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Assessment of Teacher Motivation Approaches in the Less Developed Countries

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Abstract
Motivation is an internal process that makes a person move toward a goal. Therefore, this paper examines both traditional and new approaches to teacher motivation, threats to teacher motivation and measures for shaping teacher motivation. The paper concludes that intrinsic rewards such as self-respect, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment as well as participatory school improvement, comprehensive staff development and supportive teacher evaluation hold great promise for improving teachers' professional motivation.
Keywords: Teacher Motivation, Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation

Introduction
It is generally assumed that motivation influences people's attitude and performance at work. Teacher motivation is directly linked to the instructors' desire to take part in the pedagogical process and interest in sharing their knowledge with the students. It determines their involvement or non-involvement in the teaching activities. Teachers put educational philosophy and objective into their knowledge they transfer to their students. Teachers are the most important factor in a generation's education process, so it is important that they perform to the best of their abilities in the educational activity. Each country's authorities must pay attention to the factors that affect teachers' performance which has a direct effect on students' performance. Teachers' motivation is influenced by a myriad of factors, including compensation, success in the classroom, their dedication to the profession, the training they receive and the prospect of promotion and career advancement.

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs proposes that individuals must fulfill their lower-order needs (basic needs such as water and housing, safety, belonging, and esteem) before being motivated to fulfill the higher-order need for self-actualization. In the context of teaching, self-actualization can be understood as personal achievement, a key component of teacher motivation. As basic needs often go neglected in the developing world, Maslow's theory is pertinent to an investigation of teacher motivation in developing countries.

While the fulfillment of basic needs is important to lay the foundation for teachers to desire to improve their professional behavior and personal achievement, other theories indicate that satisfaction of basic needs in and of itself functions as a mere extrinsic, or external, incentive. According to Benabou and Tirole (2000), extrinsic incentives are only weak reinforcers of motivation in the short run and negative reinforcers in the long run. In terms of work motivation, Herzberg (1966 cited in Chapman, 2003) finds that achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement are more effective long-run motivators than interpersonal relations, working conditions, and pay. For teachers, Chapman (2003) note that incentives are related to teacher job satisfaction, but not to teacher classroom practices. Thus, it appears that while teachers need housing, food, safety, belonging, etc. in order to be professionally motivated, the provision of these needs past a baseline requirement is not a sustainable driver of teacher motivation. Instead, teachers need supports that encourage their intrinsic, or internal, motivation; such as achievement, recognition, and career development. The relationship between, and relative effectiveness of, extrinsic versus intrinsic incentives is an important issue for teacher motivation in the developing world, where material resources to motivate teachers through extrinsic means are often very scarce to begin with.

Specific goals, teacher voice, and self-efficacy may be a further source of intrinsic motivation for teachers. Locke (1966 cited in Johnson, 2006) finds that goals that are specific, challenging, formed through employee participation and reinforced by feedback are those that most motivate employees. In the developing world, goals are often not so clearly defined and usually not determined in a participatory process incorporating teacher feedback. In terms of self- efficacy, or one's belief in their ability to realize goals, Bandura's (1966) social cognitive theory holds that self-efficacy is an important determinant of motivation. According to Bandura, self-efficacy is a product of four components: physiological and emotional well-being, verbal encouragement from others, learning from one's own experience, and learning from others' experiences. These four components of self-efficacy are strongly related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the interplay between extrinsic versus intrinsic sources of motivation as discussed above.

Against this largely theoretical backdrop, empirical studies of teacher motivation in developing countries paint a dismal picture of generally low or declining levels of motivation among formal public school teachers. However, the situation of course varies from country to country. Some countries may face particular threats to teacher motivation while other countries face different or no threats. For example, Michaelowa (2002) finds that in Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Madagascar, and Senegal; more than 50% of fifth grade teachers seem to prefer teaching to any other profession, and over 40% like their schools and do not want to change, indicating that teacher motivation may not be so bad in those countries. Ethiopia and Nigeria on the other hand, exhibit nearly all of the causes and symptoms of low teacher motivation. Therefore, the thrust of this paper is to unveil both traditional and new approaches to teacher motivation, identifying threats to teacher motivation and provide measures for shaping teacher motivation.

Traditional Approaches Teacher Motivation

Traditional incentive plans designed to recruit, reward, and retain teachers include: Merit pay and career ladders were intended to provide financial incentives, varied work, and advancement opportunities for seasoned teachers. These, along with across-the-board pay raises, work environment premiums for difficult assignments, and grants or sabbaticals for research and study, were expected to improve teacher performance and motivation. According to Johnson (2006), measures developed to boost teacher motivation are based on three theories of motivation and productivity:

1. Expectancy theory. Individuals are more likely to strive in their work if there is an anticipated reward that they value, such as a bonus or a promotion, than if there is none.
2. Equity theory. Individuals are dissatisfied if they are not justly compensated for their efforts and accomplishments.
3. Job enrichment theory. Workers are more productive when their work is varied and challenging.

The first two theories are justification for merit pay and career ladders, and the third suggests differentiated staffing, use of organizational incentives, and reform-oriented staff development.

Merit Pay: The idea of merit pay has a straightforward appeal: it provides financial rewards for meeting established goals and standards. The concern is that merit pay plans may encourage teachers to adjust their teaching down to the program goals, setting their sights no higher than the standards (Coltham 2002). Odden and Kelley (1999) reviewed recent research and experience and concluded that individual merit and incentive pay programs do not work and, in fact, are often detrimental. A number of studies have suggested that merit pay plans often divide faculties, set teachers against their administrators, are plagued by inadequate evaluation methods, and may be inappropriate for organizations such as schools that require cooperative, collaborative work.

Differentiated Staffing and Career Ladders: While merit pay plans attempt to reward excellent teacher performance with increased financial compensation, career ladders such as mentor teacher and master teacher programs and differentiated staffing reforms are designed to enrich work and enlarge teachers' responsibilities. However, many of these programs have faltered for largely the same reasons that merit pay plans have failed - unanticipated costs, teacher opposition, inadequate evaluation methods, and dissension (Freiberg, 2004).

New Dimensions to Teacher Motivation

Merit pay and other incentive policies gained legislative popularity largely because of their seeming simplicity. They were meant to provide external incentives - financial rewards, advancement opportunities, workplace variety - but did not adequately resolve the problem of teacher satisfaction.

Frase (2002) offers one reason why measures relying on external rewards have been insufficient. There is overwhelming research evidence, he says, that teachers enter teaching to help young people learn, that their most gratifying reward is accomplishing this goal, and that the work-related factors most important to teachers are those that allow them to practice their craft successfully. Frase identified two sets of factors that affect teachers' ability to perform effectively: work context factors (the teaching environment, and work content factors (teaching).

Work Context Factors: Work context factors are those that meet baseline needs. They include working conditions such as class size, discipline conditions, and availability of teaching materials; the quality of the principal's supervision; and basic psychological needs such as money, status, and security.

In general, context factors clear the road of the debris that block effective teaching. In adequate supply, these factors prevent dissatisfaction. Even the most intrinsically motivated teacher will become discouraged if the salary doesn't pay the mortgage. But these factors may not have an extended motivational effect or lead to

improved teaching. For example, a survey conducted by Michaeloma (2002) found that teacher compensation, including salary, benefits, and supplemental income, showed little relation to long-term satisfaction with teaching as a career. According to Frase (2002), content variables are the crucial factor in motivating teachers to high levels of performance.

Work Content Factors: Work content factors are intrinsic to the work itself. They include opportunities for professional development, recognition, challenging and varied work, increased responsibility, achievement, empowerment, and authority. Tudo-Craig (2002) argued that teachers who do not feel supported in these states are less motivated to do their best work in the classroom.

Duflo, Dupas and Kremer (2007) confirmed that staff recognition, parental support, teacher participation in school decision making, influence over school policy, and control in the classroom are the factors most strongly associated with teacher satisfaction. The study conducted by Finnigan and Gross (2007) concurred that most teachers need to have a sense of accomplishment in these sectors if they are to persevere and excel in the difficult work of teaching.

Ginsburg (2009) studied work content factors in a questionnaire administered to 75 secondary school teachers. They identified three major areas that relate to teachers' job satisfaction.

i. Feedback is the factor most strongly related to job satisfaction, yet teachers typically receive very little accurate and helpful feedback regarding their teaching.

ii. Autonomy is strongly related to job satisfaction for many, but not all, teachers. Autonomy is not necessarily defined as freedom from interference in the classroom; rather, the majority of teachers view autonomy as freedom to develop collegial relationships to accomplish tasks.

iii. Collegiality is also important for teachers. Collegiality can be expressed through experiencing challenging and stimulating work, creating school improvement plans, and leading curriculum development groups.

Threats to Teacher Motivation in the Developing World

Colthan (2002) and Michaeloma (2002) studies on teacher motivation in developing countries indicates widespread low or decreasing levels of motivation, resulting in lower quality of education. For example, sizeable percentages of primary school teachers are poorly motivated in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. The documented causes of low teacher motivation, what this report referred to as threats to teacher motivation can be divided into eight interconnected categories:

1. Workload and Challenges: There are increasing classroom challenges and demands placed on teachers, but the following seven motivational supports teachers need to face these challenges and demands are decreasing or stagnant.

2. Remuneration and Incentives: Teacher salaries are generally low and irregularly paid.

3. Recognition and Prestige: Social respect for teachers has fallen in many countries.

4. Accountability: Teachers often face weak accountability with little support.

5. Career Development: Teaching is frequently a second-choice job with few. opportunities for professional development.

6. Institutional Environment: Teachers face unclear and constantly changing policies as well as poor management.

7. Voice: Teachers rarely have an opportunity for input into school management and ministry policy.

8. Learning Materials and Facilities: Teachers have few or poor learning materials and poor facilities

The first category, workload, serves as the backdrop against which the seven remaining categories operate. These seven categories are motivational supports which give teachers the energy, incentives, purpose, etc. to tackle their workloads with sincere effort and professionalism. The seven motivational supports are divided into two types. Those motivational supports that are largely extrinsic, concerning teachers, external conditions and material incentives. And those motivational supports that are largely intrinsic, effecting teachers' internal feelings of esteem, achievement, and purpose.

Workload and Challenges: Teachers facing heavy workloads need sufficient motivational supports in order to sustain their effort and professional conduct on the job. If teachers' workload is greater than teachers' motivational supports, teacher motivation is threatened. Expanding access to education for all, as many countries are attempting, increases the workload and challenges faced by teachers. Education for all, combined with population growth, often requires remote deployment of teachers, large class sizes, multiple teaching shifts, or multiple grade levels within a single class. Michaelowa (2002) finds that these challenges are negatively correlated with teacher job satisfaction and positively correlated to absenteeism in Africa. Furthermore, due to political influence and irrational policies, it is the least qualified teachers who are most often sent to the most challenging and neediest schools – frequently those located in rural areas (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). In

addition, safety and cultural traditions can severely undermine the motivation of female teachers to work on rural or remote areas. Living far from school can also contribute to absenteeism.

In many developing countries, teachers are increasingly asked to perform a greater range of duties, including health education, distributing food, giving immunizations, taking census data, and organizing community development activities. If not properly compensated, these sorts of demands on teachers can decrease their motivation (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005).

Other de-motivating challenges include teaching students of a lower social class and recent regulations banning student corporal punishment (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005). Finally, not only does a heavy workload negatively impact teachers' effort, it also makes teachers resistant to applying new teaching methods.

Remuneration and Incentives (Largely Extrinsic): The broad consensus among occupational psychologists in developed country contexts is that pay on its own does not increase motivation. However, pecuniary motives are likely to be dominant among teachers in those LDCs where pay and other material benefits are too low for individual and household survival needs to be met. Only when these basic needs have been met is it possible for higher-order needs, which are the basis of true job satisfaction, to be realised." (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Teacher salaries are generally low, especially in Africa. Corresponding to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, lack of a living wage can undermine the foundation of basic need fulfillment teachers require before they can focus on improving their work. When teachers do not have enough money to live, they often resort to secondary employment activities, which can undermine their motivation to perform in their primary job and lead to increased absenteeism. One such secondary employment activity, private tutoring, can be especially harmful to students' achievement, or at least the distribution of students' achievement, when teachers cut back on teaching part of the curriculum in school in order to generate demand for their tutoring services out of school.

Besides resorting to secondary employment, teachers who earn poverty wages are often unable to eat properly before coming to school. Furthermore, it is difficult to motivate qualified teachers to work in the neediest schools and in rural areas without sufficient material incentives. Low pay also alters the profile of those who are most motivated to become teachers, as the opportunity cost of joining the poorly-paid teaching force is lowest for the unskilled, inexperienced, women, and those from rural areas (Umansky & Vegas, 2007).

However, beyond a reasonable salary, there is little evidence that further pay increases motivate teachers. Michaelowa (2002) does not find a salary structure to be an obvious determinant of teacher job satisfaction. If teachers are able to support themselves and their families, how teachers are paid may be more important than how much they are paid. Teachers are more motivated when they are paid on time, when retrieving their pay is easy, and sometimes through performance bonus-pay schemes. In terms of bonus pay, Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2009) find that individual and group performance pay schemes significantly increased test scores in India through encouraging greater effort among teachers.

Recognition and Prestige (Largely Intrinsic): In many developing countries teaching has historically enjoyed a large degree of prestige. Today, however, many teachers feel the respect for their profession is decreasing – in the eyes of students, parents, government, and the larger society. Low salaries play a role, but so does the assignment of administrative or menial tasks; lower standards of teaching; increasing demands on schools from communities; and the creation of large groups of unqualified or even female teachers (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

On the other side, the status of volunteer or community teachers appears to motivate those types of teachers to perform more so than formal or civil-servant teachers. In addition, sometimes teachers may simply not have a good relationship with the community surrounding their school, and this can be especially true in hierarchical societies with large gaps between teachers and the students and community (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005). Lack of prestige from low remuneration and low autonomy in planning and teaching, has been associated with private tutoring (Popa & Acedo, 2006) an activity where teachers often enjoy more professional status, self-esteem, and better pay. Many teachers feel that another way to increase societal respect for teaching is to improve the public image of their profession by making the public more aware of the actual conditions they face (Tudor-Craig 2002).

Accountability (Largely Extrinsic): Teachers' accountability is generally weak where there is low remuneration. Systematic controls are inadequate, and teachers are rarely inspected and difficult to discipline. When salaries are deposited to banks, head-teachers cannot withhold them from poorly performing teachers and face lengthy and ineffective alternate means of sanctioning them. Furthermore, teacher pay and promotion is rarely linked to performance. When teachers are inspected, the process is often purely supervisory with little support or advice for how teachers can improve their performance. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) highlighted the need for greater accountability in order to rein in unprofessional teacher behavior in schools. Duflo, Dupas, and Kremer (2007) find that increased accountability can function as a strong complement to other methods of

improving teacher motivation. However, combining class size reduction with improved accountability (by hiring local teachers on short term contract or by increasing parental oversight) produced larger test score increases than reduced class size alone.

However, accountability that is too harsh or not complemented with support can just as readily damage teacher motivation. A large number of inspector visits or large degree of parental oversight decreases teacher job satisfaction, although these measures also increase student achievement and decrease teacher absenteeism (Michaelowa 2002). Finnigan and Gross (2007) warn against the de-motivating consequences of continually sanctioning of poorly performing teachers or schools without simultaneously providing support for those teachers or schools to improve their performance.

Career Development (Largely Intrinsic): While teachers may dislike external controls on their teaching decisions and behavior, nearly all teachers appreciate external professional support. To improve teacher motivation, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) highlighted the need for more attractive career structures and more opportunities for teacher professional development. In-service training in particular can increase teacher morale, especially when combined with mentoring and observation, and lead to improved students' outcomes (Ginsburg, 2009). Teachers do appear to be confident in their own abilities, but feel they need the external support, tools, and training to allow them to excel in their work, and opportunity to progress up the career ladder. Professional development also enhances teacher motivation through an important and related channel: observed students' achievement. Teacher job satisfaction has been found to be correlated with high-performing students (Michaelowa, 2002), and teachers in a variety of developing countries have been seen to become more motivated when witnessing their effort pay off in the form of improved students' performance. Namely, coaching teachers to set expectations for students, better manage the classroom, and apply new teaching methods can be very effective in motivating teachers (Mendez, 2011).

Unfortunately, conditions surrounding career development often undermine teacher motivation. Teachers are often recruited from lower-performing academic tracks in the education system; and this not only contributes to a view of teaching as a lower-skilled profession, but also makes teaching a job of last resort for the skilled – and an attractive option for the untalented. Michaelowa (2002) finds that teachers with the highest educational attainment are the least satisfied with their job, indicating that their preparation is mismatched with the reality of their work. When committed, skilled teachers do enter the system, they face few opportunities for promotion and only infrequent, low-quality training that fails to give teachers the tools to overcome their classroom challenges (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005). Teachers often rely on and value the opportunity to network with other teachers, and even the chance to progress up the career ladder to become formal mentors to other teachers, but these opportunities are scarce.

Because criteria for advancement are primarily based on qualifications and years of service, both good and bad teachers are promoted together, further undermining motivation. Teachers often see their work in the classroom as a stepping stone, and desire to move on either to school administration or another profession entirely. However, the current system provides few opportunities for advancement either within or outside of the classroom (Fanfani, 2004). When teachers do pursue their post-classroom ambitions, their independent study to increase their qualifications can lead to increased absenteeism.

Institutional Environment (Largely Extrinsic): Education policies are often unclear or subject to corruption or nepotism. Teachers prefer meritocratic promotion, deployment, and pay; but instead politics and patronage networks usually dominate and thus undercut teacher motivation. Teachers have a strong sense of equality, and become de-motivated when they see other teachers (frequently math, science, and language teachers) receive what they perceive to be special treatment (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005). With increased reform, teachers face constantly changing policies, which can confuse and de-motivate. In addition, constant transfers mean that teachers are often unable to teach in the same school long enough to witness the change in students' achievement resulting from their efforts.

Voice (Largely Intrinsic): Teachers often operate in very hierarchical and authoritarian systems, with limited opportunities for participation and delegation of responsibilities. Teacher perspectives and needs are rarely considered in education policymaking or project design. Teachers are often seen as passive implementers or technical inputs rather than partners in reform. Teacher motivation in many countries is positively related to greater voice in decision-making. In some places, teachers find expression in unions. In Africa for example, Union membership increases job satisfaction (Michaelowa, 2002). However, unionization also carries risks. Even when teachers want to teach, they may be pressured by unions to strike, which interrupts their teaching and serves as a source of de-motivation.

Learning Materials and Facilities (Largely Extrinsic): Teachers increasingly have to do more with less a

small number of textbooks and other learning materials are spread thin over many students, while physical infrastructure is poorly constructed or maintained. In Africa, Michaelowa (2002) finds that adequate provision of textbooks can improve teacher job satisfaction and increase student test scores. In fact, she concludes that textbooks are the single most important determinant of whether or not a teacher desired to transfer schools, a proxy for job satisfaction. Teachers are de-motivated by the fact that the school syllabus assumes that teachers have access to learning materials when in reality such materials are scarce.

Basic amenities such as water and electricity are also very important for teacher job satisfaction and motivation. For example, sanitary facilities are especially important to motivate female teachers to work at a given school (Ramachandran & Pal, 2005). Other problems include slow textbook development; restricted space; nonexistent or under-resourced libraries, labs, etc. However, like pay, learning materials and facilities are merely a necessary but insufficient factor in teacher motivation; and once these needs are met only then can intrinsic factors such as recognition, career development, and voice have a deeper impact on motivating teachers.

Measures of Shaping Teacher Motivation

School Reform: Since the goal of current school reform efforts is to improve student achievement, these efforts are well-aligned with the primary motivator of teachers - the power to help children learn.

Zemmelman, Daniels, and Hyde (2003) write that teachers' attitudes are crucial to the success of in-depth curricular innovation. Moreover, the beneficial effort of teachers' attitudes on education reform is reciprocal. Freiberg (2004) showed that when principals effectively used shared governance strategies and participatory management, teachers feel energized and motivated and their sense of ownership and empowerment increases. Well-implemented school improvement plans can increase collegiality and give teachers the satisfaction to committing themselves to school improvement goals. Some practitioners believe that such rewards may be more effective in motivating teachers and improving teaching practices than individual, extrinsic rewards.

However, Frase and Sorenson (2002) caution that not every teacher will respond positively to educational reform approaches. Autonomy for one may be isolation for another; one teacher may welcome feedback, another may see it as infringement on his or her professionalism; and while one may welcome collaboration, another may see it as stressful imposition. Opportunities for participatory management must be differentiated for each teacher.

Professional Development: The interrelation of teacher motivation and school reform efforts has also been addressed through the issue of staff development. Traditionally, staff development has meant encouraging teachers to enhance pedagogical skills and knowledge of subject matter through advanced academic study at the graduate level; providing funding for conferences and workshops; and developing other training opportunities, including in-service programs. However, many leading school reformers have called for new forms of professional development. Lieberman (1999) argues for a "radical rethinking" of professional development that encourages teachers' growth. She believes that teachers must have opportunities to try out new practices by taking new roles and creating a culture of inquiry.

Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (2005) suggest that staff development also means providing occasions for teachers to reflect critically on their practice and to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy, and learners. Monahan (1999) describes a new concept, Comprehensive Professional Development (CPD), that focuses on strategies for facilitating teacher growth through professional dialogue with colleagues, collaborative curriculum development, peer supervision, peer coaching, and action research leading to school-wide change. Unfortunately, he reports, principals and teachers still regard CPD like activities for continuing professional development to be less important than traditional methods. Monahan suggests embedding strategies like collaborative curriculum design, peer supervision/review, and portfolio analysis within the tenure review process, and providing incentives such as increased preparation time for peer collaboration and resources for action research.

Problem-Based School Development (PBSD) is an approach that takes staff development and school form to the next level by creating a professional community capable of sustaining long term educational reform (Clarke, 1999). PBSD consists of teams that consider problems, search for new information, and organize local inquiry projects in their respective schools. The drive to develop and test solutions to real problems makes PBSD an authentic learning experience, managed by independent team of teachers who teach themselves by working together.

Even traditional staff development models such as workshops can be motivational if they give teachers control by asking them to set their own agenda at the beginning of a meeting or in-service, asking for their analysis of problems in the school or in children's learning, and respecting their answers. Many teachers respond with great energy when they are immersed in new perspectives on their own teaching and learning abilities and provided with opportunities to express themselves honestly.

Umansky and Vegas (2007) offers several recommendations for establishing professional development programs that result in teacher growth and motivation.

1. Find the time to build professional development into the life of schools. Reorganize the school day to enable teachers to work together as well as individually, both daily and weekly, and throughout the year. Redefine the teaching job to include blocks of extended time for teachers' professional development.

2. Help teachers to assume responsibility for their own professional development, based on an analysis of the needs of students in their own schools. Professional development goals, standards for student learning, and standards for professional practice should be decided locally by the school community of teachers, administrators, and parents. In addition, teachers and administrators should collaborate in each inspectorate division to create peer assistance and review to nurture the practice of all teachers.

3. Work with the community to provide high-quality professional development. At the local level, parents, business, and the community should continue to help schools set the vision for students' success and support teachers' learning. Teachers' organizations should collaborate with districts to invite local leaders to join in conducting an inventory of available local resources and institutions for teachers' professional growth, including higher education, business, cultural groups, and other relevant agencies.

Induction and Support of New Teachers: New teachers enter the profession for intrinsic rewards, but the negative effect of extrinsic conditions may overwhelm them. They face new and difficult challenges: classroom management and discipline, adjustment to the physical demands of teaching, managing instructional tasks, and sacrificing leisure time. Without proper support and aid, a new teacher's problems can grow worse.

Key ideas for supporting new teachers include:

a. Relocation and acclimation assistance can help the new teacher with locating housing, can share information about the community, and can introduce the recruit to other new teachers.

b. Mentor/buddy teachers break the isolation, show the new teacher the ropes and help them reflect on a day's experience and redirect efforts for next day. In addition, these experienced teachers can transmit instructional, planning, and/or management skills the novices lack skills that can help new teachers grow professionally as they adjust to the realities of teaching. In addition, the mentor teachers themselves gain the satisfaction of sharing their knowledge and experience and helping their new colleagues grow professionally.

Teacher Evaluation: Recognition and feedback have been cited as important motivators for teachers, so it would seem that evaluation is an obvious vehicle for using these incentives to direct the teachers on the path towards professional growth and improvement. However, the most common practices in evaluation are limited in their capacity to improve teaching, and chiefly serve as monitors of minimal competency for retention.

Peterson (2005) calls for a new direction in teacher evaluation that will bring better results more allied to the goals of comprehensive professional development and the goals of education reform:

1. Emphasize the function of teacher evaluation to seek out, document, and acknowledge the good teaching that already exists.

2. Place the teacher at the center of the evaluation activity. Ask the teacher to consider his or her duties, responsibilities, contributions and outcomes, and direct the evaluation from that point.

3. Use multiple and variable sources, such as student and parent surveys, peer review of materials, logs of professional activity, and pupil test-score data.

4. Use the results of a teacher evaluation to encourage personal professional dossiers, publicize aggregated results, and support teacher promotion systems.

Conclusion

Discovering what matters to teachers and how best to motivate them for sustained and improved performance is a complicated challenge. Extrinsic rewards that have been tried in the past have generally not produced the desired results. Research and experience show that teachers are most likely to value intrinsic rewards such as self-respect, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment. It should be noted that new directions in participatory school improvement, comprehensive and meaningful staff development, and supportive teacher evaluation hold great promise for improving teachers' professional motivation.

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