

**TEACHER MOTIVATION AND INCENTIVES IN
LESOTHO**

**JAMES URWICK,
PULENG MAPURU
MICHAEL NKHOBOTI**

Lesotho College of Education,
Maseru, Lesotho

November 2005

Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABBREVIATIONS	v
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	vi
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Purposes and context of the study	1
1.2 Key concepts	2
1.3 Review of the literature	3
1.4 Research design and data collection	6
2. TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION AND INCENTIVES	12
2.1 The context of trends in the value of teachers' pay	12
2.2 The financial position of primary school teachers in comparative perspective	12
2.3 Overview of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation	16
2.4 Is there a teacher motivation crisis?	21
2.5 Is the situation deteriorating?	22
2.6 The present incentives for entry and continuing in teaching	23
3. KEY DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION	25
3.1 Introduction to the case studies	25
3.2 Mountains One ACL	25
3.3 Mountains Two LEC	27
3.4 Mountains Three RCC	30
3.5 Foothills One ACL	32
3.6 Foothills Two LEC	35
3.7 Foothills Three RCC	36
3.8 Urban One ACL	38
3.9 Urban Two LEC	41
3.10 Urban Three RCC	42
3.11 Urban Four EM	44
3.12 A synthesis of the case study findings	45

4.	CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE: STAFFING PATTERNS, TEACHER BEHAVIOUR AND PUPIL PERFORMANCE	49
4.1	The nature of the evidence	49
4.2	Attrition patterns at national and district levels	49
4.3	Transfer patterns	52
4.4	Staffing standards: the rural-urban quality gap	53
4.5	Teachers' income and expenditure	55
4.6	Reported teacher behaviour in the selected schools	56
4.7	Academic outcomes and their implications	57
5.	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	60
5.1	Conclusions on the recruitment and deployment of primary school teachers	60
5.2	Recommendations for policy	61
APPENDIX 1	Interview schedules for national-level stakeholders	64
APPENDIX 2	Interview schedule for teachers	64
APPENDIX 3	Interview schedule for head teachers and community representatives	75
APPENDIX 4	General Statements (GS)	79
APPENDIX 5	Personal Statements (PS)	84
APPENDIX 6	Personal background questionnaire for teachers	86
	REFERENCES	90
	Tables	
Table 1.1	Stakeholder interviewees	8
Table 1.2	Sample of primary schools for case studies	9
Table 2.1	Trends in gross salaries of primary school teachers, 1990-2004	13
Table 2.2	Trends in net salaries of primary school teachers, 1994-2004	14
Table 2.3	Comparison of salaries in 2004-2005: primary school teaching and the accounting cadre of the civil service	15
Table 2.4	Frequencies of job satisfaction ratings by cluster	17
Table 2.5	Frequencies and percentages of positive and negative job satisfaction by zone	17
Table 2.6	Mean teacher job satisfaction by qualified status and by cluster	18
Table 2.7	Mean teacher job satisfaction by level of qualification	18
Table 2.8	Means of personal statement variables 2-5 by cluster	19
Table 2.9	Teacher focus group responses to General Statement 1	20
Table 2.10	Summary of responses to General Statement 1 by focus group members and other teachers: frequencies by school	20
Table 3.1	Mountains One ACL: Focus group responses to selected general statements	27
Table 3.2	Mountains Two LEC: responses to personal statements 2-5	29
Table 3.3	Mountains Three RCC: focus group responses to selected general statements	31
Table 3.4	Foothills One ACL: PSLE results by gender in 2002 and 2004	33
Table 3.5	Foothills One ACL: focus group responses to selected general statements	34

Table 3.6	Focus group responses to selected general statements	38
Table 3.7	Urban One ACL: Mean responses to personal statements 2-5	39
Table 3.8	Urban One ACL: focus group responses and individual responses to selected general statements	40
Table 3.9	Urban Three RCC: focus group responses to selected general statements	44
Table 3.10	Urban Four EM: focus group responses to selected general statements	46
Table 4.1	Estimation of new appointments of primary school teachers in selected districts, April 2003 to March 2004	50
Table 4.2	Annual attrition of primary school teachers in Lesotho, April 2003 to March 2004	51
Table 4.3	Estimated annual attrition of primary school teachers in selected districts, April 2003 to March 2004	51
Table 4.4	Mean annual average transfer rates of teachers in the case study schools	52
Table 4.5	Mean annual average transfer rates above zero: rural-urban comparison	52
Table 4.6	Proportions of unqualified teachers in selected districts, 2003-2004	53
Table 4.7	Unqualified teachers in Lesotho, 2003-2004	54
Table 4.8	Means for actual net salary, reported household expenditure and savings indicator	56
Table 4.9	Incidence of reported teacher misbehaviour	57
Table 4.10	Results and related indicators for case study schools, 2003	59

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors gratefully acknowledge the permission of the Ministry of Education and Training of the Kingdom of Lesotho and of the Lesotho College of Education to carry out this research. We also wish to thank the College for its logistical support.

ABBREVIATIONS

ACL	Anglican Church of Lesotho
ACP	Associate of the College of Preceptors
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
APTC	Advanced Primary Teacher Certificate
B.A.	Bachelor of Arts
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
B.Sc.	Bachelor of Science
CEF	Campaign for Education Forum
COSC	Cambridge Overseas School Certificate
CPI	Consumer price index
Dip. Acc.	Diploma in Accounting
Dip. Bus. St.	Diploma in Business Studies
DRT	District Resource Teacher
DTEP	Distance Teacher Education Programme
EM	English Medium
FPE	Free primary education
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GNP	Gross national product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
LAT	Lesotho Association of Teachers
LEC	Lesotho Evangelical Church
LTTU	Lesotho Teachers' Trade Union
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NGOC	NGO Coalition
PH	Primary Higher Certificate
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
PTC	Primary Teacher Certificate
RCC	Roman Catholic Church
SMC	School Management Committee
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This is one of a series of country studies, undertaken in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, as part of an international research project on the motivation and incentives of teachers at the primary level. The project is intended to guide key stakeholders with regard to the current predicament of teachers in low-income countries in the era of Education For All.

The study draws attention to relevant aspects of the background in Lesotho. Since 2000 primary school enrolment has expanded as a result of the phasing out of school fees. In response to this expansion the proportion of unqualified teachers has increased and there is increased reliance on in-service training. Although churches and community organisations own most schools in Lesotho, the salaries of nearly all teachers are determined and paid by the government. There are two national teachers' organisations, with rights to be consulted by the government, but they enjoy only limited support from teachers. Public pensions for teachers took effect in 2000 and small allowances are paid to those serving in areas designated as "mountains".

Three main types of procedures were used to collect data for this study. Firstly, semi-structured interviews were held with 12 well-informed, professional stakeholders at the national level. Secondly, in case studies of ten primary schools, the researchers interacted with teachers, head teachers and community representatives and measured teachers' attitudes to relevant aspects of their work situation. The schools were selected in three clusters, in mountain, foothill and urban areas that represent different levels of quality in the provision of education. The mountain and foothill clusters have three schools each and the urban cluster four schools. Thirdly, documentary and statistical sources at the national level were studied, especially for evidence about the pay, staffing patterns and attrition of primary school teachers. The instruments used were to a large extent designed by the international lead researchers of the project.

An analysis of the general financial context for teacher motivation shows that teachers' salaries, along with those of other public servants, have been adversely affected by national economic problems and a heavy tax burden. The real value of the net pay of primary school teachers has typically fallen by about 18 per cent in the past five years. At the same time the improved treatment of degree-holders has increased the difference in salaries between secondary and primary level teachers. Selective comparisons with non-teaching posts in the civil service indicate that primary school teachers have broadly similar salaries, but fewer opportunities for promotion and no equivalent entitlement to housing and car loans.

Attitudinal data from the case study schools are combined to provide a general overview of teachers' job satisfaction and related attitudes. Of 92 teachers responding, 41 rated their own job satisfaction as "just OK", while 27 rated it as poor or very poor. Within the mountain and foothill clusters of schools, the mean ratings for job satisfaction are consistently higher for unqualified than for qualified teachers. Job satisfaction ratings are positively and significantly correlated with the ratings of pay and working conditions. Teachers' ratings of their pay are generally low, while those of working conditions are moderate. With regard to the level of motivation, the combined evidence of teachers' focus groups and individual teachers suggests that about half the teachers disagreed with the proposition that teachers in their school

were well-motivated, while one-fifth were not sure. It is clear that there are major problems of poor teacher motivation, especially in the urban schools, and that motivation varies considerably according to the situations in particular schools.

The more detailed evidence from interviews held with head teachers, teachers and community representatives at the school level does not support the idea of a “teacher motivation crisis”, but rather indicates that a minority of teachers display a lack of commitment. National-level stakeholders who were interviewed also did not convey the idea of a crisis, but showed much concern about a range of factors that were thought to have an adverse effect on motivation. These included the material problems of poor pay, housing, fringe benefits and school physical facilities; low professional status; limited opportunities for career development, and unsatisfactory professional leadership in schools. However, some recent improvements in support for instruction were mentioned, especially a more collaborative approach to inspection. It was recognised that the teaching career still had some attractions, including job security and a subsidized training.

On the basis of the case studies, teacher motivation is described in the context of each school in a series of sketches. In each sketch consideration is given to the background, including teacher qualifications and physical facilities, to management-teacher relations, to community-teacher relations and to the major factors in teacher motivation in the school. It is assumed that teacher motivation is to some extent a collective phenomenon and considerable weight is given to the views of the teacher focus group (of four to eight teachers) that was consulted in each school. In most cases the data obtained from individual teachers supported the views of the focus groups.

The sketches are followed by a synthesis, providing several generalisations (i.e. major hypotheses) based on the case study findings. Firstly, the case studies show that teachers’ motivation is strongly influenced by the quality of their professional relationships, especially those with supervisors and with each other. There were two cases of rural schools where good management and effective co-operation among teachers seemed to outweigh the influence of poor pay and facilities on motivation, while in two other (urban) cases unpopular management and divisions among teachers seemed to outweigh the influence of relatively good pay and facilities. Secondly, relationships with local communities are found to be more difficult for teachers in rural than in urban areas of Lesotho; but relationships with local communities and with pupils are apparently less critical for teachers’ motivation than relationships with supervisors and with each other. In keeping with the ideas of goal theory, the presence or absence of instructional leadership on the part of the head teacher is found to be particularly important. Thirdly, the findings suggest that teachers’ motivation is influenced by differences in standards and expectations as well as objective conditions. Since a large proportion of the teachers in rural schools are unqualified, the low professional expectations of such teachers help to explain why reported motivation is generally better in rural than in urban schools. Good academic results, on the other hand, may encourage teachers to have higher expectations of other aspects of the situation. This is illustrated by the case of an urban school where the teachers considered themselves to be de-motivated, not by the head teacher, but by the education ministry because of its failure to recognise their efforts or to maintain the school facilities.

In addition to the direct evidence about teacher motivation from schools and stakeholders, various types of circumstantial evidence are considered. Most of these are potentially both “causes” and “effects” of motivation. They relate to attrition, transfers, staffing policy, household finances, teacher behaviour and pupils’ academic results.

Estimates of primary teacher attrition in the year, April 2003 to March 2004, based on poorly kept records, are presented for the country and for the districts of Maseru, Mafeteng and Thaba-Tseka. Although the estimate of 11.6 per cent for the national attrition rate may be rather too high, attrition seems to be quite high by international standards. Comparison of the three districts suggests that attrition is highest in the urban and lowland areas, where there is a more diverse labour market and teachers have higher qualifications. The evidence about inter-school transfers, from teachers in the case study schools, shows a similar pattern: teachers in the urban cluster have changed schools more frequently than those in the rural clusters and qualified teachers have done so more frequently than the unqualified. These findings are consistent with the evidence of the case studies that teacher motivation tends to be lower in the urban schools.

It is noted that teacher recruitment is managed locally in Lesotho and that there are separate labour markets for qualified and unqualified primary school teachers, the latter being concentrated in the more remote areas. The limited data obtained on teachers’ incomes and household expenses do not suggest any significant variation between rural and urban areas in the potential for savings. The data do, however, suggest that teachers in the foothills cluster have more need for the “mountain allowance”, which they do not receive, than those in the mountain cluster: a point supported by some interview evidence.

The interviews held in schools and the teacher focus groups provide considerable evidence of linkage between teachers’ behaviour and their motivation. The absenteeism of certain teachers was reported to be a problem in seven of the ten schools; laziness in seven, lateness in six and drunkenness in four schools. On the other hand, head teachers reported favourably on teacher behaviour in three schools where the focus group reported good motivation.

The review of circumstantial evidence concludes with a comparison of efficiency and productivity indicators of the case study schools, based on recent results in the Primary School Leaving Examination. Low pass rates provided part of the context for poor teacher motivation in two of the rural schools. But the encouraging results of some of the urban schools provided no guarantee that their teachers would consider themselves well motivated.

The report concludes that teacher motivation is an important element in the quality of educational provision, strongly influenced by the way in which education is managed and by those with whom teachers interact. Motivation involves willingness to improve a service as well as maintain it. In Lesotho a localised system of recruitment selects unqualified teachers who are willing to stay in remote, rural primary schools, but not necessarily to improve them. Qualified teachers in more accessible schools

seem to be more likely to seek improvement of their schools, but less committed to remaining in the profession.

The report ends with twenty recommendations for policy in Lesotho. These are concerned with teachers' pay and career structure, the organisation of teacher education, teachers' representation in policy-making, their working conditions and the way in which they are managed. It is suggested that a special scheme to deploy qualified teachers to remote schools for fixed periods would help to make pupils' learning opportunities more equitable.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSES AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This study forms part of an international research project on the motivation and incentives of teachers, particularly at the primary level, in low-income countries of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. The project had been co-ordinated by two specialists in educational development, Dr. Paul Bennell and Dr. Kwame Acheampong,¹ who are based in the United Kingdom (UK) and has been funded by the UK Department of International Development. The project is rooted in growing concern about the status and predicament of teachers in low-income countries as their governments strive to expand the provision of basic education in keeping with internationally agreed goals. The purposes are to inform and guide educational specialists, national governments and other stakeholders with regard to the levels and determinants of teacher motivation and job satisfaction and steps that could be taken to improve them.

Lesotho, the setting of this study is a small, independent and mountainous kingdom surrounded by territory of the Republic of South Africa. In 2004 it had a population of 1.81 million and its GDP per capita was estimated as M4,427 (Bureau of Statistics, 2005, p. 2), equivalent to about US\$700. Lesotho achieved a promising start in Western education during the 19th century owing to its early contact with Christian missions, its political cohesion, its linguistic homogeneity and the successful use of the mother tongue, Sesotho, as a written language and medium of instruction. Today, however, its educational system is relatively disadvantaged, within southern Africa, in its human and other resources. This situation reflects pressures on the national economy over the past twenty years, in which there have been four major components: a long-term decline in soil fertility, reduced employment of Basotho citizens in South Africa, lack of credit facilities to encourage small enterprises and a decline in customs revenue. To these woes have been added, recently, the loss of export privileges conferred by the Multi-Fibre Agreement. The demand for education, at the household level, has also been constrained by poverty. In a survey of 1999 65 per cent of households were found to be below the “poverty line”, with incomes below M80 per member per month (Gay and Hall, 2000, p. 80).

The Government of Lesotho was motivated by its commitment to the goals of Education For All and by the high incidence of poverty to introduce a “free primary education” (FPE) policy, with a progressive phasing out of school fees from the year 2000 onwards. This led to a dramatic expansion of enrolment in primary education, greatly increasing the pressure on available resources. The mass recruitment of unqualified teachers caused their proportion of the teaching force to increase from 22 per cent in 1999 to 36 per cent in 2004.

Formerly a British Protectorate, Lesotho has retained the structure of dual control of education established in the colonial era. The three major churches namely, the Roman Catholic Church (RCC), the Lesotho Evangelical Church (LEC) and the Anglican Church of Lesotho (ACL), manage most schools in Lesotho. At the time of independence (1966) most teachers were employees of the churches. From 1974 onwards, however, the government paid most of them, through a central Teaching Service Unit. In 1975 the church teachers’ colleges were replaced by a public

National Teacher Training College. The Education Act of 1995 established, among other things, a Teaching Service Commission to regulate the employment of all teachers in church and government schools. Alongside it, a Teaching Service Department administers the pay and benefits of teachers. There are, however, a few private schools, which employ all their own teachers and some “English medium” primary schools which have a mixture of private and public teachers. With the exception of the private and English medium schools, which use English throughout, all primary schools use Sesotho as the medium of instruction for the first three years of their curriculum. From Standard 4 upwards, in official policy, English is the medium of instruction.

Attempts to improve the remuneration of teachers have included the introduction of pensions and of mountain allowances. Pensions (authorised by an Act of 1994) were implemented for teachers in 2000. Allowances for teachers serving in designated mountain areas were introduced in 1994, in recognition of the transport costs and high costs of goods and services that such teachers cannot avoid.

The Education Act of 1995 established a Joint Reference Committee, whose areas of responsibility include teachers’ conditions of service. This committee includes representatives of the two national teachers’ organisations, the Lesotho Association of Teachers (LAT) and the Lesotho Teachers’ Trade Union (LTTU). But the government-union relationship entered a major crisis in the same year (1995), when the government first approved a substantial pay increase for teachers and then became alarmed about the financial implications and revoked it (Gay and Hall, 2000, p. 12). This resulted in a strike led jointly by the LAT and the LTTU; but the LAT soon called off its action, whereas the LTTU stayed on strike for two months. Subsequently a much reduced pay increase was negotiated and introduced. The membership of both organisations has declined since 1995, but that of the LAT is larger. The government treats it as the major representative of teachers and has a more distant relationship with the LTTU. Union effectiveness is one of the factors in teacher motivation that will be considered in this study. Since 1995 teachers’ salaries have been revised periodically in attempts to keep up with inflation. Evidence as to how far these efforts have been successful will be presented in Chapter 2.

1.2 KEY CONCEPTS

This project makes extensive use of the concepts of motivation, job satisfaction and incentives. Hoy and Miskel (1991) define work motivation as a combination of factors that “start and maintain work-related behaviours toward the achievement of personal goals” (p. 168). We, however, define teachers’ motivation as their state of being influenced by such factors, not as the factors themselves. The type of personal goals involved is also an important issue. We would describe teachers as being “well-motivated” if they are striving for personal goals that correspond closely to the official goals of the school and the ideals of the profession. “Poor motivation” could imply either that teachers make little effort or that they intentionally focus their effort on goals not useful for the school.

It is useful to seek to measure and explain job satisfaction, as well as motivation, for two reasons. Firstly, job satisfaction, although distinct from work motivation, helps to

account for it. Secondly, since motivation is a broad concept, involving both characteristics of the individual and external factors, it is open to varied interpretations in the field. While motivation is predictive of future behaviour, job satisfaction, with its focus on recent experience, is likely to be easier for informants to consider. The third concept, incentives, refers to deliberate efforts to encourage desired work motivation. Although “extrinsic incentives” tend to attract the most attention, attempts to improve the substance of teachers’ work, such as improvement of teaching materials or in-service training, can also be significant incentives.

1.3 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This section focuses first on the relevance of certain theories of employee motivation to teachers in Lesotho. It then reviews a selection of previous research on teacher motivation and related themes in developing countries.

The relevance to teachers of classic motivation theories such as those of Maslow (1943), Herzberg (1966) and Vroom (1964) and Locke (1976) has been widely discussed with reference to industrialised countries, but relatively little in the context of poorer countries. Yet the central tenet of Maslow’s “need hierarchy theory”, that individuals’ motivation by higher-order needs increases to the extent that their more basic needs are satisfied, has an intuitive appeal in developing countries, with their great inequalities of income and working conditions. It is understandable, for example, if teachers who suffer from an extreme scarcity of materials are not much motivated by involvement in curriculum development. It is also to be expected that the fine-tuning of pay to individual teacher performance, tasks or skills, which has received so much attention recently in the USA and England (see Chamberlin, Wragg, Haynes and Wragg, 2002; Conley and Odden, 1995), will not be seen as a major issue where teachers feel that they do not earn a “living wage”. Maslow’s ideas, although they have received only limited empirical support (Hoy and Miskel, 1991, pp. 172-173), are a useful source of interpretation for the present research.

Although influenced by Maslow, Herzberg’s (1966) “motivation-hygiene theory” argues that factors intrinsic to work, such as achievement and responsibility, have more potential for a positive effect on motivation, while extrinsic factors such as pay, managerial policy and working conditions have more potential for a negative effect if they are “sub-standard”. This theory would appear to be more relevant to educational systems in which resources and expertise are abundant than to ones in which both elements tend to be scarce. We expect that, in the latter situation, improvements in pay or managerial policy could be important positive motivators. Nevertheless, we expect that teachers in developing countries, as in richer countries (see Jacobson, 1995), are likely to be motivated by a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

With reference to specific incentives, Vroom’s (1964) “expectancy theory” is relevant to developing countries because of its recognition that the links between effort and reward may be very tenuous. Improved pay for senior posts, for example, may not motivate eligible teachers if they have no confidence in the system of assessment and selection for such posts.

A fourth area of theory focuses on the use of goals for motivation. Locke (1976) argues that employee motivation is likely to be enhanced if work goals are specific, challenging, formed through employee participation and reinforced by feedback. This argument raises important issues for educational systems of developing countries, in which teachers are often left to guess at what their professional goals should be, or have goals imposed on them without consideration of their views. Even where goals have been specified, feedback to teachers may be limited by infrequent contact with supervisors.

Work motivation has a collective, as well as an individual, dimension, which is explored by “equity theories” (see Wilson and Rosenfeld, 1990, p. 69). Teachers compare their own efforts and rewards with those of peers. The peers in question may be in other occupations as well as within the teaching profession. Such comparisons are likely to influence teachers’ perceptions of their own status and are just as relevant to motivation in developing countries as in industrialised ones.

Patterns of motivation may be expected to depend on teachers’ personal characteristics and perceptions of their role, as well as the circumstances of their work. Williams (1998) mentions research evidence that teacher attrition (i.e. individual decisions to leave the profession permanently) is negatively related to age and positively related to intellectual capacity and educational attainment. One cannot assume that teachers’ motivation, even if it is related to attrition, necessarily has the same set of relationships. Murnane (1987), with reference to the USA, suggests that some degree-holders are attracted to teaching as a medium-term occupation rather than a permanent career. However, teachers’ age and qualifications are treated as potentially important factors in this study

Teachers’ perceptions of their role are discussed by Jessop and Penny (1998), in a qualitative study of primary school teachers in rural South Africa and the Gambia. They identify 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. The categories developed by Jessop and Penny can be compared with those of researchers in other settings, such as the “pupil-oriented”, “subject-oriented” and “benefits-oriented” categories used by Griffiths, Gottman and McFarland (1965).

A study of wider scope which has important implications for the present reports is the “policy research” by Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) on teacher motivation in developing countries, based on findings from Malawi, Zambia and Papua New Guinea. It focuses on factors in four areas: the conditions of employment of teachers, their situation as educators, their relationship with the local community, and their

voice in educational policy. The report shows a plethora of negative factors in all these areas and not many redeeming features in the educational systems concerned. Teacher motivation is said to be “at best fragile and at worst severely deteriorating” in these countries.

Of particular concern is, firstly, the evidence from VSO about poor management at all levels, from the ministry of education to the school, and, secondly, teachers’ perception that the decline in their pay had adversely affected their status both nationally and locally. Other specific problems that are highlighted include delayed payment, housing shortages, insufficient upgrading opportunities, lack of learning materials, a decline of inspectorate services and insufficient involvement of teachers’ representatives in policy making. Because Lesotho is geographically close to Malawi and Zambia and shares with Papua New Guinea some problems of remote areas, the VSO study is a useful source of comparative material for this report. From Papua New Guinea, the VSO study reports the problem of the high cost of living for teachers in remote areas, which also affects Lesotho. Research on poverty in Lesotho (Gay and Hall, 2000) has already documented the high proportion of unqualified teachers in primary schools of the mountain areas and the allegation that teachers in these areas steal food intended for the pupils (p. 114).

This last allegation serves to remind us that the factors, which adversely affect teacher motivation may also result in teacher misconduct. Using evidence mainly from Sub-Saharan Africa, Davies (1993) explores the ramifications of “teacher deviance” in situations of poverty and in societies with strong traditions of patronage and male dominance. Perceptions and reports of teacher behaviour are relevant to this study as possible effects of the level of motivation.

While much of the VSO evidence, and that of Davies, is qualitative and anecdotal, 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. They related closely to another source of stress: the pressure to produce examination passes. Barrett’s (2005) research on primary school teachers in Tanzania, shows that they, as “second parents”, have a great concern about whether their pupils will qualify for admission to secondary education.

An additional de-motivating factor in Sub-Saharan Africa is the HIV/AIDS epidemic, partly because of its effects on pupils through their home environments and partly because of its effect on teachers themselves. But reliable, empirical findings about the latter are generally lacking. Bennell’s (2003) review of the evidence refutes the notion that teachers themselves are a “high-risk group” in relation to the epidemic. Lesotho’s Education Sector Strategic Plan for 2005-15 assumes that there is a high rate of teacher attrition and attributes this partly to HIV/AIDS. It reports estimates, based on an impact assessment study of 2003, that HIV prevalence among teachers was then between 22 and 27 per cent and will peak at 25-30 per cent in 2007 (Ministry of Education and Training, 2005a, p. 100). However, as an infection rate of 22 per cent was actually found from voluntary testing and, for those willing to be tested, there was an incentive of access to anti-retroviral drugs, we think that the estimates of infection among teachers generally may be too high.

In addition to HIV/AIDS, the Strategic Plan identifies “unattractive working conditions” and “lack of a clear career structure” as causes of high attrition and, by implication, low motivation, among teachers (Ministry of Education and Training, 2005a, pp. 46, 99). But it not clear that these views, however plausible, are based on any systematic evidence. Although significant research exists on teacher attrition at the secondary level in Lesotho (Williams, 1998), we are not aware of any published research specifically on teacher motivation at the primary or secondary level in this country. For the period 1985-96, Williams found migration to South Africa to be a major factor in the attrition of secondary school teachers. But this factor has little importance for primary school teachers today: at the primary level migration has never been so easy and the opportunities for it have greatly diminished since the establishment of majority rule in South Africa.

This review will end on a positive note by mentioning a study of incentives for teachers in Botswana (Mautle and Weeks, 1994). This considers a variety of possible incentives in the areas of remuneration and working conditions and reports those adopted by the Government of Botswana in the late twentieth century. Although Botswana enjoys a much stronger financial position than Lesotho, the study is a useful source on options that a government could consider.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

General goals and research questions

This study is intended to provide both an overview of the motivation and job satisfaction of primary school teachers in Lesotho and an in-depth analysis of the major determinants of their motivation in different types of local and school context. There is also a goal of assessing the prospects for improvement of teacher motivation, especially through policies of the national government.

The major, specific issues are captured in the following set of research questions, all of which refer to teachers at the primary level:

1. How well motivated are teachers, generally and in different types of local environment (remote rural, accessible rural and urban)?
2. What is their level of job satisfaction and how does it vary according to type of local environment and level of qualifications?
3. What do teachers and other stakeholders identify as the major factors in teachers’ motivation and job satisfaction?
4. What are the attitudes of teachers, in different types of local environment, to their pay, working conditions and opportunities for career development?
5. How important are the relations of teachers with their managers and with their local communities as factors in their motivation and job satisfaction?

6. What recent trends, if any, in teacher motivation and job satisfaction are reported by teachers and other stakeholders?
7. What evidence is there about the effects of teachers' motivation on their retention, behaviour and performance?
8. What measures to improve teacher motivation would be realistic in Lesotho?

As the time and resources available for the study have been modest, the responses to the questions that is provides are necessarily partial and approximate.

Research methods

The research methods used are qualitative in emphasis and consist of three main elements. The first is in-depth study of the perceptions and opinions of national-level stakeholders, using an initial sample of 18 professionals of various kinds. The second element is case studies of 10 primary schools, focusing on the attitudes and opinions of teachers, head teachers and community representatives and on contextual factors. The third element is the study of documentary and statistical evidence at the national level that may throw light on the causes and effects of current levels of teacher motivation. The methods do not include a major survey based on a large, probability sample and such a survey would be a possible sequel to the present study.

Further details are now given about each major element in the research methods, with a focus on the samples used, the data collection procedures and the scope and quality of the data actually obtained.

Study of national stakeholders' views

The sample of stakeholders at national level was initially designed to consist of six ministry officials, the Education Secretaries of the three major churches, two representatives of teachers' organisations, two representatives of non-governmental organisations (NGO's), two representatives of international development agencies and three educational researchers resident locally. In practice the list was modified and data were actually obtained only from the stakeholders listed in Table 1.1. It proved difficult to schedule meetings with ministry and development agency officials; others were generally more accessible. The NGOs represented were not providers of education themselves, but had an advocacy role.

Data were obtained through one-to-one in-depth interviews, each conducted by one of the three researchers. The standard schedule, provided by the central project co-ordinators, consisted of semi-structured items and took about one hour to complete (see Appendix I).

Table 1.1: Stakeholder Interviewees

Case no.	Position	Type of informant	Type of interview
1	Director, Teaching Service Department	“ “ “ “	Standard
2	Planning Officer, Ministry of Finance & Development Planning	Ministry of Finance official	Short, focused
3	Education Secretary, ACL	Manager of church schools	Standard
4	Education Secretary, LEC	“ “ “ “	Standard
5	Education Secretary, RCC	“ “ “ “	Standard
6	President, Lesotho Association of Teachers	Rep. of teachers' organisation	Standard
7	Secretary, Lesotho Teachers' Trade Union	Rep. of teachers' organisation	Standard
8	Director, NGO Coalition for the Rights of the Child	Rep. Of NGO	Standard
9	National Co-ordinator, Campaign for Education Forum	Rep. Of NGO	Short, focused
10	Professor in university Institute of Education	Educational researcher	Standard
11	Senior lecturer in university Institute of Education	Educational researcher	Standard
12	Independent consultant	Educational researcher	Standard

However, shorter, modified schedules were used in two cases (see Table 1.1) and one of the latter was completed by telephone. The standard schedule covered the perceived level of teacher job satisfaction, its causes and trends, the effects of teacher motivation, and relevant policies. For teachers' organisations, there were additional items about their experiences in the past five years.

Case studies of teacher motivation in selected primary schools

For the second major element, the primary school case studies, the sample of schools was drawn in a purposive manner, in three clusters. These clusters represent three types of environment: mountains, foothills and an urban area. These categories describe the most common types of school location in Lesotho, but a fourth category commonly used, "lowlands", is not represented. The choice of areas was guided by the distribution of education indicators in Gay and Hall's (2000) survey of poverty in Lesotho (pp. 118-119). The mountain cluster, of three schools, is located in a part of Thaba-Tseka District where the summary of education indicators shows a "very high" level of poverty. The foothills cluster of three schools is located in a part of Mafeteng District classified as "medium", and the urban cluster of four schools is located in Maseru, classified as "very low", by the same criterion. Within each cluster, one school is managed by each of the three major churches (ACL, LEC and RCC) and the fourth school in the urban cluster is a semi-private "English medium" school. Schools

in the urban cluster were also selected to represent variations in school size and in pupil-teacher ratio. In order to protect informants, the schools will be named in this study as “Mountains One” and so on, as shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Sample of Primary Schools for Case Studies

School pseudonym	District supervising	No. teachers (excl. head t.)	No. teachers interviewed
Mountains One ACL	Thaba-Tseka	5	2
Mountains Two LEC	“	6	2
Mountains Three RCC	“	6	2
Foothills One ACL	Mafeteng	4	2
Foothills Two LEC	“	9	2
Foothills Three RCC	“	8	3
Urban One ACL	Maseru	39	4
Urban Two LEC	“	13	2
Urban Three RCC	“	12	2
Urban Four EM*	“	23	4

*EM = English medium, under community management

For each school, five or six different data collection procedures were planned, as follows:

1. In-depth interviews with two to four teachers, depending on the size of the school (see the schedule in Appendix II).
2. In-depth interviews with the head teacher and with a community representative of the School Advisory Committee or the School management Committee (using a common schedule, see Appendix III).
3. Collective responses to 23 “general statements” about the school, by a focus group of teachers with a maximum size of eight (see Appendix IV).
4. Individual responses to the 23 general statements by any teachers who were not members of the focus group. (In the smallest schools, however, this procedure was not applicable.)
5. Responses to seven “personal statements” about the work situation by all available teachers, including interviewees and focus group members (see Appendix V).
6. Responses to a personal background questionnaire by all available teachers except interviewees (see Appendix VI). (In most respects the interviews provided the same background information.)

The teacher interviewees were selected from the staff lists in such a way as to give variations in qualifications, age, grade level taught, gender (where possible) and, in the case of Urban Four EM, public and private employment. The local community representatives interviewed were any available non-teacher members of the School Advisory Committee or the School Management Committee. In some cases two members attended and were interviewed together. As Advisory Committees were responsible for individual schools, but School Management Committees were responsible for all schools in a parish, members of the former were preferred if they were available.

The manner in which the teacher focus groups were formed varied to some extent according to the school size. In schools with less than eight teachers, all available teachers, including the interviewees, were included in the focus group in the interests of synergy and meaningful consensus. (The term, “teacher”, in this account does not include the head teacher.) In larger schools, the focus group consisted of a systematic sample of eight teachers other than the interviewees. Therefore individual responses to the general statements were only obtained in schools with more than eight teachers, from teachers outside the focus group. At the request of the international project coordinators, focus groups were given a choice of three responses to each general statement: “Agree”, “Not sure” or “Disagree”, but individuals responding to the general statements were given a five-point scale. Focus groups were asked to discuss the general statements without the researcher being present and to record comments selectively in order to explain the responses they chose.

Data collection for the case studies was preceded by a pilot study in a single primary school of moderate size, located in a village not far from Maseru, the national capital. This enabled the researchers to make minor improvements to the instruments and schedule of activities. The preparations also included contact with the Chief Inspector for Primary Education in the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and with the Senior Education Officers of the three districts concerned. The Lesotho College of Education made a four-wheel drive vehicle available for the rural school visits.

The researchers spent two days at each of the rural school clusters. The first day was used for preliminary visits to each school, in which the schedule of research activities was planned for the following day with the head teacher or senior teacher available. As part of the process, background details about the teachers were obtained to enable interviewees and the focus group to be selected. With the help of the head teacher, an interview with a member of the Advisory or Management Committee was also arranged. On the second day, one researcher worked at each school in the cluster to carry out all the research procedures. The latter were explained to the teachers early in the day. The interviews were held during teaching hours, arrangements having been made for cover in the classroom. The focus group discussion was held immediately after the end of classes. In the course of the head teacher’s interview, details were obtained on enrolment in each grade and class, on the use of the available classrooms and on other physical facilities. In the smaller urban schools, a similar procedure was followed. But in Urban One ACL, a very large school, all three researchers shared the work, while in Urban Four EM two researchers shared the interviews. In each of these cases four teacher interviews were held.

The data collection coverage for the case studies was generally satisfactory. However, we were unable to interview a community representative for Mountains One ACL or Urban Three RCC.

Documentary and Statistical Evidence of the Context

In the third element of the research methods, the main types of data collected were of four kinds. Firstly, results in the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) were obtained for the case-study schools. These are used for interpretive purposes in Chapter Three. Secondly, salary scales and consumer price indices were obtained for the period 1994-2004, for an estimation of recent trends in the purchasing power of teachers' pay. Thirdly, salary and appointments data were obtained for secondary level teaching and for some examples of non-teaching posts in the civil service, for comparative purposes. The relevant government ministries provided salary and appointments data and the consumer price indices were obtained from the Bureau of Statistics. An appraisal of the financial situation of primary school teachers is given as background in Chapter Two and is useful for interpreting the data from stakeholders and teachers that follow. The third type of data obtained was for estimation of teacher attrition at the national level and in the three districts of the case studies (Mafeteng, Maseru and Thaba-Tseka). Numbers of teachers in service were available from the annual educational statistics of MOET, but the records of teacher appointments, in the Teaching Service Department, were not organised in a convenient manner and required laborious processing. Details of the approach adopted are given in Chapter Four, so that the analysis is placed in context. Although some of the records were troublesome to use, all three types of data contribute in important ways to the interpretation of the findings.

2. TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION AND INCENTIVES

2.1 THE CONTEXT OF TRENDS IN THE VALUE OF TEACHERS' PAY

As a prelude to the overview of teacher job satisfaction and motivation, this section describes recent trends in the purchasing power of primary school teachers and their financial position in relation to other occupations with similar levels of qualification. This background information is useful for the interpretation of teachers' views about their work situation. The focus on pay, however, does not imply that it is necessarily the most important factor in teacher motivation.

The trends in the purchasing power of primary teachers' gross salaries, presented in Table 2.1, are based on present and past salary schedules, supplied by MOET, and consumer price indices for major towns of Lesotho, obtained from the national Bureau of Statistics. The entering Salary Points for different levels of qualification have remained fairly stable over time and provide a basis for this time series. Information about past and present rates of income tax, from the Lesotho Revenue Authority, is used to present the trends in net salaries in Table 2.2. The latter trends are limited to the decade 1994-2004, since tax rates for 1990 were not available.

The general pattern is that the real value (i.e. purchasing power) of teachers' salaries increased in the period 1990-99, but then declined during the past five years to levels below those of 1990. The decline in the real value of net salaries has been greater than that of gross salaries because the same tax thresholds have been maintained since 1997. In the middle ranges of the salary scale this decline has been about 18 per cent.

Some of the general economic problems of Lesotho have been mentioned in Chapter One. In this context, a regime of structural adjustment has exerted a downward pressure on public sector salaries generally. At the same time the decline of customs revenue has made the government reluctant to raise the income tax thresholds. Thus the burden of income tax on wage and salary earners is considerably greater in Lesotho than elsewhere in southern Africa, the tax-free allowance being limited to M10,560 per annum and the lowest band of taxation being at 25 per cent. Outside the public sector, tax evasion has been very widespread. To the extent that primary school teachers understand this situation, it is not a favourable one for motivation.

2.2 THE FINANCIAL POSITION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

Other issues of potential importance for motivation are whether primary school teachers are paid equitably vis-à-vis secondary school teachers and whether their financial position is attractive in comparison with non-teaching occupations and with national income. Each of these will be considered in turn.

In general, teachers at the primary and secondary levels receive the same pay for equivalent qualifications. However, there have been two areas of inequitable treatment for the primary level. One is that some teachers at the primary level have

old, poorly paid certificates, obtained through in-service training, that have no equivalent at the secondary level. Another, minor problem is that, since 2000, B.Ed.

Table 2.1: Trends in Gross Salaries of Primary School Teachers, 1990-2004

A. ACTUAL GROSS SALARIES AT SELECTED POINTS (MALOTI)					
Point	Minimum level for:	1990	1994	1999	2004*
55	Senior District Resource Teachers	13800	24468	39312	48396
51	B.Ed. Primary holders since 2000	12324	22068	35472	43212
45	Degree holders before 2000	10272	18516	29748	36012
39	Holders of diploma or equiv.**	8436	15096	24252	29448
31	PH & PTC holders	6370	11460	18396	22476
19	Other teaching certificates [†]	4260	7572	12156	14988
10	COSC holders (unqualified)	3252	5760	9264	11376
B. GROSS SALARIES AT CONSTANT 1990 VALUES AS ESTIMATED BY THE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX (CPI)					
Point	Minimum level for:	1990	1994	1999	2004
55	Senior District Resource Teachers	13800	14758	15302	13076
51	B.Ed. Primary holders since 2000	12324	13310	13808	11676
45	Degree holders before 2000	10272	11168	11580	9730
39	Holders of diploma or equiv.	8436	9105	9440	7957
31	PH & PTC holders	6370	6912	7161	6073
19	Other teaching certificates	4260	4567	4732	4050
10	COSC holders (unqualified)	3252	3474	3606	3074
CPI for January (1990 = 100)		100.0	165.8	256.9	370.1

*Salaries effective from 1/4/04.

**Common equivalents are PTC plus APTC and PTC plus ACP.

[†]Older certificates obtained through in-service training. The minimum point before 2004 was 18.

Table 2.2: Trends in Net Salaries of Primary School Teachers, 1994-2004*

A. ACTUAL NET SALARIES AT SELECTED POINTS (MALOTI)				
Point	Minimum level for:	1994	1999	2004
55	Senior District Resource Teachers	17904	31193	37097
51	B.Ed. Primary holders since 2000	16344	28697	33728
45	Degree holders before 2000	14035	24951	29048
39	Holders of diploma or equiv.	11812	20829	24726
31	PH & PTC holders	9195	16437	19497
19	Other teaching certificates**	6279	11757	13881
10	COSC holders (unqualified)	4920	9264	11172
B. NET SALARIES AT CONSTANT 1990 VALUES AS ESTIMATED BY THE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX (CPI)				
Point	Minimum level for:	1994	1999	2004
55	Senior District Resource Teachers	10799	12142	10024
51	B.Ed. Primary holders since 2000	9858	11170	9113
45	Degree holders before 2000	8465	9712	7849
39	Holders of diploma or equiv.	7124	8108	6681
31	PH & PTC holders	5546	6398	5268
19	Other teaching certificates	3787	4576	3751
10	COSC holders (unqualified)	2967	3606	3751
CPI for January (1990 = 100)		165.8	256.9	370.1

*The income tax formula for 1990 was not available.

**Older certificates obtained through in-service training. The minimum point before 2004 was 18.

Primary holders have started service at Point 51, whereas other degree-holders, teaching at the secondary level, have entered at Point 54. The problem is minor at this stage because degree-holders in the primary sub-sector are few and are mainly in supervisory positions.

It is logical to suppose that the difference in average salary between secondary and primary school teachers has increased over the past five years, owing to two factors. The first of these is the mass recruitment of unqualified teachers at the primary level in order to sustain the FPE policy. This caused the proportion of unqualified teachers to rise from 22 per cent in 1999 to 36 per cent in 2004. The second factor is the improved treatment of degree-holders. Teachers with degrees are the only ones whose real pay has improved since 1999, as a result of the raising of their entering Salary Points in 2000, and most of them work at the secondary level. In 2004, 1,883

teachers in registered secondary schools (54 per cent of the total) had master's or bachelor's degrees, whereas only 130 teachers in registered primary schools (1.3 per cent of the total) had these qualifications.

It has been relatively difficult to obtain data about appointments in non-teaching occupations requiring similar levels of qualification. However, comparison with a section of the civil service is relevant, since teachers are in many countries (though not in Lesotho) treated as civil servants. Here the comparison will focus on the accounting cadre of the civil service as an example. In this cadre, the starting salary level for holders of degrees and the points in the salary scale are similar to those in teaching (see Table 2.3). But the meaning of diplomas is not the same in the two occupations.

Table 2.3: Comparison of Salaries in 2004-5: Primary School Teaching and the Accounting Cadre of the Civil Service

PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHING				ACCOUNTING CADRE			
Qualification	Exper. (yrs.)	Salary Point	Salary (M)	Qualification	Exper. (yrs.)	Salary point	Salary (M)
BA/BSc	0	55	48396	BA/BSc	0	55	45984
BEd Prim	0	51	43212				
PTC+ACP/ Dip Ed	2	37	27492				
PTC	2	33	24072	Dip Acc/ Bus St	2	43	32436
PTC	0	31	22476	Dip Acc/ Bus St	0	31	21480
COSC	0	10	11376	COSC	0	19	14232

A diploma in accounting or business studies requires only two years of full-time training or the equivalent, whereas teachers qualified at the diploma level have had at least three years of full-time training (in many cases more). Even holders of the Primary Teacher Certificate (PTC), who are paid considerably less, have had a three-year training. A PTC is rather more comparable with the Diploma in Accounting in that both have Salary Point 31 as the entry point.

A diploma holder in the accounting cadre, however, can be promoted more rapidly than a teacher. Under the salary scales of 2004-5, an Assistant Accountant with a diploma could, after two years' experience, rise to the rank of Accountant at Point 43 with an annual salary of M32,436. A PTC holder with two years' experience, on the other hand, would earn only M24,072.

Unqualified primary school teachers (mostly COSC holders) are in many cases fortunate to be employed at all. But, even for COSC holders, occupational comparisons do not necessarily favour teaching. One who succeeds in gaining entry to the accounting cadre (probably with a credit in Mathematics) is placed on a higher salary than one who teaches, as Table 2.3 shows. Vacancy notices of MOET show that a COSC holder with two years' experience could earn M14,232 as an Assistant

Storekeeper or a Graphic Artist, in the 2004-5 salary scale, whereas such a person would earn only M12,072 as a primary school teacher. The ministry is apparently willing to pay more for its storekeepers than for its teachers!

Another important disadvantage for teachers is that they do not have the same entitlement to housing loans and car loans as civil servants. The LAT has tried unsuccessfully to address this problem. A further consideration is that, for reasons relating to the localised recruitment of teachers, they have to wait for up to three months for their first pay cheque, whereas civil servants, who are centrally recruited, do not experience this delay.

Consideration can also be given to the general position of teachers in the national economy. Education specialists of the World Bank continue to argue that teachers' pay in many African countries is too generous in relation to per capita national incomes and compromises efforts to expand access (Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomala, 2003). In 2004 Lesotho had a GDP per capita of M4,427 (equivalent to about US\$700). The PTC is still the modal qualification of primary school teachers and the minimum gross salary of a PTC holder in 2004 was only 4.6 times the GDP per capita, while his or her minimum net salary was 4.0 times the figure. The World Bank argument that such a level of pay is generous overlooks the low absolute level of GDP per capita in Lesotho. The argument also overlooks a situation where the prices of goods and services in Lesotho are to a large extent determined by conditions in South Africa, where the per capita national income is much higher. A further problem is the arid climate and poor soil fertility in Lesotho, which makes it more difficult for teachers' households to grow their own food than it is for their counterparts in much of tropical Africa and South Asia. We conclude from all these considerations that the economic context for the motivation of primary school teachers in Lesotho is not a very favourable one.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION

In Chapter One we mentioned that the study does not use a survey with a large, probability sample. Nevertheless, some of the combined findings of the case studies of primary schools give a general indication of the level of teachers' job satisfaction and of the ways in which teachers' describe their motivation. The data also suggest some of the factors that may be of general importance for motivation. In Chapter Three teachers' attitudes to their work situation will be examined in more depth and related to local contexts.

Table 2.4 provides a summary of the ratings of job satisfaction in response to Personal Statement 1. Frequencies are shown for the four rating categories, "Very poor", "Poor", "Just OK" and "Good". These are tabulated for each cluster of selected schools. It is clear that the modal response is "Just OK" and that the distribution of ratings does not vary significantly between clusters. This is also the case where the responses are grouped into larger categories: negative and positive categories of job satisfaction and rural and urban zones, as in Table 2.5. The joint frequencies do not yield a significant chi-squared statistic. We may note in passing that there is also no

evidence of systematic variation by managing body (i.e. ACL, LEC, RCC and community).

Table 2.4: Frequencies of Job Satisfaction Ratings by Cluster

CLUSTER	RATINGS:				Total
	Good	Just OK	Poor	Very poor	
Mountains	5	7	1	1	14
Foothills	4	7	3	5	19
Urban area	15	27	11	6	59
Total	24	41	15	12	92
Percentage	26%	45%	16%	13%	100%

Table 2.5: Frequencies and Percentages of Positive and Negative Job Satisfaction by Zone

ZONE	JOB SATISFACTION TYPE		Total
	Positive	Negative	
Rural	23 (70%)	10 (30%)	33 (100%)
Urban	42 (71%)	17 (29%)	59 (100%)
Total	65 (71%)	27 (29%)	91 (100%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 0.059 (ns.)

The findings for the clusters may seem surprising initially, since the physical resources for learning were substantially inferior in the rural clusters, as the case studies will show. But more than half the teachers in the rural clusters were unqualified, while those in the urban cluster were nearly all qualified. The hypothesis that less qualified teachers have lower expectations for the learning process, or accept poor resources more readily, is therefore worth considering. Table 2.6 shows the mean ratings for job satisfaction (Personal Statement 1) for the matrix of qualified and unqualified teachers in the mountain, foothill and urban clusters. Here the ratings of Personal Statement 1 are given scores from 1 (very poor) to 4 (good). The means do vary in the direction suggested by the hypothesis, those of the unqualified teachers being consistently higher. But, within the mountain and foothill clusters, the differences between the means are not significant at the 5 per cent level (the t values being 1.26 for the mountains and 0.71 for the foothills). The hypothesis could be tested more effectively with a larger, probability sample.

Table 2.6: Mean Teacher Job Satisfaction by Qualified Status and by Cluster (Frequencies are shown in brackets)

CLUSTER	STATUS		
	Qualified	Unqualified	All statuses
Mountains	2.86 (7)	3.43 (7)	3.14 (14)
Foothills	2.33 (9)	2.70 (10)	2.53 (19)
Urban area	2.86 (58)	3.00 (1)	2.86 (59)
All clusters	2.80 (74)	3.00 (18)	2.84 (92)

Table 2.7 describes the data further by showing mean ratings of job satisfaction by category of qualification, for all teachers across the clusters. This shows that the largest difference is between holders of advanced certificates and diplomas and those with initial certificates and diplomas, but the difference cannot be tested with the sample used.

For the case study sample as a whole, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed in order to explore the relationships of the job satisfaction variable with (a) teachers' characteristics other than qualifications and (b) the other Personal Statement variables. Of the relevant background characteristics, those that have the largest correlation coefficients with respect to job satisfaction are the teacher's age ($r = 0.211$), years worked at the particular school ($r = 0.189$) and attendance at union or association meetings ($r = 0.181$). The fact that the latter coefficient is positive suggests that LAT membership was of interest to teachers more for the loan facilities that it offered than as a means of redressing grievances. Of the 85 teachers who responded to the question about union or association membership, only 39 said that they were members (35 association and 4 union).

Table 2.7: Mean Teacher Job Satisfaction by Level of Qualification

LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION	MEAN	ST. DEV.	COUNT
Unqualified (COSC, etc.)	3.00	1.029	18
Certificates	2.86	.952	42
Diplomas	2.86	.941	22
Advanced certificates/diplomas	2.44	1.014	9
Degrees	2.00	-	1
Total	2.84	.964	92

The other personal statement variables are given scores from 1 (very poor) to 5 (excellent). Those that have the largest (and the only significant) correlation coefficients with respect to job satisfaction are the ratings of working conditions ($r =$

0.469) and the ratings of pay ($r = 0.227$), although all the coefficients are positive. As Table 2.8 shows, the ratings of pay are low, especially in the rural clusters, while those of working conditions are moderate. Upgrading opportunities are rated lower in the rural clusters than in the urban one: a difference to be expected because of the location of training facilities in or near Maseru. But other in-service training opportunities are, surprisingly, rated higher in the rural clusters.

As the discussion in Chapter One would suggest, we expect the quality of teachers' motivation to correspond to their level of job satisfaction to some extent, but also to reflect their level of professional commitment and sense of purpose. The latter attributes depend partly on leadership and on external encouragement. In asking focus groups to characterise teacher motivation in particular schools, we have assumed that the school and its host community can exert a considerable influence on the motivation of individual teachers. The focus group responses to General Statement 1, "Teachers in this school are well-motivated", presented in Table 2.9, do in fact vary in ways that suggest a variety of school situations within as well as between clusters. These situations are explored in Chapter Three.

The focus group responses were to some extent supported by individual responses to General Statement 1 where these were obtained. Table 2.10 provides a summary for each cluster, combining the focus group and individual responses. Here the focus group responses are weighted by the size of the group and the individual ratings, obtained on a five-point scale, are condensed into the three categories, "Disagree", "Not sure" and "Agree".

Table 2.8: Means of Personal Statement Variables 2-5 by Cluster. (Frequencies are shown in brackets)

CLUSTER	PAY	WORKING CONDITIONS	UPGRADING OPPORTUNITIES	OTHER IN-SERVICE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES
Mountains	1.64 (14)	2.93 (14)	1.79 (14)	3.14 (14)
Foothills	1.72 (18)	2.79 (19)	(2.63 (19)	3.17 (18)
Urban area	2.07 (60)	3.15 (61)	2.93 (59)	2.87 (60)
All clusters	1.93 (92)	3.04 (94)	2.70 (92)	2.97 (92)

Table 2.9: Teacher Focus Group Responses to General Statement 1 – (General Statement 1: “Teachers in this school are well-motivated”.)

SCHOOL	RESPONSE	SCHOOL	RESPONSE
Mountains One ACL	Agree	Urban One ACL	Not sure
Mountains Two LEC	Agree	Urban Two LEC	Disagree
Mountains Three RCC	Agree	Urban Three RCC	Disagree
Foothills One ACL	Disagree	Urban Four EM	Disagree
Foothills Two LEC	Disagree		
Foothills Three RCC	Agree		

These findings suggest, firstly, that there are major problems of poor motivation among teachers, especially in urban schools that are relatively well provided with resources. Secondly, they suggest that these problems are in part due to factors associated with particular schools. The influences of quality of school management and of school-community relations, as well as factors within the classroom, are examined in Chapter Three. But we shall first turn to the perspectives of local and national-level stakeholders interviewed in order to complement the general account of teachers’ responses.

Table 2.10: Summary of Responses to General Statement 1 by Focus Group Members and Other Teachers: Frequencies by School – (General Statement 1: “Teachers in this school are well-motivated.”)

SCHOOL	CATEGORY OF RESPONSE			Total
	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	
Mountains One ACL	4	0	0	4
Mountains Two LEC	4	0	0	4
Mountains Three RCC	4	0	1	5
Foothills One ACL	0	0	4	4
Foothills Two LEC	0	0	8	8
Foothills Three RCC	6	0	0	6
Urban One ACL	3	17	5	25
Urban Two LEC	1	1	4	6
Urban Three RCC	2	0	8	10
Urban Four EM	1	0	18	19
Total	25	18	48	91
Percentage	27%	20%	53%	100%

2.4 IS THERE A TEACHER MOTIVATION CRISIS?

Perspectives of local-level stakeholders

In the interviews held in each school with the head teacher, a community representative and two or more selected teachers, the informants were asked their opinion as to how many of the school's teachers had high, "just OK" and low levels of motivation. They also responded to open-ended questions about the level of teacher job satisfaction and the factors involved. A review of the responses to these enquiries at the local level is relevant to the question of a "motivation crisis".

In general the numbers of teachers allocated to the low category of motivation do not support the idea of a crisis. In all but two out of 34 cases in which a number was given, it was a minority of the teachers. In two cases a teacher simply asserted that all the teachers were committed to their work. In four cases the informant was not sure of the situation.

Various informants had contrasting views about the way in which motivation varied by level of qualification and by longevity in the school. The unqualified teachers were described as too relaxed at Mountains Three, but as the more motivated group at Foothills Two. At Urban Four the newer and older teachers interviewed had equally negative perceptions of motivation in the other group.

Responses on the level of job satisfaction vary considerably within schools. Foothills Two is exceptional in having consistently positive responses. Comments on the factors involved in job satisfaction are very varied. In addition to the factors covered by the personal statements, professional relationships within the school, the administration of the school, academic results and interaction with parents were all mentioned by a number of informants, either for positive or for negative reasons. Where working with children was mentioned, it was always seen as a positive factor. In Chapter Three these "human relations" factors are explored in more detail.

Perceptions of national-level stakeholders

The national-level stakeholders who were interviewed in general perceived the levels of job satisfaction and morale of primary school teachers to be low. They considered this to be in part due to material factors: poor salaries and accommodation, poor school facilities and excessively large classes. It was also pointed out that loans were not available for teachers in the same manner as for civil servants. Loan schemes proposed by the LAT and the LTTU had come to nothing and one of the church Education Secretaries considered that these teachers' organisations were ineffective, even in Maseru. One of the educational researchers considered that unqualified teachers had low morale, partly because low pay made it hard for them to afford part-time study in order to upgrade themselves. This hypothesis of a "poverty trap" is plausible, but the data from the schools fail to support it. Only the lack of a full Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) seemed to be preventing some unqualified teachers from enrolling in the Distance Teacher Education Programme (DTEP) of the Lesotho College of Education. The LTTU representative considered that teachers' desire for higher salaries was the major reason for their interest in

further study. In the light of the salary differentials, this assumption is reasonable both for COSC holders and for certificate holders.

National-level stakeholders saw the status of primary school teachers as a problem for motivation in two ways. Firstly, they were not as much respected as members of other “learned professions” (a classic problem). Secondly, not many of them could hope to occupy senior positions as heads or deputy heads and career progression “within the classroom” was very limited.

The church Education Secretaries and the NGOC Director considered that professional relationships within the school were important for motivation and were concerned about leadership problems at the school level. Head teachers were not adequately trained for their positions and some did not monitor teachers’ work effectively. Some remained in their posts for too long and did not have good rapport with new teachers. When it was necessary to discipline a teacher, the procedure was long and cumbersome. One of the Education Secretaries admitted to being very lenient with offenders and this may have added to the problems at school level. He had not requested the dismissal of any teacher for persistent absenteeism, although the problem was a very serious one.

Although they were generally pessimistic about teachers’ motivation, national-level stakeholders recognised that some of the innovations and policies of the government over the past ten years might have had a positive effect. Support for instruction had improved through the introduction of District Resource Teachers (DRTs) and a more collaborative approach to inspection. Teaching and learning materials were provided free under the FPE policy and many teachers had received an orientation for the Breakthrough to Literacy programme. DTEP, for the upgrading of the unqualified, had a larger enrolment than previous programmes of that kind. Some teachers had been included in curriculum panels and in the setting and marking of the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE). The impression about motivation, therefore, was one of continuing struggle rather than outright crisis.

In their recommendations of measures that could improve teacher motivation, the national-level stakeholders did not focus narrowly on issues of pay and fringe benefits, but gave considerable attention to the quality of supervision and working conditions in the schools. On the whole they saw teacher motivation as closely linked to the quality of the planning and management of primary education. Some of the specific points made by these stakeholders are incorporated and acknowledged in the researchers’ recommendations, which are stated in Chapter Five.

2.5 IS THE SITUATION DETERIORATING?

At the beginning of the chapter attention was drawn to the serious decline in the purchasing power of primary school teachers’ salaries over the past five years. A positive development, however, has been the introduction of pensions for teachers since 2000, mentioned in Chapter One. Against this background, it is of interest to consider the responses to the personal statements about change in the standard of living and change in job satisfaction over the past five years (Numbers 7 and 6).

For Personal Statement 7 the mean response from all teachers in the case studies is slightly negative (2.73), with 41 per cent indicating that their standard of living has declined, moderately or significantly. For Personal Statement 6, however, the mean response is slightly positive (3.14), with 41 per cent indicating a moderate or significant improvement in job satisfaction. The responses to the two personal statements are not inter-correlated. Neither do they have any significant association with zone, qualified status, length of service, gender or any of the household variables that were measured. One may infer that the relevant perceptions and experiences varied in a random manner among individual teachers. There was no general consensus among individual teachers that their standard of living or job satisfaction had declined.

The focus group responses, however, indicate a decline of teacher motivation in the urban schools. Three of the focus groups of urban schools agreed that their teachers were “increasingly de-motivated” (General Statement 16) and the fourth was not sure. In contrast, none of the rural focus groups agreed with this statement, even if they described the state of motivation as poor.

The decline of motivation in the urban schools could be attributed partly to management problems in two of the cases. But the level of pay was probably the most common factor. Teachers in the urban environment may have been more conscious of the decline of purchasing power. The following lines were displayed on the wall of a head teacher’s office in one of the urban schools:

“The Lord looked upon my works and was very pleased. Then he looked again and saw my salary. He turned away, bowed His head and wept.”

2.6 THE PRESENT INCENTIVES FOR ENTRY AND CONTINUING IN TEACHING

In the light of the many problems, it might be asked why anyone is willing to become a primary school teacher in Lesotho. The views of the CEF Co-ordinator on this issue, however, combined with the reasons given by interviewees in the schools for becoming a teacher, suggest a set of incentives similar to those that are common in other countries.

For qualified teachers, there is a high degree of job security and, because of the system of local recruitment and the large proportion of unqualified teachers, some scope for choosing the location of their post. In addition, an incentive for undergoing the three-year pre-service training at the Lesotho College of Education is that very “soft” loans are available to cover the costs of tuition, meals, boarding accommodation and books. If the diploma is obtained with good results, it can be used as a basis for admission to a university degree programme, although the student would not receive a further government loan for such study without having first been a teacher for three years.

For unqualified teachers, the job is usually a means of survival in a situation where few if any alternative salaried posts are available. For COSC-holders, there is the hope of upgrading through in-service training. For all teachers there are the

attractions of holidays, which are popular in the culture of Lesotho, and of a pension for those who continue in the career. In the designated “mountain” areas, there is the mountain allowance of M275 per month, which, to judge by the evidence in Chapter Three, helps teachers to meet the additional living costs but is insufficient to attract qualified teachers to the mountain schools.

3. KEY DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CASE STUDIES

The purpose of this chapter is to enhance the understanding of teacher motivation in specific school contexts. As we have seen, the interview data suggest that school-specific factors, as well as factors relating to the educational system and the wider society, are important for motivation. The procedure used is as far as possible an inductive one, where we begin with sketches of teacher motivation in the primary schools selected for detailed study and then use them for a comparative analysis and a synthesis of the main findings. The organisation of the sample of schools in mountain, foothill and urban clusters has been explained in Chapter One.

3.2 MOUNTAINS ONE ACL

Background

Mountains One ACL Primary School is situated in a village in the Maluti Mountain area, about 10 minutes' drive from Mantsonyane. The school is also situated near some shops and a hospital. There are no transport problems encountered by teachers and pupils in travelling between the school and their places of residence. There are no communication problems in terms of sending and receiving messages. A gravel road from Mantsonyane that passes near the school is in good condition. The hospital staff occasionally visit the school to advise teachers and pupils about HIV and AIDS. Then teachers are able to advise pupils. According to the head teacher and teachers no HIV infections had been reported in the school. Because this is a mountain area, the teachers receive a "mountain allowance" of M275.00 per month.

At the time of the research visit, the school had an enrolment of 367 pupils. It had six teachers, including the head teacher, giving a teacher-pupil ratio of 61. Four teachers were qualified, and the other two teachers were GCE-holders (i.e. had some 'O' level passes, but not a full school certificate). Five teachers including the head teacher were female; the other teacher was male and was the only one under the age of 30. The five female teachers, two of whom were outsiders, lived in the school campus and their houses were satisfactory according to the head teacher. The male teacher lived in a village that was within walking distance. According to the head teacher, the teachers worked together and were seen to be committed in their work. Teachers were never absent without permission.

Teachers had 9 to 10 subjects per day to teach and that was not easy to implement fully. The head teacher taught Standard 1 (119 pupils) on top of being an administrator. Time for making preparations for lessons and for marking pupils' work was a challenge for teachers. As there were seven classes and only six teachers, there was a need for one of the teachers to have two classes: Standards 3 and 4 as these had the smallest numbers. The teacher concerned, although unqualified, was said to be a good one in terms of supporting children's learning at those levels.

There are seven classrooms with limited furniture. Toilets were said to be adequate and in good condition except doors that needed repair. But there is no office space or school office and it is difficult to keep school records. The school does not have a staff-room and teachers do not have a good chance to be together for even informal discussion. The school has no fencing and therefore suffers from intruders.

Management-teacher relations

According to the focus group, the head teacher led by example. The head teacher checked teachers' class records regularly. The group confirmed that the head teacher regularly observed classes and felt that teachers in the school were well managed. What the head teacher said tallied with the focus group's observation that teachers at the school worked well together. The focus group also indicated that Education Officers or Inspectors visited the school regularly to inspect and advise accordingly. District Resource Teachers (DRTs) also visited the school according to the teachers who were interviewed.

The School Advisory Committee interviewee mentioned that teachers showed good working behaviour and a good relationship with one another. She indicated that she was familiar with the school and attended regular committee meetings. She felt comfortable with the pupils' behaviour that was seen at the school. She also mentioned that the feeding scheme in the school was helpful to pupils.

Community-teacher relations

According to the head teacher, some community members used the school grounds for sporting activities. Most parents came to school only when they were invited, having no interest in school business. Conflicts had occurred among some parents, for reasons that were not clear, and the School Advisory Committee had tried to intervene. The member of the School Advisory Committee mentioned that the village chief attended the committee's meetings and was supportive of its work. Parents were advised to help their children at home and to co-operate with one another. Four teachers pointed out that there was a good relationship between the school and the community. The focus group members indicated that teachers were respected in the community. They agreed that teachers and parents worked well together (see Table 3.1).

The major factors in teacher motivation in the school

Two teachers who were interviewed indicated that they were satisfied with their job. One of the two teachers indicated that there was good class allocation, the school was near the health centre, there were no threats to security and there was plenty of water. The two teachers both mentioned five factors in their job satisfaction: a good relationship with the school principal, a good working relationship with other teachers, well behaved pupils, the housing available in the school campus and a good relationship with the community.

The two teacher interviewees rated working conditions in the school as excellent. They also stated that their level of job satisfaction over the last five years had increased. As indicated earlier, they were regularly visited by DRTs. One teacher

said that reviving Break Through To Literacy (BTL) was encouraging. The other explained that toilets had been built. Both of them indicated that levels of pupils' performance were increasing. They saw the mountain allowance and the pension scheme as factors boosting motivation.

Table 3.1: Mountains One ACL: Focus Group Responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 4)
Teachers in this school are well motivated	Agree
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Agree
Teachers at this school work well together.	Agree
The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers at this school.	Agree
Teachers and parents work well together	Agree
Teachers are respected in the community.	Agree
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Disagree

However, the two teachers who were interviewed stated that their pay as teachers was poor. Their salaries could not meet their needs or budget requirements. They indicated that their standard of living over the last five years had declined. They were both far away from their families, so much that they had requested transfers and were waiting for the response. Responses to the personal statements indicated that opportunities for upgrading professional qualification were also poor; but other in-service training opportunities were good. Regarding the working environment at the school being adequate, the focus group disagreed (see Table 3.1). Some limitations of the facilities have been mentioned.

3.3 MOUNTAINS TWO LEC

Background

The village where Mountains Two Primary School is to be found is about one hour's journey to the south of Mantsonyane town. Off the main gravel, a rough, circuitous lane of about 8 km., suitable only for cross-country vehicles, leads to this village and nowhere else. The village is an agricultural community, spread over high ground overlooking the Mantsonyane River. Its services include, in addition to the primary school, a small secondary school, a clinic run by the LEC and a general store. At the time of the research visit, the primary school had an enrolment of 341, but its teaching space is limited to two classrooms and a church hall and it has only seven teachers including the head teacher.

The church hall, the oldest of the buildings, has a mud floor of about 114 square metres, with no furniture at all, and accommodates Standards 1-3 (a total of 203 pupils). Standards 4 and 5 share one classroom and Standards 6 and 7 the other, each

partially furnished. There is also an unfinished classroom, a small staff room, a small kitchen, one standpipe and ten latrines in poor condition. Although the classroom block is 15 years old, there is said to be no money to provide a door and windows for the unfinished room.

All but one of the teachers live very near the school and all but one come from within the parish. However, the head teacher is the only qualified teacher in the school. Of the others, two are COSC-holders who have enrolled in the Distance Teacher Education Programme (DTEP). The others hold only a GCE result and so are not eligible to enrol in the programme.

Management-teacher relations

The outcome of the focus group discussion suggests that the head teacher is reasonably well regarded by the teachers. They agreed that they were well managed, that he led by example and that he regularly observed classes. Inspectors do not visit the school regularly, so teachers depend mainly on the head for guidance.

The head teacher mentioned that he had to help individual teachers frequently. The results of the school in the PSLE had been poor. He regarded one teacher as having little competence and two as being poorly motivated. The teachers' own behaviour had been good, but it was clear that the head felt they needed his support in dealing with pupil indiscipline. To judge by the day of the visit, he makes frequent use of corporal punishment. The problem of indiscipline was one that he attributed to parental negligence rather than teachers' lack of skill.

Community-teacher relations

It was evident from the interviews that the head teacher was very critical of the local community and that he and the LEC minister were not on good terms. The head saw the LEC as having failed to instil progressive attitudes in the community, while the minister saw the head as one who took decisions without consultation. The main complaint of the head was that boys' attendance at initiation schools caused problems in Standards 6 and 7, including the abduction of girls and pregnancies caused by those who had completed the initiation.

The relations between the other teachers and the community were less clear. Of the two teachers interviewed, one, who originated from another village, said that parents were not very co-operative, while the other, who came from the host community, said the opposite. In the focus group, however, the teachers said they were not well respected in the community: a view consistent with the head's observations. The Advisory Committee representatives also felt that most of the community adults had not learned to value education, while Catholics were less supportive than LEC members.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

In responding to the personal statements, all teachers described their level of job satisfaction as “Just OK”. The evidence is fairly consistent as to the balance of positive and negative factors that contributed to this outcome.

Both the head teacher and the Advisory Committee representatives pointed out that the teachers’ low level of qualification gave them few alternatives to their present work. Nevertheless, vocational commitment seems to have been acquired on the job. Both the teachers interviewed expressed a personal commitment to teaching. These teachers considered that they were “well-motivated” and may have equated this attribute with vocational commitment. They also considered that they worked well together: another positive factor. According to the head, they were not often absent without permission. The short distance from home to work was an advantage for most.

The major negative factors affecting job satisfaction at Mountains Two were the low level of pay, the difficulty of up-grading qualifications and the working conditions in the school (see Table 3.2). Additional, minor factors were probably the poor examination results and the low level of support from the community.

Table 3.2: Mountains Two LEC: Responses to Personal Statements 2-5 - Ratings: 1 = Very poor; 2 = Poor; 3 = Just OK; 4 = Good; 5 = Excellent

STATEMENT	MEAN RATING (N = 4)
My pay as a teacher is	1.00
Working conditions in this school are	1.50
Opportunities for upgrading professional qualifications are	1.25
Other in-service training opportunities are	3.00

With reference to pay, it was clear that the teachers interviewed, in the light of their social commitments, could hardly save anything, the mountain allowance notwithstanding. Contributing factors were the high costs of transport, health care and retail goods in the mountain area. This financial problem was linked to the one of poor opportunities for improving qualifications. Those with only “GCE” were trapped, since they were not eligible for admission to DTEP and there was no remedial programme designed for teachers in their situation. Even those who were enrolled in DTEP were not regularly observed in the classroom by their tutors.

With regard to working conditions, the main limitations of the school’s physical facilities have already been outlined. Teaching in the church hall is difficult because of the overcrowding, lack of furniture and poor lighting. Conditions in the other classrooms are only a little better. In order to achieve reasonable class sizes, the school needs eight additional classrooms and three additional teachers. The conditions observed would be challenging even for the best-trained of teachers.

3.4 MOUNTAINS THREE RCC

Background

Mountains Three is a Roman Catholic primary school located in a valley with mountains forming a three quarter moon arc around it. It had a total roll of 376 at the time of the research visit. A Roman Catholic church, mission and high school are close by and the school is within sight of another (LEC) primary school. The latter is distant in terms of the time taken to get there, due to the bad road fit only for carts and sledges. Mountains Three is an old school that uses an ancient classroom block, apparently built for that purpose at the time when the church was established. Furniture is lacking to the extent that some pupils sit on the floor or stones.

The classroom block has high windows on one side facing the sun, not letting in enough light or allowing a bit of heating up from the sun especially in winter. There are only the two schools and no other services available at this place. People from this place have to travel to Mantsonyane town for services like clinics and the post office. There is an Anglican hospital in this area at a distance of 25 km from the school, but there is no reliable, regular bus transport. People rely on privately owned four-wheel drive vans for transport.

The area is very cold in winter, when there are normally reports of heavy snows. Pupil absenteeism is common, especially in the rainy season and winter owing to the unfavourable weather conditions, coupled with the long distances pupils travel to and from school.

Management-teacher relations

All teachers (one interviewee and the focus group) in this school except one (the second interviewee) seemed to be happy with the way the school was managed. Their head teacher led by example and regularly visited their classes. These responses were contrary to the second interviewee's responses that expressed a strong disagreement on similar general statements. This teacher was the most qualified in the school and had expressed concern about other teachers' low motivation, and the inadequacy of the working environment, which other teachers said were good. This teacher also wanted a transfer even though she had not made a formal request for it. The two interviewees agreed that teachers at the school did not work well together, contrary to the focus group response that said they did. There was a contradictory response also on the issue of whether the inspectors visited the school regularly. The interviewee who had COSC and the focus group said that the inspectors regularly visited their school while the second interviewee and the most qualified denied that. Probably some teachers took the District Resource Teachers (DRTs) to be inspectors while others knew that they were playing different roles from those of inspectors, because DRTs were specified as having visited the school regularly. Another observation is that it seemed, from the contradictions mentioned, that there was a problem between the well qualified teacher and the head, who did not see things with the same eye.

Community-teacher relations

The head teacher and the focus group felt that the community respected teachers: a view not shared by the second interviewee and the SMC representative. In contrast with the point about respect, the head teacher himself and the SMC representative reported that parents had abandoned responsibility over their children due to this new concept of FPE, which parents did not understand. In addition to that the head felt that the parents did not protect the school property well enough. Parents were reported not co-operative when it came to paying for services that were not covered by FPE.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

Two of the six teachers rated their job satisfaction as good, and two as just OK. As a focus group the teachers said they were well motivated and disagreed with GS16, (“Teachers at this school are increasingly de-motivated”). The focus group responses were almost all positive except on the issue of salaries being paid on time, and the impact of HIV/AIDS on the school, which they said had been serious (see Table 3.3). The school had lost two teachers, one in April and another in August the same year, although the causes of the deaths had not been officially disclosed. There were reports of many children having lost one or both parents, a new trend currently observed. The responses to PS2 described the level of pay as poor, but it was seemingly not a major factor in job satisfaction or motivation.

Table 3.3: Mountains Three RCC: Focus Group Responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 5)
Teachers in this school are well motivated.	Agree
Teachers and parents work well together.	Agree
The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers in this school.	Agree
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Agree
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Agree
The head teacher of the school leads by example.	Agree
Teachers salaries are usually paid on time.	Disagree
The impact of HIV/AIDS on teachers at this school has not been serious.	Disagree

The other two teachers (not in the focus group) and one interviewee, however, described their level of job satisfaction as very poor or poor. The contradiction is worth noting: the interviewee disagreed with most of the positive responses of the focus group. Her perspective may have been related to her qualifications, which were higher than those of the other teachers (advanced diploma level as opposed to certificate level or below).

3.5 Foothills One ACL

Background

The village where this school is located is near the edge of high mountains four kilometres to the east of the Makhaleng River. Livestock farming is its main occupation. It is linked to the nearest minor road by about 15 kilometres of well-made gravel track. The ACL school, however, is outside the centre of the village and can be reached only by paths and an extremely rough track. This was said to have made it difficult for the school to obtain building materials.

The school was established in 1950 and already had seven Standards (i.e. grades) when the present head teacher was appointed in 1987. But it faces competition in the village from a Roman Catholic primary school with newer and more adequate buildings. The ACL school accommodates Standard 1 in a chicken house, Standard 2 in a small classroom, Standards 3 and 4 in a large classroom and Standards 5-7 in a church hall. With a total of 226 pupils, the school had seating for only 80 at the time of the research visit. It has two offices for the teachers (which also double as kitchen and store); a latrine for the teachers but none for pupils, and a container for drinking water, supplied from two rain-water tanks and a well on the hill above. The school site is reasonably flat but unfenced. One of the younger teachers has free housing nearby.

The head teacher had an Advanced Primary Teaching Certificate, but all the other four teachers were unqualified and one was a volunteer. Two were COSC-holders, one of whom had enrolled in DTEP; the third had GCE and the fourth a Junior Certificate with paraprofessional training. Two of these unqualified teachers had to manage multi-grade classrooms.

Management-teacher relations

The relations between the head and the other teachers appeared to be rather strained, although there was no evidence of any crisis. On the one hand, the two older women (including the head) regarded the two younger women as not very competent or well motivated. On the other hand, the teachers as a focus group were “not sure” whether the head managed them well or led by example. It was said that she failed to enforce some of the school regulations. Externally, there was very little supervision, as no inspector had visited the school for two years. The head tried to help the new teachers; but overall the managerial environment may not have been very supportive of their development.

Community-teacher relations

The teachers as a focus group felt that they were respected in the community; but at a more generally level the support from the local community was not encouraging. The head teacher complained that the village chief and others tried to take over part of the school site for grazing. The Advisory Committee members interviewed said that it was difficult to obtain materials or labour in order to build an additional classroom block and toilets.

Some parents transfer their children to other schools after Standard 4: a trend, which partly explained the difficulty the school experiences in maintaining its upper Standards. The male teacher taught all 54 pupils in Standards 5-7 in the church hall by the male teacher. He complained that most of the boys went for initiation at the end of Standard 6 and that most of these did not return to school. The head teacher confirmed that, as a result of this, very few boys took the PSLE or went on the secondary school. Table 3.5 summarises that PSLE results by gender for the past two years. As at Mountains Two, traditional attitudes restricted educational opportunities, especially for boys, and were a discouraging factor for teachers.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

Three of the four teachers described their level of job satisfaction as “Just OK”, but as a focus group they said they were not well motivated and attributed this to the lack of facilities and teaching aids in the school. Thus “motivation” seems to have been interpreted as “morale” rather than “commitment”. The major positive and negative influences on teachers’ motivation at the school may be summarised by reference to selected mean ratings for Personal Statements and focus group responses to General Statements (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.4: Foothills One ACL: PSLE Results by Gender in 2002 and 2003

RESULT	2002			2003		
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total
Pass	11	2	13	9	1	10
Fail	3	0	3	0	2	2
Total results	14	2	16	9	3	12
Pass rate	79%	100%	81%	100%	33%	83%

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

Three of the four teachers described their level of job satisfaction as “Just OK”, but as a focus group they said they were not well motivated and attributed this to the lack of facilities and teaching aids in the school. Thus “motivation” seems to have been interpreted as “morale” rather than “commitment”. The major positive and negative influences on teachers’ motivation at the school may be summarised by reference to selected mean ratings for personal statements and focus group responses to general statements (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Foothills One ACL: Focus Group Responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 4)
Teachers in this school are well motivated.	Disagree
Teachers and parents work well together.	Agree
The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers at this school.	Agree
Teachers at this school work well together	Not sure
Teachers at this school have the knowledge and skills to do their jobs well.	Not sure
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Not sure
The head teacher of this school leads by example.	Not sure
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Not sure

The main positive factors seem to have been that pupils' behaviour was manageable and that parents were co-operative. The teachers as a focus group also agreed that the head regularly observed their classes, although they were not sure about other aspects of her leadership. They were also not sure whether they, the teachers, worked well together (GS8).

The main negative factors were the poor physical facilities and equipment (already mentioned), the level of pay and the inadequate opportunities for upgrading qualifications. With reference to pay, the two teachers interviewed would not have been able to meet their household expenses if their spouses had not also been earning—and no mountain allowance was paid in this area. As far as upgrading is concerned, two of the teachers were not eligible to enrol in DTEP. The teacher who was enrolled in the programme appreciated the workshops, but had never been visited by a tutor.

In addition to their concern about the physical facilities, the teachers as a focus group mentioned that they were “far from services and transport”. This was given as a reason for not being sure whether the working environment of the school was adequate.

As at Mountains Two, the relative indifference of the local community to the development of the school can be seen as an indirect but important influence on teachers' job satisfaction. It partly accounts for the lack of an approach road, the inadequate buildings and the small enrolment in the upper Standards. In the context of the Free Primary Education policy, responsibility for these problems also lies with MOET.

3.6 Foothills Two LEC

Background

Foothills Two Primary School is an old LEC school established in 1914. It lies in the middle of a vast expanse of agricultural land, between two small villages that are at a distance of about one kilometre from the school. The school is accessible by car or any other mode of transport, since it is only 500m off a main bus route. There is a neighbouring government primary school on the other side of the main road. Apart from the two schools, there are no other significant services in this place. To have access to most services, it is necessary to travel to Mohale's Hoek: a distance of about 50 kilometres.

This school used to have a total enrolment of 500 pupils, which was reduced to 400 when the government school started. The teaching space consists of a church hall and four classrooms. Standards 5A, 6 and 7 are taught in the church hall while the rest of the classes, seven in all, are taught in the four classrooms and outside. As the numbers of pupils in Standards 1, 2, and 5 were large (80, 82, and 66) at the time of the research visit, these Standards were divided into two. Standard 3 had 53 pupils and Standard 4 had 56. Streaming solves the problem of overcrowding in classes but leads to another problem of shortage of teaching space and teachers. Teachers with COSC and no teaching qualifications have been engaged to close the gap. The school has ten teachers including the head teacher: seven female and three male. Six of these teachers have teaching qualifications and the other four have just a COSC.

Furniture is lacking and pupils sit on mud floors with their laps used as support when writing. The school was recently given funds to build toilets for pupils and teachers and a chicken house with four partitions. The chicken house is temporarily used as classrooms. Classes start at 9.00 a.m. in the morning and end at 2.30 p.m. because of the long distances pupils walk to and from school.

Management-teacher relations

The outcome of the focus group discussion suggests strained relations between the head teacher and other teachers. The teacher focus group disagreed that the head led by example, or that he regularly observed their classes, disagreed that he was often away on official duties and agreed that he was often away on private business. They also disagreed that teachers were well managed. The focus group also considered that the teachers at the school did not work well together, that the teachers at the school did not have the knowledge and skills to do their jobs well and that the inspectors did not regularly visit their schools (see Table 3.6, Part B). The report by the head teacher that absenteeism was a problem was confirmed by the SMC who said that there was one teacher whose home was far away from the school who always unofficially extended her leave days or holidays. There had also been two disciplinary cases of drunkenness and disobedience in the school in the last two years. This school had a rapid turn-over of teachers. The head teacher felt that the school location had an impact on the stability of teachers and claimed that teachers liked urban schools where there were opportunities to do part-time studies.

Community-teacher relations

The focus group responses suggested that teachers and parents did not work well together and that teachers were not respected in the community. The head teacher also reported that it was very difficult to run a school with the existing calibre of management committees, which he said were not elected by merit. He felt that the members of the management committees should be given some minimal training on school issues and on the role they were supposed to play in the running of the school for a smoother running. There is an agreement by the SMC, the focus group and one teacher interviewee that parents seem to have neglected their responsibilities since the introduction of the free primary education. The teacher commented that “parents do not want to pay for services any more”.

The major factors in teacher job satisfaction at the school

Three of the six teachers described their level of job satisfaction as good, while two of the remaining three said that it was poor and the other described it as very poor. The focus group response to GS1 was that teachers at Foothills Two were not well motivated. Teachers’ mean ratings of pay, working conditions and upgrading opportunities were all low (1.44, 2.22 and 2.11). With regard to teachers’ interaction with supervisors and the community, the consistently negative responses of the focus group have been mentioned. It is quite surprising that poor academic results were not also mentioned as a de-motivating factor, since the PSLE pass rates were low: 39 per cent in 2002 and 43 per cent in 2003. Conditions at this school are generally discouraging for teachers.

3.7 FOOTHILLS THREE RCC

Background

Foothills Three RCC Primary School is near a gravel road that runs from Matelile to Mohale’s Hoek. There is a bus stop next to the school, used by a bus that goes from Mohale’s Hoek through Matelile to Maseru every morning and returns by the same route in the afternoon. Taxis, however, are not regular. A tarred road is being built to replace the gravel road and this might eventually attract more buses and taxis. There is a small shop near the school.

At the time of the research visit, the school had an enrolment of 414, with seven paid teachers (including the head) and one volunteer teacher. This gave it an effective pupil-teacher ratio of 59. Five teachers were female, and the other three including the head teacher and the volunteer teacher were male. Six teachers, including the head, were qualified. Of the two unqualified teachers, one had a JC and paraprofessional training while the other, the volunteer, was a “GCE” holder (i.e. did not have a full school certificate).

Since there were seven regular teachers, each was teaching one Standard. This meant large classes, especially in Standard 1 with 114 pupils. The volunteer teacher helped in Standard 3, for which the head teacher was responsible.

One of the challenges in this school is that parents show little interest in the school's affairs. Another challenge is inadequate facilities. There is a shortage of furniture in one classroom. There are only three chalkboards. There is also a shortage of classrooms: only three classrooms and a hall. The toilets are sufficient in number and there is a school office, but there is no fencing for the school site. There are no telephone facilities and communication is a bit difficult. There are no teachers' houses in the school campus and some teachers live far away from the school. It took one of them more than one hour to reach school from her home. She was, consequently, thinking of being transferred to a school near her home.

Management-teacher relations

According to the head teacher, teachers were committed in their work. Their participation in sporting activities was high. There were good management-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships in the school. Punctuality was observed. One teacher who was interviewed mentioned that there were good relations between the school and the Advisory Committee. Another teacher who was also interviewed stated that discussions among teachers and supervision by the head teacher were useful in supporting teachers' work.

As shown earlier, the volunteer teacher was asked to help teach Standard 3 that was the head teacher's class. He taught and could seek assistance from other teachers in subjects he was not comfortable with. His gain of teaching experience promoted his interest in teaching. He helped other teachers in teaching some subjects in their classes, mostly in Standards 4 and 7. His main interests were mathematics and science. The volunteer teacher also helped children in sporting activities, especially athletics. He lived in a village that was within walking distance. According to him, the school showed interest or happiness in what he was doing. Sometimes he could be given some money from the proceeds of school concerts.

Community-teacher relations

Responding to the statement that, "the working environment at this school is adequate", the focus group members disagreed and explained by commenting:

The places are not well secured, e.g., shepherds and neighbours spoil windows and school doors. They steal vegetables from garden. They break the tap every now and then. They have taken the wire.

The appearance and behaviour of pupils were also seen as problems. The Chairman of the School Management Committee indicated that some parents seemed to take "Free Primary Education" to mean that they should neglect their children. He mentioned that some children were always seen dirty and without school uniform, even ones whose parents who could afford to buy the uniform. In addition, the focus group reported a problem of pupil misbehaviour in class.

In spite of these concerns, one of the teachers interviewed said that teachers had a good relationship with the community and the focus group reported that teachers worked well with parents and were respected in the community (see Table 3.6)

The major factors in teacher motivation in the school

The three teachers who were interviewed indicated that they were satisfied with their job. Good internal professional relationships seem to have been an important factor. Both qualified and unqualified teachers seem to have been well motivated. Responding to GS22, “Qualified teachers are better motivated than unqualified teachers”, the focus group members indicated that they disagreed and recorded the comment, “Some qualified teachers are not serious with their work because they are not easily dismissed from work”. The head teacher mentioned that the level of job satisfaction was generally high owing to increasingly high pupils’ performance, reflected in the PSLE results. (In 2003 the school had actually achieved a pass rate of 73%, which was close to the national rate.) A teacher mentioned that pupils were performing well in sports and music and had won competitions. Furthermore, teachers who were interviewed indicated that the pension scheme was a positive factor for motivation.

There are also some de-motivating factors. The relationship between the school and the community is not very strong. Some members of the community pose a threat to school property as mentioned earlier. Facilities in the school are inadequate. There is no housing for teachers in the school and some teachers live far away from the school.

Table 3.6: Focus Group responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 6)
Teachers in this school are well motivated	Agree
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Agree
Teachers at this school work well together.	Agree
Teachers and parents work well together.	Agree
Teachers are respected in the community.	Agree
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Disagree
The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers at this school.	Disagree

3.8 URBAN ONE ACL

Background

Urban One is a large school, with a reported enrolment of 1974 at the time of the research visit, located in central Maseru. It has the advantage of being very accessible by public transport and close to other public services in general. A large sports field separates the school buildings from a busy main road, but the site is shared with a secondary school. Although large, the grounds have few trees and little grass.

It is clear that increasing enrolment under the FPE policy has put pressure on the available teachers and classroom space. The pupil-teacher ratio is 50.6 when the head teacher is excluded. Every class has a room, but the interviewees reported shortages of furniture and of pupils' toilets. The head teacher complained that funds for maintenance and utilities were very limited. Not surprisingly, working conditions did not receive very good ratings (see Table 3.7).

The teachers are well qualified in relation to the current norms in Lesotho. At the time of the visit, not only did all of them have some kind of teaching qualification, but 26 out of 40 (65%) had a diploma or its equivalent, as opposed to a certificate. There was, however, a preponderance of older teachers, the mean age being 45, while the head and deputy head were both elderly. Health problems were common among the older teachers. The male teachers were only six (15%).

Table 3.7: Urban One ACL: Mean responses to Personal Statements 2-5: (Ratings: 1 = Very poor; 2 = Poor; 3 = Just OK; 4 = Good; 5 = Excellent)

STATEMENT	MEAN RATING (NO. CASES)
My pay as a teacher is	1.92 (n = 25)
Working conditions in this school are	3.36 (n = 25)
Opportunities for upgrading professional qualifications are	3.54 (n = 24)
Other in-service opportunities are	3.08 (n = 24)

Management-teacher relations

The head teacher expressed general satisfaction with the teachers' commitment to their work, but the representative of the Advisory Committee who was interviewed felt that they were too relaxed and needed to be supervised more strictly. There is some evidence to suggest that the teachers were divided into "camps" in their attitude to the head teacher, particularly the varied responses to GS7 ("the head teacher leads by example"). The head teacher, according to the Advisory Committee member, had not responded effectively to a recent outbreak of meningitis in the school in which there had been three fatalities. The committee had wanted to organise a medical inspection, but the head had failed to produce a copy of the school roll for this purpose.

One of the teacher interviewees reported "a conflict ... between some teachers and the head teacher" as a factor disturbing the work environment. The same informant also reported "lack of communication between the Advisory Committee and teachers", while the Advisory Committee interviewee mentioned that only about half the teachers had attended a meeting with the committee. On the other hand, the mean rating for the management of the school was slightly positive (see Table 3.8).

Community-teacher relations

The teacher focus group considered that teachers were not respected in the community (GS20) and was not sure whether teachers and parents worked well together (GS12).

Individual responses had a neutral trend for GS20 (a mean of 3.36 for 14 cases) and a negative trend for GS12 (a mean of 2.71 for 17 cases).

Table 3.8: Urban One ACL: Focus Group Responses and Individual Responses to Selected General Statements – (Ratings: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Not sure; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree)

STATEMENT	FG RESPONSE (GROUP OF 8)	MEAN INDIVIDUAL RATING (NO. CASES)
Teachers in this school are well motivated.	Not sure	2.82 (n = 17)
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Agree	3.47 (n = 17)
Teachers in this school work well together.	Agree	3.76 (n = 17)
Inspectors visit this school frequently.	Disagree	2.18 (n = 17)
The impact of HIV/AIDS on this school has not been serious.	Disagree	3.35 (n = 17)
Teachers and parents work well together.	Not sure	2.71 (n = 17)
Teachers are respected in the community.	Disagree	3.36 (n = 14)

The Advisory Committee interviewee reported that some parents showed an immature and critical attitude towards the teachers at meetings. It would appear that relations with the local community in this part of Maseru, which includes deprived neighbourhoods, are not easy for the teachers, or for the school generally.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

The teacher focus group declared itself “not sure” whether teachers at the school were well motivated (GS1), but specified four negative factors in connection with this response. These were the noisy traffic near the school, the large classes that every teacher had to cope with, inadequate furniture and insufficient learning materials. No positive factors were recorded. The group considered that the impact of HIV/AIDS on the school had been serious—and this may have been another de-motivating factor. The group noted that the epidemic had caused many deaths among parents, irregular attendance by pupils and some dropping out. Yet another negative circumstance was the dearth of inspectors’ visits (see Table 3.8), rather surprising in this urban school.

In summary, the major positive factors in teacher motivation at Urban One seem to be the central location and the access to upgrading opportunities, together with a fair degree of effective co-operation among teachers. The major negative factors are the level of pay, the large classes, inadequate learning materials and supervision of instruction, uncooperative parents, the impact of HIV/AIDS and, for an important segment of the teachers, unsatisfactory leadership of the school.

3.9 URBAN TWO LEC

Background

Urban Two LEC Primary School is located in a suburb on the southern side of the capital city, Maseru, in a reasonably spacious site. Transport is not a problem, in that taxis are available for those coming from a distance. At the time of the visit the school had an enrolment of 573 pupils, organised in 12 classes. Each Standard was divided into two streams except for Standard 4 (77 pupils) and Standard 5 (80 pupils). There were 12 teachers, ten female and two male. Eleven teachers were qualified; one held COSC and was a distance education teacher-trainee. The number of teachers was obviously insufficient, but there were two students on teaching practice, who were helping in Standards 4 and 5. There are 12 classrooms and a hall available for teaching.

The interviewee from the School Advisory Committee considered that during the period of the former, acting head teacher things had been worse in various ways. No school reports had been presented to the church or to teachers; PSLE results and teachers' performance had been poor; relations between the head teacher and the committee had been strained. Local people had cut the fence and destroyed trees on the site. In addition, the teacher focus group stated that the teachers did not work well together and that they were not well managed.

Management-teacher relations

The head teacher indicated that she started the work of being a head when there was a sense of confusion or conflict. According to her, the previous (acting) head teacher had been in conflict with the School Management Committee and had, therefore, been demoted. However, after the new head had been appointed, continuing conflict had prevented her from receiving the salary of the post for at least one year. The Advisory Committee member interviewed confirmed that the previous head sent a complaint about the appointment to the Teaching Service Department, which had been slow to take action.

The new head teacher suspected that the demoted head teacher was influential in disturbing the new administration. The problems included scheming and lack of punctuality. Some teachers complained that the parish gave them head teachers who were from elsewhere, rather than choosing one from their school: but teachers in the school did not apply for the position of head teacher.

However, there were improvements in the school under the leadership of the new head teacher. Interviewees felt that the new head encouraged teachers to work well and tried to be friendly with everyone. As a result, some teachers were seen as highly committed. According to the Committee member, working relationships between teachers and management were improving steadily.

Community-teacher relations

Moderately satisfactory PSLE results had been well received by parents. The Advisory Committee member mentioned that there were useful meetings between

teachers and parents. Some volunteer teachers were used and were seen as helpful. The community benefited directly from the school's facilities, as they used a school hall and the sports grounds. Nurses visited the school to give advice on HIV and AIDS. Youth Clubs also visited the school occasionally to present a drama that helped convey messages about HIV and AIDS.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

The focus group responses showed that the working environment at the school was good and that the salary was paid on time. Some teachers confirmed that the head teacher encouraged teachers to do work well. As a result, some teachers showed positive behaviour and commitment in their work. A teacher interviewee mentioned that parents showed interest in their children's work at school. Pupils' performance was said to be encouraging. (The school had achieved PSLE pass rates of 85 per cent in 2002 and 78 per cent in 2003.) Sporting activities had also improved. The teachers' pension scheme was another positive factor for motivation.

On the other hand, the focus group indicated that the teachers were not well motivated, were not well managed and did not work well together. It appeared that the teachers had not yet recovered from the recent management crisis, in spite of the efforts of the new head. Other de-motivating factors were pay and upgrading opportunities (PS2 and PS3), both of which received low ratings.

3.10 URBAN THREE RCC

Background

Urban Three RCC Primary School is located near an army barracks, half way between central Maseru and a major industrial suburb. The school site is spacious and contains a small farm, but it has proved difficult to fence effectively. Grazing animals have impeded efforts to grow trees.

At the time of the visit all the teachers in the school were qualified, most at the diploma level. However, most of them lived in other suburbs of Maseru and had to bear daily transport costs of about M10. The only exceptions were two young, male teachers who occupied a rent-free house at the school site. None of the teachers were natives of Maseru. Although the school has almost enough classrooms (12 and a hall for 15 teachers and 822 pupils), many of the floors and windows are in need of repair. The replacement and repair of furniture have also fallen into arrears. The managing church has only funded the replacement of a roof that was blown off. Although in an urban area, the school has no electricity and no telephone of any kind.

Management-teacher relations

On the one hand, the head teacher was generally satisfied with the teachers' conduct, motivation and competence. On the other hand, the teachers' focus group reported that the school was well managed, that the head teacher led by example and that she observed classes regularly. One teacher interviewed, however felt that management decisions were taken with too little warning and that inspectors' visits were very infrequent (she remembered receiving two in 18 years!).

Community-teacher relations

The head teacher mentioned that parents had provided support by building a dam and a fence on the school site. The two teachers interviewed both reported positively on their interactions with parents. The problems, in the head teacher's opinion, were that many parents, who worked in the textile factories, had too little time for child-care or for school functions and that the army barracks had undesirable influences on children's behaviour. The first point exemplified a wider public concern, evident in the mass media, about the long hours of work for women in the textile factories.

The major factors in teacher motivation at the school

The modal response for the Personal Statement about job satisfaction (PS1) was "Just OK", accounting for half the cases. The main positive factors in motivation, as indicated by the interviews and focus group responses, were the teachers' perceptions that the school was well managed, that they worked well together and that they had positive relationships with parents. The influence of the barracks notwithstanding, teachers felt that they were respected in the community and could manage the children's behaviour (see Table 1, Part B?).

The focus group considered, however, that the teachers were not well motivated (GS1) and also that they were increasingly de-motivated (GS16). One reason given for this was a lack of feedback from the Ministry about their performance. They commented, "We are not considered by our Ministry". This was unfortunate in that the school had in fact obtained PSLE results well above the national average, with pass rates of 95% in 2003 and 82% in 2002. Another reason given was the level of teachers' pay. Not only did the teachers give their pay very low ratings (with a mean of 1.58), but also most of them felt that their standard of living had fallen in the past five years (a mean rating of 2.30 for PS7). The focus group members indicated that, since the salary fiasco of 1995, they had lost interest in the teachers' union and association. Of the 12 who completed the questionnaire, eight did not belong either to the LAT or to the LTTU.

Another negative factor of some importance was the state of the school buildings. Both the focus group and the interviewees showed strong dissatisfaction with this, even though ratings of the "working conditions" in the school (PS3) were varied. Minor negative factors were the perceived opportunities for upgrading and professional development. In spite of the urban location, these received rather low ratings (means of 2.42 and 2.83). This suggests a need to examine the accessibility and costs of the available teacher education programmes, from the point of view of serving teachers.

Table 3.9: Urban Three RCC: Focus Group Responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 8)
Teachers in this school are well motivated.	Disagree
Teachers in this school are increasingly de-motivated.	Agree
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Agree
Teachers in this school work well together.	Agree
Teachers and parents work well together.	Agree
The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers at this school.	Agree
Teachers are respected in the community.	Agree
Teachers at this school think their trade union is doing a good job.	Disagree
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Disagree

3.11 URBAN FOUR 4 EM

Background

Urban Four is a community English Medium primary school, charging moderate fees, which was established in 1991. It is within a radius of about 900m from the centre of Maseru. It has a total roll of 543 and a maximum class size of 35. The school site is a small enclosure occupied mostly by the classroom buildings. In the same area, within walking distance, are several other schools, a college of education and a health clinic. The school also shares a fence with a small brickwork business.

At the time of the visit all teachers in this school were qualified, most of them having diplomas and two having degrees in education. Teachers in this school are paid higher salaries than those of government schools: even those who are on government salaries are given supplements so that their pay is equal to that of the private teachers. There are enough classrooms, well furnished and spacious, but the buildings are very low, not the normal height for classrooms. In addition to the normal facilities that an average primary school in Lesotho would have, the school has electricity, a computer and a photocopier. The school is under security guard 24 hours a day. There is, however, no staff room in the school. All the teachers including the head come to school by car or taxi because they live in other parts of the town.

Management-teacher relations

The teacher focus group felt that the teachers were not well managed. The teachers also reported that their work was not checked regularly, a view acknowledged by the head herself, who reported that administrative work did not allow her the time for regular class visits. In addition, inspectors had not visited the school for a long time.

Community-teacher relations

The teachers in the focus group were generally happy about their relationship with the parents, although they were not sure whether the local community respected them. Both the management committee interviewee and the head teacher spoke highly of the support that the school received from parents.

Major factors in teacher motivation at the school

The teachers were very divided in their reported levels of job satisfaction. Of 18 who responded to PS1, seven described it as good, four as just OK, five as poor and two as very poor. Rather surprisingly, nine out of 17 gave low ratings to the pay (PS2): but of these eight were qualified at the certificate level only. Those who gave low ratings both to job satisfaction and to pay were a group who had not been in the school for more than ten years. Rather surprisingly, nine out of 17 gave low ratings to the pay (PS2) and eight of these were qualified only at the certificate level. Pay, however, did not seem to be a major factor in teacher job satisfaction and motivation, even in a school which by national standards was paying good salaries. The poor state of motivation reported by the focus group (in response to GS1 and 16) must be attributed mainly to the lack of instructional leadership in the school and to divisions among the teachers, who, according to the focus group, did not work well together (see Table 3.10).

The school ranks very high in terms of the PSLE results, having kept a record of pass rates of about 100% since was established. Most pupils pass in the first and second classes with very few in the third class. In addition to the salary levels, other advantages for the teachers are that the school provides teaching materials, runs “in-house workshops” and provides incentives such as a Christmas bonus. The teachers acknowledged having the skills to do their work and, the negative responses on motivation notwithstanding, the PSLE results indicated that they were doing their work effectively in spite of the problems encountered.

3.12 A SYNTHESIS OF THE CASE STUDY FINDINGS

The manner in which the case studies were conducted allows for the idea that teacher motivation is not just an individual attribute but to some extent a collective phenomenon with links to the culture of each school. The use of the focus groups has provided a basis for generalisations about the teachers in particular schools, although it carries the risk that variations in individual opinions may have been suppressed or underestimated. On the whole, the data obtained from individual teachers support the assumption that the responses of the focus groups are representative. In relation to GS1, for example, individual responses at Urban One were generally in agreement with the “not sure” response of the focus group, while those at Urban Four supported the “disagree” response of the focus group.

Table 3.10: Urban 4 EM: Focus Group Responses to Selected General Statements

STATEMENT	RESPONSE (GROUP OF 5)
Teachers in this school are well motivated.	Disagree
Teachers at this school are increasingly de-motivated.	Agree
Teachers and parents work well together.	Agree
Teachers at this school have the knowledge and skills to do their jobs well.	Agree
The working environment at this school is adequate.	Not sure
Teachers in this school are well managed.	Disagree
Teachers at this school work well together.	Disagree

In two of the selected schools, however, the focus group may have been making a “diplomatic point” in its response to GS1. At Mountains Two the focus group, in saying that teachers were well motivated, may have wished to avoid placing any blame on them for the poor results of the school, even though the work situation was a very difficult one. It is also possible that this focus group equated motivation with commitment, while others equated it more with morale. At Urban Two the focus group, in saying that teachers were not well motivated and not well managed, seems to have been strongly influenced by the past management crisis in the school, in spite of the success of the new head teacher in establishing rapport with teachers and parents. In the other schools, there seems to be no reason to doubt the validity of the focus group responses.

The case studies provide sketches of the whole context for motivation in each school, covering both the material factors of location, facilities and pay and the relations of teachers with each other and with their pupils, their supervisors and the local community. One important theme to emerge from a comparison of the cases is that the quality of teachers’ professional relationships with other groups, and with each other, seems to be of great importance for motivation. The assumptions of goal theory, mentioned in Chapter One, are relevant here, especially in relation to the presence or absence of instructional leadership in a school. Mountains One and Foothills Three are both cases in which teachers were reported to be well managed, effective as a team and well motivated, in spite of poor facilities and low pay. At Urban One and Urban Four, on the other hand, teachers reported poor motivation against a background of poor management and divisions among themselves, in spite of central urban locations, good facilities and relatively good pay.

With reference to the different kinds of professional relationships considered, teachers’ interactions with pupils seem to be less likely to de-motivate them, in the context of Lesotho, than problems in their relationships with supervisors, parents and each other. Although there were three schools in which focus groups reported that pupil behaviour was a problem, interviewees rarely mentioned it but focused on problems in the other types of relationship. Where pupil misbehaviour was mentioned, it was attributed to community problems (as at Mountains Two and Urban Three) or to the negligence of other teachers.

On the whole, relationships with local communities were found to be more difficult for teachers in the rural areas, as at Mountains Two, Foothills One and Foothills Two, than in urban areas (Urban One being somewhat exceptional). In the rural areas it is less likely that teachers and parents will have common goals for children or that competent members will be found for the school management and advisory committees. These findings correspond to those of Barrett (2005) in Tanzania and are most clearly illustrated by the negative effects of the rural initiation schools on primary school attendance. However, the differences between schools in teacher-community relationships seem not to have been as critical for levels of teacher motivation as the differences in teacher attitudes to their immediate supervisors, especially the head teacher.

A second major theme is that motivation is influenced by standards and expectations as well as objective conditions. A hypothesis was introduced in Chapter Two that unqualified teachers may have lower expectations of the professional environment than qualified teachers and that these expectations may result in higher reported job satisfaction. This factor would help to explain why reported motivation was generally better in the rural schools than in the urban ones. The hypothesis receives some support from the case of Mountains Three, where the teachers with lower qualifications were relatively satisfied with their easy-going head teacher and with the school generally, while the one highly qualified teacher in the school was much more critical.

An extension of this second theme is that good academic results may embolden teachers to have higher expectations for other aspects of the situation, such as pay, working conditions and instructional support. At Urban Three, which had achieved good PSLE results, the focus group reported that teachers were poorly motivated and increasingly de-motivated, partly because MOET (the ministry of education) gave them no recognition or feedback for their efforts. These responses are in keeping with Vroom's (1964) argument that employees calculate the likely rewards for additional effort that is demanded of them. These negative responses were given in spite of the good relationships that the teachers had with the head teacher and with parents. In addition the teachers at Urban Three expressed much dissatisfaction with the pay and working conditions, even though these compared well with those of rural teachers. At Urban Four, also, the excellent PSLE results did not cause the focus group to report good motivation, but may have encouraged the teachers to be critical of the school administration and even the pay.

As we have seen, teachers in all the clusters rated their pay low (Table 2.8?) and the lower paid did not necessarily have the poorer motivation. But policy-makers would be mistaken if they assumed that pay is unimportant for the motivation of primary school teachers. It should be borne in mind that unqualified teachers, low though their pay is, may feel fortunate to be employed at all, while qualified teachers, especially in the urban areas, have more opportunity to transfer to another school or to enter another occupation. The latter may, therefore, be less interested in impressing their supervisors with their professional commitment. Ratings of pay do not necessarily reflect the logic of employment opportunities. The latter may well have contributed to the observed rural-urban difference in teacher motivation, although we did not obtain direct evidence of the linkage.

Our cases suggest, not that pay is unimportant for motivation, but that, if the level of pay is poor, other factors must compensate if teachers are to be well motivated. Where other factors do not compensate, as at Foothills One and Two and in the urban cases generally, motivation is found to be poor or uncertain. Various forms of poor teacher behaviour, to be discussed in Chapter Four, are also common in such cases.

4. CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE: STAFFING PATTERNS, INCOME AND EXPENDITURE, TEACHER BEHAVIOUR AND PUPIL PERFORMANCE

4.1 THE NATURE OF THE EVIDENCE

If valid and reliable measurement of teacher motivation is difficult to achieve, this applies even more to the impact of such motivation. Logically the quality of teacher motivation can considerably influence teacher retention and movement, the employment practices of the educational authorities, the professional conduct of teachers and educational outcomes: but all these phenomena have many determinants. Furthermore, these phenomena are themselves possible influences on teacher motivation. This applies even to professional conduct, since individual teachers are influenced by the patterns of behaviour of their colleagues. This chapter selectively discusses these types of circumstantial evidence, which are potentially both “effects” and “causes” of teacher motivation.

4.2 ATTRITION PATTERNS AT NATIONAL AND DISTRICT LEVELS

As the discussion in Chapter One has indicated, the rate of attrition to the teaching force is not a very reliable indicator of the prevailing quality of teacher motivation. Many successful and well-motivated teachers leave the classroom in order to take up supervisory posts or to engage in further study. Some primary school teachers also move to the secondary level. Nevertheless, very high or low rates of attrition do convey a message about teachers’ perceptions of their own status and well being in relation to alternative occupations. These perceptions can also, in principle, influence motivation and professional behaviour.

In Lesotho the numbers of primary school teachers are reported annually in March, nationally and by district. But the task of calculating annual attrition was made particularly difficult by the poor state of the records of new appointments. Only the central Teaching Service Department (TSD) kept such records and they consisted of manual entries in log books, in which the name of the school was recorded for each appointment, but not its code or district. The records of appointments before 2003 could not be found within the time available. No counts of appointments had been included in the annual statistics of MOET and none were held by the district education offices.

For the national level, all appointments from 1/4/03 to 31/3/04 were counted so that attrition could be calculated for this period. In addition, it was of interest to compare attrition in the three districts of Thaba-Tseka, Mafeteng and Maseru, from which our case studies are drawn. These districts are somewhat (though not totally) representative of different types of environment: mountains in the case of Thaba-Tseka, foothills and lowlands in the case of Mafeteng and urban and lowland areas in the case of Maseru.

The two log books covered five districts each and fortunately the three selected districts were all allocated to the same book. The names of schools recorded for

appointments in this book were therefore referred to an official school list in order to identify their districts. However, as some school names were repeated in different districts and a few others were not in the official list at all, some estimation was necessary. The proportions of appointments allocated to districts with certainty were used to split the ambiguous cases. Table 4.1 shows the different elements in the numbers of appointments estimated.

Table 4.1: Estimation of New Appointments of Primary School Teachers in Selected Districts, April 2003 to March 2004

SOURCE	DISTRICT		
	Mafeteng	Maseru	Thaba-Tseka
Definite record	173	254	142
Projected share from school names repeated in different districts	13	27	3
Projected share from unlisted schools	4	7	3
Total	190	388	148

Table 4.2 shows the attrition rates calculated for the national level, for the period from April 2003 to March 2004 and Table 4.3 shows the rates for three selected districts. The national attrition rate of 11.6 per cent is fairly high. If teachers returning from study leave are added to the new appointments, the rate rises to 12.4 per cent. The normal replacement demand of 1052 is far in excess of the annual supply of new teachers from pre-service training at the Lesotho College of Education. The output from this training for the primary level was only 158 in 2003 and 181 in 2004.

In preparing for a recent international workshop on the management of rural primary school teachers, MOET, assisted by the World Bank, produced some much lower estimates of attrition through a “bottom-up” approach. TSD data on departures from the teaching force for various specific reasons (retirement, death, etc.) gave a total of 380 for the year 2004, while data from the Treasury pay roll gave a total of 258 for the same year (Ministry of Education and Training, 2005b, p. 4). The TSD total would imply an attrition rate of about 4 per cent.

We consider that the truth probably lies somewhere in between these estimates and our own. According to a reliable source in MOET, the recorded new appointments that we used are likely to have been inflated by two factors. Firstly, teachers sometimes manage to change schools by resignation and new appointment, rather than official transfer. Secondly, they sometimes proceed on study leave by means of resignation. On the other hand, we doubt whether TSD or the Treasury has a complete and reliable record of “permanent attrition”. What can be stated confidently is that the gap between the demand for teachers and the qualified supply, which was already a problem before 2000 (see Lewin, 2002, p. 231), has continued to be large in the context of the FPE policy.

Table 4.2: Annual Attrition of Primary School Teachers in Lesotho, April 2003 to March 2004

ITEM	DATA
(A) Teachers serving, March 2003	9111
(B) Teachers serving, March 2004	9718
(C) New appointments, 1/4/03-31/3/04	1659
(D) Teachers returning from study leave, January 2004	79
(E) Annual attrition: $A + C - B$	1052
(F) Attrition rate: $E (100) / A$	11.6%
(G) Annual attrition including study leave: $A + C + D - B$	1131
(H) Attrition rate including study leave: $G (100) / A$	12.4%

Table 4.3: Estimated Annual Attrition of Primary School Teachers in Selected Districts, April 2003 to March 2004

ITEM/STATISTIC	DATA BY DISTRICT:		
	Thaba-Tseka	Mafeteng	Maseru
Predominant types of environment	Mountain	Foothill and lowland	Lowland and urban
(A) Teachers serving, March 2003	588	1009	1873
(B) Teachers serving, March 2004	733	1095	2011
(C) Est. new appointments, 1/4/03-31/3/04	148	190	388
(D) Annual attrition: $A + C - B$	3	104	250
(E) Attrition rate: $D (100) / A$	0.5%	10.3%	13.4%

Comparison of the statistics given in Table 4.3 for the three selected districts suggests that urban and lowland schools account for most of the attrition at national level. Maseru District, the most urbanised district in Lesotho, has an attrition rate of 13.4 per cent, whereas the mountain district of Thaba-Tseka has very little attrition at all. This contrast also implies that attrition is higher among qualified than among unqualified teachers. A logical explanation of this is that rural teachers have fewer attractive opportunities for employment outside teaching than do urban teachers, both because of their environment and because of their lower qualifications. In keeping with equity theory, this factor would also help to account for the relatively high level of motivation reported in our mountain cases studies.

4.3 TRANSFER PATTERNS

The case study evidence shows a similar rural-urban contrast concerning transfers from one school to another during teachers' periods of service. Table 4.4 presents mean annual average transfer rates for the teachers in the case study schools, grouped by cluster and by qualified or unqualified status. The transfer rate here is the number

of changes of school per year of service of the teacher, expressed as a percentage. The pattern of mean transfer rates suggests that teachers in urban schools transfer more often than those in rural schools and that, among teachers in rural schools, the qualified transfer more often than the unqualified.

Table 4.4: Mean Annual Average Transfer Rates of Teachers in the Case Study Schools – (Frequencies are shown in brackets)

CLUSTER	STATUS:		ALL STATUSES
	QUALIFIED	UNQUALIFIED	
Mountains	7.80 (7)	4.17 (7)	5.98 (14)
Foothills	6.67 (9)	2.86 (10)	4.66 (19)
Urban area	12.96 (60)	-	12.96 (60)
All clusters	11.74 (76)	3.40 (17)	10.21 (93)

Where cases with a transfer rate of zero are excluded from the analysis, the mean for teachers in urban locations is significantly higher than the mean for teachers in rural locations (see Table 4.5). The difference has a t value of 2.467 for 65 degrees of freedom and unequal variances. The merging of the mountains and foothills cases as “rural” here is reasonable in that the two groups have similar variances.

Table 4.5: Mean Annual Average Transfer Rates Above Zero: Rural-Urban Comparison

STATISTIC	ZONE	
	RURAL	URBAN
Mean	9.58	15.86
Standard deviation	5.925	14.929
Number of cases	18	49
Difference between means		-6.29
t (with unequal variances)		-2.467 (sig., 2-tailed = .016)

Caution must be exercised in interpreting this finding, as the hypothesis of urban preference suggests that many teachers in the urban group may have transferred into Maseru from less urbanised locations at some point in their careers.

The limited evidence from the case studies about intentions to transfer shows a pattern different from that of the transfer rates. Only three out of 61 teachers in the urban cluster said that they wanted to be transferred (Item 3c of the teacher questionnaire), compared with six teachers out of 19 in the foothills cluster and two out of 11 in the mountains cluster. Of the eight teachers in the rural clusters who wanted a transfer, however, six wanted to be at schools nearer to their home communities and only two

wanted to be in urban schools. The three in the urban cluster wanted transfers to other urban schools.

From the evidence reviewed, two conclusions may be drawn. Firstly, the transfer rates, together with the attrition patterns discussed in the previous section, suggest that the “pull” factor of opportunities to change school (i.e. vacancies and the knowledge of vacancies) is stronger in urban than in rural areas. Secondly, we do not have evidence to suggest that the “push” factor of discontent with the present post is stronger in urban areas. The well known difficulty of placing qualified teachers in the remote areas suggests that many would seek transfer from such locations even if they found the school environment acceptable. The next section elaborates on the differentiation of teachers by location.

4.4 STAFFING STANDARDS: THE RURAL-URBAN QUALITY GAP

To illustrate the rural-urban variation in the use of unqualified, and largely untrained teachers, Table 4.6 provides data from the three selected districts of Thaba-Tseka, Mafeteng and Maseru, in 2003 and 2004. The more rural the district, the higher is the proportion of unqualified teachers. The case studies have represented this variation well. It relates to the fact that the recruitment of teachers is managed locally and to the preference of teachers, here as in other developing countries, for the more urbanised school locations (see Urwick, 1985).

Table 4.6: Proportions of Unqualified Teachers in Selected Districts, 2003-2004

ITEM/STATISTIC	DATA BY DISTRICT		
	Thaba-Tseka	Mafeteng	Maseru
Predominant types of environment	Mountain	Foothill and lowland	Lowland and urban
Unqualified teachers, 2003	319	324	469
All teachers, 2003*	680	1052	1908
Unqualified proportion, 2003	46.9%	30.8%	24.6%
Unqualified teachers, 2004	378	365	590
All teachers, 2004*	733	1095	2044
Unqualified proportion, 2004	51.6%	33.3	28.9

*Some of the figures are different from those in Table 4.3 because they are based on counts later in the year.

Vacant posts are filled by the School Management Committees, which are mostly denominational church bodies at the level of the parish. Their selection decisions have to be endorsed by the Teaching Service Commission, but the latter does not in general have an interventionist policy in the deployment of teachers. In effect, there is one labour market, for qualified primary school teachers, in the urban and lowland areas, and another for unqualified teachers in the more remote areas.

As some of the case studies show, the remoter schools cannot attract qualified teachers, except to the post of head teacher. But teaching in these schools is attractive, in spite of the difficult conditions, to school leavers who would otherwise have little prospect of salaried employment. The more acceptable school leavers are

holders of the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) and these have been recruited in large numbers since the launching of FPE. As Table 4.5 shows, COSC-holders form the majority of unqualified teachers. They are eligible for admission to the four-year in-service upgrading programme (DTEP) offered by the Lesotho College of Education. But DTEP has the capacity to enrol only about half the COSC-holding teachers at present and, as Table 4.7 shows, this element in the teaching force continued to grow in 2003-4. Those who hold only a Junior Certificate (JC, obtained after three years of secondary education) are not eligible for admission to DTEP. For many unqualified teachers, therefore, there are no immediate opportunities for upgrading.

Table 4.7: Unqualified Teachers in Lesotho, 2003-2004

TEACHER CATEGORY/STATISTIC	YEAR	
	2003	2004*
COSC-holders	1952	2498
JC-holders	1032	964
Other**	107	116
Total unqualified	3091	3578
All teachers	9287	9829
Unqualified proportion	33.3%	36.4%

*The statistics cover unregistered as well as registered schools.

**Qualifications included in the "other" category are any, other than COSC or JC, that do not give evidence of teacher training. They range from degrees to completion of primary education.

Among the qualified teachers there is a complicated hierarchy of qualifications. In the period 1999-2003 the Lesotho College of Education added to the stratification of the teaching force by replacing "certificate" programmes of initial teacher training with "diploma" programmes of supposedly higher standard. This change has adversely affected the status of older teachers who hold "certificates" and the capacity of the college to upgrade such teachers to the diploma level has necessarily been limited, given its commitment to initial teacher training.

Some teachers have responded to this situation by studying by correspondence for the Associate of the College of Preceptors (ACP) qualification, which is regarded as equivalent to a diploma. These developments have increased the relative advantages of younger qualified teachers and of teachers in the urban areas. Qualified teachers in general would have reason to suppose that opportunities for upgrading and professional development have not been very equitable or well managed.

4.5 TEACHERS' INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

Another part of the context for teacher motivation is the economic situation at the household level. Teachers in the case study schools were asked to give details, through the questionnaire or the interview schedule, of their gross and net monthly salary, the monthly expenditure of their household and the number of wage (i.e. wage

or salary) earners in their household. The data obtained, however, are not of very good quality. Salary net of income tax was considerably underestimated, probably because of other deductions at source for insurance premiums and loan repayments. Even gross pay was not reported precisely in most cases. We have therefore attributed to these teachers the gross salaries, taken from the salary scale in force at the time, that are closest to those they stated. From these we have derived an “actual net salary” by using the relevant income tax liability. For 85 teachers, the actual net salary measure has a mean of M1,864.02, compared with a mean of M1,438.80 for the reported net salary. We may note in passing that some teachers had severe problems of debt that were mentioned in interviews.

In order to obtain a rough indication of personal savings potential (here called the “savings indicator”), we have measured the difference between (a) actual net salary and (b) the household expenditure per wage earner in the household. It should be kept in mind that the household expenditure figures are rough estimates and that the real level of savings for the teacher could vary greatly according to the incomes of the other earners, which we did not attempt to record.

Table 4.8 provides a comparison of means, for the three clusters and for qualified and unqualified teachers, for actual net salary, reported household expenditure and the savings indicator. With reference to the mountain cluster, it should be noted that the salary measure does not include the tax-free mountain allowance of M275.00 per month that all teachers in the cluster received. An implication of the savings indicator is that teachers in the foothill cluster have a greater need for this mountain allowance than those in the mountain cluster, although they do not receive it, and that it gives this particular mountain cluster a considerable advantage. Apart from this, the statistics suggest that the potential for teacher savings is generally small, as the teacher interviews also indicated. The savings indicator varies widely between individuals (with a standard deviation of M965) and relatively little between the clusters. But further research would be necessary in order to appraise the situation more thoroughly.

Table 4.8: Means for Actual Net Salary, Reported Household Expenditure and Savings Indicator – (Amounts are given to the nearest Loti. Frequencies are shown in brackets.)

CLUSTER AND TEACHER STATUS	ACTUAL NET SALARY		HOUSEHOLD EXPENDITURE		SAVINGS INDICATOR	
Mountains:						
Unqualified	1168	(7)	1005	(6)	428	(6)
Qualified	1911	(6)	1209	(4)	787	(3)
All	1511	(13)	1087	(10)	548	(9)
Foothills:						
Unqualified	889	(7)	990	(8)	152	(6)
Qualified	1730	(8)	1759	(9)	343	(8)
All	1337	(15)	1397	(17)	261	(14)
Urban area:						
Unqualified	-	-	1150	(1)	-	-
Qualified	2083	(57)	2650	(57)	590	(53)
All	2083	(57)	2624	(58)	590	(53)

All clusters:						
Unqualified	1029	(14)	1007	(15)	290	(12)
Qualified	2029	(71)	2453	(70)	568	(64)
All	1864	(85)	2198	(85)	524	(76)

4.6 REPORTED TEACHER BEHAVIOUR IN THE SELECTED SCHOOLS

It is widely assumed that poor motivation expresses itself through absenteeism, lack of punctuality and laziness on the part of teachers. Such behaviour can be related both to lack of professional commitment and to involvement in activities expected to bring personal gain, such as a secondary occupation or part-time study for an additional qualification. Another problem, drunkenness, is related to lack of commitment. Here we shall review the evidence on absenteeism, lateness, laziness and drunkenness, which were the types of teacher misbehaviour reported most frequently.

In responding to the questionnaire, very few teachers admitted to having been absent in the previous week, or to having a secondary source of income. But the focus groups and the interviews held in the schools told a different story (see Table 4.9). In seven out of the ten schools, the focus group disagreed with the statement that teacher absenteeism was not a problem at the school (GS4). In four of these cases and two others, at least one of those interviewed (normally the head teacher, a community representative and several teachers) said that absenteeism was a problem. The responses to Question 6 of the teacher interview schedule attributed absenteeism to those teachers who were poorly motivated.

Table 4.9: Incidence of Reported Teacher Misbehaviour

PROBLEM:	ABSENTEEISM		LAZINESS		LATENESS		DRUNKENNESS	
	FG ^a	Interv. ^b	FG	Interv.	FG	Interv.	FG	Interv.
Source:								
School								
M1 ^c	X ^d							
M2		X		X		X		
M3	X	X		X		X		X
F1	X	X		X		X		
F2		X		X		X		X
F3	X							
U1	X	X		X	NS ^e	X		X
U2	X				X			
U3				X				
U4	X	X		X	X	X		X

^aFocus group; ^bInterview(s); ^cM1 = Mountains One, etc.; ^dX = Problem reported;

^eNS = "Not sure" response to relevant general statement.

Only two focus groups indicated that teachers did not come to work on time (GS5), while one was not sure (all three in urban schools). But interviewees reported lateness to be a problem in four of the rural and two of the urban schools, usually linked to poor motivation. Interviewees also reported laziness as a problem in these six schools and one other urban school. Laziness took the form of not covering the proper range of subject matter during the day, not being thorough in the classroom and avoiding co-curricular activities. Lateness and laziness were generally attributed to the same, poorly motivated teachers. In four schools, two rural and two urban,

interviewees reported that one or more teachers came to school drunk. In one case the teacher with the problem was female; in the other cases genders were not specified. No cases of sexual misconduct towards pupils were reported.

Among the ten schools, Mountains One, Foothills Three and Urban Three seem to have had relatively well behaved teachers. In each of them the head teacher had a positive opinion on the matter and only one type of misbehaviour was reported. Mountains One and Foothills Three were also schools where the focus group considered the teachers to be well motivated. For the other schools, the reported misbehaviour reinforces the impression that a substantial proportion of the teachers were poorly motivated.

4.7 ACADEMIC OUTCOMES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

Academic results are likely to be influenced by the quality of teacher motivation and even more likely to be an influence on it. In Chapter Three occasional references have been made to the results of the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), which are the most publicly available indicators of primary pupils' performance and the basis for admission to secondary education. As an external, national examination, the PSLE does provide a basis for comparison between schools. Here we shall provide an overview of the results for the case study schools.

Table 4.10 (at the end of the chapter) presents PSLE results for 2003: the most recent at the time of the data collection. It may be mentioned that the results for 2002 show a broadly similar pattern. The national PSLE pass rate in 2003 was 78 percent and it may be seen that the ten schools provide a wide range of results both above and below this national norm. For each school, the table shows two indices of efficiency: the PSLE pass rate and the mean class of the passes. The classes range from 1 to 3, Class 1 being the highest. The table also shows two indices of productivity: PSLE passes as a proportion of the school's enrolment and the number of passes per teacher in the school. These indices of productivity are subject to bias, in that differences of size between Standard Seven (the final grade) and the other grade levels may reflect changes in local demand, as well as wastage, and such changes may vary from one school to another. These changes, and other random factors, could affect the number of teachers as well as enrolment. Nevertheless, the four indices provide a more complete picture of the school's performance than the pass rate alone would do.

Three general observations may be made about the pattern of results and its possible implications for teacher motivation. Firstly, Urban Four EM is far ahead of the other schools in mean class, representing the quality of its passes. Since it is a semi-private school, one would expect this outcome to be linked to the socio-economic status of pupils. The problems of teacher motivation at Urban Four certainly cannot be attributed to academic results. Secondly, although four rural schools have pass rates comparable to those of the urban schools, the productivity of the rural schools is generally lower. We know that at Mountains Two and Foothills One there were extreme problems of wastage in the higher grades. Such wastage could be quite demotivating for teachers if they are sensitive to the social implications: but untrained teachers may not have very high expectations in this as in other matters. Thirdly, Mountains Two and Foothills Two have very poor results on all the indices. Teachers

could not fail to be conscious of the low pass rates, which may have played a part in the poor motivation at Foothills Two. We have noted earlier that the working conditions at Mountains Two were very difficult and that the good motivation the teachers attributed to themselves may have represented a willingness to struggle against adversity.

Table 4.10: PSLE Results and Related Indicators for Case Study Schools, 2003

A. EFFICIENCY INDICATORS				
School	Passes, 2003	Total results, 2003	Pass rate	Mean class of passes
Mountains One ACL	22	22	100%	2.5
Mountains Two LEC	6	22	27%	2.8
Mountains Three RCC	30	37	81%	2.7
Foothills One ACL	10	12	83%	2.9
Foothills Two LEC	20	46	44%	2.8
Foothills Three RCC	33	45	73%	2.6
Urban One ACL	284	334	85%	2.5
Urban Two LEC	47	60	78%	2.7
Urban Three RCC	83	87	87%	2.5
Urban Four EM	78	79	99%	1.4
B. PRODUCTIVITY INDICATORS				
School	School enrolment*	Teachers in school*	Passes as prop. of enrol.	Passes per.teacher
Mountains One ACL	367	6	6%	3.7
Mountains Two LEC	341	7	2%	0.9
Mountains Three RCC	376	7	8%	4.3
Foothills One ACL	226	5	4%	2.0
Foothills Two LEC	400	10	5%	2.0
Foothills Three RCC	414	8	8%	4.1
Urban One ACL	1974	40	14%	7.1
Urban Two LEC	573	12	8%	3.9
Urban Three RCC	822	13	10%	6.4
Urban Four EM	543	23	14%	3.9

*Data for 2004 were used, as those for the previous year were not available.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS ON THE RECRUITMENT AND DEPLOYMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Teacher motivation may be seen as an important element in the quality of educational provision. Although teachers, as members of a profession, are supposed to internalise an ethic of service and of commitment to their pupils, they do not work in isolation and have only a limited scope for controlling their working environment. The quality of their motivation is strongly influenced by the actions and attitudes of educational administrators, other teachers, pupils and members of the local community. Educational systems which do not provide a satisfactory physical environment for learning, competent school administration and a large enough body of qualified teachers are likely to have problems with teacher motivation also. Poor motivation, in turn, can result in behaviour that adversely affects pupils' learning and the image of teaching.

Low-income countries, such as Lesotho, which are spreading resources thinly in order to achieve universal and "free" primary education face difficult choices of recruitment and deployment policy in relation to teacher motivation and job satisfaction. They need to recruit teachers who will be satisfied enough to stay at their posts, but dissatisfied enough to seek to improve their schools. Professional motivation is not just a matter of willingness to maintain a service, but also of willingness to seek constructive change. The evidence of this study supports the view that the risks, in this regard, vary according to the teacher's level of qualification. The least qualified teachers may be motivated to stay where they are but not to improve the work of the school, while for the most qualified the reverse may be the case. The evidence is that the least qualified teachers, who are typically found in remote, rural schools, report more positively about their motivation than the more qualified teachers in urban schools. The statistics on teacher attrition in selected districts are consistent with this evidence, showing attrition to be much higher in Maseru District, which has a superior profile of teacher qualifications, than in more rural districts. In the more urbanised areas, the advantages that civil servants have over teachers, in loan opportunities and opportunities for promotion, are likely to be more conspicuous and the opportunities for teachers to move into other occupations are greater. On the other hand, to judge by pupil wastage and the PSLE results of the selected schools, urban schools are more productive than remote, rural ones.

The system of localised recruitment of teachers by school management committees has been successful in attracting secondary school leavers, in many cases from the local area, who are willing to teach over a long period in rural primary schools. But the system results in a stratified labour market, placing trained, qualified teachers in the schools that are geographically more accessible and the unqualified in the remoter schools. The mountain allowance recorded in this study was clearly insufficient, both in its size and in its geographical coverage, to attract qualified teachers to the remoter schools. This inequitable distribution of teachers combines with a similar urban bias in the provision of other inputs, such as classrooms, furniture and toilets, to produce very unequal learning opportunities for pupils.

The experiences of Lesotho and five other African countries in the deployment of teachers were compared at a recent international workshop on rural primary school teachers (see Gaynor, 2005). Countries that deploy teachers centrally (usually at the provincial or district level) encounter much resistance to rural postings on the part of qualified teachers even where, as in Mozambique and Uganda, allowances and housing are used as incentives. A compromise approach that we advocate for Lesotho is that the existing local recruitment should be retained but that, in addition, the Teaching Service Commission should introduce a special scheme for limited-term deployments of qualified teachers to those remote, rural schools where the need for them is greatest. Allowances, or generous funding of further training after completion of the term of service, could be used as incentives. It would be difficult to use housing as an incentive with any consistency.

Local community attitudes, as well as the lack of services, may be an important disincentive for qualified teachers to work in the remoter areas. In contrast with research findings in Nigeria (Francis et al., 1998), but in keeping with others from Tanzania (Barrett, 2005), our case studies suggest that the most rural communities in Lesotho are not the most supportive of their primary schools. At Mountains Two and Foothills One, for example, they seemed to be relatively indifferent to the fate of the school. Part of the problem seems to have been the way in which some local-level stakeholders have treated the “Free Primary Education” policy. The interpretation of the policy, in some cases, has created an atmosphere in which local fund-raising for schools is becoming more difficult. Some of our informants complained that certain parents, although they have the means, were not even willing to buy school uniforms. A restoration of effective partnership between the national government, the managing bodies and local communities is necessary for the improvement of teacher motivation as well as other aspects of primary education.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY

Teachers’ pay and career structure

- Lesotho should raise its income tax thresholds so that taxation is not so heavy on low salary earners such as primary school teachers.
- Revisions of teachers’ salary scales should as far as possible match the rate of inflation.
- Payment of teachers’ salaries should be made to bank accounts or post office savings accounts in order to reduce absenteeism and expose teachers to the benefits associated with banking.
- There should be a career structure in primary school teaching, with opportunities for promotion to the rank of “Senior Teacher” or “Standard Head”. Holders of this rank would assume a mentoring function for other teachers in the same Standard. Promotion opportunities should not be limited to administrative posts.

- In keeping with the recommendations of some of the national-level stakeholders, the opportunities for promotion and the loan entitlements of qualified teachers should as far as possible be equated with those of civil servants in Lesotho.

Pre-service and in-service teacher education

- The output of pre-service teacher education for the primary level, which at present is far below the level of demand, should be increased substantially so that primary education becomes less dependent on unqualified teachers.
- Special training must be offered to prepare selected teachers for positions of leadership in primary education, especially that of head teacher. Improvement of, and alternatives to, the current B.Ed. Primary programme of the national university should be considered for this purpose.
- The curriculum of DTEP should emphasise supervision of classroom performance so that a teacher trainee grows while on the job. There should be enough full-time staff at the Lesotho College of Education for regular supervision in this programme.
- Unqualified teachers who are already in the system but do not hold a full COSC should be given remedial studies or bridging courses to enable them to apply for admission to DTEP. The Teaching Service Commission should not approve the appointment of unqualified teachers who lack the minimum requirements for admission to DTEP.
- Multi-grade teaching methods should be included in the teacher education curriculum to enable teachers to handle more than one grade/ Standard. On the other hand, for small rural schools, bi-annual intakes should be considered as a means of reducing the necessity for multi-grade teaching.

Teachers' associations and involvement in policy making

- Teachers should have a strong representation in educational policy-making bodies at all levels up to ministerial level.
- Primary school head teachers (principals) should have their own association.
- The teachers' and school principals' associations should participate in formulating educational policy objectives and in implementing them.
- As recommended by some national-level stakeholders, the relations between teachers' and principals' associations and the government should be regulated by a collective bargaining agreement.

Working conditions and professional support

- There should be a furnished staff room in the primary school for teachers to hold staff meetings, work together and have social interaction.
- Community self-help projects should be encouraged in order to make more staff housing available, especially for younger teachers, so that teachers can live nearer to schools.
- The MOET should assume more responsibility for providing physical facilities in partnership with the school managing bodies and local communities. There should be enough furnished classrooms in relation to the number of pupils to be admitted. Toilets and water supply should be enough for all staff and pupils. There should be a goal of reducing class sizes to a maximum of 35 by 2010 in order to promote appropriate teaching methods. Teaching aids should be available in the school.

Appointment, deployment and management of teachers:

- In order to achieve a more equitable deployment of teachers, the Teaching Service Commission should introduce a scheme of special recruitment of qualified teachers for posts in rural schools for limited periods of time, with incentives such as allowances or opportunities for further training.
- In keeping with Lesotho's goal of decentralisation in government, district education officers should be given authority to work with School Management Committees for a more efficient deployment of teachers.
- As recommended by some of the national-level stakeholders, MOET, as well as the district education staff, should interact directly with School Management Committees in order to improve the management of teachers and other aspects of primary education.

APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES FOR NATIONAL-LEVEL STAKEHOLDERS

(A) Standard interview schedule

1. How would describe current levels of job satisfaction and morale among primary school teachers in government and government-supported schools?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Are there any significant differences between public and private sector teachers?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Are there any significant differences between primary and secondary school teachers?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

What are the main reasons for current levels of job satisfaction/morale among public sector teachers?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Personal characteristics: (sex, age, education/training, others)

.....
.....
.....
.....

Vocational commitment:.....
.....
.....

Teacher status:.....
.....
.....

Remuneration. How adequate pay?.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Physical and emotional well being of teachers: Overall health and nutrition.....
.....

Locational issues (especially rural schools).....
.....
.....
Distance to work.....
.....

Work environment (compound, classrooms, furniture, toilets, staff room, housing).....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Workload/pressures:
Hours/periods per week.....
.....
Class size.....
.....
Preparation.....
.....
Marking.....
.....

Extra duties.....
.....
Distance/time to work:.....
.....
Student behaviour inside and outside classroom.....
.....

Teacher competence/capacity to teach effectively.....
.....
Adequacy of pre and in-service teaching/CPD.....
.....
.....

Supervision/management.....
.....
.....
.....

Parental/community participation.....
.....
.....
.....

Impact of AIDS epidemic.....
.....
.....
.....

Other factors.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

What proportion of teachers are:

Well motivated adequately motivatedpoorly motivated.....

highly competent.....adequately competent.....poorly competent.....

2. Have there been any noticeable trends during the last ten years in the overall level of teacher job satisfaction and motivation in government and government-supported schools? Give reasons

.....
.....
.....
.....

.....
.....

3. Teacher behaviour and performance in public schools

How does current level of job satisfaction and motivation influence teacher behaviour and performance?.....

.....
.....
.....

Staffing situation:

.....
.....
.....

Vacancy rates-level, pattern and trends

.....
.....

Turnover rates-level and patterns:.....

.....
.....

Transfers.....

.....

Promotion.....

.....

Study leave.....

.....

Resignations.....

.....

Retirement.....

.....

Death.....

.....

Medical retirement.....

.....

Dismissal.....

.....

Other.....

.....

Absenteeism and timekeeping:

.....
.....
.....
.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

6. What do you think will happen if teacher job satisfaction and motivation is not addressed effectively?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Additional questions for trade unions

What is current membership?What are union dues?.....

How effective has trade union been in improving pay and other conditions of service for teachers?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

What have been main successes during the last five years?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

What have been the main constraints?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

What has been main industrial action during the last five years? Dates and duration of strikes.....

.....
.....
.....

.....
.....

What are current demands?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Additional questions for NGOs

Brief description of own educational provision

.....
.....
.....
.....

Staffing information of their own schools/projects (numbers, education and qualification profile, pay, benefits, recruitment, deployment, vacancies, turnover)

.....
.....
.....
.....

Level of job satisfaction and morale.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Key factors.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. How far have teachers' representatives been consulted in decisions about educational policy?

7. What incentives are there in Lesotho for entry to the teaching profession and for experienced teachers to stay in it? How effective are these incentives?

8. Have you noticed any change in the overall level of teacher job satisfaction and motivation over the last 10 years?

9. What are the prospects for improving teacher motivation and incentives at the primary level?

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

Stress that the interview is completely anonymous and confidential. The study is part of a high-profile international research project on teacher motivation and incentives. Their views are very important.

1. Tell me a little about yourself. Non-threatening warm-up

Female / Male Age Place of residence

Family background: your father's and mother's education and main occupations
.....

Your own school education (level completed)

Result obtained in school leaving examination

Teaching qualifications and years in which obtained:
.....

Years teaching No. of schools: Years in current school

Marital status

Living with spouse (if any): Yes / No.

No. of own children No. of direct dependants at present

No. of members of household (other than self) in salaried or waged employment:

Are you studying to upgrade your qualifications at present: Yes / No

Are you a member of a trade union or teachers' association?

Member of a union / member of an association / not a member of either

How many meetings of a trade union or teachers' association have you attended this year?

2. Why did you decide to become a teacher? (open-ended)

.....
.....
.....
.....
Prompts: Interest in teaching, lack of other employment opportunities, temporary employment, pay, working hours, school holidays,
.....
.....
.....

Given your experience as a teacher, would you still make the same career choice again? Yes / No

3. How satisfied are you with your job as a teacher in this school? (open-ended)

Job satisfaction level.....
.....
Reasons: (open ended).....
.....
.....
.....

Now we'll discuss some factors that may influence your job satisfaction.

(a) Income and expenditure

How adequate is your pay?
.....
.....
Gross monthly pay at present
Net monthly pay at present
Other allowances and benefits (specify)
Do you receive any non-monetary benefits (such as free or subsidised housing)?
Yes / No If yes, specify
What was your net starting salary (monthly)?.....Year.....
What was your total net pay in 1999 (monthly)?.....

Do you have any other work outside your normal teaching job? Yes / No
If yes, what type of work?
If yes, what is your average monthly income from this work?

What is the average monthly household expenditure on:

- Rent/housing
- Food
- Transport
- Education
- Other items
- All items

(b) Your physical well-being: General health

.....
Are you often short of food? Yes / No

(c) Location of school: Views on the school's location/host community.....

.....
Do want to be transferred to another school? Yes/ No.
If yes, for what reasons?
If yes, where do you hope to go? (location and/or school)
.....

Have you made a formal request for transfer? Yes / No

(d) Working conditions: School environment (compound, classrooms, furniture, toilets, staff room, housing)

(e) Your capacity to teach

How do you feel about your ability to do the job?

How adequate was the training you received?

What about the opportunities for continuing professional development?

(f) Your workload: Hours/periods teaching per week

What is the size of the group(s) you actually teach?

(Insist on size of group or stream if the Standard is divided for teaching.)

Approx. hours per week spent on:

Preparation Marking Extra duties

How many minutes does it take you to come to work?

(g) Supervision/management: Do you feel that your work is well managed and supervised?

(h) The impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic (effects on teachers and pupils):

(i) Other factors

4. Is your level of job satisfaction lower, the same or higher than five years ago? (open-ended with reasons)

5. Do the other teachers at this school feel the same as you do about their work as teachers?.....

.....Who do/don't feel the same way? Reasons

.....
.....

How many teachers in the school are:

- (a) Highly motivated
- (b) Just OK
- (c) Poorly motivated

How many teachers in the school are:

- (a) Highly competent
- (b) Adequate
- (c) Not competent

6. Among teachers who are poorly motivated, how does this affect their behaviour and performance? (open-ended and prompt).....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Do you intend to continue working as a primary school teacher for the foreseeable future? Yes / No. If no, what are your reasons and plans?

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. What needs to be done in order to improve the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers at this school?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Any other comments.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEAD TEACHERS AND COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

1. **Warm-up:** How long have you been a HT/SMC Chairperson?How long at this school?.....What are the major challenges you face as a HT/Chairperson at this school?

.....
.....
.....

2. **Tell me about your teachers.** How many? Qualified..... Unqualified..... Female.... Male..... Under 30....Over 30..... Locals.....Outsiders.....

How would describe the overall level of **job satisfaction** among your teachers?.....

.....
.....
.....

Specific determinants of job satisfaction/motivation

Personal characteristics: (sex, age, education/training, others).....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Vocational commitment:.....

.....
.....
.....

Teacher status:.....

.....
.....
.....

Remuneration. How adequate pay?.....

.....
.....
.....

Any salary supplementation?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Physical and emotional well being of teachers : Overall health and nutrition.....
.....
.....

School location
.....
.....

Distance to work.....
.....

Work environment (compound, classrooms, furniture, toilets, staff room, housing).....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Workload/pressures:

Hours/periods per week.....
.....

Class size.....
.....

Preparation.....
.....

Marking.....
.....

Extra duties.....
.....

Distance/time to work:.....
.....

Student behaviour inside and outside classroom.....
.....

Teacher competence/capacity to teach effectively.....
.....
.....

Adequacy of pre and in-service teaching/CPD.....
.....
.....

Supervision/management.....
.....
.....

Parental/community participation.....
.....
.....

Impact of AIDS epidemic.....
.....
.....

Other factors.....
.....
.....
.....

How many of your teachers are:

Well motivated..... adequately motivatedpoorly motivated.....
high competence.....adequate competence.....poor competence.....

Given a free hand, how many teachers would you like to replace because of:

Poor motivation.....Lack of competence.....

3. Have there been any noticeable trends over time in overall level of teacher job satisfaction and motivation? Give reasons.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

4. Teacher behaviour and performance

How does current level of job satisfaction and motivation influence teacher behaviour and performance?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Staffing situation:
.....
.....
.....

How many vacancies at this school?.....

How many teachers left this school during the last school year?
Transfers.....Promotion.....Study leave.....Resignation.....

6. What do you think will happen if teacher job satisfaction and motivation is not addressed effectively?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Any other comments

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX 4: GENERAL STATEMENTS

Please circle ONE of the alternative responses to each statement.

1. **Teachers in this school are well-motivated**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
2. **Teachers at this school have the knowledge and skills to do their jobs well**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
3. **The working environment at this school is adequate**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
4. **Teacher absenteeism is not a problem at this school**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
5. **Teachers at this school come to work on time**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
6. **Teachers in this school are well-managed**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
7. **The head teacher of this school leads by example**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
8. **Teachers at this school work well together**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
9. **Teachers salaries are usually paid on time**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
10. **School inspectors regularly visit this school**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
11. **The impact of HIV/AIDS on teachers at this school has not been serious**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
12. **Teachers and parents work well together**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
13. **Our head teacher regularly observes classes**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
14. **Our head teacher is often away from school on private business**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
15. **Our head teacher is often away from school on official duties**
Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree

- 16. Teachers at this school are increasingly de-motivated**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 17. The behaviour of pupils in class is not a problem for teachers at this school**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 18. Teacher transfers are managed well and fairly**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 19. Teachers sometimes come to school hungry**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 20. Teachers are respected in the community**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 21. Teachers at this school think their trade union is doing a good job**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 22. Qualified teachers are better motivated than unqualified teachers**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree
- 23. Female teachers are better motivated than male teachers**
 Strongly disagree Disagree Not sure Agree Strongly agree

APPENDIX 5: PERSONAL STATEMENTS

(Circle ONE response to each statement.)

1. My current level of job satisfaction is

Very poor
Poor
Just OK
Good

2. My pay as a teacher is

Very poor
Poor
Just OK
Good
Excellent

3. Working conditions in this school are

Very poor
Poor
Just OK
Good
Excellent

4. Opportunities for upgrading professional qualifications are

Very poor
Poor
Just OK
Good
Excellent

5. Other in-service training opportunities are

Very poor
Poor
Just OK
Good
Excellent

6. My level of job satisfaction over the last five years has

Declined significantly
Declined
Remained the same
Increased
Increased significantly

7. My standard of living over the last five years has

Declined significantly
Declined
Remained the same
Increased
Increased significantly

Lesotho College of Education,
P.O. Box 1393,
Maseru.

8th November 2004

Dear Teacher,

Questionnaire on Teacher Motivation and Incentives

Three members of staff of the Lesotho College of Education are carrying out research on the motivation and incentives of primary school teachers in Lesotho. Our names are Miss Puleng Mapuru, Dr. Michael Nkhoboti and Dr. James Urwick. We have the permission and support of the Ministry of Education and Training for this activity, which is part of an international study involving a number of countries in Africa and Asia. It is hoped that the study will assist governments and other stakeholders responsible for the management and welfare of teachers.

Your school is one of those that we have selected for our enquiries. Please assist us by completing the attached questionnaire as fully as possible and returning it to the researcher who is visiting your school. Your contribution to the work will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

Dr. James Urwick
(Research team leader in Lesotho)

APPENDIX 6: PERSONAL BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Where alternative responses are shown, please circle one.

1. Sex: female / male 2. Age
3. Where do you live? (Name town or village)
4. Level of school education you completed: senior secondary (high school) / junior secondary / primary
5. Teaching qualification (give highest obtained)
6. For how many years have you been teaching?
7. How many schools have you worked at?
8. For how many years have you worked at this school?
9. Marital status: married / single / divorced / widowed
10. Is your spouse (if any) currently living with you? Yes / No
11. Number of your own children
12. Total of your direct dependants at present (including dependent children)
13. How many members of your household (other than yourself) are in salaried or waged employment?
14. Are you currently studying to upgrade your qualifications? Yes / No
15. How many days were you absent from school last week? (Do not include official holidays.)
16. Have you requested, or are you planning to request, a transfer from this school?
Yes / No
17. If yes, what are your main reasons?
.....
.....
.....
18. If yes, where would you like to be transferred to? (Give name of town or village and/or school
.....

19. What was your net monthly pay when you first started teaching? Basic Allowances
20. What is your gross monthly pay now? Basic Allowances
21. What is your net monthly pay now? Basic Allowances.....
22. What non-monetary benefits do you receive, if any?
23. Do you have other work outside your normal teaching job? Yes / No
24. If yes, please indicate what type of work:
.....
.....
25. Roughly how much, on average, do you earn each month from this additional work?
26. Please indicate the approximate monthly expenditure of your household on various items, as follows:
 - Rent/housing
 - Food
 - Transport
 - Education
 - Other items
 - All items
27. Are you a member of a trade union or teachers' association? Member of a union / member of an association / not a member of either
28. How many meetings of a trade union or teachers' association have you attended this year?

REFERENCES

- Barrett, A. (2005). Teacher accountability in context: Tanzanian primary school teachers' perceptions of local community and educational administration. Compare, 55, 43-61.
- Bennell, P. (2003). The AIDS epidemic in Sub-Saharan Africa: Are teachers a high- risk group? Comparative Education, 39, 493-508.
- Bureau of Statistics. (2005). Kingdom of Lesotho: Statistical report no. 8. Maseru: Bureau of Statistics.
- Bruns, B., Mingat, A., & Rakotomalala, R. (2003). A chance for every child. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Chamberlin, R., Wragg, T., Haynes, G., & Wragg, C. (2002). Performance-related pay and the teaching profession: A review of the literature. Research Papers in Education, 17, 31-49.
- Conley, S., & Odden. A. (1995). Linking teacher compensation to teacher career development. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 17, 219-237.
- Davies, L. (1993). Teachers as implementers or subversives. International Journal of Educational Development, 13, 161-170.
- Francis, P., Agi, S., Alubo, S., Biu, H., Daramola, A., Nzewi, U., & Shehu, D. (1998). Hard lessons: Primary schools, community and social capital in Nigeria. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Gay, J., & Hall, D. (2000). Poverty and livelihoods in Lesotho, 2000: More than a mapping exercise. Maseru: Sechaba Consultants.
- Gaynor, C. (2005, May). Teacher deployment issues: Getting teachers to rural schools. Paper presented at the World Bank Sub-regional Workshop on Policy, Planning and Management of Rural Teachers in Africa, Maseru, Lesotho.
- Gorrell, J., & Dharmadasa, K.H. (1989). Sources of school stress for teachers in Sri Lanka. Compare, 19, 115-125.
- Griffiths, D., Gottman, S., & McFarland, W. (1965). Teacher mobility in New York City. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1, 15-31.
- Hertzberg, F. (1966). Work and the nature of man. New York: Crowell Publications.
- Hoy, W.K., & Miskel, C.G. (1991). Educational administration: Theory, research and practice. New York: McGraw Hill.

- Jacobson, S.L. (1995). Monetary incentives and the reform of teacher compensation: A persistent organizational dilemma. Journal of Educational Reform, 4, 29-35.
- Jessop, T., & Penny, A. (1998). A study of teacher voice and vision in the narrative of rural South African and Gambian primary school teachers. International Journal of Educational Development, 18, 393-403.
- Lewin, K.M. (2002). The costs of supply and demand for teacher education: Dilemmas for development. International Journal of Educational Development, 22, 221-242.
- Locke, E.A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1297-1349). Chiacago: McNally.
- Maslow, A.H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. Psychological Review, 50, 379-396.
- Mautle, G., & Weeks, S.G. (1994). The state and the teaching profession: Teacher incentives in Botswana. International Journal of Educational Development, 14, 339-347.
- Ministry of Education and Training. (2005a). Lesotho Education Sector Strategic Plan 2005-2015 (draft of March 2005). Maseru: Ministry of Education and Training.
- Ministry of Education and Training. (2005b, May). Policy, planning and management of rural primary teachers in Lesotho. Background paper prepared for World Bank International Workshop on Policy, planning and Management of Rural Primary School Teachers in Africa, held in Maseru and Mohale, Lesotho.
- Murnane, R.J. (1987). Understanding teacher attrition. Harvard Educational Review, 57, 177-182.
- Urwick, J. (1985). Urban preference among Nigerian teacher-trainees: An analysis for educational policy. International Journal of Educational Development, 5, 105-122.
- Voluntary Service Overseas. (2002). What makes teachers tick? A policy research report on teachers' motivation in developing countries. London: Voluntary Service Overseas.
- Vroom, V. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.
- Williams, T. (1998). Secondary teachers in Lesotho: Who stays, who leaves? Maseru: National Teacher Training College.

Wilson, D.C., & Rosenfeld, R.H. (1990). Managing organizations. Tests, readings and cases. London: McGraw-Hill.