performance of the school.

V.6 Approaches from the Perspective of Teachers: Voice, Support and Rewards

There are examples of countries implementing activities that appeal directly to teacher's intrinsic motivation which focus on:

- Shared decision making between head teachers and teachers;
- Recognizing staff for accomplishment of tasks, and providing opportunities for shared leadership and support;
- Creating opportunities for teachers in service to access further education and training;
- Support and mentorship initiatives teachers receive from head teachers and senior colleagues; and
- Streamlining performance monitoring and appraisal in schools.

V.6.1 Voice

One of the key de-motivators of teachers in Kenyan public schools is the lack of voice and lack of recognition at school and community levels. Greater participation of teachers in decision making, through the strengthened role of Parents Teachers Associations (PTA), developing codes of conduct and regulations for school management committees (SMC), Board of Management (BoM) are thought to result in a sense of ownership, more accountability, recognition and overall, a motivated workforce (Musungu and Nasongo, 2008; MoE, 2012). The Tanzanian government has also focused on improved relations between teachers and school administrators as a means of motivating teachers and improving their participation in decision making (MEVT, 2014).

V.6.2 Empowerment

Empowering teachers and reinforcing their autonomy as effective classroom decision makers usually requires encouraging them to think about their work in new ways, contribute to problem solving and commit themselves to new standards and goals (Leithwood, 2002).

Already in 1995, Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin suggested that staff development should mean ‘providing occasions for teachers to reflect critically on their practice and to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy, and learners’ (p. 597).

In models, such as that proposed by STIR Education in Uganda, teachers have responded with great energy when they are immersed in new perspectives on their own teaching and learning abilities and provided with opportunities to express themselves.

Box 13. STIR Education – Uganda, South Africa

In the STIR Education model in Uganda, teachers, or teams of teachers, analyze problems in classroom effectiveness, or in children’s learning, and suggest practical solutions. The program works at school level to reignite the motivational spark within teachers by recognizing their existing efforts (their micro-innovations in the classroom) and then connecting them together to form local teacher-change maker networks.

In these networks, teachers develop the professional mindsets and behaviors that evidence shows are needed to create sustained change in teaching practice. The networks also stimulate ongoing interest and mastery in key thematic areas that are known to improve student learning. Finally, teachers gain practical experience of leading classroom improvement, through the 'Learning Improvement Cycle'. Here teachers learn to diagnose classroom problems, collaboratively develop solutions, and reflect on the outcomes.

Similar to problem-based school development (PBSD) in North America, it has been suggested that ‘this approach takes staff development and school reform to the next level by creating a professional community capable of sustaining long term educational reform’ (Clarke et al. 2015; Mugambi, 2016, pg.274).¹³

The Quality Education in Developing Countries (QEDC) Initiative, supported by the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, QEDC has partnered with Ashoka’s Changemakers to find the most innovative educators in Africa.

QEDC looks for entrepreneurial African educators—be they individuals or organizations—working to ensure that pupils are successfully learning reading, writing, math, and critical thinking skills. The strategy includes: (i) ensuring attention to and accountability for learning outcomes; (ii) supporting organizations with models to improve instructional practices in the early grades of primary school, particularly in reading, math, and critical thinking; and (iii) advocating for sufficient resources, used effectively to improve learning.

Grant making in Africa is focused in six countries: Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Senegal, Tanzania, and Uganda.¹⁴

V.6.3 Support

School leadership support and mentorship initiatives in Kenyan schools have demonstrated a positive impact on teacher motivation (Musungu and Nasongo, 2008). Leadership support refers to advice and support for new teachers about lesson plans, resources and classroom management.

¹³ <http://stireducation.org/#home>

¹⁴ <http://hewlett.org/programs/global-development-program/quality-education-in-developing-countries>

Head teachers also support new teachers by assigning them mentor teachers to transmit instructional, planning and management skills that can help new teachers grow professionally, in addition to familiarizing them with their new environment like locating housing, sharing information about the community and its social services (Ursulla et al., 2015).

V.6.4 Rewards

In **Tanzania**, the education policy framework of 2012 (MoE, 2012) recommends that School Management Committees and head teachers should strive to recognize staff for accomplishment of tasks, and provide opportunities for shared leadership and support (TSC, 2006; Musungu and Nasongo, 2008). The policy framework further recommends training of head teachers in human resources management, and particularly people motivation skills (MoE, 2012; Ursulla et al., 2015).

At the same time, the establishment and operationalization of a reward system for good practice for teachers and student teachers in science, mathematics and language subjects proved to be a positive policy innovation (MEVT, 2014; Raymond, 2016). The idea behind the reward system was to recognize, motivate excellent teachers and provide them with a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives, including improved pay, merit based recognition and awards and support to accessing TPD opportunities.

Part VI

Prospects for monitoring and evaluation

There is virtually no precedent on how to assess the impact of a teacher motivation initiative as there are no specific teacher motivation strategies at country level and, apart from the data and evidence emerging from cross-national and doctoral studies and NGO practice, there is little reliable baseline data.

Non-governmental organizations generally execute their own approach to monitoring and evaluating teacher motivation strategies and outcomes. This presents a significant challenge, not just for the quality of those evaluations and associated reports, but also for the development of a cumulative knowledge base on what works, or does not, within and across contexts (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

At the same time, since teacher motivation is highly sensitive to context (and there is sometimes a massive variability in contexts even within the same school district), it would be practically impossible to make a uniform monitoring and evaluation framework that produces simplistic conclusions about whether a teacher motivation program is effective or not.

Information about context, local conditions, and data on the quality of implementation, are all needed to understand why expected changes have, or have not, come about and what can be done to make interventions more effective in the future. The information gathered needs to be deepened by understanding of program effectiveness when implemented in what ways, and under what conditions (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

Nonetheless, monitoring activities on teacher motivation are needed to: i) mobilize knowledge; ii) ensure that relevant stakeholders have access to knowledge to inform debates and decisions about how to improve teacher motivation locally and nationally, and; iii) contribute to a growing evidence base for greater financial investments in teacher motivation initiatives.

The potential of randomized control trials as a monitoring mechanism

In recent years, philanthropic and private foundations and a growing number of technical partners have emphasized, or even required, more experimental monitoring and research designs. Commonly referred to as Impact Evaluations and Randomized Control Trials (RCTs), these rigorous methodologies are becoming the gold standard for evaluating the impact of interventions/investments to improve teaching and learning (Hermosilla, Anderson & Mundy, 2014).

Impact Evaluations go beyond considering what agencies or systems are doing, to look at the actual impact, or what happens, as a result of specific development interventions. They systematically and empirically identify the effects resulting from an intervention, be they intended or unintended, direct or indirect.

Randomized Control Trials (RCTs), or randomized impact evaluations, are a type of impact evaluation which randomize access to social programs (or service) – the treatment group¹⁵ - and who does not – the control as a means of limiting bias and generating an internally valid impact estimate. The RCT then compares outcomes between these two groups to make a statement on the impact of the program.

¹⁵ RCTs do not necessarily require a “no treatment” control – randomization can just as easily be used to compare different versions of the same program, or different programs trying to tackle the same problem.

Interventions to support teacher motivation lend themselves very well to Impact Evaluations and RCTs for a number of reasons.

1. **Implementation and monitoring are combined within the same activity, with the focus firmly placed at school level.** Within a school improvement initiative, for example, an impact evaluation could be designed as a formative evaluation exercise gathering information at the beginning about teachers' perceptions about school improvement, their practice and need for professional support, as well as periodically about improvements in teacher motivation.
A few examples are emerging of where RCTs have been employed to support school management and teacher motivation.
2. **The participation of teachers in Impact Evaluations in itself can strengthen 'Voice' and teacher motivation.** The dialogue with, and participation of, teachers in the development of the impact evaluation can be seen as a way of ensuring that teachers feel heard, have a voice and this in itself can **help** to boost their motivation. Opportunities for teachers to share their experiences on school improvement and engage in broader peer learning would also be part of the formative evaluation.
3. **More innovative, collaborative program monitoring designs are needed that promote the reception and use of information by local education officials in real time, rather than after a program is completed.** As importantly, **systems** are needed to send the information from teachers back up the chain to influence decision making.

As with the STIR model, which integrates local and district level education decision-makers as 'Education Leaders' into the model of teacher motivation, local education officers are aware of the information coming out of the evaluation and receive training to use it as part of efforts to support school improvement.

Box 14. Management and motivation in Ugandan primary schools; Impact evaluation final report. October 2011¹⁶

In Uganda, a randomized controlled trial examined policies to improve the functioning of School Management Committees in rural, government primary schools with the aim of providing evidence not only on specific policy options for fostering 'bottom-up' accountability (World Bank 2004), but to illustrate the importance of participatory mechanisms for achieving positive impacts on teacher's professional conduct and learning outcomes. The trial looked at the impacts of two different types of school monitoring scorecard, each of which was collected by School Management Committee (SMC) members at the end of term.

Schools in the first treatment arm received training and support in a standardized scorecard incorporating simple indicators of best practice in monitoring pupil and teacher performance, teaching materials and facilities, and school governance. Schools in the second treatment arm received training in a participatory scorecard, which provided a forum for SMC members to develop their own indicators of the various dimensions of school performance that they themselves valued. Training was provided by the Centre for Coordinating Tutors, which forms part of the government educational staff resident in the study districts and was overseen by SNV and World Vision, working together with EPRC and Oxford staff.

¹⁶ Andrew Zeitlin Centre for the Study of African Economies, University of Oxford & Lawrence Bategeka, Madina Guloba, Ibrahim Kasirye, and Frederick Mugisha, Economic Policy Research Centre

The impacts of these alternative scorecard treatments were estimated using a sample of 100 schools from districts in each of Uganda's four regions: Apac, Hoima, Iganga, and Kiboga. To allow an estimation of the causal effects of the program, schools were randomly assigned to the standardized scorecard (30 schools), the participatory scorecard (30 schools), or control (40 schools). Randomization was stratified at sub-county level. The experimental procedure helped to ensure that selective placement does not bias the estimates of program impact (see, e.g., Glewwe, Kremer, Moulin & Zitzewitz, 2004).

Pupil and teacher absenteeism were measured through un-announced visits to schools. Learning outcomes were measured by testing authorities from the Uganda National Examinations Board, which administered tests from the National Assessment for Progress in Education to a representative sample of pupils at baseline and follow-up.

The results show statistically significant effects of the participatory design scorecard across a range of outcomes, including a reduction of pupil and teacher absenteeism by 8.9 and 13.2 percent respectively. The participatory scorecard had a commensurate impact on pupil test scores of approximately 0.19 standard deviations; such an impact would increase a pupil from the 50th percentile to the 58th percentile of the distribution.

Impacts of the standardized scorecard on these outcome measures were smaller and statistically indistinguishable from zero. Neither scorecard has a statistically significant impact on dropout rates or firing of teachers.

These results suggest that the participatory design component of community monitoring interventions may be important to their success. Delegation of this process appears to have fostered a stronger sense of ownership and motivation among school stakeholders. Given its low costs, such a participatory approach to community-based monitoring is a promising policy intervention for improving quality in UPE schools.

Part VII

Developing a Teacher Support and Motivation Framework for Africa

VII.1 Teacher Motivation Diagnostic Tools

In 2015, Save the Children (SC), World Vision (WV), and the Teacher Motivation Working Group (TMWG) collaborated to develop and pilot a new resource to assist organization working with teachers be aware of issues impacting teacher motivation and think critically about adjusting programmes to address low motivation.

Figure 9. Teachers and unions should be involved in finding a solution

Teacher Motivation Diagnostic Tool (and Support Guide)

Three Pieces:

A *Teacher Motivation Diagnostic Tool* administered independently or in combination with student assessments, to gather data on teacher motivation issues.

A *framework of analysis* to translate the data into a better understanding of levels of teacher motivation and the unique mix of factors affecting teacher motivation in that context.

A *menu of recommended interventions* to target contextual teacher motivation issues revealed by the analysis.



VII.2 Teacher Motivation Surveys and Questionnaires

STIR/World Bank Teacher Motivation Survey

Developed as part of a baseline survey (also including a peer motivation appraisal and classroom observation data) supporting an impact evaluation conducted by IDinsight2 for STIR Education3 in Delhi and Uttar Pradesh in India, funded by a World Bank Strategic Impact Evaluation Fund (SIEF) grant.¹⁷

Teacher motivation questionnaire - SURVEY Monkey

The questionnaire investigates the effect that teachers' motivation has on their use of motivational strategies in the classroom. Although the end goal relates to insights on the factors which affect English language teacher motivation, the questions in the first section have universal significance.¹⁸

World Bank SABER Teachers Framework and Tool

For each policy goal, SABER-Teachers defines a series of policy levers (actions that governments can take to reach these goals). The eight policy goals and corresponding policy levers together comprise a coherent teacher policy system, one that is intended to help all children reach their full potential.

The framework paper, What Matters Most for Teacher Policies, presents evidence on the importance of these education policy goals and explains how the SABER-Teachers tool collects and analyzes data on these policies.

SABER Teachers is currently being implemented in Kenya and Uganda, Mali and Cote d'Ivoire.¹⁹

OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)

An international survey that offers the opportunity for teachers and principals to provide input into education analysis and policy development. TALIS is being conducted by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in some 23 countries. Cross-country analysis of this data allows countries to identify other countries facing similar challenges and to learn from other policy approaches. School principals and teachers will provide information about issues such as the professional development they have received; their teaching beliefs and practices; the review of teachers' work and the feedback and recognition they receive about their work; and various other school leadership, management and workplace issues.²⁰

The Work Tasks Motivation Scale for Teachers (WTMST)

The WTMST is designed to assess five motivational constructs toward six work tasks (e.g., class preparation, teaching). The authors conducted a preliminary (n = 42) and a main study among elementary and high school teachers (n = 609) to develop and validate the scale. Overall, results from the main study reveal that the WTMST is composed of 30 reliable and valid factors reflecting five types of motivation among six work tasks carried out by teachers.²¹

¹⁷ <http://idinsight.org/insights/stir/STIR%20Baseline%20Report%20Final%20Clean.pdf>

¹⁸ <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/8C3ZVZP>

¹⁹ <http://saber.worldbank.org/index.cfm?indx=8&pd=1>

²⁰ <https://www.oecd.org/edu/school/43081350.pdf>

²¹ http://selfdeterminationtheory.org/.../2008_FernetEtAl_WTMST-JCA.pdf

VII.3 Examples of Advocacy Resources

VSO: This organization has investigated the motivations and challenges facing teachers in 15 developing countries. Poor salaries, training, management and working conditions are demoralizing teachers and endangering education.

- Cameroon - *Actions and Intentions*
- Ethiopia - *How much is a good teacher worth?*
- The Gambia - *Teachers Speak Out and Qualifying for Quality*
- Malawi - *Teacher Talking Time*
- Mozambique - *Teachers Talking or Listening to Teachers*
- Nigeria - *Every Child Needs a Teacher and Teacher's Voice*
- Rwanda - *Seen But Not Heard and Gender Equality in Teaching and Education Management*
- Tanzania - *Leading Learning*
- Zambia - *They've Got Class!*

Annex

Theoretical perspectives on motivation

Motivation has been variously defined in the literature. Deci & Ryan (1985, p. 3) define it as the energy and direction of behavior. Motivation is thought to be responsible for *'why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it'* (Dörnyei, 2001, p.8).

Motivation has also been described as goal-directed behavior. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward - one that satisfies their needs (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Tracy 2000; Ofoegbu, 2004; Armstrong, 2007)

Geen (1995, p. 2) referred to motivation as the initiation, intensity, and persistence of behavior. Berelson & Steiner (as quoted in Owens, 1991, p. 102) viewed motivation as made up of inner striving conditions, such as wishes, desires, and drives that activates or moves individuals.

Work-related motivation

Hoy & Miskel (1991, p. 168) see work-related motivation as the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain work-related behaviors toward the achievement of personal goals. Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p. 16) observed that motivation is the level of effort an individual is willing to apply toward the achievement of a particular goals or motive.

Three principle categories of theories of motivation have been developed to inform the study of employee behavior in organizations: content theories, process and reinforcement theories (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Bartol & Martin, 1998). But there are a number of other, more recent, theoretical frameworks that are useful for understanding individuals and teachers' motivation in the workplace.

Maslow's content theory of motivation

Content theories focus on the values and needs which motivate people (Thompson, 1996) and are primarily concerned with identifying the variables that influence behavior, while attempting to explain the specific factors that motivate people. (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Ferguson, 2000).

Maslow's is one of the earliest and best known content theories of motivation. Maslow posits that there are five levels of human needs, or a "hierarchy of needs." (Maslow 1943& 1954).

- **Physiological needs**, such as food, drink, shelter, sleep etc. are the most basic of all human beings. They could be categorized as survival needs.
- **Security and safety**. This level speaks to the need for employees to be free from danger, to be free from financial insecurity and to be free from other dangers that threaten their physical security and safety.
- **The need for social and emotional affiliation**. This level includes such needs as love, friendship, and acceptance by a group.
- **Esteem and appreciation**. This includes the need for self-esteem, self-confidence, recognition by peers, respect, dignity, status, appreciation, and prestige.
- **Self-actualization or self-realization**. This is the need for maximum achievement of a person's potential, self-expression, creativity, autonomy, self-direction, and psychological growth.

Porter's needs theory

Porter (1961; see also Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Owens, 1991, 1995) developed a needs theory that can apply to manager in a professional setting, replacing the physiological needs level with autonomy. He viewed the need for autonomy as the desire to control one's work situation, the desire to influence the organization, decisional participation, and a desire for authority to use the organization's resources.

He placed this need level immediately below the self-actualization level. Thus his five levels would be: (1) security; (2) affiliation; (3) self-esteem; (4) autonomy; and (5) self-actualization.

Vroom's expectancy theory

This process theory posits that humans' internal drives or forces are influenced in intensity and direction by the likely outcomes of their actions. In short, workers' efforts are influenced by instrumentality, or the probability that a given level of performance will result in a positive outcome, which can be rewards, incentives, recognition, achievement, or other favorable outcomes.

Under Vroom's theory, a person's motivation is influenced by the desirability or value that the worker attaches to the outcome. Vroom instructed that two types of outcomes of an action are possible: direct outcomes and indirect outcomes. Direct outcomes are the immediate results of an action. Indirect outcomes are what happen as a consequence of the immediate results of the action.

Many studies have shown that the quality of an employee's work is a function of the attractiveness of the possible results of the employee's efforts and the utility or instrumentality of good work for attaining those results. (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Hackman & Porter, 1968; Schneider & Olson, 1970; Sheridan et al., 1975; Henson, 1976; Miskel et al., 1980; Silver, 1982). This is especially true for inner-directed employees since these types of employees, as opposed to outer-directed employees, have a stronger belief that their own effort will affect the outcomes. (Lawler & Porter, 1967).

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (1966) – Long-term impact of motivators: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement.

Intrinsic and extrinsic factors

Two types of motivation as originally identified by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1957).

- **Intrinsic motivation** is self-generated factors that influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. These factors include responsibility (feeling that the work is important and having control over one's own resources), autonomy (freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement (Armstrong, 2007).
- **Extrinsic motivation** relates to what is done to or for people to motivate them. These include rewards such as increased pay, praise, or promotion, and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay or criticism, (Armstrong, 2007). It is also influenced by external factors such as salary, providing better working and living conditions and opportunities for in-service training.

Frase's work content and work context factors

Frase (1992) argues that people's performance is affected by content and the context factors.

Work context factors include factors such as the size of class, school safety, and disciplinary conditions. .

Work content factors are related to professional development, recognition, challenging work, empowerment, success and authority.

Capacities beliefs

Capacity beliefs include psychological states such as self-efficacy, self-confidence, self-concept, and self-esteem (Leithwood et al., 2002). Goddard (2000) observed that perceived self-efficacy increases the intrinsic value of effort and contributes to a sense of collective efficacy on the part of a group as well.

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Teacher Support and Motivation Framework for Africa: Emerging Patterns

Well qualified and well-motivated teachers are essential to meeting the 2030 Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) and the African Union's Continental Strategy for Education (CESA 2016-2025).

A comprehensive understanding of teacher motivation and how African countries might work holistically to support teachers in different contexts to raise morale, improve teaching quality and raise learning outcomes is critical.

As part of developing a Teacher Support and Motivation Framework (TSMF) for Africa, this UNESCO-IICBA publication provides a comprehensive synthesis of research, literature, policy and practice on teacher motivation on the continent. It covers the extrinsic and intrinsic factors impacting on teacher's motivation, the unique challenges facing teachers in rural, remote and crisis affected areas, and the contextual and systemic obstacles faced by female teachers.

