

Handbook of Research on Enhancing Teacher Education with Advanced Instructional Technologies

Nwachukwu Prince Ololube
Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Nigeria

Peter James Kpolovie
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Lazarus Ndiku Makewa
University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, Kenya

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Chapter 13

Curriculum Implementation and Teacher Motivation: A Theoretical Framework

Lazarus Ndiku Makewa
University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, Kenya

Baraka Manjale Ngussa
University of Arusha, Tanzania

ABSTRACT

While teachers can play role toward success or failure of curriculum implementation, this chapter discusses teacher motivation and curriculum implementation. It particularly attempts to indicate many areas which teachers can be motivated to get involved in effective curriculum implementation. Various theories of motivation are consulted to come up with authoritative document on how teachers can be motivated to play their role in a meaningful sense. These include two-factor theory, self-determination theory, person-object theory, expectancy theory, equity theory, and job enrichment theory. Extensive literature throws light on the theme in a deeper sense and reviewed studies guide us to come up with a discussion that is theoretical in nature. This chapter concludes that although not clearly stated, teacher motivation remains a major component in curriculum implementation.

1. INTRODUCTION

A major conclusion of the extensive literature on school effectiveness is that achieving better learning outcomes depends fundamentally on improvements in teaching. Although there are many other factors that affect learning outcomes, teaching is the main school-level determinant of school performance. Thus, ways to increase teacher

motivation and capabilities are central to any systematic attempt to improve learning outcomes.

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on what makes the ‘effective’ teacher, yet, the focus to date of policy reform in most countries has been on improving learning outcomes through a better allocation of resources, more accountability, curriculum reforms and refined assessment systems, and better pre- and in-service teacher training. However, the limited

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impact of many of these interventions has forced politicians and policymakers to focus increasingly on the needs of teachers themselves.

Motivation and incentives have many common or similar themes with the very much more limited literature on this subject in low-income developing countries. In particular, it is widely contended that the status of teachers in most developing countries has declined appreciably during the last 60 years, teacher autonomy and creativity has been curtailed by more control and regulation, and that teachers are being asked to do more with less. Teachers also complain about the lack of variety and role differentiation in their careers, the limited incentives for them to improve their practice and develop as professionals, and the limited linkages between their performance, teacher compensation and teacher development (International Institute of Educational Planning, 2004).

This is further indicated in critical theory by a Brazilian Paulo Freire in his most influential highly quoted *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* work as appears in Henson and Savage (2009) and Orstein and Hunkins (2009), defining educational systems as tools of the dominant class of society for keeping down the masses and for institutionalizing dominant values at the expense of the oppressed (the teachers). Freire described this scenario as *banking* approach to education where the group in power knows truth and attempts to deposit it in the minds of the oppressed.

Amid these negative realities and challenges that threaten teaching profession, research has consistently found that 'working with children' is the main determinant of teacher job satisfaction. Consequently, it is the rewarding nature of the job itself rather than pecuniary gain that is the primary motivation for becoming a teacher. A comprehensive literature review by Spear, Gould and Lee (2000) highlights the wide range of factors that influence teacher job satisfaction and motivation. The main factor found to contribute to job satisfaction of teachers is working with children, whereas job dissatisfaction was primarily attrib-

uted to work overload, poor pay, and perceptions of how teachers are viewed by society. Herzberg's two-factor theory, as the overarching theoretical framework in synthesizing the main findings of the studies was reviewed. The main conclusions are that, in order to experience high job satisfaction, teachers need an intellectual challenge, a high level of professional autonomy, to feel that they are benefiting society, to enjoy good relations with their colleagues, and to spend a sufficient proportion of their time working with children. Enhanced pay, improved status, a less demanding workload and fewer administrative responsibilities do not necessarily bring about higher levels of job satisfaction.

Another important finding of the review is that studies have consistently identified the same variations in the job satisfaction levels of teachers depending on certain individual and school characteristics. In particular, with regard to gender differences, female teachers tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction than their male colleagues, but male teachers are generally more satisfied over their level of influence over school policies and practices. Teachers in rural areas report higher levels of job satisfaction than those in urban areas.

Pay incentives have been found to be generally ineffective in increasing teacher motivation. Teacher motivation is based on intrinsic factors and that true job satisfaction is based on higher order needs (Sylvia & Hutchinson, 1985). Offering additional extrinsic rewards has even been found to undermine the intrinsic motivation of teachers (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kauffmann, 1982).

To date, only a handful of studies have been undertaken that comprehensively analyze in a robust manner the key determinants of teacher motivation in the developing country context. Based on survey done by Michaelowa, large class size, double-shifting, rural location, high educational attainment and active parental involvement are all negatively correlated with teacher job

satisfaction. However, the contract status of the teacher and the level of communication between teachers and school managers have no statistically significant impact on teacher job satisfaction. Even more surprisingly, the salary variables showed no noticeable impact on teacher job satisfaction. She concludes that “the role of salaries does not seem to be as important as many people believe” (Michaelowa, 2002, p. 18).

Jessop and Penny (1998) analyzed the role perceptions of primary school teachers and identified two distinct ‘frames of understanding’ about teaching, described as ‘instrumental’ and ‘relational’, which affect the way teachers discuss job satisfaction and motivation. The individual teachers studied are classified according to whether they lean towards one frame or the other. The authors find that instrumental teachers, who see education mainly as a technical process, are more likely to show concern about the inadequacy of physical resources for learning, support from inspectors and extrinsic incentives. Relational teachers, however, see education mainly as a moral activity and are motivated mainly by a nurturing relationship with pupils. The typical complaints of this group are not mentioned and one is left to assume that they complain less. The authors argue that neither group perceives ‘ownership’ of the curriculum as a goal. From the perspective of Maslow, however, this is not surprising if the teachers are poorly paid and little respected by their supervisors.

2. TEACHERS BELIEF

There is no lack of literature illustrating the fact that the process of implementing curriculum cannot be successfully completed without the active involvement of teachers (Fullan, 2001, 2007; Wedell, 2009). Sowel (2005, p. 27) maintains that “teachers often share several types of expertise, which are valuable in instructional curriculum decision making.” Shulman (1996, 1997) as cited in Sowel (2005, p. 27) particularly lists seven categories

of teachers’ knowledge bases that qualify them for curriculum innovation and implementation practices: these are content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational philosophies. Doll as cited in Ornstein and Hunkins (2009, p. 24-25) has it that teachers should be involved in every step of curriculum making including the planning of specific goals, materials, content and methods. He further maintains that teachers should have a curriculum coordinating body that helps to unify their work and develop relationship with other parts involved in curriculum implementation.

During routine curriculum implementation, however, such involvement often implies teachers’ inadequate interpretation of the mandated curriculum specifications and the translation of the curriculum intentions into classroom practices, without any further form of teacher participation and, frequently, without any planned long-term scheme for teacher development programs. In relation to teacher motivation and curriculum change, Litwin (n.d.) explains that motivation has been circumscribed to the condition of students’ learning, leaving aside the essential value of teacher motivation; curricular selection has been reduced to the mere adherence to the official curriculum, more often than not, oblivious to the interests or knowledge of teachers.

Although research in the field of teacher cognitions in relation to innovation implementation is not abundant (Hargreaves, 2001; Spillane, Reiser & Reimer., 2002), the few studies available indicate that motivational characteristics such as goal setting, a sense of efficacy, and volition are a fundamental component of agency. On the contrary, if curriculum change is externally imposed, teachers can view it as a threat, which can undermine their beliefs, and shake their confidence in their established practices and feeling of self-efficacy (Chacon, 2003). In this sense, Sikes (1992) claims

that as a result of such imposition, teachers “might lose their sense of meaning and direction, their ‘framework of reality’, their confidence that they know what to do, and consequently they experience confusion and a kind of alienation” (p.43).

For change to happen, however, it is necessary for teachers to believe in the intended curriculum, so that they develop a sense of ownership, which might lead to the adequate implementation and sustainability of the change (Fullan, 2007; Kennedy, 1987; Markee, 1997).

Ownership of the curriculum refers to the degree of teachers’ understanding of and familiarity with the innovation, and their positive acceptance of it. If an innovation is to produce any impact in the classroom, what is required, then, is a deep change (Fullan, 1991, 2007). This implies a change that goes beyond the rhetoric of the official curricular documents or the mere change of methodology and textbook. It involves changes in the beliefs and attitudes that teachers hold in relation to both teaching and learning, and teachers considering themselves active agents of that change. As Fullan (1993) suggests, “It is only by individuals taking action to alter their own environments that there is any chance for deep change” (p.40). This encompasses teachers re-examining their beliefs by making them explicit, which, in turn, might require the collaboration of others.

Teachers’ commitment and attitudes, competences, and interaction patterns make up another crucial group of factors for implementation. Both individual and collegial aspects are important. Teachers are a constant factor in the education system and thus have a key role for classroom innovation, including curriculum implementation (Havelock, 1970). If they are not motivated to engage with an innovation, then nothing will happen. Every real innovation will involve some aspects which are new for teachers and which will encounter some skeptical reaction. Such discrepancies between claims of the innovation and acceptance of teachers may be important starting points for further development. However, the re-

lationship between “irritation” (provided through the challenging elements of the curriculum and its implementation) and “acceptance” must be in such a balance that participants are prepared to embark and continue with the implementation process. Curriculum research shows that it is possible to deal constructively with such discrepancies in implementation processes, but it also shows that it is easier in situations of face-to-face-contact and that, again, it is much more difficult to generalize results of those face-to-face negotiations to a broader group of users (Haller, 1983).

3. PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

As argued by Chance and Chance (2002), participating in decision making determines the level of effectiveness in implementing changes. In this attempt, there must be a plan of action that details what will be done, when it will be done, how and where certain operations will be performed and who will do them. This kind of approach can help education institutions to come up with effective curriculum change, improvement and implementation of plans in question.

Participation in decision-making is not so much a question of whether or not teachers should be involved in but rather to what extent and under what circumstances decision making should be participatory. While there is a top-down and bottom-up types of decision making strategies, it is important to determine appropriate decision making strategies that can be used in education systems, especially in curriculum innovation endeavors (Chance & Chance, 2002).

Traditionally, educational innovation has tended to follow a top-down pattern. However, it was frequently shown that including local personnel fosters more effective implementation.

Early participation in curriculum implementation increases teachers’ willingness to continue

new practices after the initial incentives have been withdrawn. Engaging teachers in their planning process also helps to equip them with skills required by the innovation and enhances the likelihood that the reform will be adapted to local circumstances (Thomas 1994, p.1855).

Thus, one of the mottoes of organizational development has been taken up also by implementation projects, i.e. to make persons affected by change to persons involved in change (e.g. Reinmann-Rothmeier & Mandl, 1999).

Theorists such as McGregor, Maslow, Herzberg, and Argyris as cited in Chance and Chance (2002, p. 183) built upon the idea of participation as a necessary component of effective and productive implementations in organizations.

Certainly, the individual teacher's competencies and attitudes towards change itself and towards the specific innovation intended are important factors contributing to the quality and direction of the innovation process. Some schools, however, have more change-oriented teachers. Individual teachers' learning is socially situated in a network of co-teachers, managers, administrators, and other relevant participants. It will be easier if it is situated in a network, which is both sympathetic and competent, with respect to the changes aspired since it will be possible to collegially fill in individual's gaps of motivation and qualification.

New meanings, behaviors, skills, and beliefs depend significantly on whether teachers are working as isolated individuals or are exchanging ideas, support, and positive feelings about curriculum change. The quality of working relationships among teachers is strongly related to implementation. Collegiality, open communication, trust, support, and help, learning on the job, getting results, and job satisfaction and morale are closely interrelated (Fullan 1994, p.2843).

Thus, some researchers equal successful curriculum implementation with succeeding

in building up a 'community of learners' with respect to the innovation. Such a 'community' invests in different occasions and instruments of collaborating, sharing, and synthesizing individual knowledge and research in order to make full use of the expertise which is 'distributed' within the relevant community and outside of it (Altrichter, 2005 & Reinmann-Rothmeier & Mandl 1999).

4. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A range of theoretical frameworks are used to investigate teacher motivation. Much of the research carried out over the last few years has been related to teachers' learning and achievement goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Elliott & Harackiewicz, 1996). This chapter deals with the question of teacher motivation in the curriculum innovation. We therefore follow theories appropriate for explaining actions through intrinsic motivation. There are two theories that are of central importance in this work: Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (2000) on the one hand and Krapp and Prenzel's person-object-theory of interest (1992) on the other. Both of these theories are supplemented by aspects of the expectancy-value-models, Equity theory and Job enrichment theory, which are suitable for the analysis of additional external incentives.

On the basis of the self-determination theory, we distinguish between different types of motivation that depend on the perceived autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1993): self-determined motivation and controlled motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Schellenbach-Zell, 2009). Self-determined motivation is linked to carrying out activities just for the sake of it because of fun and interest (Schiefele & Köller, 2001). This form of motivation also comprises experiencing a highly positive emotional state in terms of an experience of flow, e.g. working on the innovations experienced as pleasant as time flies (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

Self-determined motivation further implies specific consequences, which are related to a high perceived autonomy. The “behavior is recognized as being personally important and valuable to one’s self” (Deci & Ryan, 1993, p. 228). Some examples of why teachers take part in school innovations include their own personality development or the opportunity to organize lessons in a more varied and more interesting manner. Controlled motivation represents a form of motivation with a high degree of perceived control. It therefore represents classic extrinsic motivation, with actions being carried out based on specific anticipated consequences (Schiefele & Köller, 2001).

For example, teachers who work according to controlled motivation participate in school innovation projects because they feel obliged to do so, because their headmaster wants them to or because it is of relevance for their reputation.

Self-determination theory also refers to three basic psychological needs that contribute to the development of self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000): First, need for autonomy originates from the “locus of causality” (deCharms, 1968) and means that a person seeks to experience oneself as independent (Krapp, 2005). This implies that the actions in question are thus caused by the person and that the person perceives one’s own scope (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Secondly, need for competence based on White’s concept of competence (1959) and means that a person experiences oneself as competent and capable of taking such action. The focus here is not on ability, actually acquired, but rather on “a felt sense of confidence and effectance in action” (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 7). Thirdly, the need for relatedness assumes that humans strive for satisfying social contacts and for recognition by “significant others”, means people who are of personal importance to them. This includes a principal who appreciates what the teacher does in the classroom, which is a part of curriculum implementation!

The satisfaction of these needs results in a feeling of well-being and high contentment. Cor-

respondingly, the structures of a school innovation can consider these needs and thus make teachers feel at ease when working on any innovation implementation. This in turn increases the likelihood that teachers may commit to the implementation in the long term as well. There are a range of different opportunities for such projects to take these basic needs into consideration, including, for example, teachers’ perceptions that they have a broad scope for taking action or their possibilities to choose the focus of their work individually. The innovations could consider the questions, wills and the working tempo of participants (Gräsel, Jäger, Willke, 2006). In addition to such ways of supporting autonomy, projects can, for example, also provide particular phases in which feedback is given with regards to the need for competence (Kramer, 2002).

Innovation structures that promote cooperation between teachers such as working groups encompassing more than one school are suited to facilitate relatedness.

We would like to supplement these theoretical considerations with Krapp and Prenzel’s person-object-theory of interest (Krapp, 1992b), which regards the content-orientation of motivation and defines interest as the relationship between a person and a particular object or subject. This relationship can be of a long or short-term nature (Prenzel, Krapp, & Schiefele, 1986; Schiefele, Prenzel, Krapp, Heiland, & Kasten, 1983).

Question still arises as to whether particular incentives can have a motivational effect when it comes to taking part in an innovation. Expectancy-value-models, in particular the Advanced Cognitive Model of Motivation (Heckhausen & Rheinberg, 1980) assume that the particular consequences of an action have an incentive character and thus have an effect on whether the action in question is carried out. The question can thus also be asked as to what sort of incentives support involvement in school innovations. Schellenbach-Zell (2009) distinguishes between different types of incentives to work more engaged with the

innovation: (1) material incentives like teaching hours for relief or a payment (2) social incentives like the recognition of colleagues or headmasters (3) project-specific incentives like a well-designed curriculum, or a clear central concept related to high quality-materials. The theoretical concepts outlined above can successfully be applied to school innovation projects including curriculum implementation. Prior to this, however, previous findings on teacher motivation based on a range of theoretical approaches will be presented.

To a large extent, research refers to the subject of behavior and effects of motivated teachers (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kauffmann, 1982; Kramer, 2002; Kunter, et al. (2008). The number of studies exploring teacher motivations' influencing factors has increased over the last few years. Such work can be principally categorized as belonging to the field of achievement motivation research. The focus of the research was on goal theories and the construct of self-efficacy. It is possible to distinguish between the following goal orientations (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Elliott & Harackiewicz, 1996): Learning goal orientation, that is, motivation directed towards expanding one's own competences and abilities.

Achievement goal orientation on the other hand is directed either at a demonstration of one's own abilities or at concealing one's own weakness or incompetence. Additional work has also looked at work avoidance as a goal at the same time (Butler, 2007). A high learning goal orientation has a reducing effect of some aspects of burnout. Motivation directed at concealing personal incompetence led, on the other hand, to more marked levels of all three types of strain (Tönjes, Dickhäuser, & Kröner, 2008).

Butler (2007) examined the relationship between goal orientation as a motivational variable and the behavior of teachers with regards to asking for help in the process of curriculum or any other implementation. Results referred to a connection between teachers with a clear learning

goal orientation and those who show a high level of appreciation for asking for help, while avoidance achievement goal orientation was linked to the opinion that asking for help amounts to a confession of personal incompetence. High levels of work avoidance orientation thus correlated with a pragmatic attitude towards asking for help, for example that it saves time and effort.

Further, teacher students' learning goal orientation is a strong predictor of intrinsic motivation for the teaching profession as achievement goal orientation is of extrinsic motivation (Malmberg, 2006).

Self-efficacy has formed an additional research focus and implies teachers' regard to their own competence for dealing with difficult situations in school life (Schwarzer, 1998). High teacher self-efficacy is negatively related with the tendency for burnout (Schmitz & Schwarzer, 2000) and influences intrinsic motivation (deJesus & Lens, 2005).

Some studies have explored the extent to which taking the three basic needs into consideration motivates teachers to establish new types of teaching in school in a long-term manner (Lam, Cheng, & Choy, 2010). The basic needs had both a positive effect on motivation as well as on whether the teachers were interested in working with the new teaching structures in the long term. Pelletier, Legault and Séguin-Levesque (2002) investigated the influence of working environment on the professional motivation of teachers in a similar manner. They showed that a working environment which removes the need for autonomy and compels teachers to comply with a restrictive set of requirements has a negative effect on teachers' self determination to accomplish a task.

The importance of perception of autonomy was also proven by a study on primary school teachers (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007). In addition, a negative correlation between autonomous professional motivation and feelings of exhaustion in the teaching profession could also be shown here.

5. THEORIES OF TEACHER MOTIVATION SIMPLIFIED

In this section, we can find expectancy theory, equity theory and Job enrichment theory in relation to teacher motivation. As seen in Chance and Chance (2002), Greenberg and Baron (2000) and Johnson (1986) these theories can be applicable in teacher motivation:

- **Expectant Theory:** An individual's belief, expectations and anticipations highly determine human behavior. Thus behavior is purposeful and consciously directed toward goals.
- **Equity Theory:** Equity theory states that people always compare their outcomes and inputs to those of others and then judge the equitableness of these relationships in the form of ratio.
 - Specifically, teachers are expected to compare the ratio of their own outcomes/inputs to the ratio of others' outcome/input.
- **Job Enrichment Theory:** It is also worth noting that "job enrichment gives employees the opportunity to take greater control over how to do their jobs.
- ... People performing enriched jobs have increased opportunities to work at higher levels" (Greenberg & Baron, 2000, p.147).

There are factors that can be attributed to reduce teacher motivation and bring about stressful moments. Humphreys (1996) states that burnout is the reason of personal vulnerability and occupational stress. Lack of intellectual challenge is another de-motivating factor. Without discovering and acquiring new knowledge, skills and abilities, many teachers teach the same subject so they can "lose spark" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.169). The prescribed requirements and fixed, imposed course content do not let teachers have leeway to create "variations" and "intellectual detours". This can

create confusion and de-motivation in curriculum innovations.

Restricted autonomy is believed to be one of the negative influences on teacher motivation. Nationwide standardized tests, national curricula, and general mistrust reflected by the increasing administration demands are in this group. Growing centralized control will be an obstacle for teacher autonomy.

According to Hargreaves (1998), the following suggestions are important for positive emotions: The centrality of the emotions to the processes and outcomes of teaching, learning and caring in schools must be honored and acknowledged by the discourse of educational reform. Secondly, government and other reformers should work together for the sake of the emotional dimensions of teaching and learning into learning standards or curriculum targets for students and into professional standards or competencies for teachers and administrators regarding the content of educational innovations. Lastly, checklists, targets, meetings and paperwork should not take too much of the teacher's time.

There are three types of pressure that affect teachers' self-determined motivation (Pelletier, 2002, p.193).

- Being responsible for students' behavior and students performing up to standards.
- Being forced to follow colleagues' teaching methods or involvement in school activities.
- Having limited freedom in determining the course's curriculum or following a certain curriculum decided by the school's administration.

Other theories of motivation, such as self-determination (Martin & Dowson, 2009), action-control (Gerjets & Scheiter, 2003), and flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), are another contribution to the understanding of teachers' self-initiated curriculum innovations.

A study of teacher stress by Gorrell and Dharmadasa (1989) provides controlled, empirical findings about certain factors that may be important ‘de-motivators’ for teachers in a developing country.

It shows that overcrowded classrooms, absent pupils and lack of teachers’ texts can be very stressful factors, especially for the less experienced teachers. Unless these challenges are addressed, teacher participation in curriculum change will not be felt and valued.

6. SUMMARY

This chapter has contended that although there are many other factors that affect learning outcomes, teaching is the main school-level determinant of school performance. Thus, ways to increase teacher motivation and capabilities are central to any systematic attempt to improve learning outcomes.

There is evidence that working with children is the main determinant of teacher job satisfaction. Consequently, it is the rewarding nature of the job itself rather than pecuniary gain that is the primary motivation for becoming a teacher. Teacher motivation is based on intrinsic factors and that true job satisfaction is based on higher order needs. Motivational characteristics such as goal setting, a sense of efficacy, and volition are a fundamental component of agency.

On the contrary, if curriculum change is externally imposed, teachers can view it as a threat, which can undermine their beliefs, and shake their confidence in their established practices and feeling of self-efficacy. For change to happen, it is necessary for teachers to believe in the intended curriculum, so that they develop a sense of ownership, which might lead to the adequate implementation and sustainability of the change. Teachers are a constant factor in the education system and thus have a key role for classroom innovation, including curriculum implementation. Early participation in curriculum implementation

increases teachers’ willingness to continue new practices after the initial incentives have been withdrawn.

Engaging teachers in their planning process also helps to equip them with skills required by the innovation and enhances the likelihood that the reform will be adapted to local circumstances. We also looked at self-determination theory and person-object theory of interest. We saw that both of these theories are supplemented by aspects of the expectancy- value-models, Equity theory and Job enrichment theory, which are suitable for the analysis of additional external incentives. We noted that self-determined motivation is linked to carrying out activities just for the sake of it because of fun and interest.

Self-determination theory also refers to three basic psychological needs that contribute to the development of self-determined motivation: (1) Need for autonomy originates from the “locus of causality and means that a person seeks to experience oneself as independent, This implies that the actions in question are thus caused by the person and that the person perceives one’s own scope (2) Need for competence based on White’s concept of competence and means that a person experiences oneself as competent and capable of taking such action (3) The need for relatedness assumes that humans strive for satisfying social contacts and for recognition by “significant others”, means people who are of personal importance to them. This includes a principal who appreciates what the teacher does in the classroom, which is part of curriculum implementation! The satisfaction of these needs results in a feeling of well-being and high contentment.

Correspondingly, the structures of a school innovation can consider these needs and thus make teachers feel at ease when working on any innovation implementation. Expectancy-value-models assume that the particular consequences of an action have an incentive character and thus have an effect on whether the action in question is carried out. The question can thus also be asked

as to what sort of incentives support involvement in school innovations.

We distinguished between different types of incentives engaged with innovation (1) material incentives like teaching hours for relief or a payment (2) social incentives like the recognition of colleagues or principals (3) project-specific incentives like a well-designed curriculum, or a clear central concept related to high quality-materials. Self-efficacy has formed an additional research focus and implies teachers' regard to their own competence for dealing with difficult situations in school life.

High teacher self-efficacy is negatively related with the tendency for burnout and influences intrinsic motivation. We stated some theories that teacher motivation is based on: Expectancy theory, Equity theory and Job enrichment theory. We suggested the following factors as affecting teacher motivation in curriculum implementation: (1) the school's general climate and the existing school norms (2) the class sizes, the school resources and facilities (3) the standard activity structure within the institution (4) collegial relations (5) the definition of the teacher's role by colleagues and authorities (6) general expectations regarding student potential (7) the school's reward contingencies and feedback system and (8) the school's leadership and decision-making structure. Burnout was found to be a professional hazard and that it is the reason of personal vulnerability and occupational stress.

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Curriculum Implementation and Teacher Motivation

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Curriculum Development: This is the initial stage of curriculum processes whereby curriculum specialists sit down to propose innovative and creative suggestions for various educational experiences and programs.

Curriculum Implementation: This term refers to the act of working out the plans and suggestions that have been made by curriculum specialists and subject experts in a classroom or school setting. Teachers are the main curriculum implementers, while at the same time students, parents, school administrators can be directly or indirectly involved in the implementation process.

Curriculum Innovation: Creative initiatives in curriculum planning and implementation processes by learners, teachers and curriculum specialists.

Curriculum Planning: Is the process of structuring academic experiences, using expertise knowledge of the teacher. It is the activity which teachers get involved in before the actual implementation.

Instructional Technology: This term refers to creative and innovative use of available instructional resources such as materials, resources and facilities in a way that teaching is simplified and learning is maximized.

Learning Motivation: Driving influences from internal (intrinsic) or external (extrinsic) forces that give students power to learn effectively. Teachers are the best source of motivation in the teaching-learning interaction.

Role of the Teacher: Specified duties that students, parents, school administration and society at large expect teachers to perform. Apart from teaching, teachers have additional duties such as role modeling to perform.

Teacher Motivation: Driving influences from internal (intrinsic) or external (extrinsic) forces that give teachers power to run their daily routine.

Teachers' Beliefs: A set of strong feelings and attitudes of teachers about things that can affect the teaching-learning interaction. What teachers believe in have direct implication on the teaching-learning transaction.