

# **Benchmarking the Motivational Competencies of Academically Qualified Teachers and Professionally Qualified teachers in Nigerian Secondary Schools**

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## **Abstract**

Little attention has been paid to student learning difficulties and co-teachers stimulating themselves in creating effective secondary schooling in Nigeria. Also, her education industry has been recorded as one of the least in stimulating national development. Researchers have attributed this to the employment of non-professional teachers in the teaching and learning processes. Besides, we recognise that the intimidating work environment has been insinuated to suggest a sense of helplessness in school effectiveness and improvement in Nigeria. However, this current study, therefore, benchmarks the fundamental role played between academically qualified teachers with their counterparts who are professionally qualified teachers in motivating students and co-teachers to attain educational objectives. Multiple statistical procedures were employed—Mean Point Value, T-test of Significance, Cross Tabulation and ANOVA to obtain a stronger validity to the study (N-300). The survey revealed that professionally qualified teachers tend to motivate students and co-teachers effectively than teachers who are academically qualified do.

**Keywords:** Motivational competencies, Academically qualified teachers, Professionally qualified teachers, Students academic Achievement, Nigerian secondary schools.

## **Introduction**

The importance of being able to explain and predict students and co-teachers outcomes has led to a number of studies on teachers' motivational competencies (e.g., Marshall 1987; Mercer & Fisher 1998; Hardre & Reeves 2003; Niederhauser 1998) as a part of a larger effort to ensure school effectiveness and improvement (e.g., Scheerens & Creemers 1989; Creemers 1994b, 1994c; Scheerens 1994, 2000). However, most of such findings and conclusions resulting from research have often provided evidences from the West, not only in the UK, USA, Canada and Australia but other parts of the West such as Finland, Germany, France, Sweden and so on. Though it took a decade or more to manifest in the West according to Barber and White (1997). This body of research has now had a major impact on educational policies at national, local and school levels in the West. My search of the literature shows that little evidences exist for African secondary school in general and Nigeria in particular.

However, while carrying out their job assignments, teachers often find that there are negative outcomes (e.g., inability to motivate students and co-teachers) that instigate information search and where these derivations originate. According to the OECD (1989) the slow recruitment of qualified teachers, inability to recruit the right calibre of teachers and the lack of motivation for in-service training activities in most developing countries are some of the reasons for this unhealthy development. In Nigeria, teachers who are academically qualified and those that are professionally qualified are engaged to carry out instructional process. By academically qualified teachers, I mean teachers who have academic training as a result of enrolment into an educational institution and obtain qualifications such as HND, B.Sc., B.A, M.A, M.Sc., and so on. While professionally qualified teachers, are teachers who get professional training that gives them professional knowledge, skills, techniques, aptitude as different from the general education. They hold for example B.Sc. Ed, B.A Ed, B. Ed, M. Ed, and so on. Therefore, this study has sought to benchmark the two categories of teachers found in Nigerian secondary schools, which will produce remedies that might be taken to prevent these unenthusiastic consequences of teachers' motivational ability.

Simply put, benchmarking means improving one's self by learning from others. Fitz-Enz (1993) view benchmarking as an organised method of collecting data that can be used to improve effectiveness. According to Wisniewski (2001), benchmarking is best thought of as a structured and focused approach to comparing with others how one provides services and the performance levels one has achieved. For him the purpose of such comparison is to enable one identifies where and how one can do better, by finding and implementing better practices and performance where it is found. In any case, benchmarking does not mean copying what other people do; it is a learning process, challenging existing ways of working and identifying step-by-step changes that can close the gap between current performance and best practice. Therefore, benchmarking in education is simply about making comparisons about educational phenomenon and learning the lessons those comparisons throw up. It is a continuous process of measuring performance and seeking fresh approaches to bring about effectiveness and improvement in performance.

## **Research objectives**

Since this study is a part of a wider study that embraces teachers teaching competencies and how it affects school effectiveness and quality improvement, I explicitly sought to learn from other research on teachers' motivational competencies and apply its lessons to policy on, for example, failing schools in Nigeria. I will also identify 'best practices' of academically and professionally qualified teachers, which are to form benchmark of emulation to enhance teachers' motivational competencies. Specifically, this study is designed to:

- Theoretically and empirically benchmark how teachers' motivational competencies improve students and co-teachers ability to achieve educational objectives.
- Evaluate the extent to which academically qualified teachers and professionally teachers demonstrate effective familiarity with co-teachers
- Assess the extent to which academically qualified teachers and professionally teachers encourage co-teachers to work effectively
- Establish the extent to which academically qualified teachers and professionally teachers use rewards and punishment wisely
- Explore how academically qualified teachers and professionally teachers guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job effectively
- Investigate academically qualified teachers and professionally teachers interaction process competence and how it affects students learning ability

This study is addressed to those involved in educational planning, principals and teachers, especially parents and administrators who participate in policy making about school effectiveness and improvement in Nigeria. The findings of this study may have implication for other developing countries. It is also hoped that the academic community will find this empirical study an added input into the school effectiveness and improvement literature at least from the perspective of a developing country.

## **Theoretical Discussions**

### **Motivation as a Strategy for Teaching and Learning**

Schools have much to learn by examining the informal pedagogy of everyday life; the *principles* of good teaching are no different for school than for home and community.

When true teaching is found in schools, it observes the same principles that good teaching exhibit in informal setting (Tharp & Gallimore 1998, p. 93). Whereas, some researchers (e.g., Creemers 1994b; Creemers 1994c) is of the view that quality teaching is found in the school, this is because it is presumed that teaching and learning go on well in the school environment. In addition, it is equally acknowledged that good teaching are supposed to be carried out by highly qualified teachers who can motivate students to learn under diverse condition (Hardre & Reeves 2003). Therefore, motivation in this context is seen as one of the qualities of achieving good teaching and learning.

The phrase “student’s motivation to learn” has to some degree different meaning. Hermine Marshall defines it as the meaningfulness, value, and benefits of academic tasks to the learner regardless of whether or not they are intrinsically interesting (Marshall 1987, pp. 135-150). While Carole Ames remarks that motivation to learn is characterized by long-term quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Ames 1990, pp. 409-421). However, student motivation naturally has to do with students’ desire to participate in the learning process. But it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or non-involvement in academic activities. Although students may be equally motivated to perform task, though, the sources of their motivation may differ (Lumsden 1994). Students who are intrinsically motivated undertake an activity for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes. Extrinsically motivated students perform in order to obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself such as grades, stickers, or teacher approval (Lepper 1988, pp. 289-309).

Anyway, students are primarily intrinsically motivated towards learning than extrinsically oriented toward learning. A growing body of evidence suggests that intrinsically motivated students tend to employ strategies that demand more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan 1989, pp. 42-61; Lepper 1988, pp. 289-309). Condry and Chambers (1978, pp. 61-84) also found that when students were confronted with complex intellectual tasks, those with an intrinsic orientation use more logical information-gathering and decision-making strategies than do students who are extrinsically oriented. Furthermore, students with an intrinsic orientation also tend to prefer tasks that are moderately challenging, whereas extrinsically oriented students gravitate toward tasks that are low in degree of difficulty.

Extrinsically oriented students are inclined to put forth the minimal amount of effort necessary to get the maximal reward (Lepper 1988, pp. 289-309). Although every educational activity cannot, and perhaps should not, be intrinsically motivating, these findings suggest when teachers can capitalize on existing intrinsic motivation (Harris 1991).

The question remains that what factors influence the development of students' motivation? According to Brophy (in Lumsden 1994), motivation to learn is a competence acquired through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by especially parents and teachers. For example, when children are raised in homes that nurture a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be more suitable to accept the risks inherent in learning (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan 1989). Equally, when children do not view themselves as basically competent and able, their freedom to engage in academically challenging pursuits and capacity to tolerate and cope with failure are greatly diminished. The sources to which children attribute their successes and failures have important implications for how they approach and cope with learning situations (Ibid).

In Hardre and Reeve's study, "*A Motivational Model of Rural Students' Intentions to Persist In, Versus Drop Out, of High School*" it was found that there are large differences in teachers' beliefs about, and orientations toward, motivating students. Beliefs ranged from a strong bias toward student and family responsibility for effort at school, through a moderate view, to the belief that a large burden of the responsibility for promoting students' motivation falls to teachers and schools. Asked how they identified whether students were motivated in class, some teachers had difficulty saying, and more admitted that they often lacked effective strategies for promoting students' motivation. Large majority of teachers see students' motivation as impressionable believing that they actually could make a difference, and they actively tried to intervene for students' lack of motivation when they see it (Hardre & Reeve 2003, pp. 347-356).

However, these beliefs teachers themselves have about teaching and learning and the nature of the expectations they hold for students also exert a powerful influence (Raffini 1993). According to Deborah Stipek, students are expected to learn if their teachers

expect them to learn (Stipek 1988). Although, school wide goals, policies, and procedures also interact with classroom climate and practices to affirm or alter students' increasingly complex learning-related attitudes and beliefs, and developmental changes comprise one more strand of teachers' motivational competencies (Ames 1990, pp. 409-421).

Students are not the only ones that need motivation to go on with their exertion; teachers stimulating themselves are also essential for effective schooling. Teacher-to-teacher interactions are powerful factor in student's motivation process. Because as co-teachers interact and tell each other the problem they encounter in their various class, they tend to discuss and make useful suggestion to each other on how to handle situations in their instruction processes. For example, co-teachers review is an intentional process of gathering information and evidence about the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process on the educational environment and how positive they encourage fellow teachers in carrying out their teaching job effectively (see Stiggins 1986, pp. 51-58; Stiggins & Duke 1990; Dunkin 1997, pp. 37-51). The purposes include providing assurance that students are able to achieve what the courses requires them to achieve and to improve teaching practices. Co-teachers offer the capacity to critically review and improve enhanced teaching through the exchange of ideas. To resort to and providing constructive critical co-teachers feedback about teaching because quality teaching is regarded as a fundamental aspect of the academic role expected of teachers. Also, co-teachers are a valuable source of formative feedback on whether goals are achieved (Koch & Burghardt 2002; Niederhauser 1998).

### **Promoting Motivation to Learn in Schools**

Obviously motivation is a critical issue in education; it is seen as an essential component of teaching. For this reason it is prospective to address students' motivational needs. Hardre and Reeve (2003) and Austin, Dwyer and Freebody (2003) identified three important elements in student's motivation to learn—the learning environment, classroom instruction, and interpersonal interaction. Some motivational elements at all of these levels are generally within the teacher's control, and all of these can positively or negatively influence students' academic inspiration. First, teachers can motivate by features of the environmental design, which includes their indirect effort to motivate students by arranging the classroom-learning environment in ways that promote or

reduce students' motivation. Second, teachers can motivate students by using instructional strategies, which include features of their instruction (e.g., scope, sequence, materials, media, interactions) that are intended to facilitate students' motivational characteristics, such as attention, interest, engagement, effort, value, and competence perceptions. Third, teachers can motivate students by using motivating strategies, which include direct efforts to motivate individuals or groups of students (e.g., activate or remediate their current motivation), are highly adaptive based on specialized student needs and circumstances. Motivating strategies are individualized and arise out of the teacher's specific beliefs and perceptions of individual students' motivational states and traits. As well, in motivational terms, teachers use language to help students initiate and regulate (manage) their class-related activities. When teachers use informational, flexible language, teachers nurture students' own initiative, helping them find reasons to act because they want to, rather than because the teacher says so.

Conversely, students often fail to reach their full potentials due to low motivation. Some of these factors that affect their motivation may relate to a country's education system in general. Others are institutional and cultural views (Niederhauser 1997, 8). For example, the use of power in schools is seen as important in motivating students which also helps in determining high student achievement: Teachers use this method to influence student's compliance in the classroom (Cheng, Cheung & Tam 2002). However, their investigation was only limited to grade six students. Cheng (1994a, pp. 221-239) defined power base as the use of reward power, coercive power, position power and personal power or professional power in classroom to ensure students compliance. Researchers especially in Africa and Asia see power as a valuable tool for effective teaching and high students' academic achievement (Cheng, Cheung & Tam 2002, pp. 138-155). However, to motivate the unmotivated students, teachers should recognize that even when students use strategies that are ultimately self-defeating such as withholding effort, cheating, procrastination, and so forth, their goal is actually to protect their sense of self-worth (Lumsden 1994; Raffini 1993).

### **Some Basic Principles of Motivation**

Unfortunately, as children grow their passion for learning frequently seems to shrink (Hardre & Reeve 2003, pp. 347-356). Learning is often associated with hard work instead of delight. A large number of students, more than one in four, leave school before

graduating. Many more are physically present in the classroom but largely mentally absent; failing to invest themselves fully in the experience of learning (Lumsden 1994). Therefore, the purpose of this section is to determine significant differences that exist between some basic principles of motivation, which are applicable to teaching and learning in some situations and which may well help teachers to encourage students and reduce the dropout rate in our secondary school:

***The environment:*** Teachers who create warm and accepting yet professional atmospheres will promote persistent effort and favourable attitudes toward teaching and learning (Beare, Caldwell, & Millikan 1989, p. 154). This strategy will be successful in children and in adults. Interesting visual aids, such as booklets, posters, or practice equipment, motivate learners by capturing their attention and curiosity (Lepper 1988, pp. 289-309; Stipek 1988). In the same way, strong and lasting memory is connected with the emotional state and experience of the learner. It means that people remember better when the learning is accompanied by strong emotions. When a teacher makes something funny, exciting, happy, loving, or perhaps even a bit frightening, students will learn more readily and the learning will last much longer. Emotions can be created by classroom attitudes, by doing something unexpected or outrageous, by praise, and by many other means. For example, the day a teacher comes to class with a bowl on his head and speak as an alien observer about humans will be a day and lesson students will remember (Harris 1991).

***Incentives for motivating learning:*** Motivation includes privileges and receiving praise from the teacher. The teacher determines an incentive that is likely to motivate an individual at a particular time. In a general learning situation, self-motivation without rewards will not succeed. Students must find satisfaction in learning based on the understanding that the goals are useful to them or, less commonly, based on the pure enjoyment of exploring new things. According to Harris (1991), extrinsic motivators in the form of rewards can help students who do not yet have powerful intrinsic motivation to learn. Rather than criticizing unwanted behavior or answers, reward correct behavior and answers. Harris further suggested that rewards could and should be small and configured to the level of the students. Everyone likes the feeling of achievement and recognition; rewards for good work generate good feelings (Niederhauser 1997).

A number of individuals, predominantly children of certain ages and several adults have little capacity for internal motivation and must be guided and reinforced continually. The use of incentives is based on the principle that learning occurs more effectively when the student experiences feelings of satisfaction. However, caution should be exercised in using peripheral rewards when they are not extremely necessary, because their use may be followed by a decline in internal motivation (Condry & Chambers 1978, pp. 61-84). Correspondingly, students respond with interest and motivation to teachers who appear to be human and caring. According to Harris (1991), such personalizing of the student and teacher relationship helps students see teachers as approachable human beings and not as unfriendly authority figures. The teachers should show that they care about their students by asking about their concerns and goals. For instance, what do they plan to do in the future? What things do they like? Such teachers will be trusted and respected more than the ones who are all business (see, Niederhauser 1997; Lumsden 1994; Austin, Dwyer & Freebody 2003).

***Readiness to learn:*** Schools are or should be about helping students grow. While a variety of approaches may prove successful, success is often measured too narrowly. Too often we inhibit real success by ignoring students' reaction to their own learning (Dillon 2001, pp. 97-98). This is because at times student's readiness to learn comes with time, and teacher's role is to support its development (Ames 1990, pp. 409-421). However, Harris (1991) notes that one of the major keys to motivation is the active involvement of students in their own learning. Standing in front of them and lecturing them is thus a relatively poor method of teaching. It is better to get students involved in activities, group problem solving exercises, helping to decide what to do and the best way to do it, helping the teacher, working with each other, or in some other way getting physically involved in the lesson (Mercer and Fisher 1998). Assigning students homework that involves helping teachers is a step in the right direction to bring out the inner self of students that are ready to learn (Austin, Dwyer & Freebody 2003).

***Instructional material:*** In all-purpose, the best-organized material makes teaching meaningful to the individual. One method of motivation includes relating new tasks to those already known (Niederhauser 1997, p. 8). For example, even before young people were reared in a video environment, it was recognized that memory is often connected to visual images. In the middle ages people who memorized the Bible or Homer would

sometimes walk around inside a cathedral and mentally attach certain passages to objects inside, so that remembering the image of a column or statue would provide the needed stimulus to remember the next hundred lines of text (Harris 1991). On another hand, Maehr and Midgley opined that other ways to relay meaning are to determine whether the students being taught understand the final outcome desired and instruct them is to compare and contrast ideas (Maehr & Midgley 1991, pp. 399-427). (see also, Hight 1963; Stones 1966).

On the whole, none of the method mentioned above will create continual inspiration unless the goals are realistic for the learner. To have learners assist in defining goals increases their probability of understanding those goals and wants to reach them. Nevertheless, students sometimes have unrealistic notions about what they can accomplish. Possibly they do not understand the precision with which a skill must be carried out or have the deepness of understanding to master some instructional materials. To identify realistic goals in any case is an essential part of the professional teacher's vocation; therefore, teachers must be skilled in assessing student's readiness or student's improvement in the direction of stated objectives.

## **Research Methodology**

### **Research Hypothesis**

It is hypothesized that "there are no significant differences between the motivational competencies of teachers who have academic qualification and teachers who have professional teaching qualification."

### **Research Instrument**

Questionnaire was the main instrument used in this study to collect data. Nworgu's (1991, pp. 93-94) characteristics of a good questionnaire were applied in designing the questionnaire. The characteristics are: relevance, consistency, usability, clarity, quantifiability and legibility. The questionnaire was also designed with the help of my faculty members to elicit information from the respondents that will help the researcher gather information on teacher's motivational competencies towards students and co-teachers educational achievements. It equally has face validity because the feedback from my faculty members helped in assessing that the measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question (Bryman & Cramer 1990, p. 72).

A suitable design was structured along a four-point likert-type scale (summated) of strongly agree (4), agree (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1). A summated rating scale, one type which is called likert-type scale is a set of attitude items, all of which are considered of approximately equal “attitude value” and to each of which subjects respond with degree of agreement or disagreement (intensity) (Kerlinger 1973, p. 496). Section A of the research questionnaire describes respondents’ background information, they include: gender, age, status, subject’s taught, academic qualification, professional qualification and length of service. While section B comprises of possible motivation competencies. The simplicity of the questionnaire was based on the fact that since different category of people were chosen as my respondents, the need to make the questionnaire as simple as possible was inevitable.

### **Research population**

The research population for this study is drawn from Rivers State (accessible) of Nigeria (target). It is one of the States in the south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria. The population comprises of principals, subject heads and teachers from ten (10) randomly selected secondary schools (see table 1). The reasons for choosing subject heads is that they directly supervise teachers activities as regards teaching and therefore stands a better chances of measuring their teachers’ input and output. The services of the supervisors of education are not left out. Out of the total number of respondents 76 (25.3%) were academically qualified, while 224 (74.7%) were professionally qualified. It was relevant that I choose Rivers State because it is a surrounding I am familiar with and did not find it very difficult to access the chosen respondents with the help of my research assistant. May be this is one of the reasons why the number of responses received was high.

***Table 1: Categories of Respondents and the number of Responses Used***

Categories of Respondents	Number of Responses Used	
Teachers	270	90 %
Principals	10	3.3 %
Supervisors	20	6.7 %
To Number of Responses	300	

## **Procedures**

To arrive at the intended comparative analyses, several sets of statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 11.5 of a computer programme: mean point value, standard deviation, variance, t-test of significance and cross tabulation (N=300). One-way-analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to test the relationship between variables and respondents' background information. The t-test of significance was computed to test for statistical significant differences in the variables. It is a statistical significant set at  $p < 0.05$  to assess if the researcher's level of confidence observed in the sample also exists in the population. For a more simplistic and easy comprehension of the data analysis in this study, cross tabulation was employed because it is one of the simplest and the most frequently used ways of demonstrating the presence or absence of a relationship (Bryman & Cramer 1990, p. 151; 2001, p. 159).

## **Reliability of the Study**

A measurement to assess reliability was seen as suitable in this investigation since the respondents more especially teachers had answered the questions because they were directly affected in that the study focused on their motivational competencies which is part of a determinant for their professional competencies. A quantitative analysis of the inquiry was performed using the SPSS version 11.5 of a computer program to statistically test the reliability of the research instrument because in research statistics, when a research instrument has been ascertained of its reliability it now give bases for continuity. In the analysis, the sum variables were used because the reliability is very high compared to a single variable. The reliability estimates for the sum variables were computed by the following:  $(\text{Mean square variance between subjects} - \text{residual variance}) / (\text{mean square variance between subjects})$  (Koponen 1977, p.104; Kautto-Koivula 1993, p.161). Thus, the result from the table below reveal differences in the paired reliability estimates, which is normal. However, the cumulative alpha reliability of (0.84) shows a strong reliability of the research instrument (see Bryman & Cramer 1990, p. 71; 2001, p. 63; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2000, p. 361).

**Table 2: The reliability of paired variables for teachers holding academic and professional qualification**

<b>1. Variables</b>	<b>Reliability Estimates</b>
<b>TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONAL COMPETENCIES</b>	
1. (a) academic qualification demonstrates familiarity with co-teachers effectively (Exchange ideas) (b) professional qualification demonstrates familiarity with co-teachers effectively (Exchange ideas)	.76*
2. (a) academic qualification encourages co-teachers to work effectively. (b) professional qualification encourages co-teachers to work effectively.	.76*
3. (a) academic qualification use reward and reinforcement wisely. (b) professional qualification use reward and reinforcement wisely.	1.0**
4. (a) academic qualification guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job professionally. (b) professional qualification guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job professionally.	1.0**
5. (a) academic qualification interacts with their students respectfully. (b) professional qualification interacts with their students respectfully.	.69*
Cumulative Alpha (Reliability)	.84**

\* accepted as reliable

\*\* accepted as very reliable

## **Results**

*The first* set of the statistical analysis for this study started with an analysis of respondent's answers using mean, standard deviation and variance. These three statistical procedures were recorded. The rationale underling these measures are to unearth to what extent teachers influence co-teachers and students to achieve positive outcomes. The empirical findings show that teachers with professional qualification demonstrate better familiarity with co-teachers as such motivate co-teachers to work effectively (m = 3.72, SD = 0.53, and variance 0.28) as against (m = 1.71, SD = 0.77 and variance = 0.59) for academically qualified teachers. On how to encourage co-teachers, the study revealed that the encouragement of co-teachers to work effectively is accepted

by the respondents to be enhanced by teachers with professional teaching qualification. This is shown in their mean, standard deviation and variance thus (3.67, 0.52, 0.28 / 1.66, 0.72, 0.53). Whereas, on the application of the wise use of rewards and punishment, the analysis shows that professionally qualified teachers' mean, standard deviation and variance (3.44, 0.56, 0.31) are more than that of teachers with academic qualification (1.83, 0.76, 0.57), which shows that the effective use of rewards and punishment are an essential part of professional teaching. Regarding the guidance of co-teachers to plan and carry out teaching job effectively, teachers with professional teaching qualification (m = 3.71, SD = 0.53, and Variance 0.28) as against teachers with academic qualification (m = 1.77, SD = 0.80 and variance = 0.65) reveals that professionally qualified teachers guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job effectively. The results also reveal that professionally qualified teachers tend to interact with their students effectively more than the academically qualified teachers; they cited approachableness as a factor in professional teaching which they possess more than their counterparts who hold only academic qualification. This is depicted in their mean, standard deviation and variance, thus 3.76, 0.53, and 0.28 against 2.11, 0.92, and 0.85 respectively. (see table 3).

**Table 3: Response on whether motivational competencies of teachers improve their effectiveness**

Competencies (Variables) Items	Trained Teachers (Professionally Qualified)			Untrained Teachers (Academically Qualified)		
	Mean	SD	Variance	Mean	SD	Variance
1	3,72	,53	,28	1,71	,77	,59
2	3,67	,52	,27	1,66	,72	,53
3	3,55	,56	,31	1,83	,76	,57
4	3,71	,53	,28	1,77	,80	,65
5	3,76	,53	,28	2,11	,92	,85
Total	3,68	,53	,28	1,82	,79	,64

The second set of statistical analysis is a t-test analysis of paired sample statistics of respondents' perception of teachers' motivational competencies. The purpose of this is to further verify my analytical information; the t-test analysis is aimed at determining if there are significant differences between respondents' means. As a result, the variables were paired just as it appeared in the questionnaire, hence 1a and b, 2a and b, 3a and b,

4a and b, and 5a and b. The result showed that there are significant differences between academically qualified teachers and professionally qualified teachers in all the variables. SPSS version 11.5 displays it as  $p < 0.000$  significant levels. This does not mean that the probability is 0. It is less than  $p < 0.0005$ . Table 4 shows the highest t-value as  $-23.71$  and the lowest t-value as  $-36.84$ ,  $Df = 299$ ,  $p < 0.000$ , Therefore, the  $H_0$  was rejected (Nworgu 1991, p.155; Marija 1997, p. 230; Bryman & Cramer 2001, p. 108).

**Table 4: Two-tailed test of differences between paired means**

Paired Variables	Paired Mean	SD.	Std. Error mean	T	Df	Significance (2-tailed)
1a and b	-2.01	.98	.057	-35.19	299	.000
2a and b	-2.01	.95	.055	-36.84	299	.000
3a and b	-1.71	.97	.056	-30.48	299	.000
4a and b	-1.94	1.005	.058	-33.39	299	.000
5a and b	-1.12	.82	.047	-23.71	299	.000

Df= N-1  
N=300

The third set of analysis was the use of Cross Tabulation to demonstrate the presence or absence of a relationship. The data were tallied along agree and disagree. The set of pools question that compared the two categories of teachers on the respondents' perceptions in the entire variable tested showed large differences. Not surprisingly, the empirical results revealed that 66.7 % compared to 33.3 %, agree that teachers with professional teaching qualification demonstrate familiarity (exchange ideas) with co-teachers, in contrast to their counterparts who are teachers with academic qualifications. 75.5 % agrees that professionally qualified teachers show greater effort in encouraging co-teachers to work effectively, in disagreement to 24.5 % for academically qualified teachers. Turning to the wise use of rewards and punishment, the information gathered reveals that 71.8 % agree that trained teachers are more competent on the use of rewards and punishment in motivating students during and after instructional process against 28.2 % for untrained teachers. Asked whether academically qualified teacher or professionally qualified teachers guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job effectively, respondents' answers demonstrate that professionally qualified teachers guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job effectively against their counterpart who are academically qualified. This is shown in their percentage values of 82.2 % compared to 17.8 % respectively. Finally, regarding teachers interaction process competencies, the result revealed that as high as 85.7 % against 14.3 % agree to the fact

that trained teachers have a more propensity to effectively interact with their students than their fellow teachers who are academically qualified. The overall cross tabulation result showed that professionally trained teacher are more result oriented than their counterparts who are academically trained.

*The fourth* set of analysis was the use of ANOVA aimed at testing if there are significant differences between the attitudes of the respondents towards teacher's motivational competencies. The analysis showed that the between-group mean square to the within-group mean square is close to 1. (F-ratio 1.83 Df = 299,  $p > 0.27$ ). Thus, there are no significant differences in the opinion of respondents' background information towards academically qualified teachers and professionally qualified teachers in their motivational competencies. The overall ANOVA analyses of all the respondents have strong support for professional development.

### **Discussion Of Results**

The results from the data analyses on co-teachers demonstrating familiarity with their counterparts and co-teachers encouraging each other to work effectively revealed that professionally trained teachers tend to stimulate themselves more than the academically trained teachers. Likewise, professionally qualified teachers are more likely to encourage co-teachers more effectively in their collaborative effort. Collaboration is seen as part of teacher preparation programs. This begins with the understanding that all teachers will be able to work with each other. The argument is that every teacher needs to study teaching techniques, subject area(s), disability, individualization, accommodation and skills for collaboration in the school system to be effective. In addition, they are essential part of effective schooling (Friend and Cook 1996). Also, teacher-to-teacher interactions are powerful instrument in student's motivation processes because as co-teachers interact and tell each other the problem they encounter in their various classes as they tend to discuss and critically review and develop enhanced teaching through the exchange of ideas, as well as make useful suggestion to each other on how to handle situations in their teaching-learning processes (cf. Stiggins 1986, pp. 51-58; Stiggins & Duke 1990; Dunkin 1997, pp. 37-51).

Equally, the results from this empirical study suggest that teachers with professional qualification motivate their fellow teachers more effectively on how to plan and carry out

teaching assignments. The respondents' rating displayed a compatible view with other research studies in the West. A large number of the respondents (82.2 %) observed that even if teachers do their work, they do not do them *well*. To help them do a more effective job, co-teachers give them specific guides to use and plan their job effectively to accomplish objectives. For example, co-teachers bringing their resources—skills, training and perspectives to their job are an effective way of improving themselves. These resources are combined to strengthen teaching and learning opportunities, methods and effectiveness (Suzanne 1997). One advantage that is clearly developed from this relationship according to Dieker and Barnett (1996, pp. 5-7) is that professionally qualified teachers have expertise in many areas and combining these skills makes them more effective in meeting the needs for themselves and their students. Therefore, teacher-to-teacher motivation is an important ingredient for success in schooling; however, additional skills will be needed to realize the goals teachers' set for themselves and their classes.

A plausible explanation for respondents' answers on the use of rewards and punishment during instructional process showed a positive response because the use of power in schools is seen as important in determining high student achievement. Teachers use this method to influence student's compliance in the classroom. This was evident in Cheng, Cheung and Tam (cf. 2002, pp. 138-155) study; however, their investigation was only limited to grade 6 students. Cheng (1994a, pp. 221-239) viewed power base as the use of reward power, coercive power, position power and personal power or professional power in classroom to ensure students compliance (see also Freiberg & Freebody 1995; Austin, Dwyer & Freebody 2003). Power is also accepted by researchers especially in Africa and Asia as a valuable tool for effective teaching and high students' achievement (Cheng, Cheung & Tam 2002, pp. 138-155). This is what Cheng (2000, pp 207-225) called cultural factors. These cultural factors according to Cheng extends to the cultural forces shaping the features of school processes and dominating the effectiveness of education in terms of students' academic achievement.

Interestingly, the result concerning teachers' interaction process competences also showed positive outcome in favour of professionally trained teachers. This is evident in all the statistical approaches employed in analysing the data obtained for this study. These responses display attitudes that are compatible with school effectiveness and

improvement effort. Collins Concise Dictionary defines interaction as to act on or in close relationship with one another; a mutual or reciprocal action. Whereas, Freiberg and Freebody (1995, p. 198) describe classroom interaction as sequences of directives and compliance through which the classroom participants work interactively towards the visible completion of a task through the production of answers. While Austin, Dwyer and Freebody (2003, p. 26) conclude that in this directive-compliance sequence, the teacher gives a directive and selects a student as respondent, the student responds and teacher denotes whether or not the response complies with the directive.

Also, in Amalaha's study (1979) "*children's behavioural problems*" he found out that students manifest cognitive and social problems in school as a result the classroom teacher should be involved in assisting the student in solving them. Due to lack of effective early stimulation, students may show weakness in some areas of their study. Therefore, they need care, respect, acceptance, support and recognition (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan 1989, p. 154). If such a situation arises, teachers need to throw in the towel to have full grasp of the situation and then embark on remedial to alter the effects of lack of stimulation with the help of their co-teachers. On the other hand, some children are problem behavior cases. Problem behavior according to Amalaha (1979, p. 232) is a behavior that is characterized by an inability of the child to meet the demands of the school environment. It may include inability of a child to get along with other children, inability to achieve self-reliance, and inability to adhere to the values prescribed by a system. Many students come to school having developed problem behavior because their parents allow their children to get what they want when they exhibit problem behaviour such as 'temper tantrum.' In such a case, according to Ahamala, the reinforcement of problem behavior results in the repetition of the behavior. The student brings this attitude to school to confront the classroom teacher.

Similarly, according to Stones (1966, p. 383), when students come with specific emotional problem, it is impossible to go into much detail about the emotional problems, which individual students may have. But it is important that teachers realize that they exist and they are able to identify them. Children who are of a nervous temperament, popularly described as '*highly strung*', need sympathetic treatment from their teachers. Teachers' task should not be to reinforce their nervous behavior by giving them attention because of it, but rather to help them to acquire confidence. Such

students will need more encouragement than the average students and will react more strongly to failure. Encouragement and success in their schoolwork, the sympathetic understanding of their teachers, and a friendly cooperative atmosphere in the classroom will help them to develop more confidence.

The question now is that what can the teachers do with the help of their fellow teachers to help? To help students with this problem, according to Amalaha (1979) citing Gibson is to find out what the students *acceptable* interests and capabilities are, and then find a group of the same grade with similar interest for the student to meet socially. To do this is not part of the talk-and-chalk work, but it has to be done to help the students in need of assistance. It helps to give the child a factual knowledge through the assistance of professional teachers. However, Stones (1966, p. 385) advocates that teachers should recommend children to the guidance clinic when it is obvious that the problem is beyond their reach. The guidance clinic of a school is staffed with experts—professional educational psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychiatric social workers. Their duty is to diagnose the difficulties of children referred to them and recommend a course of action.

### **Summary of Major Findings**

Succinctly, the data collected from teachers, principals and supervisors of education, and their subsequent analysis revealed that highly effective school teachers encourage the creativity of students and co-teachers in finding better ways to solve their educational problems. Specifically, the study yielded the following six major findings.

1. Teachers with professional qualification demonstrate better familiarity with co-teachers.
2. Professionally qualified teachers encourage co-teachers to work effectively
3. The use of rewards and punishment wisely tends to be associated to teachers that hold professional teaching qualifications.
4. Professionally qualified teachers effectively guide co-teachers on how to plan and carry out their job professionally.
5. Teachers with professional qualifications interact with their students more positively.
6. There are no significant differences in the opinion of respondents based on their background information.

## **Conclusion and Implication**

However, from the findings summarized in the preceding paragraphs, more than a few conclusions and implications may be drawn. One of the main objectives of this research has been to outline the complex role of teacher motivational competencies and to explicitly state my stands in developing teaching in the education community from the perspective of a state in a developing country—Nigeria. Contrary to the research hypothesis, there are significant differences between the two categories of teachers used in this study. The current findings show strong support that professionally qualified teachers are inclined to motivate students and co-teachers effectively in the entire variables tested. We can say that using professionally competent teachers in the teaching and learning process may be a very good course of action, not only because the students will enjoy the instructional activities, but because they are valuable factors that will enhance the intellectual growth of both teachers and their students. The plausible explanation of this study lies in the differences the two categories of teachers exhibit. The protection of students and teachers to achieve educational objectives depends not only on professional teachers expertise and skills, but also to a greater extent on the effective coordination and efficacy of professional teachers. Emphasis on effective teachers motivational competencies carries more importance in terms of co-teachers efficacy and students achievement.

Additionally, to motivate students to learn, teachers should first of all take time to get to know their students individually at the start of the term. Second, is to have students fill out individual plan for resources. Third, at the beginning of each term, teachers should also take their time to explain their approach to their students. This could be accomplished by communicating in simple sentence and by giving brief demonstrations of typical classroom activities. Teachers should not assume, for example, that students accustomed to teacher-centered classroom would automatically understand the reasoning behind pair work or activities designed to create interactive learning environment. Fourth, testing different kind of group activities may help teachers find the right '*mixes*' for a special class. Fifth, teachers also should introduce all new activities carefully and explain how they can help students improve their skills. Also, motivation level is said to drop and anxiety levels go up when students are unsure about how or why

they should perform certain tasks. Making positive statements about upcoming activities, moreover, is an excellent way to increase motivation (Niederhauser 1997, p. 8).

Co-teachers' review is a deliberate process of gathering information and substantiation about the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process in the educational environment and how positive they encourage fellow teachers in carrying out their teaching job effectively is very crucial. The purposes include providing assurance that students are able to achieve what the course requires them to achieve and to improve teaching practices (cf., Niederhauser 1997). Co-teachers offer the capacity to critically review and improve enhanced teaching through the exchange of ideas, guiding and encouraging colleagues. They provide constructive critical co-teachers' feedback about teaching, teaching should be regarded as a fundamental aspect of the academic role expected of teachers: co-teachers are a valuable source of formative feedback on whether goals are achieved. Similarly, Dunkin (cf., 1997, pp.37-51) citing the work of Scriven drew attention to the fact that if a school system institutes a system of assessment in order to encourage professional growth and development of its teachers, it is engaged in formative evaluation. This type of feedback process has yielded positive results.

There are nevertheless some limitations in this research. First are the number of schools that could be included in the study, and the generalizability of the findings. Although I attempted to improve the generalizability of the results by inferring from a multiple case study, it would be difficult to conclude from only ten schools, the Ministry of Education and the Post Primary Schools Board in Rivers State out of the thousands in Nigeria. This may not represent the opinions of other teachers in other parts of the country. As this is the case, it will be inappropriate for one to assume that their opinions represent those of other teachers in Nigeria and outside. However, despite these limitations the current study follows the principles of interpretation research; it is not a certainty to seek generalization from the setting of a population, but rather supplies an understanding of the deeper structure of a phenomenon. Interpretation research according to Kerlinger (1973), takes the results of analysis, makes an inference pertinent to the research relations studied, and draws conclusion about these relations. The researcher, who interprets research results, searches them for their meaning and implications. As a result, I did this in two ways. First, the relations within this research study and the way its data are interpreted. Second, the broader meaning of this research data was sought

(see Kerlinger 1973, pp. 234-235). However, additional investigation in this direction will be in order. A new perspective on teachers' motivational competencies, which do not only take into consideration of the unique characteristics of the variables used in this study, but their environmental and cultural derivation is thus recommended.

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