CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the present chapter some of the important studies concerning teacher motivation, teacher self-regulation and teacher self-empowerment have been reported with a view to get acquainted with (i) reports of the study, closely related to problems that have been investigated, (ii) design of the study, including procedure employed and data gathering instruments used, (iii) population that were sampled and sampling methods employed, (iv) variables that were defined, (v) faults that could have avoided and (vi) recommendations for further research. This brief review of existing literature has provided the framework for the research study. These studies were available in some standard survey of research in education, journals, e-journals, encyclopedia of educational research etc.

Review of related literature had two phases; the first phase included identifying all the relevant published / unpublished material. The above phase was accomplished by consulting different sources of review of related literature. The second phase of the review of related literature involved writing this foundation of ideas into a systematic and organized form. This phase of review of selected literature helped the researcher to present the available related study under the following heads:

(1) Review of Related Studies on Teacher Empowerment; (2) Review of Related Studies on Teacher Motivation; (3) Review of Related Studies on Teacher Self-Regulation.
2.2 REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES ON TEACHER EMPOWERMENT:

The research studies on teacher empowerment have been divided under two subheadings:

(A) Teacher Empowerment at School and Administrative Level and (B) Teacher Empowerment at Teacher Level (Self-Empowerment):

(A) School and Administrative Level Empowerment:

Martin (1990) studied, “… teachers’ perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors in relationship to gaining pedagogical confidence and power”. She developed two instruments. The first was to measure teachers’ perceptions of the leadership behaviors of the supervisors. This instrument had three dimensions:

1. Interpersonal behaviors to Remove Boundaries – the ability to non-verbally and verbally communicate belief, trust, and confidence in teacher efficacy, knowledge / skills, decision making.

2. Responsive Motivational Builders – the ability to give direct and indirect feedback in non-threatening manner.


The second instrument was designed to measure teacher empowerment on three dimensions:

1. Teacher Efficacy – a teacher’s belief that he / she has the knowledge / skills to affect the student learning when power is entrusted.

2. Leadership Efficacy – a teacher’s perception that he / she has the ability to function as leader when the responsibility is entrusted.
3. Decision-making Efficacy – a teacher’s perception of his / her ability to make instrumental decisions in relationship to expected outcomes.

Martin surveyed 81 teachers from five rural counties in middle Tennessee. She found that the respondents preferred principals to supervise as instructional leaders; they were moderately satisfied with principals’ behaviors with regard to teacher empowerment. The more that supervisors concentrated on collegial relationship, the more teachers perceive them as professional mentors. Supportive behavior by the principal tended to influence 1) leadership efficacy (r = .71) and 2) shared pedagogical concerns (r = .73). When principals were perceived to have instructional knowledge, teachers tended to discuss their instructional difficulties.

Decision making was the single definition of teacher empowerment in a study by Moore and Esselman (1992). Surveying 1,802 Kansas City (Missouri) teachers, they explored the relationship between 1) teacher efficacy, 2) empowerment, 3) focused instructional climate, and 4) student achievement. Teacher empowerment was defined in this study as the perceived influence of teachers in important decision-making activities. This decision-making was explored on two dimensions: classroom-based and school-based. They found that teachers’ perception of empowerment was dependent upon their influence in school based decision-making (i.e., 40% of the variance measured empowerment was accounted for this factor). They found that providing teachers with greater decision-making authority may well have improved teacher work conditions and self-image, but there was little evidence that these efforts improved student achievement when grade levels, school levels, and test content vary.
Short, Paula M. and Rinehart, James (1992) in their research examined the relationship between teachers’ perceptions of school climate and their perceptions of empowerment. 257 teachers, in 6 states from 8 schools, who participated in nation wide school empowerment projects completed questionnaires. Findings indicated that school climate, age, and experience were significant predictors of the dependent variable, empowerment. This suggests that greater empowerment may result in organizational conflict and lowered school climate. As teachers become empowered, they become more critical of school functioning and need organizational problem-solving skills and an awareness of group processes.

White (1992) conducted over one hundred personal interviews with teachers and administrators in three school districts in Montana, California, and Minnesota. These districts were undergoing restructuring with an emphasis on decentralization of authority to teachers. She found that teachers who indicated the highest degree of involvement in school decision making also perceived the most benefits of decentralization. This correlation between degree of involvement by teachers and perceived benefits indicated the importance of involving teachers to the highest degree possible. Teachers’ responses indicated that their input in school decision making had a direct relationship with how they perceived their jobs and themselves. Involvement in decision making increased teachers’ self-esteem and interest in teaching.

Bomotti, Sally, Ginsberg Rick and Cobb, Brian (1999) in their comparative research queried about teachers’ perceptions of their level of empowerment, school climate and working conditions of charter and traditional schools in Colorado. Using a cluster sampling design, approximately 100 teachers from 16 charter schools and 100 teachers
from seven traditional schools were surveyed by combining several well-established instruments to measure empowerment, school climate and working conditions. Factor analysis yielded three composite variables each for the three constructs. One-way analyses of variance were used to explore these teachers’ differences in perceptions. Results yielded consistent and practically significant differences in these charter and traditional school perceptions of empowerment, school climate and working conditions. Not all of these differences, however, were consistent with expectations given the educational and legislative contexts driving Colorado’s charter school movement. Implications and recommendations for future research were given.

Millet, Marcial J (2005) in his research stated that in recent years, there has been a decided nationwide trend for teachers to leave the teaching profession early in their teaching concerns. As many as 33% of new hires leave teaching altogether in their first three years, and 46% leave within the first five years. The purpose of the current study was to identify which factors were predictive of whether or not new teachers would remain in the teaching profession. Participants included 102 male and female teachers from the Metropolitan Nashville Tennessee School System who had less than five years of classroom teaching experience. After receiving approval from the Tennessee State University Institutional Review Board and the Metropolitan Nashville Tennessee School System, teachers were recruited from elementary, middle and high schools in the Metropolitan Nashville Tennessee School System. Those teachers who were participated were given a survey packet, which included: (1) informed consent form, (2) demographic information instrument, (3) school participant empowerment scale, (4) teacher efficacy scale, (5) self-addressed stamped envelope. The hypotheses were that a number of
independent variables including: (1) teacher preparation (field experience), (2) self-efficacy, (3) empowerment (4) amount of support from administration, (5) effectiveness of mentors and support systems and (6) salary would be prediction of teacher retention. Results indicated that African-Americans and middle school teachers were not likely to leave the teaching profession. Results also indicated that regardless of race, sex or type of school setting, retention of new teachers in the Metropolitan Nashville Tennessee School System was significantly influenced by: effective mentoring, support from principal, school district and community, and the degree to which they perceived themselves as professionals (status). Additional analyses identified predictors of teacher retention by race, sex, and type of school settings.

Somech, Anit (2005) examined the relative effect of the directive leadership approach as compared with a participative leadership approach on school-staffs’ motivational mechanisms (empowerment and organizational commitment) and effectiveness (team-in-role performance and team innovation). Data, which were obtained through a survey, were collected from 140 teams selected from 140 different elementary schools in Northern Israel.

The results of the structural Equation Model indicated a positive relation between directive leadership and school-staff team in-role performance. In addition, organizational commitment served as a mediator in the directive leadership-performance leadership. With respect to participative leadership, the results indicated a positive relation between participative leadership and school-staff team innovation, and empowerment served as a mediator in the participative leadership innovation relationship.
These results suggested that managing tensions between directive and participative activities, bottom-up and top-down processes, and flexibility and discipline may provide a key to teachers’ high performance.

Joyce A Beckett, Anderson and Jackson L. Flanigan ( ) measured dimensions of shared decision making in each of thirty-seven South Carolina Associate/Partner Schools at the middle school level to determine if there was agreement between the perceptions of randomly selected teachers at the schools and the principals of those schools as to the utilization of shared decision making within their institutions. The Teacher Involvement and Participation Scale, Version 2 (TIPS 2) data were gathered from thirty-four middle level schools that were designated as Associate/Partner Schools. The population of the original schools was divided into two distinct groups: 37 principals and 1,812 certified full-time faculty members. Of this population, all thirty-seven principals were invited to respond and a restricted random sampling of the faculty members was surveyed. A total of four hundred instruments were sent to faculty members. The schools surveyed ranged in size from a faculty of 20 to a faculty of 107. The collection period ran six weeks with intermittent follow-up contacts to prompt response. The response rate was 62 percent for teachers (248 of 400) and 91.9 percent for principals (34 of 37). This research showed that shared decision making was being utilized in the Associate/Partner Schools that had made a commitment to do so. The implication is that the process still needs refinement. Perhaps these schools should analyze the process for themselves and strike a balance. Deciding which areas are appropriate for teachers' involvement would be the first step. The schools could decide that some decisions should
be left to the administration with the teachers acting as consultants-input versus consensus in some instances. As the teachers gain expertise, other areas of shared decision-making could be included.

(B) Teacher Level Empowerment (Self-Empowerment):

Ruscoe, Whitford & Eggiton, Esselman (1989) surveyed 1065 teachers and 85 administrative staff employed in professional development schools. Their survey included the measures of teacher efficacy and teacher empowerment. Efficacy was measured by assessing the respondents’ self-rating of their ability to increase student learning. Empowerment was defined in this study as, “…a measure to influence teachers had over curriculum decisions within their classrooms and teacher’s role in decision making beyond their classrooms”. Gender and school level differences emerged in the analysis of the data. The researcher found that women generally expressed a stronger sense of efficacy than men; elementary teachers expressed a stronger sense of efficacy than middle school teachers. Men generally expressed a greater sense of overall empowerment than did women, especially regarding decision making beyond the classroom. Respondents who expressed a strong sense of personal effectiveness as a teacher also expressed a strong sense of empowerment in terms of decision making both within and beyond the classroom.

Using structured interviews and qualitative methodology, Lichtenstein, McLaughlin and Knudsen (1991) gathered data from 30 high school mathematics teachers involved in the Los Angeles and San Francisco projects of the Urban Mathematics Collaboration (UMC). The researchers’ view of teacher empowerment was based on professional knowledge defined as “…knowledge of professional community, educational policy and
subject area” (p.5). They argued that teachers’ development of professionally relevant knowledge is necessary for genuine teacher empowerment. They reported that 1) subject matter knowledge provided a basis of collegiality, 2) breadth and depth of disciplinary knowledge provided the foundation of teachers’ authority, 3) disciplinary knowledge had direct relevance in policy decisions, that is, the more the teachers had about the subject the more they were able to influence school-wide decisions on curricula. Further, the teachers’ knowledge of their professional community expanded their notions of what was possible and helped them recognize their own expertise. This study presented a well-reasoned argument for emphasizing professional knowledge as a dimension of teacher empowerment.

Using the Teacher Empowerment Inventory (TEI) (Butler, Etheridge, James & Ellis), **Morris & Nunnery (1993)** surveyed 140 teachers in six schools in a professional development school collaborative to “…determine the extent to which Memphis State University’s (MSU) Professional Development Schools (PDS) model influenced teachers’ perceptions of their empowerment along four dimensions”. The four items measured by the sixteen-item TEI were:

1. Mentoring Self-Efficacy: extent to which teachers feel empowered with respect to influence on entrance into the profession and training of new teachers.
3. Collegiality: extent to which teachers’ believe they work with and influence their peers in improving teaching and learning in their school.
The researcher found that teachers in the Professional Development schools felt that their participation in the program enhanced their empowerment on all of the above dimensions. African-American teachers had significantly higher scores than non-minority teachers on every scale of the teacher empowerment questionnaire. Thirty-six percent of the respondents were African-American; 89 percent were female. Interestingly, decision making was not a dimension of teacher empowerment in this study.

Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E (1996) conducted a study to identify and measure theoretical dimensions of teacher empowerment in 307 Venture capital schools in Ohio. Data were gathered from 4,091 classroom teachers working in 183 schools. Teacher empowerment was measured by School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES) which considers six dimensions: decision-making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy and impact. Teacher empowerment rated their overall sense of empowerment between the neutral point (3.00) and the “agree” (4.00) point of the 5-point rating scale. The three dimensions on which the teachers rated their empowerment between “agree” and “strongly agree” were status (4.07), professional growth (4.19), and self-efficacy (4.12). The data suggested that, overall, teachers perceived that they had status within their schools, that their schools provided opportunities for them to grow as professionals, and that they had the skills and ability to help students learn. Teachers were more neutral about whether they had opportunities to participate in decision-making, to interact with colleagues, and to make an impact beyond their classrooms. Findings suggested that: (1) professional development strategies to strengthen classroom teachers’ skills and knowledge should be designed as both pre-service and in-service programme; (2) teacher educators should help the classroom teachers build specific and
general skills for working with and within groups; (3) experience and skill-development in information gathering, information synthesis, group processes, and consensus building should be included in teacher education programmes; and (4) restructuring teams need to provide more opportunities for collaboration.

Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E (1996) identified and summarized dimensional definitions of teacher empowerment in school restructuring literature in order to enlarge the vision of Venture Capital School Planning teams and to suggest roles for classroom teachers that might otherwise have been overlooked. In the literature, conceptual continuum of teacher empowerment ranged from power handed down to classroom teachers through the school’s hierarchical structure (usually from the principal) to self-empowerment through professional growth and knowledge. A number of strategies for empowering teachers were examined, along with the results of several studies. The most frequently identified dimensions of empowerment was decision-making; others mentioned frequently were collegiality/collaboration, professional knowledge, self-efficacy, autonomy, and status of classroom teachers. Less frequently mentioned were authority, curriculum planning/design, impact/casual importance, leadership, mentoring, responsibility, and self-esteem. Study findings suggested that to participate in school restructuring, teacher must pursue knowledge beyond that of subject content and pedagogy. Their professional knowledge must include a thorough grounding in both the philosophy and processes of the change model adopted by their school.

Marks, Helen M. and Louis, Karen Seashore (1997) investigated teacher empowerment in schools that have at least four years of experience with some form of decentralized or school-based management. Based on the assumption that participation in
school decision making can enhance teachers' commitment, expertise, and, ultimately, student achievement, they hypothesized a positive relationship between empowerment and student performance through the linkages of school organization for instruction and pedagogical quality. The data they used to examine empowerment were drawn from a sample of 24 restructuring elementary, middle, and high schools-8 schools at each grade level. Most of the schools were urban, representing 16 states and 22 school districts. Data sources included teacher surveys, ratings of pedagogical quality, assessments of student academic performance, and case studies based on interviews and observations; the primary method of analysis is hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). The results suggested: (1) Overall, empowerment appears to be an important but not sufficient condition of obtaining real changes in teachers' ways of working and their instructional practices; (2) The effects of empowerment on classroom practice vary depending on the domain in which teacher influence is focused; (3) Teacher empowerment affects pedagogical quality and student academic performance indirectly through school organization for instruction.

Wall, Russell and Rinehart, James S (1997) investigated high school teachers' perceptions of empowerment in schools with and without school councils. The study investigated Kentucky high school teachers' perceptions of some dimensions of empowerment at various stages of school-council implementation. The Kentucky Education Reform Act mandated that schools could initiate school-based decision-making, and that all schools would have councils in place by 1996. Data were gathered through a survey that elicited responses from teachers in 93 out of 120 schools, an almost 80 percent response rate. Teachers' years of experience with councils served as the independent variable and six School Participation Empowerment Scale (SPES) subscales-
-decision-making, status, professional growth, self-efficacy, autonomy, and impact-were the dependent variables. Teachers in schools with councils (1, 2, or 3 years) reported more involvement in decision-making than did teachers in schools without councils. However, there were no significant differences for the remaining five dependent variables. The data have two implications: (1) Policymakers may be able to mandate a flattening of district systems with the intent to empower teachers; however, teachers may continue to perceive their role as carrying out orders; and (2) Teachers need to be motivated to contribute to the collective school effort.

Sweetland, S.R., and Hoy, W. K (2000) in their research explored the teacher empowerment in relation to school climate, school effectiveness and the students’ mathematics and reading achievements in schools. A sample of 86 New Jersy middle schools, which included responses from 2741 teachers, was used to test the hypotheses of this study. All the eight-grade students of the state were included to collect information regarding to the students’ mathematics and reading achievements in schools. The data suggested that teacher empowerment in classroom and instructional decisions can be an important factor enhancing organizational effectiveness and students’ performance. The result supported the theoretical assumptions that under gird it. First teacher empowerment is effective when it is aimed at enhancing teacher professionalism rather than bureaucratic control. Second, teacher empowerment is effective when it is authentic; that is when teachers have power and use it to make important classroom and instructional decisions. Third, the decisions to treat teacher empowerment as a dimensional rather than global concept was rewarded; the hypotheses were supported.
Teacher empowerment, however, was analyzed only in one domain: the area of instructional and classroom decisions as the researchers suspected that empowering teachers in managerial decisions is much less effective; in fact, it may impede student teaching and learning. Although there is some evidence that involvement in managerial decisions making burdens workers (Sirianni, 1987), its impact on students’ achievement in schools remains un-tested. It was the limitations of this study that the researcher examined only one domain of teacher empowerment, albeit the important one. Finally the researcher theorized and hypothesized that collective self-efficacy may be mechanism through which authentic teacher empowerment influences students’ performances.

**Scribner, Jay Paredes, D. Truell, Allen, R. Hager, Douglas and Srichai, Sonthana (2001)** examined the relationship between teacher empowerment and important demographic variables as they pertain to secondary career and technical education teachers. The two-fold purpose of the study was to (a) assess the level of empowerment among career and technical education teachers in one Midwestern state and (b) to determine if differences existed in the level of empowerment based on selected career and technical education teacher and school characteristics. Selected characteristics included teaching area, school location, gender, and level of education. Since the purpose of the study was to explore potential causal relationships by observing existing consequences while investigating potential causal factors, an ex-post facto design was used. The findings of this study of career and technical education teachers in one Midwestern state lend support to several conclusions. First, the level of empowerment for career and technical education teachers varied across the six subscales. Interestingly, the lowest subscale mean was decision-making, the subscale that explained the largest
amount of total variance by the developers of the instrument (Short & Rinehart, 1992). Second, there were statistically significant differences in the level of empowerment subscales among career and technical education teachers based on teaching area and education level. Third, it is important to note that no significant differences among any of the subscales according to gender or district type were found. Fourth, and also a limitation of the study, while the proportion of variance in empowerment was statistically significant in some analyses, the amount explained was so small as to be of questionable, practical significance.

All the findings from this study together, however, do provide evidence as to the degree to which career and technical education teachers feel empowered and the ways in which educational leaders such as superintendents and principals can foster empowerment in these teachers. It is important for school and district administrators (and other school leaders) to note that while the teachers in this study generally believed they were empowered as reflected in the subscales, decision-making was reported by teachers as the weakest dimension. This finding is important because many current reform efforts require teacher involvement in meaningful ways. If teacher perceptions of their involvement in critical school decisions are low, school reform efforts are often less likely to succeed. Accordingly, principals and superintendents would do well to foster a decision-making environment that includes all teachers, wherein increased decision making by teachers is not simply a goal, but is carefully integrated into the process of how things get done. Furthermore, characteristics associated with the content area in which one teaches appear to influence empowerment; if school improvement efforts are to be school-wide, the potential for different experiences across teaching areas should be considered.
This study also found that empowerment according to gender did differ in a statistically-significant way only in the interaction with the empowerment subscales. This finding is important because it suggests that overall both women and men experience empowerment similarly, but that gender appears to make a difference as to how teachers experience the different dimensions of empowerment, especially autonomy, in relation to the others.

This suggests that principals might consider stepping back from making work-related decisions and allowing teachers—specifically female teachers—more control in making said decisions (Short & Greer, 1993). The different experiences that some teachers have regarding autonomy also appear to be related to the rural location of the school district, suggesting that cultures in urban and suburban schools should provide greater freedom for teachers to make decisions regarding what and how they teach. Finally, the study supports the possibility that education level plays an important role in teachers' sense of empowerment. Thus, school leaders should take seriously the role that continuing professional development and specifically education plays in fostering teachers' sense of empowerment within the school, especially as that empowerment pertains to participation in critical school decisions. Together, these findings suggest the need to take a closer look at how school cultures surrounding teaching area influence the empowerment experienced by career and technical teachers, as teachers working together help effect school reform to produce positive changes for students.

Somech Anit and Bogler Ronit (2004) in their study focused on the relationship between teacher empowerment and teachers’ organizational commitment, professional commitment (PC) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). It examined which subscales of teacher empowerment can best predict these outcomes. The data were
collected through a questionnaire returned by a sample of 983 teachers in Israeli middle and high schools. Pearson correlations and multiple regression analyses indicated that teachers’ perceptions of their level of empowerment are significantly related to their feelings of commitment to the organization and to the profession, and to their OCBs. Among the six subscales of empowerment, professional growth, status and self-efficacy were significant predictors of organizational and professional commitment, while decision-making, self-efficacy, and status were significant predictors of OCB. Practical implications of the study are discussed in relation to teachers, principals and policy makers.

**Pearson L. Carolyn and Moomaw, William., (2005)** examined the relationship between teacher autonomy and on-the-job stress, work satisfaction, empowerment and professionalism. Using a reliable and valid measure of curriculum autonomy and general teaching autonomy (TAS), it was found that as curriculum autonomy increased on-the-job stress decreased, but there was little association between curriculum autonomy and job satisfaction. It was also demonstrated that as general teacher autonomy increased so did empowerment and professionalism. Also, as job satisfaction, perceived empowerment, and professionalism increased, on-the-job stress decreased, and greater job satisfaction was associated with high degree of professionalism and empowerment. The results of this study also indicated that autonomy did not differ across teaching level (elementary, middle, high-school).
2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION:

Research studies on teacher motivation are divided under three subheadings (A) Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation (B) Extrinsic Motivation, (C) Intrinsic Motivation.

(A) Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation:

The main objectives of the study conducted by Singh, B. (1980) were to construct and standardize a test of teacher’s motivation to work, (ii) to study the motivational level of teachers to work, (iii) to identify the work area-wise and the motivation level of teachers, and (iv) to investigate the factors affecting teachers’ motivation to work.

The sample consisted of 556 teachers selected randomly from certain selected secondary and higher secondary schools of Ajmer and Jaipur divisions. Out of 556 teachers, 217 had to support large families and the remaining 339 teachers had to support small families. There were 462 male and 94 female teachers in the sample. The investigator identified the broad areas of teachers’ work through discussions with teachers, headmasters, administrators, and the educationists. The areas of teachers’ work identified were: (i) classroom teaching, (ii) school organization and administration, (iii) evaluation and guidance, (iv) co-curricular activities, and (v) extra activities. The preliminary form of the job chart and appropriateness were discussed in a meeting of committee consisting of two educationists, two headmasters, one educational administrator, and two experienced teachers. The finally proposed job chart for the secondary and higher-secondary school teachers was also discussed with twenty-five headmasters and headmistresses of the sampled schools of Jaipur and Ajmer divisions. To discriminate between the motivated and the unmotivated behaviour suitable criterion was developed. Teachers’ bio-data were obtained affecting teachers’ motivation to work. The preliminary form of the test was
administered on 400 teachers. Item analysis was carried out to find out the highly discriminating items. The selection of the items for the final form of the test was made by giving the due representation to different work areas. The final form of the test was administered on 556 teachers. The total scores as well as the area-wise scores were counted for each teacher. Percentile norms of the test were established. Face validity of the test was judged by the experienced teachers, head masters, educational administrators, and educationists. Validity of the test was also found out against outside criterion. Correlation between the test scores and the rank scores was found to be .53. Reliability of the test was found out by computing the stability coefficient-correlation between the test scores of both testing was .70.

The purpose of the study of Wayne Pennington, Philip (1997) was to ascertain the relationship of principals’ leadership style and teacher motivation. Two questionnaires, the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, were administered to teachers of five randomly selected Middle Tennessee County Public secondary schools. The findings of the study revealed that significant relationship was found at .001 between teacher motivation and the perceived leadership style of the principal. Teacher motivation subscales, intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction, were negatively correlated to each of the two leadership subscales, initiating structure and consideration behaviour. Teachers in schools with principals who demonstrated low levels of initiating structure and consideration behaviour were negatively correlated with teachers who demonstrated high motivation in intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. The independent variable of gender indicated no significant difference between the groups in teachers’ intrinsic, extrinsic and general
satisfaction. The independent variable of age indicated no significant difference within the groups’ in teachers’ intrinsic and general satisfaction. However, there was a significant difference in the extrinsic subscales for the teachers aged 26 to 45, and 45 to 65 years. Only seven teachers aged 25 and under responded, and so was too small for valid comparison. The independent variable of length of teaching experience indicated no significant difference with groups in teachers’ intrinsic and general satisfaction. However, there was a significant difference in the extrinsic subscale, for teachers with 1 to 12 years experience and 13 to 18 years of experience. The independent variable of race indicated no significant difference between groups in teachers’ intrinsic and general satisfaction. However, there was a significant difference in the extrinsic subscale, particularly for Block teachers.

A policy research report, carried out and published by VSO (2002) was based on series of research studies conducted by the volunteers of the VSO between July 2001 and August 2002. The rationale of this report was that the policy analysis and dialogue on educational reform would benefit greatly from insight on teaching gained from the teachers themselves. VSO sought to gain such insight through research-based advocacy project, Valuing Teachers. The research explored from national teachers’ own perspectives critical factors influencing their motivation and identified the changes required in national and international policy, practice and process in order to enhance teachers’ motivation. A variety of techniques, including focus-group work, questionnaires, interviews and workshops was used to elicit the views of national teachers, volunteer teachers and other education stakeholders in three developing countries: Zambia, Papua New Guinea and Malawi. The project took as its starting point with the supposition that
teachers’ motivation had a significant impact on their performance and that teacher performance was one of the major factors influencing education quality, an assumption based on feedback from VSO volunteers and their colleagues, backed up by the desk-based research. In all the three countries, focus-group discussions and in-depth interviews were conducted with teachers, volunteers and school managers in schools where VSO had volunteer placement—mainly disadvantaged secondary schools. Education stakeholders, such as national officials, teacher unions, church missions, and education NGOs and coalitions, were consulted through semi-structured interviews and workshops. The findings of the research study expressed the first-hand views of teachers and educational professionals and capture the opinions of those directly affected by education policy. The main findings of the research were: (1) Teacher motivation is fragile and declining; (2) Teachers have low self-esteem in their professional role, and they feel that they are not respected by others; (3) Teachers’ performance in contributing to learning is strongly influenced by teacher motivation; (4) Teachers wish to be enable to perform well, which in turn influences their motivation; (5) Teacher motivation is critically ignored factor in education management and policy formulation at all levels: school, regional, national and international; (6) There is a strong link between teachers’ motivation and performance, and education quality, but improving teachers’ motivation is not uniformly prioritized as a major concern of national and international policy-makers; (7) Non-remuneration and administrative issues are almost as important as the actual level of remuneration teachers receive. Improving teachers’ motivation may not, therefore, be as difficult or expensive as it appears; (7) Policy-makers and other
stakeholders are aware of the problem of poor teacher motivation, but are not taking appropriate action either to seek teachers’ views or address their needs.

The aim of the research study conducted by Kusereka, Louis Garudzo (2003) was to determine the motivation levels of Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers and to identify and discuss the factors that influence their motivation so that management interventions could be designed to enhance teacher motivation. A qualitative research design, involving the descriptive sample survey method to collect data by means of self-administered structured questionnaire was adopted. The sample consisted of 175 rural secondary school teachers in Bikita district. The information was statistically analysed with the aid of computer after which it was interpreted. Results indicated that teachers were not highly motivated and satisfied with their jobs, and that their motivation was affected by several aspects of their work. Working conditions emerged as a primary demotivator while an interpersonal relation was a principal motivator. The data also showed that certain biographical variables affected teacher motivation significantly. Subsequent to these results recommendations to enhance teacher motivation were made.

Portelli, Maria Viviana (2004) in her study aimed to investigate motivation, job satisfaction, commitment and general health among 237 Maltese and Gozitan secondary school teachers. The sample was selected using random sample method and the data was collected using survey method. From this research, it resulted that the teachers were mostly extrinsically motivated, mainly attracted to teaching by the family commitment factor. A high percentage of teachers were found to be generally satisfied with their job. The most satisfying aspect of their work, were when their students achieved success in some way, the “official” working hours and when working with higher academic ability
pupils. Teachers stated that they spend the highest amount of their professional time on face-to-face teaching. Altruism and family factors rather than personal and career oriented factors were the items the teachers felt mostly committed to. To certain extent, the majority of the teachers did not have excessive stress symptoms, as it resulted, that the more satisfied teachers were with their job, the least likely to have any stress symptoms. Several significant main effects among demographic variables, when compared to the factors mentioned above. These findings were interpreted in the light of appropriate characteristics of the Maltese educational system. Limitations of the study, future research and intervention directions were also discussed.

Paynter, Jeanne L (2004) in her two-part study used a multi-dimensional framework of motivation to create a motivational profile of teachers: Study 1 consisted of the design and validation of an attitude survey to assess the strength and direction of the three dependent variables, teacher’s preference for extrinsic, intrinsic, and moral motivators. Study 2 tested the research hypotheses. The three independent variables in the casual-comparative design were teacher age, career stage, and school achievement level. The survey was administered to the elementary teachers in a stratified random school sample. Data were analysed using a special variation of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to identify significant interactions of the variables. The study results showed that the teachers have a significantly higher preference for moral motivators when compared to intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, and this profile persisted across all the groups. However, while the direction of teacher’s preference was similar, the motivation levels differed significantly according to age and career stage. Significant interactions of motivation preference and school achievement level suggest the need for further research,
and addressing the differences in motivation level among age and career stage groups can promote teachers’ professional growth across the career span.

**Ololube, Nwachukwu Prince (2007)** in his study assessed the differences and relationship between the levels of teacher’s job satisfaction, motivation and their teaching performance in Rivers State of Nigeria. A questionnaire titled ‘TEJOSAMOQ’ was used to collect data selecting 680 teachers randomly from 146 public secondary schools for the study. While the data for the study was analyzed using multiple statistical procedures: mean point of value, standard deviation, and variance, t-test of significance and One-way-analysis of variance (ANOVA). The survey results revealed that teacher related sources of job satisfaction seemed to have a greater impact on teaching performance, as teachers were also found to be dissatisfied with the educational policies and administration, pay and fringe benefits, and material awards.

**Belle, Louis Jinot (2007)** in his study focused on the factors that impact on teacher motivation in the Flacq district of Mauritius and on the role of the principal in enhancing teacher motivation. The main aim of this study was to investigate the role of the principal in motivating teachers. The research questions attempted in this study were: (i) What is meant by the concept, motivation? (ii) What factors motivate teachers to teach with inspiration? and (iii) What instructional leadership strategies may be employed by the principals to motivate the teachers? Qualitative research method was used in this study as the research questions in this research were descriptive and explanatory. The sample of this study consisted of five focus groups consisting of three teachers in each group (one focus group interview per school) and five principals from 14 secondary schools of the Flacq district of Mauritius. The sample was selected using non-probability sampling
technique. Semi-structured focus group and semi-structured individual interviews were utilized as data collection instruments to obtain in-depth insight into the leadership role of the principal and its impact on teacher motivation from the principal’s perspective and the teachers’ perceptions. The findings of the study showed that motivational factors pertained to the school-based personal and professional needs of the teacher. Factors that impacted on teacher motivation in the Flacq district were identified as: learners, discipline, instructional resources and materials, paperwork and workload, class size, a school’s physical working conditions, location of school, gender discrimination, parental involvement, teacher autonomy, collegiality, praise, recognition, feedback, and principalship. The instructional leadership role of the principal to motivate the teachers were identified as: managing school discipline, communicating school’s vision, missions and goals, managing resources and materials, supporting and empowering teachers, providing professional development and growth of teachers and monitoring instruction and curriculum implementation. The findings of the study showed that due to centralized school governance and instructional leadership tasks being delegated to the School Management Team, principals were not found to be effective teacher motivators. Recommendations related to transformational, disruptive and participative leadership strategies for optimal instructional principalship was given.

(B) **Extrinsic Motivation:**

McKinney, Pamela Anee (2000) in her study aimed to investigate the relationship among the awarding of career pay, teacher motivation, and student achievement. This study sought to answer the following questions: (i) Is there a difference in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of those teachers who receive career pay as opposed to those
teachers who do not receive career pay? and (ii) Is reading and mathematics achievement higher in teachers’ classes where teachers receive career pay than in classes where teachers do not receive career pay? The population of the study was approximately 188 teachers who receive career pay and who did not receive career pay of U.S. Southeastern school district. The sample of this study was 19 career and 19 non-career teachers with 10 students per teacher. The student population in classes with teachers who received career pay was approximately 475. The population for students of teachers who did not receive career pay was also approximately 475 students. Systematic sampling was used to obtain the sample of the students. A pre-test-post-test quasi experimental design was used to conduct this study. Student achievement was assessed using the California Achievement Test. Pretest and posttest gain scores were used to assess higher achievement in reading or mathematics for teachers who receive career pay as opposed to those teachers who did not receive career pay. A Teacher Motivation Questionnaire was used to assess intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of teachers. Specifically, the instrument was used to determine if teachers who received career pay were more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated than teachers who did not receive career pay. Data collected were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences using regression analysis, frequencies, reliability, and t-tests. The findings of the study revealed that teachers who received career pay were not more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated than teachers who did not receive career pay and the student achievement was not increased by the awarding of career pay.

Bush, Cheryl L. Mason., (2003) examined the extent to which a relationship existed between charter school teachers’ motivation to work and their perceptions of the leadership styles of their principals. Perceptions of 425 teachers working in 16 charter
schools that were affiliated with Charter Schools Administrative Services were examined regarding their views on their motivational levels and the principals’ leadership style. The charter school districts used in this study were located in urban and suburban areas surrounding Detroit, Pontiac and Flint. A total of 240 teachers participated in the study for the response rate of 56.5%. A non-experimental, descriptive study was used in this study. Three instruments, Profile of a school (POS; Likert, 1986), the Motivation Work Inventory (MWI; Hall & Williams, 2000) and short demographic survey were used as primary data collection tools for the study.

Mixed results were found regarding the extent to which a relationship existed between charter school teachers’ motivation to work and their perceptions of the leadership styles of their principals. Statistically significant, negative correlations were obtained between basic needs, school climate (decision-making, communication, goal commitment and coordination influence) and end results (educational excellence, job satisfaction), indicating that teachers who had higher scores for basic needs were more likely to have lower scores for school climate and end results. A statistically significant positive correlation was obtained for the relationship between self-actualization and end results, indicating that teacher who had higher scores for self-actualization tended to have more positive perceptions regarding school climate and the end results in their schools.

The aim of research study conducted by Ofoegbu, F.I., (2004) was to determine relationship of teacher motivation with classroom effectiveness and school improvement. Research questions – Would teacher motivation improve classroom effectiveness in Nigerian schools? and What specific teacher motivational factors would ascertain classroom effectiveness and improvement of Nigeria schools among male and female
teachers? were raised and answered. The sample consisted of 772 (10%) public primary and secondary school teachers selected through stratified random sampling technique from south eastern part of the country. Teacher Motivation Questionnaire (TMQ) was used to collect the data.

The result of the study revealed that 75.81% of secondary and 75.5% of primary school teachers indicated that motivation could enhance school effectiveness and improve the standards and quality of schools in Nigeria. Secondary teachers (86%) and primary teachers (84.5%) agreed that Teacher Motivation is the secret of classroom effectiveness and school improvement and 96.3% secondary teachers and 90.1% primary teachers respectively supported the notion that with motivation teachers would be more enthusiastic to control and discipline students. The analysis of data revealed that free education for children; leadership style and public image of teachers were rated low while regular payment of salary was rated highest among the other equally positive motivational factors. The result of the study confirmed the assumption that teacher motivation would enhance classroom effectiveness and improve schools. The data revealed that male teachers were as likely as female teachers, regardless of location or professional qualification to ascertain that teacher motivation would improve schools with regard to standard and quality of the school system, discipline and control of the students. Teachers would be adequately motivated if salaries were paid regularly, teaching and learning facilities were made available, and put in place, and provided with conducive working environment.

**Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame (2007)** in their international research project studied teacher motivation, and incentives in the two poorest regions of the world,
namely sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia where the greatest challenge remain with regard to Education for All (EFA). The research questions addressed in this study were: (1) To what extent is there a problem of poor motivation among teachers in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia? Does this amount to a ‘crisis’, as has been suggested by some observers?; (2) If so, what are the main reasons for poor motivation?; (3) How do poor motivation and incentives affect teacher performance and the overall effectiveness of national education systems? What should be done to ensure that teachers are adequately motivated? A total of 12 studies were undertaken in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa (Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, and Zambia) and South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan). National education researcher prepared each report under the supervision of the two project coordinators. The main source of information for this research project was the 12 country case studies. All the country case studies had three common components, namely a core set of 10-20 interviews with key education stakeholders, the collection of relevant documentation, and the analysis of statistical data relating to teacher motivation and incentives. In addition extended case studies were completed in six countries from twelve countries mentioned above, which entailed surveying 10-15 primary schools in two representative rural and urban clusters.

The most critical findings that emerged from this study was that very sizeable proportions of primary teachers, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, had low levels of job satisfaction and were poorly motivated. The unavoidable conclusion was that most schooling systems were faced with what amounted to a teacher motivation crisis, which had far reaching implications for the education Millennium Development Goals for basic education and
for development as a whole. Over one-third of all the teachers at the survey primary schools in five of the six extended case study countries indicated that teachers at their school are poorly or very poorly motivated. Motivation levels appeared to be chronically low in Ghana and Zambia. The evidence on motivation trend was more mixed. Stakeholder respondents in most countries usually identified the same negative and positive factors, but invariably reached different conclusions about the overall impact on teacher motivation. However, sizeable proportions of teacher respondents indicated that teachers at their schools were increasingly de-motivated. With respect to motivation patterns, it was commonly argued that working in rural schools was considerably more difficult and thus more de-motivating than in urban schools due to poor living and working conditions. However, the findings from the country studies showed that it was not the case in all the countries. Certainly, in South Asia countries, it appeared that teachers at rural schools felt disadvantaged. But, teachers who worked at schools in their home areas tended to have higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues who were strangers in the locality. In some countries, age was a key factor. In Tanzania, younger, better qualified teachers were quite heavily concentrated at urban schools and were generally less satisfied with their jobs than the older generation of teachers, who felt privileged to be a teacher. In all the case study countries, no sizeable differences existed between the motivation levels of qualified and unqualified teachers. Motivation levels also appeared to be generally higher among secondary school teachers in most of the case countries. This was evidenced by the fact that large proportions of primary school teachers in many countries (especially Ghana) wanted to upgrade their qualifications so that they could become secondary teachers. Private school teachers, were usually better
motivated than their colleagues in government schools, as result of higher pay, better working and living conditions, and more effective management. The study also explored the key determinants of teacher motivation in developing countries. Eight areas were delineated, namely teacher and school accountability, security and conflict, the policy environment, teacher competence, vocational commitment and occupational status, pay, working and living conditions, and teacher and system management.

(C) **Intrinsic Motivation:**

Motivating aspects and stress factors of teaching were identified by Farber, Barry A. (1982) in a study of public school teachers in suburban New York (state) and New Jersey schools. The sample consisted of 398 (30%) of teachers from the New York and New Jersey schools. The Motivation Questionnaire consisted of a 65-item and The Teacher Attitude Survey, adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory were administered to collect the data. The result revealed that the most satisfactory experiences of teachers were those that made them feel sensitive to and involved with their students and committed to and competent in their job. Relationship with their colleagues, families, and friends were also found important. Sources of stress were excessive paperwork, unsuccessful administrative meetings, and lack of advancement opportunities. Three major factors emerged as a result of factor analysis with varimax rotations: (1) general feeling of burnout; (2) commitment to the teaching profession; and (3) working closely with students. Few significant subgroup differences were apparent among teachers. The results of the survey were significant, although limited by the location of the schools, the representative nature of the sample, and the lack of longitudinal data.
Bishay, Andre (1996) measured the levels of job satisfaction and motivation by survey in a sample of 50 teachers in his research study. A sample of 12 teachers was then studied using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Teachers were randomly beeped by special pagers 5 times a day for 5 days and completed surveys on mood and activity on each beep, resulting in 190 reports of teachers’ daily experiences. Conventional survey data corresponded with ESM data. Job satisfaction and motivation correlated significantly with responsibility levels, gender, subject, age, years of teaching experience, and activity. For this group of teachers who work in a school with a selective student body, overall motivation and job satisfaction levels were high. Based upon the findings, it appeared that gratification of higher-order needs is important for job satisfaction.

de Jesus, Saul Neves and Lens, Willy., (2005) in their research study argued that recent study showed that teachers suffer more than other professional groups from the occupational lack of motivation and proposed that a global understanding of teacher motivation requires an adequate for its study. The main goal of their study was to propose and test a model of teacher motivation that could integrate constructs from several cognitive-motivational theories. This integrative model started from perspectives of Expectancy-Value and Learned Helplessness but overcame some of the limitations of each. The participants were 272 elementary and secondary teachers in Portugal. They responded to a series of inventories designed to measure their expectancies of control, success and efficacy, attributions, intrinsic motivation and perceived goal value levels, and how these interact to influence professional engagement (the model’s exogenous variable). Analyses of path coefficients and the variance of endogenous variables
supported the proposed integrated model and suggested strategies for teacher education that might increase teacher motivation.

Peretomode, V.F. (2007) examined three states of decisional participation as determinants of teacher motivation, job satisfaction and morale. 400 teachers randomly selected from the secondary schools in Warri South LGA of Nigeria, participated in the study. A questionnaire was used to collect data and the frequency, percentage and chi-square contingency table were used to analyze the data. The research questions were asked and three null hypotheses tested. The results showed that most teachers were not involved in decision-making as they would have otherwise preferred. Finally, the findings also revealed that teachers who were given the opportunity by their principals to participate in as many decisions as they desired were more motivated, satisfied and had high morale than those who were deprived or saturated in decision-making.

2.4 REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES ON TEACHER SELF-REGULATION

In a study conducted by Wah, CHOW (1996) two sets of psychological constructs were examined. The first set of psychological construct was goal orientation which were represented by Task Orientation, a belief that effort and outcome covary, and Ego Orientation, a belief that success is based on social comparison. The second set of psychological constructs was possible selves about Teaching as a Career, Teaching as an Experience, Successful Teaching, and Unsuccessful Teaching. In this study, it was hypothesized that both goal orientations and possible selves were related to the use of self-regulation strategies in teaching practice. A sample of 112 student teachers (42 males and 70 females) in the Hong Kong Institute of Education was recruited for this study. Their goal orientations, possible selves about teaching, and use of self-regulation
strategies in teaching practice were measured. Results of hierarchical regression analysis confirmed that goal orientations and possible selves together could explain 12% to 24% of the total variances of self-regulation variables. Interaction of goal orientations and possible selves on self-regulation was also examined by comparing correlations between goal orientations and self-regulation in schematic (with vivid possible selves) and aschematic (without vivid possible selves) groups of the four possible selves about Teaching as a Career, Teaching as an Experience, Successful Teaching, and Unsuccessful Teaching. Although none of the differences were significant at .05 significance level, the correlation coefficients between Task Orientation and Self-Regulation were found to be smaller in schematic groups of teaching as a Career and Successful Teaching but greater in aschematic groups of Teaching as an Experience and Unsuccessful Teaching. Correlations between Ego Orientation and self-regulation were greater in almost all schematic groups. These results showed that when student teachers have negative thinking in teaching, both Task Orientation and Ego Orientation will be important predictors of self-regulation, whereas when student teachers think positively in teaching, Ego Orientation counts more. According to this finding, ego orientation is not so negative as it is normally considered. It can be used to promote self-regulation in student teachers, whether they have positive or negative thinking and attitude of teaching.

Malmberg, Lars-Erik (2004) found out the relationship between goal-orientation and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation for teaching profession. The previous achievement and entrance scores was investigated among Finnish teacher applicants (Study1; N=230), and student teachers (Study 2; N=114) to find out the relationship between goal orientation and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Path analysis was utilized to find out the relationship
between goal orientation and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Findings of the study found following relationships: (a) mastery goal-orientation and intrinsic motivation, (b) performance and avoidance goal-orientation and extrinsic motivation, (c) previous achievement and performance goal-orientation, and (d) intrinsic motivation and entrance scores. In sum the findings demonstrated that goal-orientation was instrumental for long-term teacher motivation and that teacher motivation, in turn constituted a foundation for goal-orientation during teacher studies.

Aleksnadra, Luszczynska; Manfred, Diehl; Benicio, Gutierrez Dona; Patrik, Kuusinen & Ralf, Schwarzer (2004) in their study considered self-regulation as a dispositional variable that may be responsible for self-regulatory actions in broad range of situations. Attention control was considered a key component of self-regulation when individuals pursue their goals in face of barriers and setbacks. They developed the seven-item Self-Regulation Scale in five languages which measured this component of self-regulation. The psychometric properties of this instrument were examined, including 2297 participants from Costa Rica, Finland, Germany, Poland, and the US. The research question was whether the measure was reliable and valid within and across the countries. The findings of the present research study supported this assumption suggesting that the scale was internally consistent and stable and that it tapped a unidimensional construct. Moreover, the criterion-related validity of the scale was examined by using criteria such as self-efficacy, coping and negative effect, within and across the countries. Bembutty, Hefer (2007) in his study examined whether the association between teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance was mediated by their homework self-efficacy beliefs and their use of self-regulatory learning strategies.
Participant in this study were 63 secondary education teachers enrolled in a classroom management course required in their graduate education programme at an urban college in New York during the summer of 2004. Non-Graded Practice Test and Graded Final Test, Ohio Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (OTSES), Homework Self-Efficacy Scale and Academic Self-Regulation Scale were used to collect the data of the study. First Pearson correlational analyses were performed to examine associations among the variables. Second, path analyses were conducted to test the fit of the data to the hypothesized model. The final model revealed that teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs have an indirect effect on their academic performance, which is mediated by their self-efficacy beliefs about their capability to initiate and complete homework assignments and their use of self-regulatory learning strategy. Implications for teaching preparation programme were discussed.

Capa-Aydin, Yesim, Sungur, Serma, and Uzuntiryaki, Esen (2009) in their study aimed to develop and validate an instrument to assess the multidimensional nature of teacher self-regulation. A nine factor structure was proposed: goal setting, intrinsic interest, performance goal orientation, mastery goal orientation, self-instruction, emotional control, self-evaluation, self-reaction, and help-seeking. Through a series of confirmatory factory analyses with different samples, this nine-factor structure was supported. Reliability estimates were also satisfactory. Further validation evidence was provided through canonical correlation analysis between teacher self-regulation and teachers’ sense of efficacy. Results indicated that the Teacher Self-Regulation Scale can be utilized as a valid and reliable instrument to assess teachers’ self-regulatory strategies.
2.5 CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF REVIEWS OF TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

In the present research study teacher empowerment has been reviewed in two contexts: (A) teacher empowerment through power handed down to classroom teachers by school or administrative authorities i.e. the school level and administrative level empowerment. Martin (1990) measured teacher empowerment in relation to instructional leadership behavior of the supervisors. Short, Paula M and Rinehart, James (1992) in their research examined the relationship between teachers’ perceptions of school climate and their perceptions of empowerment. Moore and Esselman (1992) explored the relationship among teacher efficacy, empowerment, focused instructional climate and student achievement. Bomotti, Sally; Ginsberg, Rick and Cobb, Brian (1999) queried about teachers’ perceptions of their level of empowerment, school climate and working conditions. Marcial J. (2005) explored effect of independent variables (i) teacher preparation (field experience), (ii) self-efficacy, (iii) empowerment, (iv) amount of support from administration, (v) effectiveness of mentors and support systems and (vi) salary as predictors as teacher retention. Somech, Anit (2005) examined the relative effect of the directive leadership approach as compared with a participative leadership approach on school staffs’ motivational mechanisms and effectiveness. Joyce A. Beckett, Anderson; Jackson, L. Flanigan measured dimensions of shared decision-making.

The findings of the above studies show that teachers’ empowerment increases with leadership behavior (Martin, 1990, Marcial J 2005 & Somech, Anit 2005); classroom and school based participative decision making (Moore and Esselman, 1992, White 1992 & Joyce A Beckett, Anderson; Jackson, L. Flanigan); school climate (Short, Paula M and
Rinehart, James, 1992, Bomotti, Sally; Ginsberg, Rick and Cobb, Brian 1999). The leadership behavior of school authorities, conducive school climate and participative decision-making approach of school authorities increase teachers’ empowerment. But Short, Paula M and Rinehart, James (1992) suggest that greater empowerment may result in organizational conflict and lowered school climate. As teachers become empowered, they become more critical of school functioning and therefore teachers need organizational problem-solving skills and an awareness of group processes. Joyce A Beckett, Anderson; Jackson, L. Flanigan ( ) recommended that teachers’ involvement in all the types of decision-making is not possible. The school could decide that some decisions should be left to the administration with teachers acting as consultants.

Real teacher empowerment should be geared and enhanced (B) through professional growth and knowledge i.e. the teacher level empowerment. Ruscoe, Whitford and Eggiton, Esselman (1989) found out the relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher empowerment. Lichtenstein, Mc Laughlin and Knudsen (1991) in their research presented a well reasoned argument for emphasizing professional knowledge as a dimension of teacher empowerment. Morris and Nunnery (1993) measured Mentoring Self-Efficacy, Teaching Self-Efficacy and Collegiality as construct of teacher empowerment. Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E., (1996) studied decision making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy and impact as theoretical dimensions of teacher empowerment. Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E., (1996) identified decision making, collegiality/collaboration, professional knowledge, self-efficacy, autonomy, and status of classroom teachers as frequently identified dimensions of teacher empowerment. Less frequently identified dimensions were authority,

and Nunnery 1993, Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E 1996, Wall, Russell and Rinehart, James S. 1997, & Scribner, Jay Paredes, D. Truell, Allen, R.Hager, Douglas and Srichai, Sonathana 2001). Lichtenstein, McLaughlin and Knudsen (1991) argued that teachers’ development of professionally relevant knowledge is necessary for genuine teacher empowerment. The researchers’ view of teacher empowerment was based on professional knowledge defined as “…knowledge of professional community, educational policy and subject area.” Klecker, Beverly and Loadman, William E., (1996) suggested that teacher must pursue knowledge beyond that of subject content and pedagogy. Their professional knowledge must include a thorough grounding in both the philosophy and processes of the change model adopted by their school.

Teacher self-empowerment was found to differ on demographic variables such as gender, age, length of service, geographical location, levels and types of schools, level of education, teaching subject and race.

In the present research study teacher self-empowerment has been viewed as Short, Greer and Melvin (1994) defined it as “a process whereby school participants develop the competence to take charge of their own growth and resolve their own problems.” It is individual’s belief that they have the skills and knowledge to improve the situation in which they operate. Sweetland S.R. and Hoy, W.K. (2000) states that teacher empowerment is effective when it is aimed at enhancing teacher professionalism rather than bureaucratic control. They further argue that teacher empowerment is effective when it is authentic i.e. when teachers have powers and use it to make important classroom and instructional decisions. Genuine teacher empowerment increases teachers’ job
satisfaction (Pearson L. Carolyn and Moomaw, William 2005) teachers’ organizational commitment and professional commitment (Somech, Anit and Bogler, Ronit 2004) which results into pedagogic quality and improvement in students’ academic performance (Helen M, Louis, Keren Seashore 1997).

2.6 CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF REVIEWS OF TEACHER MOTIVATION

Findings of the above studies show the extrinsic and intrinsic determinants of teacher motivation. They were: Working with students; learning and achievement of students (Singh B., 1980; VSO Report, 2002 & Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004); family commitment (Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004); school organization and administration (Singh B., 1980; VSO Report, 2002; Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004; Ololube, Nwachukwu Prince, 2007 & Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007); leadership style (Wayne Pennington, Philip, 1997); working conditions (VSO Report, 2002; Kusereka, Louis Garudzo, 2003 & Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007); pay and fringe benefits and material awards (VSO Report, 2002 & Ololube, Nwachukwu Prince, 2007); interpersonal relationship (Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004 & Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007); job satisfaction (Ololube, Nwachukwu Prince, 2007); commitment to altruism (Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004); discipline, instructional resources and materials, class size, paper work and work load, parental involvement, teacher autonomy, praise, recognition, feedback and principalship (Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007) and policy environment (VSO Report, 2002 & Ololube, Nwachukwu Prince, 2007). From the above intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of teacher motivation, teachers were found to be highly motivated while working with students, learning and achievement of students (Singh B., 1980; VSO Report, 2002 & Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004); interpersonal relationship (Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004 & Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007); family commitment (Portelli, Maria Viviana, 2004); and collegiality, autonomy, praise, feedback and recognition (Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007) while teacher were found to be highly dissatisfied with leadership style (Wayne Pennington, Philip, 1997 & Belle, Louis Jinot, 2007); educational and administrative policy issues (VSO Report, 2002 & Ololube, Nwachukwa Prince 2007); working conditions (VSO Report, 2002; Kusereka,

Findings of the above studies show the extrinsic determinants of teacher motivation. They were: Student achievement (McKinney, Pamela Anne, 2000); leadership style (Bush, Cheryl L. Mason., 2003); classroom effectiveness and school improvement (Ofoegbu, F.I., 2004); school organization and administration (Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, 2007); working conditions (Ofoegbu, F.I., 2004 & Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, 2007); pay, fringe benefits and material awards (McKinney, Pamela Anne, 2000 & Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, 2007); job satisfaction (Bush, Cheryl L. Mason., 2003); competence and commitment to job (Bush, Cheryl L. Mason., 2003 & Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, 2007); self-actualization (Bush, Cheryl L. Mason., 2003); school accountability; security and conflict; the policy environment and occupational status (Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, 2007).
Findings of the studies of Ofoegbu, F.I., (2004) and Bennell, Paul and Akyeampong, Kwame, (2007) show that teacher motivation can be enhanced if salaries are paid regularly, teaching and learning facilities are made available and put in place and better working conditions, living conditions and more effective management can be provided. But Mc Kinney, Pamela Anne (2000) in her study revealed that teachers who received career pay were not more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated than teachers who did not receive career pay. It was also found out that the student achievement was not increased by the awarding of career pay. Bush, Cheryl L. Mason (2003) found out that basic needs, school climate (decision-making, communication, goal commitment, and coordination influence) and end results (educational excellence, job satisfaction) were negatively correlated. Significant positive relationship was found out between self-actualization and end results.


Findings of the above studies show the intrinsic determinants of teacher motivation. They were: Working with students; learning and achievement of students (Farber, Barry A., 1982 & Bishay, Andre, 1996); family commitment (Farber, Barry A., 1982); school
organization and administration (Farber, Barry A., 1982 & Peretomode, V.F., 2007); leadership style (Wayne Pennington, Philip, 1997); interpersonal relationship (Farber, Barry A., 1982); job satisfaction (Peretomode, V.F., 2007); competence and commitment to job (Farber, Barry A., 1982); responsibility level (Bishay, Andre, 1996) and morale (Peretomode, V.F., 2007). The findings of the above studies show that Farber, Barry A. (1982) found out that the satisfactory experiences of teachers were those that made them feel sensitive to and involved with their students and committed to and competent in their job. Relationship with their colleagues, families and friends were also found important. Sources of stress were excessive paperwork, unsuccessful administrative meetings, and lack of advancement opportunities. Bishay, Andre C (1996) found out that teachers who worked in a school with students had high level of overall motivation and job satisfaction. It appeared that gratification of higher order needs was important for motivation and job satisfaction. de Jesus, Saul Neves and Lens, Willy (2005) found out that teachers suffered more than other professional groups from the occupational lack of motivation. Peretomode, V.F. (2007) found out that teachers who were given the opportunity by their principals to participate in as many decisions as they desired were more motivated, satisfied and had high morale than those who were deprived or saturated in decision-making.

Teacher motivation was found to differ on demographic variables such as gender, age, geographical location, length of service, small and large family, career stage and school achievement level, professional qualifications, levels and types of schools, teaching subject and teaching activity.
Thus, it can be concluded that teacher motivation can be more effectively enhanced by work content factors like opportunities for professional development, recognition, challenging and varied work, increased responsibility, achievement, empowerment, and authority as compared to work context factors that 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.

2.7 CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF REVIEWS OF TEACHER SELF-REGULATION

Wah, Chow (1996) found out that Goal Orientation, Task Orientation, and Ego-Orientation were related to self-regulation of teaching. Malmberg-Lars- Erik (2004) found out the relationship between: (a) Mastery Goal-Orientation, (b) Performance and Avoidance Goal Orientation and Extrinsic Motivation, (c) Previous Achievement and Performance Goal Orientation, and (d) Intrinsic Motivation and intrinsic score. In sum, the findings demonstrated that Goal Orientation was instrumental for long-term teacher motivation and that teacher motivation, in turn constituted a foundation for Goal Orientation during teachers’ studies. Aleksnadra, Luszczynska; Manfred, Diehl; Benicio, Gutierrez Dona; Patrik, Kuusinen; & Ralf, Schwarzer, (2004) in their study considered self-regulation as dispositional variable that may be responsible for self-regulatory actions in broad range of situations. Attention control was considered a very component of self-regulation when individuals pursue their goals in face of barriers and setbacks. Bembutty, Hefer (2007) found out the relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher self-regulation of learning and academic performance. Capa-Aydin, Yesim; Sungur, Serma and Uzuntiryaki, Esen., (2009) found out nine factors of self-regulation: Goal
Setting, Intrinsic Interest, Performance Goal Orientation, Mastery Goal Orientation, Self-instruction, Emotional Control, Self-evaluation, Self-reaction and Help-seeking. From the findings of above studies it can be concluded that teacher self-regulation of teaching refers to goal-setting, strategic planning, self-monitoring of progress, activating positive motivational beliefs, and reflecting on performance outcomes.

2.8 IMPLICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

From the critical appraisal of review of related literature of teacher self-empowerment, teacher motivation and teacher self-regulation, it was conceptualized that teachers motivation refers to teacher’s desire to participate in the pedagogical process within the school environment and the willingness of the teacher to achieve the goals of the school as an organization. To participate in the pedagogical processes and to achieve the goals effectively and successfully, teacher’s development of professional relevant knowledge is important which enriches self-regulation competencies so that teacher can get engaged in self-directed teaching processes by using cognitive resources to attain achievement of his or her professional tasks. Thus, the conceptual continuum shows that teacher motivation, teacher self-regulation and teacher self-empowerment are interrelated and interdependent. Hence, in the present research study this interrelation and interdependence of teacher motivation, teacher self-regulation and teacher self-empowerment have been investigated empirically.
2.9 SUMMARY

In the present chapter past studies on teacher self-empowerment, teacher motivation and teacher self-regulation have been reviewed to define and operationalize the dimensions of teacher self-empowerment, teacher motivation and teacher self-regulation; to investigate the different variables with which the relationship of teacher self-empowerment, teacher motivation and teacher self-regulation were explored; to determine the nature of hypotheses and to formulate the hypotheses; and to rationalize the implication of the present research study.