The Motivation of English Language Teachers in Greek Secondary Schools

VOLUME I

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Abstract

This thesis addresses a largely uncharted area within language motivation research, which is the motivation of teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL). A qualitative research approach was employed to identify and document different motivational influences affecting EFL teacher motivation. The method of analysis employed in our dataset, which consisted of a series of in-depth qualitative interviews with Greek state EFL and non-EFL teachers, followed the principles of grounded theory. Most of the findings coincided with insights from other teacher motivation studies; namely that the intrinsic aspect of teaching was the most satisfying, and thus the most motivating, of all motivational factors, while the extrinsic aspect both within and outside the school context was one of the main contributors to teacher demotivation. However, the findings have also highlighted an area that had not been paid much attention to in the literature, the temporal dimension of teacher motivation, which plays an important role in the development and motivation of the teacher due to the fact that teaching as a profession is a lifelong engagement. The study has offered several insights into EFL teacher motivation and the results are hoped to facilitate the alleviation of the problem of teacher demotivation and dissatisfaction. The thesis concludes with implications for future work in this novel area of research.

Introduction

A common impression of the teaching force is that of an overworked and dissatisfied body of professionals, who have to cope with a low status, low pay, discipline problems, large class sizes and imposed curricula. Conditions for teachers are unlikely to improve unless there is a visible change in governments' tendency to spend large amounts of money on curricula reforms while disregarding the teacher, the prime implementer of the suggested reforms. The governments' indifference to look into teacher motivation appears to have taken its toll, even if this may not be obvious at first sight. In fact, it has been noticed that the implementation of educational reforms does not yield the expected rise in school standards and the reason for this is because teacher motivation had not been taken into account in the reforms (Attwood, 2001).

Even though much research has been carried out on student motivation in the past century, it is only very recently that teacher motivation has caught the attention of educational researchers. The motivation behind this changing perception has been a growing realisation that the teachers' motivation to impart knowledge plays an important role in the overall equation of the learning process since teacher motivation has a considerable impact on student achievement (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Along with several other scholars I believe that if the teachers' enthusiasm and commitment levels are high then there is a strong likelihood that their students will be motivated to learn; equally, if the teachers' motivation is low then this is communicated to the students – either directly by means of intentional action, or indirectly through modelling – and this attitude is what students tend to adopt.

A review of the literature on teacher motivation reveals that foreign language teacher motivation has received even less attention than general teacher motivation

despite the fact that the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) is a central component of most national curricula in the world. It appears logical, therefore, that research on EFL teacher motivation is a prerequisite to any improvement of EFL learning/teaching so that policy makers can gain a full and better understanding of the different factors that affect teachers.

Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe that novice qualitative researchers often set out to investigate a research problem motivated by some personal and professional experience and having the correction or improvement of the situation as an ultimate aim. The reason I embarked on studying teacher motivation was the loss of my own enthusiasm in teaching after I joined the Greek state sector – a symptom I also noticed in many of my colleagues. The condition my colleagues and I were in was of great concern to me, while at the same time I was intrigued to find out more about the basic factors that cause teacher motivation and demotivation. I was hoping that the investigation of teacher motivation and in particular of EFL teacher motivation would supply valuable information about what motivates EFL teachers in the Greek context and by extension in similar job environments around the world so that implications can be drawn for both school administration and teacher educators with regard to the appropriate methods for dealing with EFL teachers and teacher training.

My second aim was to understand in more depth the reason behind the negatively prevalent perceptions many Greeks share regarding Greek state EFL teachers in general. In fact, this negative attitude towards state EFL teachers is apparent in the state school context because even though parents are in general keen on finding out about their children's progress in most school subjects, which they do by meeting up with teachers, they do not bother to see the English language teacher,

a fact that signifies their total disregard towards English as a subject and consequently the English teacher.

Thirdly, even though for some the answer to the question "What are the factors that contribute to the demotivation of Greek high school EFL teachers?" might be quite straightforward by relating it to undoubtedly adverse conditions such as a low pay, discipline problems and adverse teaching conditions, I was convinced that this was not the full picture. My experiences working in a state school and the discussions I have had with my colleagues made me realise that there were many more underlying factors which contributed to state EFL teachers' experience of demotivation in their work, than the few stereotyped factors quoted. I was certain that understanding teacher motivation was not as simple as it appeared, which specifically gave me the impetus to undertake research in this particular area.

Finally, after I realised that the study of EFL teacher motivation was an uncharted area, I became motivated to try and bridge this gap. This is not to say that no research in this vein has been conducted in the past. Important and relevant work has been done by Doyle and Kim, (1999), Kim and Doyle (1998), Pennington, (1989, 1990, 1992, 1995), Pennington and Ho, (1995), Pennington and Young, (1989) and, Kassabgy et al., (2001). Along with these authors, my ultimate aim is that the study of EFL teacher motivation will become part of mainstream second language research.

Consistent with the studies mentioned above, this thesis draws on the available data on general teacher motivation and on the literature on work motivation and job satisfaction. Even though work motivation theories attempt to explain behaviour in industrial settings, a number of educational researchers (e.g. Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000a; Fraser et al., 1998; Nias 1981; Pennington, 1995; Rosenholtz et

al., 1990) have turned to work motivation theories in order to delineate teacher behaviour in their working contexts. Thus, Herzberg et al.'s (1993) model had an enduring influence on teacher satisfaction research despite its origins in the industrial setting of engineers and accountants.

Nias (1981), for example, was an educational researcher who considered trying to use Herzberg's model to explain the motivational complexities of teacher motivation but found that a straightforward application of this model to teaching was not possible. In her view, the model was too simplistic in explaining the complexities of teaching and the teacher's self, which are not separable from each other, and as a result proposed a modified model. A replication of Herzberg et al.'s theory has also been in the centre of Dinham and Scott's (1998, 2000a) work. They modified the model into a three-component construct in which they identified and enumerated a comprehensive list of sources of teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Similarly, Pennington (1995) used another work motivation model, Hackman and Oldham's 1980 model, to explain ESL teacher motivation.

Even though aspects of both models are included in the discussion of the data analysis, this study was based on a more comprehensive model of motivation proposed by Dörnyei (2001a), which has not as yet been used for empirical examinations of teacher motivation. The reason I opted for this model was that it included a temporal dimension that many of the other models seem to have disregarded in spite of its importance, and given that teaching is a lifelong career it is therefore prone to fluctuations.

This thesis is based upon the personal accounts of eight secondary school teachers – four EFL teachers and four non-EFL state high school teachers who participated in a series of in-depth, semi-structured interviews, which were then

analysed through the use of the Grounded Theory approach. The dataset I collected from these teachers enabled me to explore and identify factors that were voiced by these teachers.

The context in which the teachers work is described in Chapter 1, which provides an analytical description of the Greek educational system with a special emphasis on the English language classroom and the English language teacher.

Chapter 2 summarises the background motivation literature by focusing on the most influential contemporary theories in motivational and social psychology. These theories are intended to help evaluate the role of motivation in teaching.

Chapter 3 offers a general overview of the literature on work motivation, focusing on dominant views presented by organisational theorists. Teacher motivation shares certain features with the motivation prevalent in other lines of work, therefore it seemed logical to survey the work motivation literature before looking into the teacher motivation literature.

The topic of Chapter 4 is teacher motivation in general and EFL/ESL teacher motivation in particular. I will first focus on the conceptualisation of teacher motivation, then analyse the relevance and applicability of work motivation to educational contexts and examine the factors that affect teacher motivation. Finally, the section on EFL/ESL motivation analyses the unique factors that were different from those found in the general teacher motivation literature.

In Chapter 5, I give an overview of the qualitative approaches of data analysis and in particular of grounded theory. Special attention is paid in this chapter to computer assisted data analysis because I have used the computer software package NUD*IST, for the purpose of sorting and coding my data.

Chapter 6 contains a summary of the procedures I followed with regards to the research design and the methodology of the study. First, the aims of the study are presented and this is followed by the description of the participants, the instruments, the employed procedures and the ethical considerations that were taken into account.

Chapters 7 to10 present the analysis, and discussion of the data, thereby unfolding the nature of EFL teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Chapter 7 deals with the prominent intrinsic component; Chapter 8 presents the macro-contextual variables which are associated with societal-level factors, that is, the status and image of teachers; Chapter 9 focuses on the micro-contextual components, that is, school-based, extrinsic factors; and finally Chapter 10 addresses the temporal dimension of teacher motivation.

Appendix I includes a schematic representation of the Greek educational system, and Appendix II Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model. Because the transcripts of the interviews are quite lengthy they have been bound in a separate volume to accompany the main body of the thesis.

Chapter 1: The education system in Greece

Introduction

The teaching and learning of a foreign language is not an act devoid of contextual influences, because it is the norm that culturally deep-rooted norms and ideas are present in language classrooms (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). These norms and ideas are taken for granted, thus having an impact on both teachers and students' viewpoints about classroom practices. Teaching in Greece is no exception to this tendency: there are widely accepted insights about how a foreign language is learnt, and even though these are often implicit, they are clearly ingrained in the way foreign language classrooms function. Therefore, before we explore these classrooms, and the English language classroom in state schools in particular, it is important that we have an overview of the Greek educational system so as to have a clear picture of the foreign language classroom.

This chapter will focus on a very brief exploration of the history of the Greek education system, followed by the description of the organisation of both the state and private afternoon schools that students attend concurrently. Particular attention will be given to English language learning in the state sector – the context in which this research study was conducted. I will also look into the state EFL teachers' training as this determines their ability to carry out their role in the classroom. Finally, the typical English language class will be described to set the scene for the discussion in the analysis chapters.

1.1 Background history

Education in Greece is regarded as one of the fundamental values and provisions that the state is due to offer free of charge to Greek citizens (Greek Constitution, Article 16.4). It is highly esteemed since it is considered the medium for social improvement and consequently individual advancement (Ragousis, 1982; Kazamias & Starida, 1992; Kassotakis, 2000).

According to the Constitution, all Greek children, regardless of origin, background and sex, have equal opportunities to attend state-run educational institutions at all stages, that is, at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Equality of opportunity is also promoted through the distribution of free books at all school levels, and free transport for pupils living in remote areas. All this may sound very promising since all children are privileged as far as schooling is concerned.

However, the actual reality is less rosy, as teachers and students have to function in an under-resourced learning environment (Maurommatis, 1995) which is centrally controlled. The organisation of the Greek educational system has always been characterised by a high degree of central control, bureaucracy, prescription and conformity (Maurommatis, 1995; Kassotakis, 2000). Pigiaki (1999), for example, argued,

> Greek education has adopted a highly centralised system in which every important decision about the curriculum, the allocation of time to subject areas, books used in school, books directing the teachers, teaching materials, modes of student assessment, and so forth, is decided within the Ministry of Education. Teachers are expected to function simply as those who implement ministerial decisions... .(p. 57)

In addition, teacher appointment, teacher salaries and annual increments have always been under the authority of the Ministry of Education. In 1985, Law 1566 was passed in order to decentralise primary and secondary education. The decentralisation was not materialised fully, as it was restricted to matters regarding the provision and administration of school grants and the participation of the local authorities in educational committees functioning at school, regional and national levels (Kassotakis, 2000). One reason for the limited nature of the law was the fact that the decentralisation attempts were met by strong opposition from the secondary school teachers' union *OLME (Organisation for Secondary School Teachers)* (Pigiaki, 1999, p. 61). Therefore, Greek education has by and large maintained its traditionally centralised, bureaucratic structure.

School autonomy in Greece is restricted because school units depend on the local and central educational services. The centralised structure is also present at the school level. Schools tend to have a hierarchical organisation with the head teacher governing every aspect of school life, supported by the deputy head teacher and the teachers' council. The head teacher is responsible for the good management of the school but, strangely enough, has no control over teachers' classroom practice.

Even though teachers in general tend to implement the ministerial decisions, there is relatively little intervention by heads or school advisors with regards to the manner in which teachers carry out their duties. This is because Law 1304/1982 abolished the *Inspectorate* – the inspection and assessment of teachers' classroom practice – and introduced the institution of the *school advisor – scholikos symboulos*. The school advisor's duty is to provide guidance to teachers in matters regarding curriculum, teaching methods and pedagogy. However, because the number of appointed school advisors throughout the country is limited, their

presence in schools is rather scarce to non-existent. The abolition of teacher assessment was regretted therefore the ministry reintroduced teacher evaluation according to Law 2525/1997. Even though the law was passed six years ago, teacher assessment has not taken effect due to protests and demonstrations by the secondary school teachers' union *OLME* (Pigiaki, 1999, p. 60).

1.2 The organisation of schools

Schooling is compulsory for nine years, that is, from the first grade of primary school to the third grade of the junior high school. There are three levels:

- the primary level, which comprises the nursery and primary schools;
- the secondary level, which includes the junior and senior high schools;
- the tertiary level, which comprises university and non-university levels (See Appendix I for a schematic representation of the Greek Education system).

Pre-primary education can be attended by children who are between three and a half to five and a half years old. Attendance is optional for one or two years, depending on the age that children join the nursery school. Primary school is attended by students between the age of six and twelve. Attendance at this level is compulsory and lasts for six years. Primary schools are available throughout the country, even in the most remote rural areas. The curriculum is uniform throughout the state schools, and English as a foreign language (EFL), is introduced in the fourth grade (a detailed discussion about English language learning will follow later on in this chapter). Pupil assessment is based on continuous class and homework evaluation.

Upon the completion of primary education, pupils are automatically enrolled in the three-year compulsory junior high school. Here students are exposed to a second foreign language of their choice; the two languages they can choose from are German or French. On completion of the junior high school, students are awarded a leaving certificate and may enrol in senior high school if they wish to.

Students attend the senior high school between the ages of sixteen and eighteen. Student assessment both in the junior and senior high school is done through standardised written examinations, which take place each school year between mid-May and mid-June. There is also continuous assessment of class and homework during the school year. In September 1997, the senior high schools underwent major changes and students can choose to pursue three directions of studies: theoretical, scientific and technological. The main aim at this level is to provide general education in combination with technological knowledge as well as the development of a wide range of skills.

Students who have completed their compulsory education, that is, graduated from junior high school but do not wish to enrol in a senior high school, have the opportunity to join the recently established technical and vocational institutions, called *Technika Epagelmatika Ekpedeftiria* (*TEE)*, which are also part of the formal educational system. *TEE's* graduates can either pursue a career or enrol in tertiary non-university level technological institutions. If they want to upgrade their education they need to attend public or private vocational institutes for professional training. The duration of courses varies according to the programme the student chooses to attend.

Senior high school graduates can follow on to higher education or can receive professional training offered by vocational institutes, which is based on the

framework of the National System for Vocational Education and Training. These institutes are either public or private and function outside the formal educational system.

Students who wish to proceed with their studies in higher education have to take the extremely competitive university entrance examinations which are set by the Ministry of Education. These examinations are 'norm referenced' (Hughes 1989)[1] and candidates who pass the examinations are eligible to apply to be admitted into university, polytechnic and vocational faculties.

In accordance with the Greek Constitution, higher education is provided only by the state and it is free of charge. However, there have been recent discussions about the establishment of private higher education institutions (Kassotakis, 2000). There are two types of higher state educational institutions: university and non-university level. Duration of courses in the former is four to five years while in the latter three years. Successful candidates fill places offered by the various faculties of universities, polytechnics and vocational colleges. The number of places is determined by the administration of every faculty, which is then reported to the Ministry of Education.

1.3 The frontisteria

The under-resourced learning environment and the lack of any teacher assessment seem to have taken their toll, as the standard of state schools has been gradually decreasing, thus not providing students with the appropriate education. Because parents are aware of the deficiency of state schools, they see to their children's

[1] A norm referenced test "relates one candidate's performance to that of other candidates. We are not told what the student is capable of doing" (Hughes, 1989, p. 17).

proper education by resorting to the so-called *frontisteria*, which are well-established and widespread thriving businesses (Raggousis, 1982; Pesmazoglu, 1994; Pigiaki, 1999; Kassotakis, 2000). A *frontisterio*[1] is a preparatory school and acts "as a substitute for the school" (Pigiaki, 1999, p. 58). Its main aim is to supplement or even re-teach the subject matters that students have been presented with at school. The subjects students usually 're-attend' in the *frontisteria* are core subjects, such as Ancient and Modern Greek, maths, science, chemistry and any other subject they think they need to consolidate. The alternative option for parents who do not want to send their children to the *frontisteria* is to pay for private home tuition, which is also common practice in Greece.

Frontisteria attendance which takes place in the afternoon, that is, after school hours, commences when students reach junior high school. It is then intensified in the senior high school, as students start preparing for their university entrance examinations. The reason for the parents' reliance on the institution of *frontisteria* and private tuition is not only because they want to equip their children with the appropriate education, but because they also want to safeguard their offspring's successful and most desired admission to the tertiary level (Benincasa, 1998; Kassotakis, 2000).

Students' admission into a university, polytechnic or vocational college is a dream of every Greek parent, as there is the prevalent social attitude in Greek society that a person who has a higher education degree is highly regarded and has a high social status (Hofstede, 1991; Maurommatis, 1995). Patrinos (1997) argued that "[i]n a revealing study on the occupational and future plans of Greek high school students

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[1] *Frontisterio* is the singular form and *frontisteria* is the plural.

it was found that 92 percent of lyceum (senior secondary school) students planned on enrolling in a tertiary institution after graduation" (p. 209).

Consequently, the better-off the parents are, the better supplementary education their children will enjoy, which contradicts the equal educational opportunities that the state claims to be providing in accordance with the Constitution. Unfortunately, there are instances that parents are subjected to expenditure that can be unbearable. An anecdotal instance that I have witnessed is the plight that a single mother with two daughters was in because under difficult circumstances she was obliged to spend more than half her monthly income on her eldest daughter's private tuition fees. Parents, however, do not complain about this extra expense since supplementary private education has become a "tradition of extra-schooling paid for by ambitious parents" (Rawlins, 1997, p. 71).

1.3.1 Foreign language frontisteria

A different type of the privately run *frontisteria* are the *foreign language frontisteria*, which make provisions for the learning of foreign languages. Students attend these *foreign language frontisteria* from the age of eight and onwards, just before they start foreign language learning at state schools.

Students who attend *frontisteria* have the following aim: to acquire the Cambridge or Michigan First Certificate in English or even better the Cambridge or Michigan Certificate of Proficiency in English by the age of sixteen, as after that age their time is entirely taken up by their preparation for the general university entrance examinations.

In these foreign language *frontisteria* there is a tight control of programmes and choice of books by the owners. There are four types of teachers teaching in these *frontisteria:*

(a) university students in the third year of their studies (in the English departments) – as this is the time they are granted a licence to teach;

(b) university graduates;

(c) Greek speakers who have obtained the Cambridge or Michigan Certificate of Proficiency in English and are awarded the licence to teach;

(d) English-native-speaking teachers – who are not always qualified – but are usually employed in order to teach the advanced levels and/or to do the speaking activities.

The above description of the teachers who practise teaching in these *frontisteria* suggests that the level of teachers in this sector can often be low. However, recently there has been growing awareness of the need for teaching qualifications and therefore *frontisteria* owners tend to employ teachers who have teaching qualifications, notably a UCLES/RSA (University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate/ Royal Society of Arts) certificate or diploma.

1.4 The place of English in the state schools

English has always been regarded as the first foreign language in Greece and has been widely learned and spoken. Theodorou (1996) confirmed the view that English enjoys great popularity among the other foreign languages in a survey she carried out in state schools, showing that English was the most popular language, 76.85 percent ahead of the second most favoured language that students chose to learn. In fact,

having a qualification in English is considered an absolute requirement for work prospects.

English is also the first foreign language to be introduced to students in the state sector between the ages of nine and ten in the fourth grade of primary school. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, parents send their children to *frontisteria* from an early age to learn a foreign language, which means that the majority of students come to their 'official' English class already having substantial elementary knowledge of the language. This has a negative effect on the importance that students attach to the subject of English: as there is the general mentality that since they learn the language at the *frontisteria* there is no reason why they have to pay due attention to it in the state sector (Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2001).

Additionally, the status of English in the state school is further reduced by the fact that English is not one of the subjects that students are expected to sit for in the general university entrance examinations; therefore it does not bear the importance of the other subjects the students have to take. The reason the ministry gave regarding the exclusion of English from the nine subjects that candidates are supposed to take in order to enter the tertiary level, was the non-homogeneous level of students in the English language. This non-homogeneity is of course due to *frontisteria* attendance. This exclusion, however, was a three-year provisional measure starting from 1997, according to Circular Γ2/328/8-2-2000. According to this Circular, officials in charge in the ministry, the Centre of Educational Research and the Pedagogic Institute, are currently considering modes that can be implemented in order to stream senior high school students. Even though the three-year period of the above mentioned temporary measure have passed, the Ministry of Education has not yet included the English language in the list of subjects that

students have to take to enter the tertiary level. Thus, when the English language teacher enters the second and third grades of the senior high school, he/she has to confront not only the problems that any other teacher faces when in class but also the total indifference their students have towards the subject of English.

The problem arising from the fact that state school EFL teachers do not try to attract their students' attention – because they take it for granted that the students attend the *frontisteria* – could be solved with the introduction of a *National Certificate of Language Proficiency*. This would be granted to students upon graduation after taking an examination at the national level. This was proposed in effect by the *Panhellenic Association of State School Teachers of English* with the view that this would give the subject of English the importance it deserved and this, in turn, would alleviate the problem of the degradation of the subject of English.

The most important change, if this preparation was to be implemented in the state school, would be that teachers would feel they have a reason to teach – i.e. preparing candidates for the new exam – and students would also be willing to work towards the acquisition of a certificate. In fact, Greek students' mentality is dominated by the general attitude that prevails in Greece, namely that one will put in effort into what one does only if a certificate is awarded at the end of the course (Prodromou, 1988, 1992).

However, the preparation of the candidate for the acquisition of the National Certificate of Language Proficiency is not feasible any more as it has been handed over to the *frontisteria*. Candidates are prepared for the exams at the *frontisteria* and when ready they apply to take the exams administered by a Central Examining Committee, which is appointed by the Ministry of Education. This signifies that the ministry, who is the sole employee of state schoolteachers, deprived them of a good

opportunity to contribute to their students' preparation and consequently upgrade the subject.

1.4.1 EFL teacher qualifications

A degree in English is a pre-requisite for state school teachers of English, which they acquire from one of the two English departments in Greece: at the University of Athens or at the University of Thessaloniki. A candidate aiming to be admitted into one of these is required to take all of the subjects that candidates are required to take in the general university entrance examinations plus English as an additional subject.

The level of English of the candidates aiming to take the English paper should be equivalent to that of candidates taking the Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English examination. Candidates are examined in their translation skills, grammatical knowledge, reading comprehension and writing either through descriptive or argumentative essays. However, they are not examined in their oral skills, therefore it is largely their *organisational competence* (Bachman, 1990) that is being examined.

The programme in the English faculty lasts four years and is divided into eight semesters with 114 contact hours. It involves mainly input in the form of lectures (Athens University Handbook, 2002-03). The programme consists of two types of subjects. The first one relates to (a) the component of language and linguistics and (b) the component of methodology. The second involves of the literature component.

The language and linguistics component, which is theoretical, includes topics concerning theories of language and language learning as well as the awareness the language itself. Students are taught the grammatical, phonological and lexical

systems of English so that they can understand the nature of the language, and they are also equipped with the required tools to describe it. Furthermore, they are presented with general principles for the description of discourse, with the study of aspects of discourse such as cohesion and coherence. They are also provided with the description of oral and written communication through the examination of pragmatic and discourse genres.

The component of methodology provides students with the various methods and techniques used for teaching English, and material adaptation and design are part of this component. However, the methodology component occupies only a third of the whole programme and these methods and techniques for teaching English are only discussed, but not practised. The lack of a teaching practice component is an aspect that characterises this teacher education programme as narrowly defined, which seems to deprive Greek teachers-to-be of being well equipped before they set out on their careers.

The component of literature predominates over the other two components with the presentation of a wide variety of English and American literature. It provides students with sufficient knowledge of the Anglo-American literature to enable them to stylistically analyse any literary work, thereby also improving their language level.

Newly graduating teachers, equipped only with theoretical knowledge, will have to practise, as the Greek Constitution defines it, the *'leitourgima'*. This is a concept that "carries the meaning of high value of service to both the state and the public" (Starida, 1994, p. 84). The question, however, is whether they can exercise the *leitourgima*, given that the teacher training structure has not provided trainees

with the appropriate practical skills, which could be realised through the teaching practice component – a point I will come back to when analysing my data.

The typical career path for university graduates from the English Departments is to find a job in the *frontisteria* with the ultimate aim of being appointed in the state sector. Prior to the changes that were imposed when Law 2525/1997 was enacted, all university graduates normally entered their names on a national waiting list[2] (Starida, 1994). The waiting period for the appointment of university graduates in the previous system was approximately seven years, and it is during this waiting period that teachers provide their services to the *frontisteria*. Law 2525/1997 abolished this waiting list and introduced new criteria for the appointing of teachers to state schools. This was done in order to safeguard the quality of the prospective teaching force. According to this law, only successful candidates in written examinations – administered by the Ministry of Education and taken at a national level – are appointed. In fact, the organisation of examinations on their subjects of expertise – history, mathematics, English, physics, literature and others – plus pedagogy and teaching methodology, is the responsibility of the *National Council for Appointments* (Kassotakis, 2000). Starting from the year 2003, would-be teachers are required to possess a *Certificate in Pedagogy and Didactics,* which is to be awarded by universities in addition to a bachelor's degree. Up to the present the *Certificate in Pedagogy and Didactics* has not been awarded by the department of English of the University of Athens (E. Manolopoulou-Sergi, personal communication, June 12, 2003).

It is worth noting that the Ministry of Education has been aware of the insufficient training teachers receive from the departments and tried to rectify the

unsatisfactory situation by introducing the Institution of *PEK* (*Programma Ekpedeftikis Katartisis* – Programme of Professional Training) by enacting Law 1566 of 1985. The aim of the project was to train both novice and experienced teachers to use updated classroom skills in order to perform effectively in class. The project failed and the whole programme was abandoned due to the strategies that were used to manage the change. The reason was that this programme was *power-coercive* (Kennedy, 1987) and as Kennedy suggests, this type of strategy uses measures to "force people to change or act in a certain way" (p. 164) a factor that contributes to the failing of the change. In fact, as Kennedy maintains, this type of strategy occurs rather frequently in centralised systems, where the ultimate users, that is, the teachers in our case, are not asked about the changes that are to be implemented. Consequently, teachers resisted the change. Nevertheless, because teachers were and are aware of their problem (Didaskaliko Vima, 1996) they may see changes favourably if they are instigated in the right manner, since "the key ingredient to teacher change and long-term development require an awareness of the need for change" (Pennington, 1995, p. 705).

In-service training is almost non-existent in Greece as teachers are only provided with the annual-one-day methodology seminar given by the school advisors. This implies that teachers have to make provisions for themselves if they are in any way interested in their professional development.

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[2] The waiting list of higher education graduates was based on the date of application for appointment and was kept at the Ministry of Education.

1.4.2 The English classes

During the nine years that English is taught in the state school system, that is, from the fourth grade of the primary school to the third grade of the senior high school students receive a total of 475 hours' tuition. The language is taught as an international language, which means that little or no emphasis is placed focusing on cultural elements of the countries where English is the official language. Students are intended to acquire knowledge primarily about the structure and function of the language. Even though the syllabus claims to be pupil-centred, this is far from true as teachers tend "to follow an eclectic approach, exhibiting features of both traditional and communicative approaches in their classroom practices (the former featuring much more frequently than the latter). Most lessons [a]re teacher-fronted and [exhibit] an explicit focus on form" (Karavas-Doukas, 1996, p. 193). What is more, because classroom conduct in general in the Greek state sector is typically characterised by a traditional, authoritarian and formalistic teaching approach, this is also reflected in the English classroom.

Materials used in primary schools are prescribed and produced by the Pedagogic Institute, and are then distributed by the Ministry of Education. English language course books are not provided to high school students, as there is a list of commercially produced books from which teachers choose the one they think is most suitable for their class. This list, which is approved and updated every year by the Pedagogic Institute, comprises books that have been published in the last three years. High school students are expected to buy them from their local bookshops unlike their other books, which are distributed free of charge.

The English language curriculum for the fourth grade, that is, the first time the language appears in the school curriculum, is designed by officials who seem to

disregard the reality that most fourth grade students have already attended one to two classes of English in the *frontisteria* and therefore have some knowledge of the language. The officials draw up the curriculum assuming that the majority of students are for the first time exposed to the language and thus have no knowledge of the language. Consequently, both the textbooks and the curriculum are designed to meet the needs of beginners. Thus, the imposed textbook and curriculum happen to be convenient only for the minority of the students who do not have the chance to attend these *frontisteria,* either because their parents cannot afford to pay for their children's private tuition or because the students live in very remote areas of the country, where *frontisteria* are not available.

Frontisteria attendance in effect leads pupils in the state classroom to boredom and indifference (Pigiaki, 1999), having a negative impact on students' interest and consequently on teachers' disposition to teaching. This is even aggravated by the fact that many state school teachers tend not to have a specific focus of interest in teaching their students the language, since there is a tendency among EFL teachers to follow slavishly the textbook they choose to teach. The majority of teachers seem not to know that there exists a set syllabus they could refer to (Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2001).

Since the curricula for the higher years are developed following on from the one designed for the fourth grade, the same situation perpetuates later on: the curricula and the textbooks are not challenging enough to attract students' interest. This has the following implication: English classes in the state school are regarded as 'playtime' or 'relaxation' sessions for students, thus making English a second class subject and, consequently, the teaching of it quite a difficult task. In fact, teachers need to put in a lot of effort into simply settling their students and making them get

involved in the lesson instead of trying to get across their knowledge. Furthermore, there is the perception among teachers that their teaching is superfluous and meaningless and this is attributed to the fact that their students attend the *frontisteria* (Chryshohoos, 1998).

The subject of English is taught three times a week in primary school and in the first grades of both junior and senior high schools, while there are only two lessons per week in the second and third grades of both junior and senior high schools. The difference between the English teaching in junior high school and senior high school is that in the former students are streamed according to their language abilities (Presidential Decree, 1998, 246 par.7 section 10). There are two levels that students are grouped in after taking a placement test designed by EFL teachers at the beginning of each school year. The first level is the 'beginners'', which is somewhat paradoxical given that students have been exposed to the language for three years in primary school, and the other is the 'advanced'. Manolopoulou-Sergi (2001) criticised the implementation of the streaming, as it has been found to be unsuccessful due to the following reasons:

- The placement tests are designed by insufficiently trained teachers during a period of two weeks at the start of the school year.
- Administrative matters have not been seriously considered, as there have been no extra appointments of teachers who would cover the creation of new classes through the streamlining.
- Teachers have not been informed regarding the selection of material to be used with the different levels of students.
- The teachers who have implemented the streamlining have not been asked for feedback in order for the ministry to make the appropriate adaptations.

An additional problem teachers face is the number of students they have to teach, which is between twenty-five and thirty-five students per class. Senior high school teachers have the additional problem that their classes are of *mixed ability* students.

Due to the degradation of the subject, students as a whole tend not to pay attention to the lesson and spend a great deal of the class time chatting with their classmates sitting next to them. As a result, there is a constant increase in disciplinary problems, which is one more thing that EFL state school teachers have to confront.

Chapter 2: Theories of motivation

Introduction

Motivation was not a separate field of study in the early half of the past century, unlike contemporary practice; it was considered a section of the general discipline of psychology. The word motivation is derived from the Latin root *movere*, which means to move. Hence, motivational theorists have essentially been concerned with the impetus that makes a dormant organism move and be in a mode of activity (Weiner, 1990). However, it has been difficult for motivational researchers to reach an agreement on a definition of the concept of motivation. The reason for this is that, consistent with their line of research, motivational researchers have studied different aspects of motivation, which has led to the conception of different motivational definitions. Nevertheless, according to Dörnyei (2001a):

> Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behaviour, that is: the *choice* of a particular action, the *persistence* with it, the *effort* expended on it. In other words, motivation is responsible for *why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, *how hard* they are going to pursue it. (p.8)

Theories of motivation encompass interpretations that range from behavioural to cognitive. The former belongs to early theories of motivation and the latter to contemporary ones. Early behaviourist theories construed motivation in terms of apparent actions performed by the individual in relation to stimuli from the environment. Contemporary perspectives, however, take into account the mental

processes and the effect of personal and environmental variables that define motivation.

In this chapter I will briefly touch upon the history of motivational theories and discuss some of the most important motivational theories in order to provide background material for the data analysis and the discussion of the results. This description, however, will not be very detailed, as it would go beyond the scope of this thesis and permitted word limit.

2.1 Early motivational theories

Early motivational theories were grounded in the *biologically based drive* aspect, and were related to psychoanalytic theories. In essence, these theories were based on Freud's (1966) notion of the *instinct,* which was believed to be the major force behind energised behaviour. In spite of its importance and popularity, Freud's theory about motivation is not regarded as fundamental to contemporary motivational theories (Eccles et al., 1998). This is because the concept that people represent a *closed energy system* and the contention that motivation primarily stems from instincts are questionable. All the same, early theories in the field of motivation developed theories based on Freud's emphasis on deep, permeating drives and instincts and this is because they have powerful directive impacts on human behaviour.

On the antipode of *biologically based drive theories* are *behaviouristic theories*, which support the view that behaviours are determined by a certain stimulus entailing a response. These theories are known as the *S-R* (Stimulus-Response), *reinforcement or drive-reduction theories*. As cited by Pintrich and Schunk (1996), Hull, a renowned behaviourist, was the first to have perceived

motivation in terms of *drives*, which are produced by biological needs (e.g., hunger, thirst, sex) and learned secondary needs (e.g., incentive to carry out an action, fear and anxiety). Hull maintained Freud's notion that fulfilment of one's needs is the major motivator of behaviour, but he and other behaviourists did not incorporate cognitive mechanisms in their theories (Eccles et al., 1998). Behaviourists claimed that behaviour was controlled by environmental events and stimuli. If the consequence that derives from the stimuli is positive, then it leads to the increase of behaviour, whereas if the consequence is negative, it conduces to its decrease.

Unlike behaviourists, the proponents of the cognitive view consider "mental structures and the processing of information and beliefs" (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, p. 27). 'Motivation' for the advocates of the cognitive view is an internal process; it cannot be observed directly but only through its outcomes. It forms the link between cognitions and behaviours. Bandura (1991) interprets motivation by suggesting that people anticipate possible outcomes of actions they have planned by setting goals for themselves and planning courses of action designed to actualise valued futures.

Humanistic psychologists Maslow and Rogers provided a perspective of motivation different from theories focusing on mental processes (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). According to the humanistic theories, motivation derives from the self and the emphasis is placed on the individual's potentiality and capability. According to Maslow, instincts or drives or environmental stimuli do not determine behaviour. During the 1940's Maslow developed a *need hierarchy theory,* which is based on the doctrine that human beings are *'wanting creatures'* motivated by the desire to satisfy specific types of needs, namely:

- *physiological needs* (hunger, thirst, and sex),
- *safety needs* (protection from physical sources of harm including shelter),

- *belonging/affiliation needs* (interpersonal relationships including affection care, and support),
- *esteem needs* (respect, positive regard, status, and recognition), and
- *self-actualisation needs* (the need to fulfil one's potential – to be all that one can become).

Self-actualisation is a motivating force which entails the desire of individuals to actualise themselves in every area of their lives by being unique and creative. The realisation of this need is even more distinct in individuals' job contexts and this is because work is one of the most salient aspects of their lives. Individuals' self-actualisation is done within the boundaries of reality and their inborn potentialities; in fact, this is when individuals' competencies and inherited talents come into force in order to facilitate the achievement of their personal growth and development. In the event that they are deviated from this goal this makes them feel like *crippled animals* (Herzberg et al., 1993).

Achievement motivation theory, which was introduced in Atkinson's 1964 and 1966 seminal works (as cited in Eccles et al., 1998), is a model formed within the expectancy-value framework. *Expectancy-value theory* is a fundamental construct deriving from a cognitive perspective, which reflects the perception that human beings are active and sensible decision-makers contrary to behavioural constructs of motivation. Early expectancy constructs focused on cognition and beliefs, as opposed to constructs of drives and needs which focused on overt behaviour. With the emergence of expectancy-value theory, motivational psychology shifted from the simplistic construct S-R to a more logical and cognitive model that is still influential nowadays. The main contention of this cognitive construct is that individuals' insights and convictions are moderators of their behaviour, which

signifies that there is a turn to the "subjective and phenomenological psychology of the individual" (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, p.75).

Achievement motivation theory is an attempt to combine the *needs, expectancy* and *value* constructs into a comprehensive model. This theory advocates that behaviour is a proliferating function of these three components, which Atkinson labelled as *motives, probability for success,* and *incentive value.* Even though this model is regarded as an early theory, many modern motivational theories adopt its components. The reason is that Atkinson's theory stressed the need for achievement as one of the basic human needs, determined by positive influences such as "achievement motives, expectancies for success and incentive values" (Eccles et al., 1998, p. 1020). However, achievement motivation is not determined only by these effects, as it is also affected by negative influences, which entail the individual's fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the probability of failure. This means that achievement motivation is regulated by opposing approaches and avoidance tendencies (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974).

2.2 Current motivational theories

The shift from theories that include constructs such as drives or instincts signalled the beginning of current motivational perspectives on motivation. The majority of the current theories do not incorporate unconscious aspects of motivation such as drives or instincts; instead they place the focus on beliefs, cognitions and affects, which regulate the instigation, maintenance and modification of actions (Dörnyei, 2001a).

2.2.1 Attribution theory

Attribution theory has been in the forefront of achievement motivation research for the past thirty years with Weiner being its most renowned advocate (Eccles et al., 1998). Weiner's (1985) attribution theory is based on Atkinson's *expectancy-value theory* and proposes that individuals' striving for achievement is related to the interpretations made of their past achievement outcomes. In essence, it involves the retrospective judgement of the causes of the individual's performance, which has a motivational significance.

Thus, according to Weiner (1985), if individuals attribute their success to their ability and effort, this will have a positive effect and, as a result, they will expect to be successful in the future when involved in similar tasks. Their expectation to do well is attributed to the fact that they have the perception that they have control over the outcomes. Conversely, individuals who ascribe their failure to a lack of ability will feel humiliated and will reduce their future expectancies because they think they have hardly any control over ensuing outcomes.

There are four common achievement attributions, which determine the reason for success or failure: (i) *ability*, (ii) *effort*, (iii) *task difficulty*, and (iv) *luck*. These and other achievement attributions can be categorised along three fundamental causal dimensions: *stability*, *locus*, and *control*. These three dimensions are not only equally important but also interconnected, affecting the individual's persistence in carrying out the task that s/he is involved in. According to Weiner (1985), if success or failure is attained while the individual perceives the causes or conditions as being stable, then the individual will anticipate success or failure respectively with a greater degree of conviction. On the contrary, if the causes or conditions are unstable

then the individual is dubious whether the same outcome will be reproduced. Stipek (1996) puts it concisely:

> The stability of the cause and whether the individual actually controls it are equally important. For example, past outcomes attributed to stable causes (such as ability) are predictive of future outcomes, but outcomes attributed to unstable causes (like luck) are not. Past outcomes attributed to controllable causes (such as effort) similarly have different implications for possible future outcomes than past outcomes attributed to uncontrollable causes (like stable ability). (p. 88)

2.2.2 Self-efficacy theory

Ability attribution, which is one of the four determinants of success or failure, is supported by strong *self-efficacy* beliefs (Bandura, 1991). *Self-efficacy* is defined as the individuals' judgment of their capability to organise and carry out a course of action needed to accomplish assigned types of performance. Bandura's (1986, 1991, 1993) social-cognitive self-efficacy theory stresses individuals' reliance on their ability to set up and accomplish the planned action. Self-efficacy, which can vary in strength, is determined by four factors:

- the individuals' perception of their previous performance, which relates to the correlation of the success that individuals have had and the stronger feeling of efficacy that they experience,
- vicarious learning, which involves the observation of models who either succeed or fail while accomplishing a task,
- verbal encouragement, and

- the individuals' physiological reactions.

People judge their self-efficacy based not only on the four attribution determinants, namely *effort*, *ability*, *task difficulty*, and *luck*, but also on different conditions under which they perform the planned actions (Bandura, 1991). These conditions may:

- be favourable or unfavourable,
- embody the extent of external aid supplied to the individual,
- involve the physical and emotional condition the individual is in, and
- incorporate the pattern of the successes and failures s/he has experienced.

Additionally, individuals' self-efficacy judgments are affected by the positive or negative biases they have, the self-monitoring they adopt, the cognitive representations they have and the retrieval of their past successes and failures (Bandura, 1991). Thus, individuals act based on the beliefs they have regarding their ability to carry out the planned action and the possible outcomes of these activities.

In case the outcomes of the action taken by an individual are uncertain and repeatedly negative, a strong sense of personal efficacy allows the sustainment of effort for prolonged periods of time. *Perceived self-efficacy*, according to Bandura (1991), is one of the cognitive factors that influence the employment of personal command over motivation and it incorporates:

- the choice of action to be performed,
- the challenge to be undertaken, and
- the extent to which one should persevere in case of difficulties and failures.

Bandura (1993) argues that self-efficacy affects the way people feel, think, behave and motivate themselves – effects produced through four major processes:

- the cognitive,
- the motivational,
- the affective, and
- selection processes.

The *cognitive process* is related to the perception that human behaviour is controlled by forethought, that is, incentives, which incorporate *cognised goals*. The setting of a goal is influenced by the individuals' appraisal of their capabilities, which implies that the stronger the self-efficacy, the higher goals the individuals set themselves and the more persistent they are in accomplishing these goals.

The *motivational processes* pertain to the fact that individuals motivate themselves and direct their "actions anticipatorily by the exercise of forethought" (Bandura, 1993, p. 128). The significance of goals in the regulation of one's motivation is great because the individual's behaviour is motivated and directed by cognised goals which function in the present instead of being pulled by an unrealisable future condition. After all, as we will see below, Locke and Latham (1990) proved that clear and challenging goals promote and maintain motivation.

Affective processes refer to the stress and depression that individuals experience in difficult and threatening circumstances, and the level of motivation they demonstrate. It is, as Bandura (1993) calls it, the "emotional mediator of self-efficacy belief" (p. 132). Individuals who believe that they can control threats do not evoke distressing thought patterns. Conversely, individuals who believe that they cannot handle threats experience greater anxiety.

Selection processes relate to individuals' shaping of the course of their lives according to the choice of activities, which in their turn heavily rely on the perceived efficacy individuals have. If individuals believe that certain activities and situations

surpass their abilities, they avoid them. On the other hand, if individuals feel they are capable, they undertake challenging activities. In fact, through the choices individuals make they "cultivate different competencies, interests, and social networks that determine life courses" (Bandura, 1993, p. 135).

According to Eccles et al. (1998), Bandura attributes the supremacy of his theory over the other self-related constructs in the motivational domain to the fact that it is to a greater extent task and situation specific and as such is more strongly related to behaviour. Eccles et al., however, question the distinction Bandura makes between self-efficacy and past performance because he maintains that self-efficacy intervenes between past and ensuing performance and choice of task.

2.2.3 Modern expectancy-value theory

Wigfield's (1994) modern *expectancy theory* is based on Lewin and Atkinson's theory. According to Wigfield, people choose to perform an action and persist if they have expectancy-related and task value beliefs (Eccles et al., 1998). The central components of the early expectancy value theories are:

- the individual's anticipation for a successful outcome in a given task, and
- the value that the individual ascribes to the task to be performed.

The difference between the earlier expectancy-value theories and the modern one according to Eccles et al., 1998, lies in that:

- the expectancy and value constituents are more detailed and more related to psychological and social/cultural determinants,
- the expectancy and value components are based on more realistic achievement tasks than the ones used by Atkinson, and
- expectancy and value theories are interrelated.

The weakness of the expectancy-value theories lies in the insufficient explanation of the second component of the construct, namely, the value factor (Dörnyei, 2001a). In order to bridge this gap, Eccles-Parsons, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece and Midgley in their 1983 seminal work (as cited in Eccles et al., 1998) proposed a more elaborate model in which they specified four components:

- *attainment value*, which entails the importance individuals attach to the mastery of a skill having taken into account their needs,
- *intrinsic value*, which reflects the enjoyment individuals derive from performing the task,
- *extrinsic utility value*, which has to do with the usefulness of a task in relation to the set goals as well as the improvement of people's lives or personalities,
- *cost*, which mirrors the negative features of the engagement of individuals in a task, namely having to do with the time and effort expended to fulfil the activity, as well as emotional cost such as anxiety and fear of failure that may be provoked while doing the task.

These four components are assumed to function together in order to establish the achievement value a task may have for an individual, thus determining the intensity with which the behaviour is adhered to.

2.2.4 Intrinsic/extrinsic motivation theories

Motivational theories distinguish between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation, and are fundamental to the general motivation literature. *Intrinsic motivation* refers to the individual's motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake while deriving

enjoyment and satisfaction. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) suggests that intrinsic motivation "reflects an experience that is an end in itself, a dynamic psychological state that is valued for its immediate rewarding qualities" (p.73). In contrast, extrinsic motivation entails the engagement in an activity as a means to an end. This implies that the individual performs the action aspiring to gain some kind of extrinsic reward such as a prize, or a good grade, or teacher praise. *Amotivation* – a third type of motivation – is characterised by the absence of any kind of regulation be it extrinsic or intrinsic (Dörnyei, 2001a). Amotivation does not refer to lack of motivation caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experience of feeling incompetent and helpless when faced with an activity.

In line with the description above, one would perceive that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are at different ends of a continuum, with extrinsic motivation regarded as something that can impair intrinsic motivation. This claim has been disproved and as Brewer et al. (1988) claim, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not in any way mutually exclusive but rather can affect individuals' motivation simultaneously. In order to restore the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy, Deci and Ryan (1985) developed a more intricate construct proposing the *self-determination theory*, which will be discussed extensively below. However, before I touch upon self-determination theory I will outline what constitutes intrinsic and what extrinsic motivation.

A number of determining factors have been alleged to have an impact on intrinsic motivation, such as feelings of *competence* and *self-determination, task variety, challenge or difficulty,* and *feedback.* Deci and Ryan, (1985) in particular, point out that *competence cues* affect individuals' competence perception and this is because of the information they are provided with regarding their performance. In

fact, competence cues could promote individuals' intrinsic motivation, but this can happen on condition that individuals are *self-determined*. Spaulding (1992) and Harackiewicz et al. (1992) corroborate this point claiming that intrinsic motivation can be experienced when individuals feel both self-determined and competent, which in effect allows them to enjoy the activity they perform.

Another element that significantly contributes to the intrinsic motivation of an individual is that of *relatedness*, which entails feelings of closeness and being united with other individuals (Deci et al., 1997). In particular, a person will be intrinsically motivated if s/he finds a setting in which s/he can find colleagues with whom s/he can share some of the values, which could help promote the feeling of relatedness. This feeling of relatedness is crucial to the general disposition of the individual as people in general want to be accepted by the world in which they function.

When individuals engage in an activity that they consider intrinsically motivating and they are deeply and spontaneously involved in, they lose awareness of time and space, while they feel that the differentiation between *I*, that is the self, and *it*, that is, the activity, becomes non-existent. This allows the individual to experience enjoyment or *flow* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). According to Csikszentmihalyi, when individuals are in a state of *flow* they do not get bored, worried or distracted about the task they have to perform, but rather know exactly what is to be done and how well they are carrying out the action. Eccles et al. (1998) present the concept of flow comprehensively by listing the following points:

> flow is characterized by (a) holistic feelings of being immersed in, and of being carried by, an activity; (b) merging of action and awareness; (c) focus

of attention on a limited stimulus field; (d) lack of self-consciousness; and (e) feeling in control of one's actions and the environment (p. 1030).

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) points out that in order to experience the above quoted feelings there should be equilibrium between *challenges*, namely the opportunities offered in the environment, and *skills* which have to do with the capacity of the individual to act. In case one factor outweighs the other various problems occur: if challenges overwhelm skills, anxiety is induced; conversely, if skills predominate over challenges, boredom is the result. Accordingly, as Brophy (1999) suggests, there should be an ideal match between the level of challenge of the tasks individuals are to perform and their developing skills. This description however is limited, as Brophy remarks, since it does not explain the reason why people pursue flow experiences in some areas while not in others. Eccles et al. (1998) report that research carried out by Massimini and Carli has proved that both factors, that is, challenges and skills, have to be at a relatively high level if one is to experience flow. This standpoint throws light on the psychological processes entailed in intrinsic motivation and serves as a basis for the prediction of *contextual factors* that either promote or curtail intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1992).

The notion of extrinsic motivation, as mentioned earlier, is related to actions undertaken by individuals in order to achieve some kind of outcome, namely rewards such as praise, grades, or money, unlike the satisfaction one derives from an activity when intrinsically motivated. The main characteristic of extrinsic motivation is that the outcomes are not controlled by individuals, consequently these rewards are used to coerce or manage individuals (Deci, 1992); this implies, as Deci suggests, that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are incompatible. The incompatibility of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation was believed at the beginning of the conceptualisation of

these motivational constructs. However, this was reconsidered, after the emergence of the self-determination theory, as Deci, Ryan and Connell (as cited in Deci, 1992) proposed that it is possible for an extrinsic process to develop into a part of the self, that is, it can be integrated into the self by means of "developmental processes of internalization and integration" (p. 45).

According to Deci (1992), *internalisation* is the procedure through which an external regulation is converted into internal regulation. Thus, the individual undertakes an activity that is basically instrumental but has been internalised. The individual values the activity because this will enable him/her to achieve the desired goal. Deci points out that this process of internalisation is further differentiated into regulations that are:

- external,
- introjected,
- identified, and
- integrated

External regulation emanates entirely from external sources either as rewards or threats. *Introjected* is the regulatory process pertaining to the internalisation of a process, which has not been acknowledged by the individual as his/her own. It therefore, entails feelings of obligation that are associated with prescription, and in the case that the individual does not comply with the regulation s/he feels guilty (Deci, 1992). In the event that an individual gradually identifies with the activity, considering its importance and usefulness, s/he accepts it with very little opposition and with much more integration. If individuals perceive the activity as very important, then they allow the developmental process to continue until they integrate

the activity with the other values they have, which will in its turn allow individuals to experience greater interest in carrying out the activity.

2.2.5 Self-determination theory

In the previous section it was mentioned that in order to reinstate the intrinsic extrinsic dichotomy, Deci and Ryan (1985) resorted to the development of a more elaborate construct. This was the *self-determination* model whereby self-determined individuals are engaged in an activity "with a full sense of wanting, choosing and personal endorsement" (Deci, 1992, p. 44). This definition, however, was criticised by Pintrich and Schunk (1996) as they thought it was not comprehensive; the reason being, they maintained, that there were some more requirements for individuals to be self-determined, which are related to individuals' ability to:

- acknowledge their strengths and weaknesses,
- be aware of the forces affecting them,
- make choices, and
- determine ways in order to fulfil their needs.

Nevertheless, despite the above criticism Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory, which has been in the forefront of motivational theories as one of the most prominent one, is organised around three sets of motivational processes – the intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivational. Based on this distinction, Deci and Ryan divided self-determined individuals into three categories:

I. Those who have the ability to use events in order to initiate and regulate their own chosen behaviour, as well as to maintain a high level of self-determination and thereby sustain intrinsic motivation. Individuals belonging to this category are *autonomy oriented* which implies that they look for

opportunities to be intrinsically motivated, and therefore are more likely to be self-determined. Deci et al., (1997) maintain that intrinsically motivated behaviours represent the prototype of self-determination.

II. Those who function under the influence of controls in the environment according to which they regulate their behaviour, thus displaying little self-determination. Individuals in this category rely heavily on controlling events such as supervision, evaluation or deadlines, having as their core thought the "I should do this because... " These people are referred to as *control oriented* and are characterised by the fact that they perceive extrinsic rewards as important in contrast to autonomy-oriented people.

III. The third category entails people who perceive their behaviour as being beyond their control. These individuals think they do not have the capacity to regulate their behaviour in order to have the desired outcomes. They are characterised by a feeling of incompetence, have an attitude that tasks are too difficult to carry out, and that outcomes are unrelated to their behaviour. These people are referred to as *impersonally oriented* as behaviour is thought to be started and directed by impersonal powers rather than personal intentions.

2.2.6 Goal-setting theory

One of the most important motivational processes is *goal setting*, which is supposed to regulate individuals' actions. Locke and Latham (1990b) define goals, as "immediate regulators or causes of task or work performance" (p.4), and propose that there are two types of goal-related constructs: (i) the ones that are internal and

conscious and, (ii) the ones that are external or non-conscious (Locke & Latham, 1990a). Locke and Latham classify the goal concepts on a continuum from internal to external, having in the middle concepts that represent the intersection and interaction of the internal and external components, as displayed in the table below:

Table 2.1 Internal/external and consciousness/non-conscious dimension (Locke & Latham, 1990a)

Focus of construct	Internal and conscious	Intersection of internal & external	External and/or non-conscious
Focus on behaviour or action	Intention	Norm	Actual task Academic work
Emphasis on the end or aim of action	Level of aspiration General life goals	Personal goal Aim Objective Personal Standard	Teacher-assigned goal Task-identified goal Time deadline Quota/task requirements
Emphasis on underlying motivation	Motive Value Attitude Psychological needs Desire Wish		Drive Instinct Biological needs

The first row describes the aspect of behaviour and action. Locke and Latham classify the notion of *intention* under the column of internal and conscious dimension. *Intentions* are the actions that individuals plan to take within a particular situation. On the other end of the continuum, that is, that of the external or non-conscious dimension, is the *actual task* to be carried out, which defines the individual's behaviour and action. *Norms* embody the intersection of the internal and external dimensions, since they are determined and regulated by people who are outside the individual. The individual's duty is to grasp and comprehend these norms and ultimately internalise them. The second row illustrates the aim of the action rather than the behaviour. They categorise *level of aspiration* as an internal/conscious construct. This level of aspiration is subjective and relates to the degree that one hopes to achieve a task as well as the intensity with which s/he desires to attain the task. The external element represents all the *external constraints*

that individuals have to function under while they try to carry out the tasks. The *goals* are in the intersection of internal and external constructs and represent the individual's personal goals and the assigned goals for a specific activity. Finally, the last row describes the underlying motivation that Locke and Latham classify as values, attitudes, and motives on the internal end of the continuum, while placing drives and instincts on the external.

According to Latham et al. (1997), the importance of goal-setting lies in the fact that it provides individuals not only with a sense of purpose, but that it also allows them to be recognised as well as derive a feeling of pride and competency when accomplishing the set goal. In order for the goals to be attained, three conditions are mandatory. Goals have to be: *proximal*, *specific*, and *challenging*. These factors are conducive to the realisation of the set-goals because firstly, *proximal goals* are easier to attain and to appraise compared to *distal goals*. Secondly, *specific goals* entail the regulation of one's performance in order to obtain the desired outcomes, and thirdly, *goal difficulty* must be tuned in such a way that the goal is challenging but not too difficult to be attained.

It has been reported that if individuals have adequate abilities, have accepted the goal and have been given relevant feedback, then if they are confronted with specific and hard goals they will outperform the ones who are faced with easy, general or even no goals (Antoni & Beckmann, 1990). The achievement of the set goals will confirm that the individuals are efficacious and have improved in their skills.

Two very significant features of goal-setting are *goal choice* and *goal commitment*. *Goal choice* refers to the goal that individuals have set to reach and the level of the goal to be attained. *Goal commitment* entails the extent to which

individuals are involved with attaining the goal, the enthusiasm with which they act towards the achievement of the goal and the degree to which individuals are determined to fulfil the set goal. As Locke and Latham, (1990b) postulate there are four types of factors that affect commitment: *power of authority*, *participative goal-setting*, *self-efficacy*, and the *use of rewards*.

It must be noted here that *participatively set goals* have been found to be more difficult to accomplish than if an authority figure sets a goal. In particular, it has been suggested that when an authority figure who is legitimately recognised assigns the goals in a supportive manner and with a rationale, then the goals can be more effective than if they were participatively set (Latham et al., 1997).

However, these two aspects of goals are inadequate for the initiation of an action unless a volitional element is introduced. As Locke (1996) claims the theory of goal setting "accepts the axiomatic status of consciousness and volition" (p. 118). In addition, Locke and Latham (1990b) postulate the fact that a goal is worthwhile and attainable does not automatically compel individuals to act. What is required is individuals' choice to put their judgment in action; in the case of individuals relying on the conscious or subconscious to spur action, they will be in a state of not doing anything or, as Locke and Latham (1990b) put it, will be drifting aimlessly.

The process of committing oneself to perform a goal is congruous to the volitional phases proposed by Heckhausen (1991) and Corno (1993), which entail the individual's state of *crossing the Rubicon*[3] (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001a). This of course presupposes firstly the acceptance of the goal and then its attainment through motivational strategies. If the set goals are achieved then individuals' self-efficacies are raised, contributing in this way to the sustainment of

motivation as well as the improvement of goals. To put things in a nutshell, according to Locke and Latham (1990b):

> A specific challenging goal has maximum effect when the individual has high ability, there is commitment to the goal, there is feedback showing progress in relation to the goal, the individual has high efficacy or expectancy of performing well and the task is simple. (p.11)

Goal-setting theory does not stand by itself within the broader motivational theory, but is tied in with other theories, namely expectancy-value theory because expectancy and value affect individuals' goal choices and commitment; attribution theory, and intrinsic motivation theory (Locke, 1996). With respect to intrinsic motivation it has been reported that assigned goals may curtail intrinsic motivation, but this has not been consistently proved (Latham et al., 1997).

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[3] "*Crossing the Rubicon* has since then become a phrase to describe a step that definitely commits a person to a given course of action" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 88).

Chapter 3: Work motivation

Introduction

A major contributor to the satisfaction and effectiveness of a person carrying out a job is the concept of motivation – the importance of which was identified by industrial/organisational psychologists. In the previous chapter, we looked at the broad issue of motivation. However, because the motivation of people in a specific profession constitutes a kind of unique subclass of the broader motivation theories it is essential that we look at theories developed by work motivation researchers. This will enable us to have a better and fuller picture as to what factors affect teacher motivation.

In this chapter I will focus on industrial/organisational researchers/scholars' main priorities, the aspects they tried to examine in this particular behavioural domain, and the conclusions they have reached. Thus, models proposed by prominent work motivation theorists will be presented, followed by implications of work motivation theories for management. Our narrowing down process will further continue in the following chapter when we look at the motivation of one particular profession: language teachers.

3.1 Work: A source of fulfilment

Work is an activity that individuals take up normally in their early- or mid-twenties and retain until the age of 65 when they retire. It is in fact an important aspect of their lives, as it occupies a major part of their waking hours. Pennington (1990) claims:

> Work is for most people a major life focus, not only as a centre of activity that consumes a large proportion of their time and energy, but also as a context for many different types of experiences, both intellectual and social, rewarding as well as frustrating. (p. 59)

Generally speaking, for the fortunate ones it is a source of satisfaction and for others the cause of grief, or as Steers and Porter (1987) put it, a cause for disappointment, boredom and a feeling of worthlessness. If we accept that work is a source of satisfaction, it is arguably true for several reasons, which Steers and Porter (1987) summarise as following:

- There is firstly the notion of reciprocity, or exchange, which pertains to the rewards employees receive for doing the work. These rewards can either be extrinsic or intrinsic; extrinsic rewards relate mainly to the provision of money, and intrinsic to the satisfaction individuals derive from providing their services and of course seeing the outcome of their work. The extent to which these expectations are met affects individuals' decisions as to whether they will maintain their performance at the same level and taking it one step further whether they will retain the position or not.
- Secondly, work in general serves a social purpose, as individuals have the opportunity to meet people and associate with them.
- Thirdly, work is assumed to contribute to individuals' status or rank.

- Finally, work is a source from which individuals can acquire a sense of purpose for their lives, as it is a vital source of identity, *self-actualisation*[4] and *self-esteem*.

3.1.1 Work motivation: The management's responsibility

Work motivation has been researched by industrial/organisational psychologists for the few past decades, having as their main aim the understanding of the factors that influence employees' work motivation. Steers and Porter (1987) point out that organisations require of their employees to perform in a reliable, creative, innovative manner. This, however, cannot be realised unless management provides employees with the appropriate means and support that would allow them to feel motivated. If managers want their organisations to be successful, then it is their responsibility to stimulate and maintain employees' motivation to participate and be productive at work. In order to achieve this, managers need to gain knowledge of the factors that affect employees' motivation.

A sound knowledge of motivational theories would in fact facilitate a better interpretation of situations and events than if a manager had no knowledge about motivation. Thus, knowledge of work motivation theories would help managers understand the complex concept of motivation, which in its turn would enable them to energise their employees' motivation. What is more, by employing certain techniques – proposed by work motivation researchers – they would be able to tackle motivational problems that arise in work contexts.

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[4] *Self-actualisation*, as mentioned in Chapter 2, is a need individuals want to fulfil after having satisfied their basic physiological, safety, belongingness and esteem needs.

As Steers and Porter (1987) postulate, the management's responsibility regarding employee motivation commences with the recruitment of the right people and the provision of appropriate training, which is of paramount importance. Thus, personnel planning which involves the appraisal, development and the discovery of talented employees from whom the organisation can draw as it develops, should be one of the major concerns of management.

3.2 Work motivation theories

Early work motivation theorists concentrated on the broad measurements of performance, such as the rating used by supervisors, and their main concern, before the late 1970's, was to comprehend what determines choice to perform a job. Contemporary researchers, however, aimed at predicting motivational impacts that specific variables have on performance, namely those of "effort, persistence, pacing and dependability" (Kanfer, 1992, p. 2). Contemporary researchers did not only focus on the understanding of the determinants and effects of the goals that individuals set, but also widened the scope of motivational processes by promoting the examination of *volition*.

As Kanfer (1992) maintains, work motivation theories are not solely intended to predict job performance, but rather to foresee "decision processes and volitional behaviour" (p. 6). A distinction is thus made between job performance and behaviour in industrial organisational research, which is not made in other human motivation theories. According to Kanfer (1992), the reason why it is important to make this distinction is firstly, the fact that individuals embark on an array of motivated behaviours, which do not necessarily pertain to their job performance. Secondly, job/task performance is, in essence, ruled on the grounds of the appraisal of the

outcome of the individual's behaviour. Thirdly, variables such as individual differences and environmental factors need to be taken into account in order to predict the performance per se. Finally, the positive impact self-regulation has on performance should be taken into account in order to promote the investigation of the psychological processes that take place when the set goals are put into practice. The first model to pertain to volition is Locke and Latham's (1990a) goal-setting model since goals function as regulators of actions, as was pointed out in Chapter 2.

Work motivation theories can be distinguished in many ways but the most well-known distinction is the *content* and *process* one; the former illustrating workers' wants and needs, and which therefore the managers can use to energise their employees' behaviours, while the latter outline "how managers can use knowledge of subordinates' needs and desires to direct subordinate behavior appropriately" (Northcraft & Neale, 1994, p. 105). The combination of the two theories of work motivation provides managers with a basis for managing the motivation of personnel.

A comprehensive model of work motivation, according to Steers and Porter (1987), is expected to relate to three distinct areas, namely, the employee, the job to be performed, and the environment in which the individual has to function, and the interplay of the effects of the three distinctive themes. Accordingly, it is important when attempting to study or analyse work motivation that one takes into consideration the following variables:

1. The individual characteristics, for example the intensity of the workers' needs (since higher need for achievement is assumed to be conducive to better performance), their attitudes towards the organisation, and their interests.

2. The nature of the work, for example the extent of responsibility rendered to individuals and the degree of control they may exercise over their jobs. It is suggested that job enrichment, namely the prospect of individuals taking on more responsibility, being autonomous and having a variety of tasks to do when practising their work promotes job performance. This concept of job enrichment, however, may not have the same effect with all individuals, as not every worker is apt to assuming either the responsibility or autonomy suggested above, which implies that management have to be vigilant of each individual's needs and capabilities.

3. The work environment, which entails the employee relationship with the peer group, the practices that are applied by the supervision, the rewards that are given by the system, and finally the general organisational climate. The work environment variable is essential to be viewed in relation to the individual's characteristics and the job-related facets. For example, the individual with a high need for affiliation would normally be more strongly influenced by high group cohesion than the individual with a low need for affiliation.

The fact that these variables need to be viewed interactively and not as three static lists of components affecting one another and changing in the course of time responding to the circumstances, implies that the worker's motivation is in a continual *state of flux* which is determined by "the nature, strength, and interactive effects of these three groups of variables" (Steers & Porter, 1987, p. 577). This point corroborates the need to view work motivation as a dynamic concept rather than a static one.

In their paper on factors affecting work motivation, Perry and Porter (1982), suggest a fourth variable, that of external environment characteristics, which they postulate cannot be directly controlled by any organisation. Nevertheless, as they go on to explain, this category of variable could be monitored, and depending on the conclusions drawn from the monitoring of the external environment, changes can be implemented. These changes are put into practice within the organisation in order to have the desired impact on employee motivation. External environment characteristics comprise categories such as "socionormative, political, demographic, economic, and technological" (Perry & Porter, 1982, p. 536). The first two categories are the most salient on work motivation and in particular in the public sector organisations.

The most prominent work motivation theories, which will be discussed in detail following are those elaborated by Herzberg and colleagues (1993) and, Hackman and Oldham (1980) – two models educational researchers have used to investigate teacher motivation.

3.3 Herzberg et al.'s two-factor motivation theory

In the fifties, Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner and Barbara Block Snyderman carried out a field survey in the area of work motivation – the first of its kind to have ever taken into account the workplace, since previous research was conducted in laboratories. Herzberg et al.'s construct, presented in the 1959 edition of *The Motivation to Work,* was their well-known *two-factor theory* which revealed that employees related their satisfaction to the intrinsic aspect of their job and the scope it provided them with to develop and grow professionally, whereas they related their dissatisfaction to the work environment and the conditions they worked under.

Factors associated with the performance of work, such as r*ecognition* – for a job that is performed successfully, *achievement, autonomy, responsibility, advancement* and *personal growth* were termed as *motivators*. Factors associated with the working conditions, including pay, quality of supervision, job security, and the social milieu of work were termed *hygiene factors*.

The satisfaction of employees in their work setting according to the theory depends on the provision of opportunities for achievement, responsibility and recognition – *motivators* in the terms of the theory. Conversely, the dissatisfaction of employees is related to the fact that the work setting does not fulfil their basic needs, since worrying about pay and job security could prevent employees from performing their job well. The crux of the model is that the fulfilment of the basic needs prevents dissatisfaction, but it does not promote satisfaction. In other words, the eradication of the hygiene factors is not conducive to satisfaction, but rather to a neutral state. Hygiene factors have a rather neutral effect when motivators are high, but when motivators are low then hygiene factors tend to have accelerated, multiplier negative effects.

Thus, work satisfaction can only be attained through the promotion of motivators, as Herzberg et al. (1993) revealed that even workers who were reported to be unhappy with the work itself experienced real feelings of satisfaction when they achieved set assignments. This reflects the importance that achievement of goals/assignments has with regards to work satisfaction. Their findings also showed that individuals' growth in their profession was not mainly related to the opportunity employees were given to be promoted but it was related to their ability to develop their work skills. Regarding the responsibility facet, it was found that workers wanted to be held accountable provided they had been trained adequately and been

given some kind of control over the job, that is, autonomy, and scheduling. Another important finding regarding responsibility is that in the event that employees were not granted formal promotion but were given the responsibility of the job then lack of promotion did not affect their motivation. In addition, recognition – one more vital component that contributed to the motivation and satisfaction of employees – was found to emanate from various sources from the work surroundings, namely the management, the supervisor, clients, peers, professional colleagues, or the general public (Herzberg et al., 1993). For employees that are not very motivated and are not performing well, Herzberg et al. have suggested with their Job Enrichment proposal that jobs can be enriched or redesigned to increase the level of the following features:

- challenge,
- responsibility,
- personal growth,
- advancement, and
- recognition.

Job enrichment does not simply propose the broadening of a person's job, but it recommends the increase of the scope, the tasks, and skills needed to perform the job. Individuals' job enrichment will enhance individuals' gains in professional potentialities, both by way of expanding the skills mastered and of adding higher levels of skill.

In sum, the two-factor theory was regarded highly because it was the first research study to have been conducted in a work setting and not in a laboratory and, because individual differences among the employees were for the first time taken into account (Steers & Porter, 1987). In addition, as Owens (1995, as cited in

Dinham & Scott, 1998) says, "Herzberg's research – after exhaustive review in the literature over a period of two decades – must be accepted as representing the state of the art" (p. 363).

However, Herzberg et al.'s (1993) theory also received criticism for a variety of reasons: The first reason was that the studies on which the theory was based were challenged on methodological grounds; secondly, the separation of motivators and hygiene factors did not stand up to empirical scrutiny; thirdly, studies showed that achievement and recognition – two motivators related to satisfaction – also influenced job dissatisfaction, and finally the "importance of the two-factor theory revolve[d] around the idea that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction [were] crucially related to work motivation and performance...[which] is at best a tenuous assumption" (Northcraft & Neale, 1994, p.110).

3.4 Hackman's model of motivation

Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed a model where individual differences and job characteristics act jointly affecting the productivity, motivation and satisfaction of employees. Hackman and Oldham's *job characteristics* model on work motivation comprises five core *job dimensions*, which create three *psychological states* and consequently conduce to a number of advantageous *personal and work outcomes*. The core *job characteristics* are:

- skill variety,
- task identity,
- task significance,
- autonomy, and
- feedback.

The *psychological states* are:

- experienced meaningfulness of the work,
- experienced responsibility for outcomes and,
- knowledge of the actual results of the work activities.

The *personal and work outcomes* are:

- high internal motivation,
- high quality work performance,
- high satisfaction with the work, and
- low absenteeism and turnover.

The interaction of *job characteristics*, the *psychological states* and the *personal* and *work outcomes* are regulated by employees' *growth need strength*, which embraces the individual's needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). *Growth need strength* is a psychological need of individuals "for personal accomplishment, for learning, and for developing themselves beyond where they are now" (p. 85).

According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), there are two types of people. People who have strong growth needs and who, when confronted by complex and challenging jobs, develop high internal motivation. Conversely, people who have weaker needs for growth do not normally take advantage of the opportunities for personal achievement that are provided by a job which is high in motivational potential. In fact, growth need strength is believed to regulate individuals' reactions to complicated and demanding work in two ways. Firstly, when a high growth need individual's job is enriched then s/he may experience the psychological states in contrast to his/her low growth need colleague who does not. Secondly, a high growth need individual will react more positively to the psychological states, when they are

present, as opposed to a low growth need individual who will not (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

As Hackman (1987) postulates, satisfaction is fostered when individuals perceive that they develop as human beings, while their sense of competence is promoted contributing in this way to better job performance. In particular, the psychological states that critically influence an employee's motivation and satisfaction, as mentioned above, are:

1. *Experienced meaningfulness*, which has to do with the value and importance the individual attributes to his/her job.
2. *Experienced responsibility*, which relates to the responsibility and accountability the individual should experience while performing his/her job.
3. *Job knowledge*, which refers to the feedback regarding his/her efficiency in carrying out a job.

Experienced meaningfulness is promoted through the activation of three job dimensions making the job meaningful to the employee:

a. *Skill variety,* which allows the employee to do a variety of different activities, while it requires the individual to put into practice a number of different skills and talents. It has been reported that when the individual is given the opportunity to extend his/her skill, then s/he experiences meaningfulness.

b. *Task identity,* which entails the completion of an entire and distinguishable piece of work. It has been found that employees find a job meaningful if they are responsible for the completion of the task rather than just a small part of the whole job.

c. *Task significance,* which reflects the understanding of the individual that his/her job has a considerable impact on the lives or work of other people. It has been revealed that employees who know that the result of their job influences the welfare of other people, experience meaningfulness.

With regards to experienced responsibility, it is fostered by one job characteristic, *autonomy*, which in essence involves the provision to the individual of significant liberty, independence, and authority to use his/her judgment (Hackman, 1987). This provision of responsibility to the employee will enable the individual to determine the way the job should be accomplished. According to Hackman (1987), if employees are given the chance to operate relying on their own energy, drive, and choice, rather than on the suitability of instructions, then this enhances meaningfulness.

Feedback is the job characteristic that allows the individual to have knowledge of results. It allows the individual to obtain outright and explicit information about the efficiency of his/her performance (Hackman, 1987).

3.4.1 Hackman's set of action principles for redesigning jobs

Regarding Hackman's model of motivation, and in particular the effect of core job characteristics, it has been suggested that people who have been working on jobs high on core job characteristics tend to be more motivated, more productive and more satisfied than people who work on jobs with low job characteristics. This implies that management needs to provide work environments that score high on job characteristics.

The three psychological states were also found to critically affect individuals' motivation to perform a job. Hackman (1987) emphasises that the more intensely the

three components, (i.e., experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility and knowledge of results) are present, the more conducive it is to job satisfaction and motivation to perform the job. Hackman states that in order for a job to be motivating, which he defines as 'motivating potential', there should be at least one of the three components present.

In fact, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed a set of action principles for redesigning jobs. The five principles they describe are:

- Forming natural work units;
- Combining tasks;
- Establishing client relationships;
- Vertical loading;
- Opening feedback channels.

The first principle pertains to the formation of natural work units, which leads to the promotion of employee *ownership* by means of task identity and task significance. As Hackman and Oldham (1980) claim, a prerequisite is that the basic work items are identified and then classified into natural and meaningful groups. The second principle entails combining tasks by putting together existing bits of tasks and forming a new and bigger module of work. The formulation of a new and larger module of work enhances the employees' sense of task identity while at the same time they are given the opportunity to increase task variety when performing the job. The third principle involves the workers' direct relationship with clients, which allows:

- the provision of feedback, as clients directly praise or criticise their work outcome,

- the increase in skill variety as workers try to exercise their interpersonal skill in both handling and sustaining the relationship with the client,
- the provision of autonomy which allows workers to promote personal responsibility on deciding how to manage their relationship with people who are recipients of the output of their job.

The fourth principle called *vertical loading* relates to the responsibility that employees are given for managing their job so as to raise their autonomy and consequently their personal responsibility for their job outcome. Some ways to realise employee responsibility are, according to Hackman (1987):

- letting employees decide on work methods,
- giving workers the responsibility for training new or less experienced employees,
- allowing flexibility in time management,
- encouraging workers to do their own trouble-shooting and problem solving rather than calling on the supervisor, and
- providing employees with increased information about control over financial affairs related to the job and the larger organisation.

The fifth principle, which is opening feedback channels, enhances the direct provision of information regarding the employees' work performance, enabling them to reach conclusions about their work output. Feedback channels can be opened by:

- establishing client relationships,
- taking on the responsibility,
- receiving the appropriate training,
- assessing and monitoring the quality of their job, and

- having supervisors provide them with feedback after having observed them over some time and under different working circumstances.

3. 5 Implications of work motivation theories for management

One of the main concerns of management should be, as discussed earlier, the everlasting quest for ways of motivating workers (Herzberg et al., 1993). Steers and Porter (1987) suggest that a prerequisite for management to be successful in managing their subordinates is for them to be knowledgeable about the motivational processes. This is even true of employees, who need to familiarise themselves with the motivational processes, since this could contribute to a great extent to the fulfilment of the goals set by the organisation, while at the same time employees could derive personal satisfaction.

Steers and Porter (1987) have drawn a list of implications for managerial practices, where they maintained that if managements are really concerned with improving their employees' work performance and work attitudes, they should then seriously take action in managing motivational processes, as motivation is "conscious, intentional behaviour; it is not something that just happens" (p.582). Additionally, they stressed the significance of managers' own perception about their role in the organisation in which they function. In particular, they suggested that managers should self-examine themselves on their major strengths and shortcomings before they venture into dealing with their subordinates.

An important remark they also made is the implication of the ability of managers to identify the individual differences among employees, as it is important for managers to be perceptive of their employees' personal needs, attributes and abilities. This kind of knowledge would allow managers to make the most of their

subordinates' talents and inclinations. In fact, need theories provide implications for the management of employees. As Steers and Porter (1987) claim, need theories address mainly the individual variable without, however, altogether disregarding job-related or work environment variables, which represent the main driving force behind employee behaviour in organisational settings. The reasoning according to this doctrine is that managers are responsible for formulating the proper climate in which the employees are to function and develop to their greatest potential (Steers & Porter, 1987).

Taking into account that self-actualisation is one of the main needs that individuals desire to fulfil, as mentioned earlier and also that individuals can receive satisfaction from the job itself, management needs to ensure that these two determinants are not impaired by the work conditions. With regards to the achievement motivation model, the implication is that management is accountable for the design of the work environment in order for it to 'cue' the achievement motive (Steers & Porter, 1987). They also suggested that employees with a high need for achievement should be given the opportunity to accomplish challenging work assignments so as to fulfil the feeling of satisfaction. Furthermore, as stated above, the perception of personal growth fundamentally affects the individual's job performance. This implies that management should not discount its importance when redesigning work and managing the individuals.

Steers and Porter (1987) also put forth the importance of the provision of rewards on the successful performance of the employees, as this would promote the employees' expectations and as a consequence their desire to attain the set goals. In the event that rewards do not rely upon the employees' performance, reduced motivational levels have been observed. Another factor that Steers and Porter (1987)

have listed as important is the opportunity to provide their employees with jobs that are more challenging so as to allow personal satisfaction.

Intrinsic motivation is affected by the task environment in which individuals' performance takes place, meaning that task environment contributes greatly to the improvement and sustainment of work performance (Kanfer, 1992). Thus, another very crucial component that managers should turn their attention to is the general work environment, which entails the composition of the group dynamics, and the quality of the leadership. The attempt to create a proper climate requires the offering of opportunities for the individual to be autonomous, responsible, carrying out a variety of tasks in a work climate which would lead to the accomplishment of the set goals. In the event that management failed to create such an environment this would cause frustration in the employees and consequently it would result in lower job satisfaction, poorer performance, and a process of progressive disengagement from the organisation (Steers & Porter, 1987).

An element that also needs to receive management's due attention is the assessment of employees' work attitude. This, unfortunately, as reported by Steers and Porter (1987), is only taken into account when managers observe a decline in their employees' performance. The implication is that management should watch their subordinates' work attitudes and utilise the information they derive as a *motivational barometer* pinpointing aspects that need to be taken care of. Put in Steers and Porter's (1987) words, "It is essential for managers to become intelligent consumers of behavioral data so that they can act more from a position of knowledge and understanding than from one of uncertainty or ignorance" (p. 583).

Another point Steers and Porter (1987) make is the importance of involving employees in processes which are conducive to the attainment of the organisational

goals. Thus g*oal-setting* is another vital factor that management has to consider seriously as regards the enhancement of work motivation. Locke (1968, as cited in Kanfer, 1992) argued that individuals, who are assigned specific goals even if difficult, perform better than the ones, who are just asked to do their best. Locke, in particular, emphasised that participatively set-goals enhance performance and this is because the individual regulates the difficulty level of the set goal. Locke also pointed out that provided the assigned goal has been accepted by the individual and s/he shows due commitment, there should not be any difference between participative and assigned goals.

Kanfer (1992) also reported that a number of studies proved that procedures that promote participative goal setting have an impact on commitment and consequently on performance. This is particularly true if individuals are:

- personally involved in the goal-setting,
- allowed to express their point of view concerning the goal, and
- their sense of personal control over the goal-setting is raised.

In response to this discrepancy, Latham, Erez and Locke (1988, as cited in Kanfer, 1992) indicated through their study that so long as assigned goals are accompanied by a rationale, there is no difference between assigned and participative goals. Despite the significance of employee participation in goal-setting, Herzberg et al. (1993) are cautious about whether the setting of goals can be realised participatively in large and complex institutions, especially if employees are at lower levels in an organisation. However, the inability to allow employees to take part in the setting of goals in the large and complex institutions can be compensated by letting the individual establish his/her own ways, which will allow him/her to achieve the ends that are put forward to him/her by a centralised authority. Any

effort to embrace employees who are not up to the standards to participate in the setting of goals is 'usually a sham', as Herzberg et al. pinpointed.

Buchanan's, (1975, as cited in Perry & Porter, 1982) report emphasised the importance of goal crispness especially in the public sector. It is common in state organisations to have conflicting and unconcentrated goals, unlike the more explicit and concrete goals that exist in business organisations, therefore goal crispness deserves their attention. In fact, public managers are presented with a double dilemma due to the lack of goal crispness in public organisations. The first entails the inability to determine and measure performance criteria, and the second relates to clashing criteria for exceptional performance.

A mediating component, that is, a means by which the set goals are attained, is self-regulation (Bandura, 1992). *Self-regulation,* according to Bandura, is a "multifaceted phenomenon operation through a number of subsidiary cognitive processes, including self-monitoring, standard setting, evaluative judgment, self-appraisal, and affective self-reaction" (p. 150). *Self-monitoring* pertains to the line and quality of attention; *self-evaluation* refers to the comparison of the goal and the individual's behaviour, which yields *self-reactions.* Self-reactions with self-efficacy expectations for future achievement depend on the size and direction of the difference in self-evaluation.

The relationship between employees and management is another essential feature in employee determination to put in the required effort to carry out a job. As Herzberg et al., (1993) postulate, employees' morale and work satisfaction are fundamentally dependent on the relationship that they have with their supervisor. Hence, the role of the supervisor in the realisation of the set goal is decisive.

Herzberg et al., (1993) point out,

The discovery that the relationships between workers and supervisors lead to a more potent influence on output than any manipulation of environmental conditions and that the informal associations of a group of men at work act as a potent stabilizer on the level of production were made the basis if a new frame of reference in industry. (pp. 8, 9)

Chapter 4: Teacher motivation

Introduction

There is an abundance of studies that are related to aspects of teaching such as teaching conditions, quality of teachers' professional lives, workload, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, teacher stress and burnout, but motivation to teach per se has not been extensively explored despite its paramount importance (Dörnyei, 1998, 2001a). Among the few studies that have dealt with teacher motivation are those conducted by Doyle and Kim, (1999); Kim and Doyle, (1998); Barnabe and Burns, (1994); Pennington, (1989, 1990, 1992, 1995); Pennington and Ho, (1995); Pennington and Young, (1989); Evans (1998a, 1999); Sergiovanni, (1967); Nias, (1981, 1989) Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a, 2000b).

Drawing from the studies conducted in the area of teacher motivation and organisational motivation literature, the aim of this chapter is to present a general overview of the theory of teacher motivation in order to understand what motivates teachers and what demotivates them. Hence, this chapter will first focus on the conceptualisation of teacher motivation; secondly it will examine the relevance and applicability of work motivation theories in educational contexts; thirdly it will investigate factors affecting teacher motivation and, finally it will shed some light on the unique features of ESL/EFL teacher motivation, as EFL teachers are the main characters of this thesis.

4.1 Conceptualising teacher motivation

According to Dörnyei (2001a), teacher motivation can either be conceptualised as merely one kind of human behaviour, in which case it does not need to be treated any differently and therefore any general model of motivation could be applicable to describe it, for example goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990a), self-efficacy theory (Ashton, 1985), self-determination theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Deci et al., 1997). Conversely, because teaching is a specific professional activity its conceptualisation should comprise factors that determine it. According to Dörnyei (2001a), there are four motivational aspects, which particularly affect teacher motivation:

1. The *intrinsic component*, which constitutes the main reason that someone takes up teaching as a profession.
2. The *contextual factors*, which have to do with the working conditions and general social profile of the profession.
3. The *temporal axis*, which reflects the time element considering that teaching is a lifelong career.
4. The *fragility* aspect, since teaching is exposed to strong negative influences, which sometimes are inherent in the profession.

These motivational facets will be discussed in detail in later sections of this chapter. If we simply relate teaching to other professions, we can identify the same traits as in any other line of work. However, because teaching involves more than merely performing a job – since teaching entails offering and/or contributing to the well-being of people – it has certain unique characteristics.

One of the unique characteristics of teaching is, as Nias (1989) states, that "it is a life and not a career", which means that teachers cannot in effect differentiate

their occupational self from their other self. This is because their practice does not stop in the school environment but rather is extended outside of it, thus making the profession an integral part of their being. This implies that teachers who enter the teaching profession and aim at being 'good' at their practice have to dedicate their lives to imparting knowledge and forming the personalities of future generations.

An additional distinctive feature of teaching is that it is a multifaceted profession, since teachers are required not only to be knowledgeable about their subject matter, but also to intuitively respond to a wide range of external demands and needs, namely those of their students, the school they work for, and the society they live in. Furthermore, it is essential that teachers are capable of making decisions on the spur of the moment even if they may have inadequate information and unclear goals (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Teaching is indeed a complex practice which unfortunately is not in any way facilitated by the conditions under which teachers are obliged to work. In fact, the work contexts teachers work in normally lack a "well-developed technical culture, which breeds uncertainty and feelings of anxiety" (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 495). Given that teaching is a multifaceted practice and that it is usually carried out in adverse conditions, it requires the practitioners to be equipped with the need to work for the inherent rewards teaching offers. In other words, teachers who have entered the profession for its inherent rewards may be more resistant to the adverse working conditions they have to function under. In fact, teaching has hardly ever been associated with considerable pecuniary gains and good work conditions, but

instead it has been suggested that teaching is regarded by many as a vocation rather than a job[5] (Broadfoot, 1990).

There are of course many cases, when individuals take up teaching because life circumstances are such that they have to turn to teaching in order to make a living. Thus, while teaching is a job for some, for others it is a vocation that they take up merely for the intrinsic satisfaction it offers in teaching their subject matter and the enjoyment they derive from working with young people, that is, the students. As mentioned earlier, due to the fact that the intrinsic aspect of teaching is of great importance in the teaching profession, a whole section is devoted to it later on in this chapter.

4.2 Does work motivation theory have utility for teacher motivation?

Miskel (1982) postulates that motivation in education is dominated by theories developed by Maslow (1970) and Herzberg et al. (1993). However, although certain features of work motivation are indeed applicable to teacher motivation, they are not the only ones that delineate teacher motivation and this is due to its complex nature, as pointed out earlier. Thus, the main discrepancies between teaching and other jobs need to be taken into account when examining teacher motivation. Barnabe and Burns (1994) list three differences between teachers and business employees by pointing out that teachers:

- work in a flat, craft-style organisational structure,
- are deprived of having continuous interactions with their peers and,

[5] A vocation is a person's employment, especially regarded as requiring dedication while a job is a paid position of employment especially done for profit.

- are subjectively judged for effectiveness.

The fact that there are these differences implies that teachers may be motivated in a different manner from business employees and therefore all the job characteristics that may contribute to business employee motivation and satisfaction need to be critically considered when administered to educational settings (Barnabe & Burns, 1994). The above conception was the instigating force for Barnabe and Burns's (1994) survey conducted in order to prove whether the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) – a useful diagnostic instrument for business settings developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) – constituted a reliable tool for educational settings. Their findings were that:

- both the Job Characteristic Model developed by Hackman and Oldham and the JDS are applicable to the teaching profession,
- there is a relationship between job characteristics and psychological states,
- there is a relationship between psychological states, motivation and satisfaction outcomes,
- psychological states did mediate between job characteristic and outcomes,
- the proposed relationships between job characteristics and psychological states, and psychological states and satisfaction/motivation outcomes were present, but correlated lower than those found in the business employee samples examined by Hackman and Oldham, and
- the difference in certain correlations rendered it necessary to modify the model appropriately for educational settings.

This is the reason why models proposed by work motivation theorists were adjusted, namely by Nias, (1981) and Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a). The reason they took into account the additional factors that have a direct impact on teaching was because they wanted to achieve an overall understanding of teacher motivation.

4.2.1 The remodelling of Herzberg's two-factor theory in educational settings

As pointed out in Chapter 3, educational researchers replicated Herzberg et al.'s (1993) two-factor theory having a strong influence on teacher satisfaction/motivation research. A first replication of Herzberg et al.'s work was by Sergiovanni (1967), who confirmed Herzberg et al.'s two-component model, as he found that motivators were contained in the work itself while hygiene factors were related to conditions of work, namely interpersonal relationships both with peers and sub-ordinates (students), supervision, administration and school policy.

Nias (1981) on the other hand suggested that Herzberg et al.'s theory could only be partially accommodated in the teaching profession. This is because, as she claimed, it was very simplistic when applied to educational settings, and therefore proceeded to modify Herzberg et al.'s model by adding a third category. Nias's (1981) model in essence acknowledged the distinction between *satisfiers* and *dissatisfiers*, but she argued that this did not reflect the complexity of job satisfaction in teaching.

According to Nias (1981), the third factor represents the absence of satisfiers, which seem "to be an active component in dissatisfaction, especially when the expectation of receiving particular satisfiers was a major reason for becoming a teacher" (p. 236). This third element she calls *negative satisfiers*. These differ from

dissatisfiers in that they are intrinsic to the job and contribute to the absence of satisfaction and not to dissatisfaction, as opposed to dissatisfiers, which are extrinsic to the job and cause job dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, Nias (1981) supported that Herzberg et al.'s 1959 model was inapplicable to the teaching profession because teaching entails the involvement of practitioners "in the school as a social system", thus teachers are required to interact not only with their colleagues but also with their pupils. Hence, according to her, the facets that are regarded as dissatisfiers in the two-factor model and are in essence related to the job-context, appear as negative satisfiers. These are viewed as job-context factors in other occupations whereas in teaching they are closely related to the profession itself.

Consequently, factors such as unsupportive administration, unfriendly colleagues, lack of participation in the school policies, inefficient supervision and lack of a channel of communication are negative satisfiers for teachers, as they are significant contributors to their practice, in contrast to other professions which perceive them as environmental factors. If these negative satisfiers are improved then teachers may be satisfied regardless of the extrinsic factors (Nias, 1981). Nias's (1989) postulation about a teacher's profession being a life and not a career suggests that teaching must be viewed holistically, thus making Herzberg et al.'s model quite inadequate (Fraser et al., 1998, p. 70). The insight that a teacher's work and being are inseparable insinuates that if a teacher is not valued either as a professional or a human being, then this is likely to affect negatively either his/her life or efficiency at work respectively.

Two other educational researchers who replicated Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory were Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a), who wanted to examine teacher

career satisfaction and extend the model. With their Teacher 2000 project, Dinham and Scott confirmed Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory by revealing that matters intrinsic to the role of teaching, such as positive relationship with students, teacher and student achievement, helping students to modify their attitude and behaviour, self-growth, professional competence and, being part of a collegial, supportive environment, satisfied teachers. Conversely, matters extrinsic to the role of teaching, namely consisting of factors that are out of the control of teachers and found in the wider domain of society, that is, the governments, the increased expectations, the community's poor opinion of teachers, the negative image the media portrayed of teachers, the imposed educational change related problems, workloads, low levels of support, lack of promotion opportunities, and the employing body were found to be major sources of teacher dissatisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000a).

Thus, factors that satisfy and dissatisfy teachers were proved to be different, but not arranged at opposite ends of the same continuum, or in other words were not mutually exclusive (Dinham & Scott, 2000a). Mutually exclusivity was not possible, as they explained, because if it was true then "one would expect that despite the increase in extrinsic dissatisfiers over time, teachers' intrinsic satisfaction with teaching would be quarantined and remain constant, or increase, as found more generally in the career satisfaction literature" (p. 390).

Teachers were somewhat ambivalent about school-based factors, which were partly the product of decision-making, leadership styles, the school's resources, and their relationship with the local community. These school-based factors constituted the middle band, which fell between the intrinsic rewards of teaching and extrinsic dissatisfiers, and were called the *third domain.* This third domain pertained to the school climate and decision-making, school reputation, school infrastructure, and

school leadership. The additional finding of this survey was that the major dissatisfiers were located within the "broader societal context and environment each school is part of" (p. 390) and not within the school context.

4.2.2 Hackman and Oldham's model in educational settings

Based on Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristic model, Pennington (1994) proposed the application of a programme whose main aim would be to increase the motivation and commitment of ESL teachers. According to Pennington, this could be achieved by giving due attention to employees' psychological needs, as teachers, like other workers, are motivated by a higher level need for "challenge, responsibility, personal growth, advancement, and recognition" (p. 157). However, Firestone and Pennell (1993) postulate that Hackman and Oldham's model is partly applicable in educational settings, which means that it is "necessary to move beyond the instrumentation and conceptualization of Hackman and Oldham (1980) to something that is more appropriate for education" (p. 517). Following are the variables in the job characteristic model, which have an effect on teaching.

Job meaningfulness

For a teacher, like any other employee, it is crucial that they do a job that is meaningful to them as this contributes to effective performance. However, because teachers typically teach the same subject year in and year out, as they have to cover an imposed curriculum, it can be quite difficult for them to experience meaningfulness. In fact, the monotonous routine of their practice results in some kind of 'intellectual stagnation' for many teachers, which consequently produces

teachers that have lost the spark of teaching (Dörnyei, 2001a). Thus teaching becomes a drudgery having a negative effect not only on the teachers' motivation, but also on the students' motivation.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, in Hackman and Oldham's model *experienced meaningfulness* is determined by job characteristics, namely, skill variety, task identity and task significance. According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), the element of meaningfulness is a factor that contributes to the commitment of every practitioner. In particular, they reported that Charters and colleagues found that the *skill variety* component is conducive to teacher commitment, and can be regarded as a major constituent of motivation to teach. However, skill variety can have a negative effect on teachers as it can generate stress, especially when teachers are required to carry out a variety of tasks in a limited period of time (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). In fact, teachers have quite a few tasks to attend to, for example they have to (a) look into their students' needs and then make the appropriate provisions for them, (b) meet the requirements set by the school, and (c) meet society expectations. This variety of tasks that a teacher is required to accomplish is not in any way facilitated, due to the fact that school environments do not allow teachers to function professionally (Crookes, 1997). This is, as Crookes maintains, because teachers are asked to function in a context that lacks a well-developed technical culture, which in turn arouses feelings of anxiety and confusion, as was mentioned earlier.

Thus, task variety in this context could weaken a teacher's commitment. As reported by Johnson (1996), teachers like variety in their job as long as it is restricted to teaching itself since classroom practices are characterised for the routinisation, which has been found to have a negative impact on teachers' motivation. However,

attempts to reduce the workload of teachers' jobs through the decrease of the variety of tasks they have to perform can prove counterproductive, as it has been found that the oversimplification and routinisation of their jobs has been confronted with resistance by teachers (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Task identity entails the completion of a task from beginning to end. Task identity appears to be elusive in educational settings, as teachers usually teach their subject matter to a group of students for a given period of time. Thus, teachers are deprived of the satisfaction of seeing the students' overall development, and this is because the teaching outcome is a collective achievement. In other words, a student's achievement depends not only on one teacher's contribution, but rather on the contribution of all the teachers in a school.

Pennington (1995) postulates that task identity cannot be experienced by teachers for the simple reason that teaching "focuses on only a narrow area of the curriculum" (p. 92). Firestone and Pennell (1993), however, report that Charters' 1984 findings revealed that teaching fosters task identity and consequently is conducive to commitment.

Even though teachers' contribution to society is of paramount importance, due to the fact that they are the ones who prepare the new generation to take the reins from their predecessors, teachers seem to overlook the fact that their job is significant. The reason that teachers do not experience *task significance* is that their efforts have a distant outcome, as their students' success in their lives or careers is seen after a relatively long period of time.

Job autonomy: Responsibility

In Chapter 3, we saw that *experienced responsibility* is another basic component of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model, which can be experienced by allowing some autonomy to employees when performing a job. In an educational setting *experienced responsibility* is rather limited due to the centralised control of schools, set curricula, and standardised tests that traditionally characterise educational systems. Teachers would experience *responsibility* for the outcomes of their job if they were granted *autonomy*. Autonomy entails the freedom the teacher has to carry out his/her practice based on his/her own decision on what procedures to follow, which is very likely to enhance intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1997).

The traditional features of schools are the main factors that put constraints on the way teachers decide to teach. For example, student performance on tests seems to be one of the main concerns of administration and requirements which teachers have to meet, as school standards are judged by student achievement. This in effect robs teachers of the feeling of autonomy which would allow them to experience responsibility.

In fact, teaching is regarded as a profession that allows some kind of autonomy and in particular in the classroom context – provided that imposed curricula do not constrain teachers overwhelmingly. Nevertheless, because it is very rare for teachers to have any say over higher level decision-making they regard the autonomy they are allegedly said to have "as a euphemism for isolation" (Pennington, 1995, p. 93).

Still, the feeling of autonomy in teaching presupposes teachers' conviction that they can make a difference (Attwood, 2001). Allowing teachers to participate in decision-making at a higher-level is one way to promote this feeling, which can then

enhance autonomy and consequently responsibility. Attwood's (2001) argument that, "[i]f you want a scheme (any scheme) to work in a business (any business) you need the involvement of the people on the ground" (p. 8), is indeed a very significant motivation-raising school practice which administrations need to implement if they want motivated teachers. In this way, teachers will not feel the negative impacts of isolation, as mentioned earlier, which result in teachers' lack of commitment to their students', their profession and the larger organisation (Pennington, 1995).

However, teachers' participation at a higher level should be done with great caution and at each teacher's own discretion, as teachers are normally overworked and adding extra duties could result in teacher stress and burnout. What is more, teachers who may opt to participate in high-level decision-making may also need to make sure that the administration they are working for is teacher-friendly (Pennington, 1995) so that they will not find themselves in an unpleasant confrontation.

Conversely, it has been found that in the event of the reduction of autonomy, noticed when increased administrative control is implemented, teachers suffer from burnout (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). The instances under which teachers feel that their autonomy is reduced is when direct administrative control is imposed on them. This is especially true of instances when there are set curricula to be followed and, mandatory tests that assess both the students' and consequently the teachers' performance.

Job knowledge: Feedback

Another basic component of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model is *feedback*, which contributes to job meaningfulness and consequently to motivation, as it is

important for employees to know the outcome of the undertaken task. Teachers have various sources they can receive feedback from, one of which is their students, whose feedback teachers find more informative, more meaningful, and of greater importance than any other type. The other two sources of feedback – received from their colleagues and the administration – are reported to have little influence over teachers' practices. The reason that the feedback from the administration and their colleagues does not mean a lot to teachers is that it is infrequent and/or happens to be superficial, as the observations are carried out by "evaluators who lack subject matter/pedagogical knowledge and observational skills" (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 504). However, despite this contention teachers anticipate feedback provided by both administration and colleagues (Firestone & Pennell, 1993), and this is because they need to have their efforts recognised through "positive feedback and in particular through praise" (Evans, 1998a, p. 162).

Still, in order for feedback to have the expected impact it should emanate from people the practitioner values and respects (Evans, 1999). According to Evans (1999), valued and respected people could be senior colleagues that teachers are accountable to, head teachers and heads of department. Positive feedback deriving from these people is an agency for the confirmation of the "individual's sense of achievement" (Evans, 1999, p. 85).

The nature of feedback given to teachers is a critical regulator for teacher motivation. Evans (1999) reports that McLaughlin et al.'s, 1986 study revealed that teachers demand feedback which is *constructive* or as Ames and Ames (1984) call it *informational*. Ames and Ames claim that "[t]eachers are thought to process informational feedback through a belief system centrally organized around certain

values and to attribute positive and negative feedback in terms of centrally important values that serve as reasons or purposes for behavior" (p. 545).

Deci and Ryan (1985) maintain that evaluative feedback impairs performance even when it is positive, which is also true when it comes to teacher evaluation. According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), feedback that is given in the form of control over teachers' practice has been confronted with reservation, as the only thing it does is to disaffect teachers and restrict their autonomy. In fact, Firestone and Pennell (1993) highlight that when feedback is not information-oriented, but is evaluative, teachers become less responsible for their instructional choices and as a result are less committed.

The advantage of providing teachers with clear performance feedback is that it can diminish uncertainty, which is one of the negative traits of teaching (Evans, 1999). In effect, provision of positive feedback has been reported to be highly satisfying for teachers (Evans, 1998a), while it allows practitioners to experience success, which in its turn makes them want to ameliorate their teaching practice. Conversely, lack of feedback is conducive to teachers' dissatisfaction, demotivation and demoralisation.

4.3 Factors affecting teacher motivation

On conceptualising teacher motivation we saw that Dörnyei (2001a) distinguished four unique features that have a significant impact on the motivational complex underlying teaching. These four characteristics are the *intrinsic component*, the *contextual factors*, the *temporal axis* and the aspect of *fragility*. Following is a detailed discussion of these four factors which have a special implication in terms of their influence on the motivational complex underlying teaching.

4.3.1 The intrinsic component

The most common answers that intrinsically motivated teachers give as to why they decided to become teachers, is: 'I always wanted to become a teacher' or 'It was my dream to become a teacher' (Dinham & Scott, 2000a). As Dörnyei (2001a) and Pennington (1995) argue, the main reason that intrinsically motivated teachers decide to become teachers is the hope and desire to educate people by imparting knowledge and values and consequently to contribute to the advancement of their community and/or of their nation. Traditionally, teachers enjoy teaching because of the intrinsic rewards they receive. These rewards pertain to:

- the educational process itself, which entails the impact teachers' actions have on students' performance and behaviour,
- the subject matter, which the practitioner values and as such is interested in expanding and enriching his/her knowledge in the field (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

In order for intrinsic motivation to be sustained there should be certain preconditions, which contribute to teacher job satisfaction. These may be related either to the three fundamental human needs that Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest:

- the ability to be autonomous,
- the feeling of being related to other people within the working environment,
- the feeling of being competent and being able to achieve;

or to the factors Walker and Symons (1997) recommend:

- the feeling of being competent,
- the opportunity to have sufficient autonomy,

- the ability to set worthwhile goals,
- getting feedback, and
- being affirmed by others.

The issues of self-efficacy, setting goals and relatedness within the working context will be discussed in detail in this section, while teachers' autonomy, feedback and affirmation are themes that have already been touched upon in previous sections of this chapter.

Self-efficacy

Competence involves feeling efficacious (Deci et al., 1997) – thus, being competent professionally is important to practitioners, as it enables them to be effective in their jobs. In fact, a human's requirement for competence pertains to their engagement in activities to meet most advantageous challenges, even with a lack of prompts or pressures (Deci et al., 1997). The technical term for *professional competence* in teaching is the teacher's *sense of efficacy*. *Self-efficacy* according to Ashton (1985) is teachers' conviction that they are able to have positive impact on their students. Tschannen et al., (1998), give the following definition, "Teacher efficacy is the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 233).

Teachers prepare for their profession in university departments, where the typical format worldwide (with very few exceptions) is that teacher training programmes in the most part focus on subject-matter training while practical skills are not given their due importance thus proving these programmes deficient (Dörnyei, 2001a). This results in having ill-trained teachers, who because of their ill-

competence revert to a more authoritarian approach to teaching. In Dörnyei's words these programmes (again with only few exceptions)

> do not as a rule contain any awareness raising about how to manage groups (e.g. they do not cover the main principles of group dynamics and effective leadership strategies, and do not offer any training in interpersonal skills and conflict resolution). (p.168)

Bandura (1993) suggests that human behaviour is determined by two kinds of instigators; *outcome expectations* and *efficacy expectations*. The former determines the expectation that if one behaves in a certain way this is conducive to a certain outcome; the latter determines the expectation that if one can behave in the due manner s/he can bring about the desired outcome (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999). According to Bandura (1993), these two types of expectations interact in order to regulate the commencement of an action and the persistence to maintain it.

Teachers' sense of efficacy can be, according to Ashton (1985), distinguished into two dimensions, that of *teaching efficacy* and that of *personal efficacy*.

- *Teaching efficacy* refers to the teachers' beliefs that they are able to bring about student learning even when confronted by difficulties, such as students' lack of interest in learning, and/or absence of support from the students' home environment
- *Personal efficacy* refers to the teachers' judgment of their capability as professional practitioners.

Teachers' sense of self-efficacy is regarded as a construct that determines and affects the sustainment of teacher motivation. This is because, as Ashton (1985) and Tschannen et al., (1998) postulate, the degree to which teachers try hard to teach and persist when confronted by difficulties depends on their sense of efficacy. In

particular, Ashton and Tschannen et al. suggest that self-efficacy affects firstly the types of activities that teachers choose to do, secondly the effort they will put into teaching and thirdly their persistence to keep on teaching even when faced with controversial circumstances.

In fact, teachers who have a high degree of self-efficacy believe that they can exercise influence over their students' learning and that they can control their teaching activities meeting students' needs, whereas the ones who lack this trait do not believe that they can control their teaching (Tschannen et al., 1998). In addition, as Fuchs, Fuchs and Bishop's, 1992 study, (as cited in Tschannen et al., 1998) revealed, teachers who feel efficacious are not only ready to adapt innovative teaching methods in order to teach their students in the best possible ways, but they are also ready to take on responsibility for their own professional growth and ultimately they are able to resolve their problems (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999).

Taking into account the paramount importance of teachers' sense of efficacy one could raise a question at this point. What might inhibit or enhance teachers' sense of efficacy? It has been found (Ashton, 1985, p. 155) that teachers' sense of efficacy is curtailed by teachers because of:

- salary dissatisfaction,
- status panic,
- lack of collegial and administrative support,
- uncertainty, and
- powerlessness.

If people involved in the administration of schools and staff take these five dissatisfying conditions into account and try to alleviate to a certain degree their

intensity, then there is a good chance that teachers' sense of efficacy can be amplified. Ashton (1985) states:

> If structural changes are not instituted that provide teachers with the collegial, supervisory, community, and economic assistance required to resist the many challenges to their sense of efficacy, efforts to change teachers' attitudes and behaviours toward their students are likely to have only transitory effects, at best. (p. 165)

Tschannen et al., (1998) have identified two more conditions that dissatisfy teachers. These pertain to the (i) excessive role demands (ii) lack of recognition – two factors that any administration needs to take into consideration in order to enhance its staff's sense of efficacy. Thus, teachers' sense of efficacy may increase if the above-stated conditions are safeguarded and if more of them are present. Hence, for the promotion of teachers' sense of efficacy:

1. There should be collaboration among the staff.
2. Teachers should make their students set high achievement goals.
3. Teachers should have strong collective beliefs.
4. Their principals should provide them with resources as well as protect them from external distracting factors.
5. Teachers should be allowed to make their own decisions over their classroom practices.
6. Teachers should try and have students' discipline under control.
7. Principals should treat teachers well and make sure they praise them for their good performance.
8. Teachers should be involved in decision-making, which directly affects their teaching.

9. Parents should be involved in the school's well being.

Nevertheless, it must be noted that self-efficacy is not constant because, as it has been reported, even though teachers' sense of efficacy may be invariable, it can diminish as the practitioners remain longer in the same profession (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999).

Goal-setting

Freedom of autonomy and sense of efficacy, are to little avail if the practitioner has no goals or the set goals are vague. The notion of *goal-setting* is fundamental for the motivational course of each teacher. In the organisational motivation literature, Steers and Porter (1987) corroborate the significance of goal-setting by suggesting that it is an essential precondition in order for the practitioner to perform effectively. Furthermore, as they suggest, it is conducive to making practitioners feel personally important because they can perceive their contribution to the organisation they work for.

According to Locke and Latham (1990b), goal-setting is important because it can contribute to the "direction of attention, effort and persistence" (p.11) of the individual provided the goals are challenging and specific. In particular, Locke and Latham (1990b) maintain that difficult, but feasible goals allow the employee to put in greater effort and persist in carrying them out, which eventually leads to better job performance. Walker and Symons (1997) emphasise that goals must be specific in order to be *operational*. This implies that the more specific the goal is the more accurately the individual can adjust his/her performance.

Given that Locke and Latham's (1990b) theory can be applied to educational contexts one can infer that teachers' determination can be enhanced if they have

goals to achieve, which they may have either set themselves or they may have been assigned by their superiors. A precondition, however, is that these goals are clear and feasible to accomplish. As Walker and Symons (1997) suggest, "No goals, vague goals, easy goals, impossible goals, or too many goals will not inspire high performance according to the theory" (p. 8).

Relatedness

Relatedness is another essential component that contributes to the sustainment and/or promotion of intrinsic motivation in one's work. Deci et al., (1997) interpret relatedness as a need that entails feelings of closeness and connectedness with other individuals and is supposed to promote a feeling of belongingness to the work context individuals practice their profession in.

One of the typical traits of teaching is that of the sensation that one has of being isolated from one's colleagues and therefore feeling lonely. This feeling of isolation aggravates teachers' dissatisfaction especially when teachers have high social needs. Whereas it has been found that teachers, who work in schools where they have the opportunity to interact with their colleagues, have a positive attitude (Ashton, 1985).

The aspect of relatedness is not constrained to the social need of interrelationship with colleagues in the workplace, but it is also related to collaboration with them having as an ultimate aim the advancement of their students. This of course requires the co-operation and support of all interested parties. After all, as Ashton (1985) summarises, "strong collegial support may serve to bolster and sustain teacher's sense of efficacy enabling teachers to be more effective with their students" (p. 151).

To sum up, it is essential that all the constituents, presented in the discussion above, be present in order for the teacher to be intrinsically motivated. Dörnyei (2001a) concludes as follows:

> In conclusion, the intrinsic dimension of teacher motivation is related to the inherent joy of pursuing a meaningful activity related to one's subject area of interest, in an autonomous manner within a vivacious collegial community, with self-efficacy, instructional goals and performance feedback being critical factors in modifying the level of effort and persistence. (p.160)

4.3.2 The contextual factors

Traditionally, work motivation theories present the existence of two broad mutually exclusive domains that affect employees' satisfaction. On the one end of the continuum are the intrinsic factors, which, as discussed earlier, pertain to the nature of the work itself, namely the internal desire and interest to do the job. On the other end of the continuum are the external influences, which relate to matters that are "extrinsic to the central purpose of the worker and job" (Dinham & Scott, 1998, p. 363). These are typically the ones that bring about dissatisfaction to the employee and, what is more, removal of the dissatisfying external influences does not signify increase in employees' job satisfaction, as discussed in the work motivation chapter.

Similarly, teacher satisfaction models have in general presented two mutually exclusive aspects of teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 2000a). Hence, even though teachers have as a rule been regarded as individuals who choose to practise their profession for purely altruistic and affiliative reasons – a finding revealed in a large-scale survey called Teacher 2000 Project (Dinham &

Scott, 2000a, 2000b) –they do not seem to be immune to the impacts of external, or otherwise contextual factors.

Studies conducted with teachers, by Sergiovanni (1967) and Dinham in 1992 (as cited in Dinham & Scott, 1998) replicated Herzberg's two-factor theory, and confirmed its tenability as well as the fact that satisfying and dissatisfying factors are mutually exclusive. Teachers in both studies attribute their satisfaction to the intrinsic features of the job, namely:

- their professional growth,
- the positive influence they have on their students,
- achievements; their students' as well as their own,
- the recognition of their efforts, and
- the positive relationships they have.

Conversely, they ascribe their dissatisfaction according to Dinham and Scott (1998) to phenomena that are external to teaching. These external contextual influences were termed by Dörnyei (2001a) as:

- Macro-contextual factors
- Micro-contextual factors

The former relate to the work ethos that prevails at the societal level, which is associated with the status and image of teachers, while the latter is related to the organisational climate of the school. These categories, which have different effects on teacher motivation, will be extensively discussed in the following section.

Macro-contextual influences

Macro-contextual influences, which are alleged to be the major demotivating factors in the teaching profession, stem from every level of society, that is, parents, the media and politicians, and, according to Dinham and Scott (1998), relate to:

- the low status that teachers have within society,
- increased responsibilities,
- imposed procedures and curricula,
- increased expectations from schools, requiring teachers to cope with social problems,
- everlasting imposed changes,
- absence of support for the imposed changes, which result in teacher stress and burnout, and
- teachers' lack of control over the imposed changes.

Teachers' status/image is beyond teachers' control (Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000a, 2000b; Pennington, 1995), as it is entirely dependent on the general societal opinion of teachers, which is aggravated by the occasional disparaging of the media (Dinham & Scott, 2000a). Society's low opinion of teachers is indeed a very serious demotivator for two reasons. If we take into account firstly, that "a person's job is a source of status, or rank, in society at large" (Steers & Porter, 1987, p. 576) and secondly, that teachers feel their work and self as inseparable, then the feeling of being valued less as professionals is most likely to be damaging to the 'self' (Nias, 1989).

Evans (1998a) highlights the demoralising effect of teachers' low status in society, but she contends that this has a direct impact on teachers when it is contextualised in the school environment, as she states:

> The low status of teachers in society does not, as an issue, encroach upon a teacher's life until it is introduced in it: In the form of a derogatory remark or a self-conception that reflects consciousness of belonging to a profession which is held in low-esteem or a perception of being unfavourably compared with other professionals. (p. 142)

This is also true of the changes that are enforced, as they tend to have a negative impact on teachers when they are put into practice in the school environment. In fact, implementation of changes require from teachers to put in extra effort, which usually results in having teachers that are overworked, stressed and ultimately burnt out. Unfortunately, nothing can be done about the implementation of changes, as educational reforms are the norm nowadays. The only thing that can alleviate the repercussions of change is the provision of full support and impartial recognition of teachers' services to their social milieu.

Micro-contextual influences

Micro-contextual influences are related to school-based factors. Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a, 2000b) proved that these school-based factors, which they termed as the third domain, to have a neutral effect on teacher motivation in their Teacher 2000 project. Evans (1998a, 1998b, 1999), on the other hand, showed in her research that teachers are affected greatly by school-specific issues, which will be examined

individually below. According to Dinham and Scott, these school-based factors fall between the intrinsic and extrinsic continuums, and namely relate to:

- school climate,
- teacher interpersonal relation,
- school leadership,
- school reputation,
- school infrastructure, and
- decision-making

School climate, according to Pintrich and Schunk (1996) incorporates (a) the sense of cooperative spirit and belongingness, (b) warmth and respect in personal relations, and (c) the sense of safety and security. The school climate is a factor that regulates teachers' attitude towards teaching, that is, it can either coerce or empower teachers (Pennington, 1995). Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) suggest that most of the serious problems teachers confront emanate from the school organisational conditions usually having an impact on teacher commitment and the quality of teaching.

Teachers' *interpersonal relation* with colleagues, supervisors and administration are reported to be dissatisfiers (Dinham & Scott, 2000a). Crookes (1997) alluding to Edelfelt's 1985 study pinpoints that teachers commonly feel isolated and alienated from their colleagues. This has been reported to have far-reaching repercussions on newly recruited teachers as they intensely feel the lack of support from their colleagues (Fraser et al., 1998). Conversely, Evans (1998a) found that teachers are satisfied when they are in a school where there is a "positive and supportive collegial climate" (p.38). Their satisfaction with a positive and

supportive climate can be attributed to the manifestation of a high need for affiliation.

Evans (1998a, 1999) also emphasised that *school leadership* and *management* immensely influences teachers. The disposition of the head teacher towards the teachers can either enhance the teachers' desire to be committed to their jobs or it can destroy it by making the practitioners have an aversion to the profession. Evans also claimed that head teachers can in their own way make their staff's working lives so unbearable that there are even cases of teachers who resign from their positions in order to flee from their everlasting nightmare. Evans (1999) states, "head teachers have the capacity to make their staff dread going to work every Monday morning" (p.17).

Equally, Evans suggests that head teachers can boost their staff's enthusiasm by helping them to achieve their professional goals, promoting "collegiality and cooperation" among them, thus making their working lives quite pleasant, which as a consequence results in having teachers that are more committed. Attwood's (2001) statement, "Nothing motivates more than someone else's interest in you" (p.52) should be at the back of the mind of the administration if they want to have motivated teachers.

Evans (1998a) indicates one more micro-contextual factor that has a negative influence on teacher motivation. It is the *incompatibility* of the practitioners' teaching philosophy and that of the institution for which teachers offer their services. Incompatibility is the primary underlying factor that increases "dissatisfaction, unfulfilment, demotivation and low morale amongst teachers", as this directly influences job-related teacher attitudes (Evans, 1998a, p. 175).

In particular, Evans points out that incompatibility is felt acutely by *extended professionals*, who are more susceptible to dissatisfaction and low morale, as opposed to the *restricted*.[6] This is especially true in the event that the extended professionals' teaching philosophy is incompatible with the schools' organisational climate. In this case the practitioner's talent is wasted and, what is more, it does not serve in any way the students' educational needs and neither does it help the "raising of the level of teachers' professional culture" (Evans, 1998a, p. 175). Thus, as Evans concludes, "It is the degree of congruence between teachers' professionality orientations and those reflected in the contexts in which they work which is the key issue" (p. 175).

School resources, facilities and class sizes, teachers' expectations as regards students' potential, school's reward contingencies and feedback systems, work load, and inadequate teacher training are some further factors that affect teacher motivation (Pennington, 1995; Evans, 1998b). However, as suggested earlier, a crucial insight must be seriously taken into account with regards to the extent to which teacher motivation can be affected: that externally imposed factors may affect teacher motivation only when they are contextualised in the school environment (Evans, 1998a).

In sum, the micro-contextual factors have a more determinative impact on teacher motivation than macro-contextual factors because they "constitute teachers' working lives" (Evans, 1998a, p. 141) and also because "school-specific rather than centrally imposed factors are the most significant determinants of teachers' attitudes

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[6] The distinction in teachers between *extended* and *restricted professionals* is based on the idea that the *extended professional* essentially holds (i) a broader perception of what education entails, (ii) attaches great importance to pedagogic theory, and (iii) is able to implement a more logical and analytical approach to teaching. Conversely, the *restricted professional* (i) depends on their teaching experience as well as instinct, (ii) has a restricted classroom-based perspective, and (iii) is mostly concerned with the 'day-to-day' teaching practicalities (Evans, 1998a).

to their work" (p. 154). Thus, bringing out the best in teachers starts at the school level, and not at central level, and is a challenge schools ought to take up in order to improve school-based factors, as these are under the direct control of schools. Concomitantly teachers should call on others to take action "at the extrinsic societal, government and employer level" (Dinham & Scott, 1998, p.376).

4.3.3 The temporal axis: Inadequate career structure

Having to take successive steps to reach the highest plateau of one's profession is indeed very rewarding. Raynor (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001a) terms these successive steps as a *contingent path structure*, which in effect allows the worker to strive for the achievement of subsequent levels on the career ladder. This contingent path structure, not only insures the initial intrinsic motivation that makes the individual take up the job, but it also permits the practitioner to gain extrinsic rewards deriving from career advancement (Dörnyei, 2001a). Blackburn (1997) also maintains that it allows the individual to have plans based on the career stages while at the same time the job will be meaningful.

The factors that determine the worker's desire to strive for his/her advancement are both external and intrinsic. The former relate to awards such as financial, promotion to a higher rank, which is coupled with the prestige ascribed to the position and in general the approval of the worker's relations and friends. The latter, are associated with the acquisition of special skills, interest in one's profession and the ability to successfully complete a task.

If an individual is not granted any kind of reward, his/her career will be affected. Not having to climb up any career steps for the achievements that have been won will logically lead to the demoralisation of the individual that pursues the

'unrewarding' job. Regrettably, teaching is among the professions that fall into the category of not providing the practitioners with any rewards. This is because there is virtually no career structure to be climbed up since teaching, as was mentioned earlier is formed in a "flat, craft-style organizational structure" (Barnabe & Burns, 1994, p. 172). However, since the typical rewards do not apply in the case of teaching, Blackburn (1997) suggests that awards which honour or give the teacher the opportunity to travel or prepare teaching materials, can be applied in order to promote their persistence in teaching. Pennington (1995) corroborates this point by giving a *sample career ladder*. Among some other suggestions she makes are the following:

- the teacher's contribution to curriculum development,
- granting the teacher a monitoring role,
- developing material, and
- preparing workshops for other teachers in the institution.

If these kinds of contributions/awards were applied officially in the field of education it would certainly motivate teachers (Dörnyei, 2001a). The existence of a career path contingency is crucial in the general motivation of teachers since, as Pennington (1995) emphasises, work satisfaction is determined by the greater stance of a whole career, that is, the plans and goals that the worker has concerning his/her advancement in the profession. Work dissatisfaction, on the other hand, mainly revolves around the day-to-day work conditions. The significant point that Pennington makes based on the arguments above is that the lack of a career path contingency aggravates the daily adverse external factors and as such rids teachers of the intrinsic pleasure of teaching.

4.3.4 Fragility

Even though teaching as a profession is associated with the inherent joy of educating people, to impart knowledge and values, it is also influenced greatly by external factors that can make teachers feel alienated, depressed, demoralised, frustrated, stressed and eventually burnt out.

In the following I will list the most prominent negative influences that make teaching a very fragile occupation, most of which have already been mentioned in previous sections of this chapter:

- the inhibition of autonomy by the set curricula mandated by the educational authorities,
- insufficient self-efficacy due to the inadequate and inappropriate training that teachers-to-be receive,
- the vagueness or dearth of goals to be accomplished while practising teaching,
- the ambiguity of the effect that one's services have on the outcome, that is, the education and formation of the character of the student within the societal context,
- the deprivation of the feeling that the teacher belongs to a supportive collegial group,
- the scarcity of support from the administration,
- lack of opportunities for professional development of the practitioner,
- the adverse teaching conditions that involve the class size, the fact that there are no reward contingencies,
- the absence of any career structure,

- the routinised process, which is attributed to the repetitive nature of the practice,
- the stressful conditions that characterise teaching,
- the general negative perception that society has of the teacher as a professional, and
- the underpayment of the teachers, who tend to compare the importance of their service to society with their unsatisfactory compensation, that is: 'We teachers contribute to the formation of the character and education of the future generation by receiving much less than what we deserve'.

The stressful nature of teaching is one of the factors that have not been dealt with before and therefore needs to be discussed below.

4.4 The stressful nature of teaching

Kyriacou (1989, 1998, 2001), a well-known pioneer in the investigation of teacher stress in the 1970's, supports that teaching is characterised as a 'high stress' profession. He defines *teacher stress* as "the experience by teachers of unpleasant emotions such as anger, tension, frustration, anxiety, depression, and nervousness, resulting from aspects of their work as teachers" (Kyriacou, 1989, p. 27). Kyriacou's studies about teacher stress revealed that sources that consistently produce stress for teachers fall into six key categories:

- poor pupil behaviour, ranging from low levels of pupil motivation to overt indiscipline especially when the teacher is on a perpetual cycle of efforts to sustain student motivation,

- time pressure and work overload, however well the teacher manages the time and work load,
- poor school ethos, including poor relationships with the head teacher and with colleagues,
- poor working conditions, entailing a lack of resources and poor physical features of the buildings used, and
- poor prospects concerning pay, promotion and career development, especially felt when teachers are in their 40's, an age when they tend to compare their achievements 'careerwise' with those of their peers.

Kyriacou (1989, 1998, 2001) also emphasises that teachers' understanding of *threat to their self-esteem* and *mental wellbeing*, is conducive to stress, as the "preservation of self-image is one of teachers' most powerful interests-at-hand" (Pollard, 1985, as cited in Nias, 1999, p. 225). In fact, the threat to teachers' self-esteem, as Kyriacou argues, can arise from:

- tremendous demands made on teachers,
- teachers' perception that they are offended, and
- teachers' wishes being thwarted.

The *destabilisation* of teachers' control over their teaching, the *low status* that the teaching profession is granted through society's low opinion of teachers, the *low salary* teachers receive and, the *lack of provision of support* from the administration are some more sources of stress which have not been explicitly listed but have been dealt with by Kyriacou (1989). If provisions were made for the above-mentioned sources of stress then this would most probably help decrease teacher stress; therefore, it is an *ethical imperative*, as Pennington (1990, 1995) postulates, that administrations offer full support to teachers.

Due to the fact that ways to deal with stress is outside the scope of this thesis and space does not permit a detailed exposition of strategies applied to confront stress only some brief suggestions will be made. Kyriacou (1998, 2001) puts forward two ways of coping with stress, one deriving from the individual and the other from the school. The *individual coping strategies* are divided into two types, the *direct action techniques* and the *palliative*. The first entails teachers' direct actions to eliminate the source of stress itself while the second does not involve the confrontation of the source of stress itself, but rather aims at reducing the feeling of stress using mental and physical relieving strategies.

Kyriacou (2001) supports the setting of teacher stress workshops under the auspices of their school units where teachers are helped to develop a combination of direct action and palliative techniques, which help diminish the occurrence of preventable sources of stress. School-based strategies, which enhance teachers' feeling of security that they work in a healthy school environment, should contain according to Kyriacou (2001) the following features:

- good communication between staff,
- a strong sense of collegiality,
- management decisions based on consultation,
- consensus established in key values and standards,
- whole school policies in place by clearly defining role and expectation,
- provision of positive feedback and praise,
- good level of resources and facilities to support teachers,
- provision of support to help solve problems,
- easy policies and procedures to follow,
- minimised red tape and paperwork,

- additional duties matched to teachers' skills,
- pleasant building environment to work in,
- good use of forward planning by senior management, and
- induction and career development advice.

4.5 The motivation of second/foreign language teachers

As mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, language teacher motivation has not been researched extensively despite its importance. However, not surprisingly, language teacher motivation is not that different from teacher motivation, as the few studies which have been conducted (Pennington, 1991, 1995, Pennington & Ho, 1995; Doyle & Kim, 1999, Kim & Doyle, 1998 and, Kassabgy et al., 2001) highlight very similar issues. Yet, there are some differences, which are unique to the EFL/ESL context, which will be summarised below.

In a monograph – *Work satisfaction, motivation, and commitment in teaching English as a second language* – which is an excellent source and/or reference for foreign/second language researchers, Pennington (1995) summarises the findings of a series of studies she and her colleagues conducted together. The findings of two of the surveys she carried out with Riley in 1991 (as cited in Pennington, 1995) by means of MSQ (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) and the JDI (Job Descriptive Index) were consistent with the results in the general teacher motivation studies, as the participant ESL teachers were reported to be satisfied with the intrinsic nature of the job. Conversely, they claimed to be dissatisfied with the external factors, namely their pay and advancement prospects, as well as with supervisory, policy and procedure matters, which, in effect limited teachers' professional responsibility and

growth (Pennington, 1990). In Pennington's (1990) words, work satisfaction and dissatisfaction in ESL teaching is connected to:

> both concrete forms of recognition of achievement such as pay, benefits, and promotions and to less tangible psychological rewards such as enjoyment of the work itself, relationships with people on the job, a sense of purpose and opportunities for self-expression and growth (p.75).

Kim and Doyle (1998) and Doyle and Kim's (1999) studies were conducted concurrently in two completely different contexts – one in a western milieu with American teachers of English while the other was in an oriental setting with Korean EFL teachers – and here again the findings had more commonalities than divergences between the two contexts. The similarity between studies conducted by Pennington and colleagues' and, Doyle and Kim's is the intrinsic aspect of teaching. This relates to language teachers' desire to help students learn, a significant motivating factor which is often taken advantage of by the school management. Conversely, demotivating factors were found to be related to advancement, compensation, supervision, company policies and procedures, like Pennington's findings.

Doyle and Kim (1999) also revealed that teachers were demotivated by mandated curricula, which were reported to stress teachers for two reasons: The first one entailed the restriction of teachers' autonomy to teach what they thought was most appropriate taking into account their students' needs, while the second one involved the fact that the standardised tests given to their students did not in any way resemble the material teachers were obliged to teach because of the mandated curricula.

Thus, the findings from language teacher motivation surveys substantiate the perception that language teachers, like other teachers, derive satisfaction from the inherent qualities of the work itself, while they are not satisfied with their institutions and the support they are provided with. Pennington (1990, 1992, 1994, 1995) claims that because the determination of satisfaction in language teaching is no different from other careers, what a language practitioner wants is what any professional might anticipate, namely:

- job security,
- right pay and benefits,
- logical workloads,
- recognition of professional credentials,
- participation in decision-making,
- decent working conditions, and
- provisions of materials and systems for organising and managing the work and individuals.

The approach adopted by Kim and Doyle (1998) and Doyle and Kim(1999) differs from the one taken by Pennington in one aspect: Kim and Doyle attempted to gain a critical insight into the social, cultural and political factors which diminish teacher motivation and bring about dissatisfaction and low morale. Actually, Doyle and Kim and, Kim and Doyle compared to Pennington had a less positivist stance towards teacher motivation.

Another large-scale survey which was conducted concurrently in Egypt and Hawaii was by Omneya Kassabgy, Deena Boraie and Richard Schmidt (2001). This study like the previously mentioned ones revealed that teachers tend to be *altruistic*,

as they are more involved in classroom based facets rather than the extrinsic features of the job.

4.5.1 Unique features of language teacher motivation

The divergences between ESL/ EFL teacher motivation and general teacher motivation pertain to the fact that in most contexts, and mainly in ESL contexts, English language teachers are regarded as second class teachers, and in effect are treated as "underclass by colleagues and superiors" (Johnston, 1997, p. 685). In fact, Johnston (1997) supports the establishment of the *professionalisation* of language teachers in order to alleviate the lack of proper career structure, the low morale and status, the lack of opportunities for professional development, and the unfair treatment EFL/ESL teachers receive.

Crookes's (1997) postulates that language teachers are not regarded as professionals because their work conditions do not allow them to behave in a professional manner, let alone develop professionally. This is even true of language teachers who are trained professionally. Inadequate tools and facilities seem to be one of the main inhibiting factors, which leave teachers working in an environment where it is required of them to try to cope with the conditions instead of solely focusing on their teaching. Secondly, the enforcement of curricula and standardised tests mandated by the central educational authorities contribute to the "deskilling of professional S/FL teachers" (p. 68). Thirdly, the *isolation* of teachers is another issue that Crookes refers to as restricting any opportunity for teachers to act as professionals since opportunities to collaborate can be rather limited.

Through dialogic interviews, Kim and Doyle (1998) and, Doyle and Kim (1999) found that cultural, social, philosophical and political factors weakened

teacher motivation and at the same time increased dissatisfaction and low morale among them. These issues pertained to the *political nature* of the curriculum and the state-mandated tests (Doyle & Kim, 1999), which some teachers felt to be limiting their autonomy and consequently their motivation. The participants in the western context felt the limitations because the state-mandated curriculum required them to teach their students – who happened to be immigrants in the US – only basic language. This, in fact, saddened the teachers, as they well knew that they were only preparing their students to be able to communicate in low-level service jobs, which teachers found condescending (Doyle & Kim, 1999).

In a large-scale survey carried out by the TESOL Research Task Force (Brown, 1992), it was revealed that lack of respect and two other issues – employment and funding – seemed to dissatisfy teachers. The participants in this survey reported that they were not getting the respect and recognition commensurate with their training, abilities and effort, and that in effect they felt *margninalised*. Pennington also (1995) indicated that lack of *respect* led to *marginalisation*. Likewise, Kassabgy et al.'s (2001) participants reported that they were not enjoying any respect and in fact pointed out that they would rather be shown respect than enjoy prestige.

The ESL practitioners' great dissatisfaction was also attributed to the absence of long-term career opportunities within the field (Pennington, 1990, 1992), as ESL/EFL teachers were employed on annual contracts in most contexts. Furthermore, teachers regarded the low pay they received as a reflection of the discernible low status ESL practitioners are ascribed by society in general (Pennington, 1990). This is the reason why Pennington (1995) called for the implementation of *employment action plans*, which would improve teacher

motivation by means of giving serious attention to teacher development, career and academic structure. She also suggested that it is of paramount importance to ensure that L2 teachers have "the job security, the independence, and the autonomy required to fulfil their work aspirations and to fully experience the intrinsic rewards of their chosen occupation" (p.141).

However, ESL/EFL teaching is not only replete with negative aspects but offers some perks too. One of the most salient one is the opportunity to travel in different countries and interact with people from other cultures. Pennington (1990) reported that ESL practitioners were satisfied with the travel opportunities and the cross-cultural encounters the job offered. In addition, Pennington (1990) also stated that language teachers were satisfied because of the prospect they were given of teaching in creative ways. This is an important point because language teaching methodology is characterised as the most developed methodological area in the whole of education (for an overview of the development of second or foreign language teaching see *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* by Marianne Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Finally, looking at language teaching from yet a different angle, a big problem with language teaching is that the final product, second language proficiency, is not really seen as an academic subject, but to a large extent a skill. Therefore, language teachers are seen to share similar problems with Physical Education teachers, by being regarded as trainers rather than intellectuals. This perception is, I believe, false because even though language learning entails mastering a skill it also involves the creation of a new identity – the foreign language identity. Thus, language teachers are educators in the true sense, as they provide a completely new dimension in peoples' mindsets.

Chapter 5: Methodological considerations

Introduction

One of the most general distinctions in research methodology is that between *qualitative, quantitative* and *mixed methods* approaches; the first two being used for decades and the last one being new and still in the progress of development both in terms of structure and substance (Creswell, 2003). Because the approach taken in this dissertation to investigate Greek EFL teacher motivation falls into the qualitative paradigm it will be the focal theme of this chapter. Thus, I will first present concepts that delineate qualitative and quantitative research approaches in a comparative manner, followed by an overview of the rationale for the approach I have employed. Secondly, I will examine data collection and data analysis procedures – qualitative interviewing, coding and memo writing. Also, because I opted to use computer-assisted analysis, which is based on Grounded Theory, a more detailed introduction of this theory will be offered along with a description of the attributes of NUD*IST – the software package used to analyse the data of this study. In addition, I will address issues regarding generalisability, validity, and reliability both in qualitative research and computer-assisted data analysis.

5.1 Qualitative versus quantitative

Historically, qualitative research has been regarded as having a minority status in comparison to the quantitative paradigm, and this is because it was thought to be unscientific, soft, personal and biased. Among the first who tried to shake off this blemish by formalising qualitative methods are Glaser and Strauss with their 1967

renowned volume *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, making qualitative researching rigorous (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Two more researchers who contributed immensely to the acknowledgment of qualitative research as a valid way of doing research are Yvonna Lincoln and Egon Guba (1985).

As a consequence of this theorising offer, there has been a growing trend for reconciliation between the two methods recently. Alasuutari (1995) in particular maintains that the dichotomy of the two approaches "fits badly with reality" (p. 6) and it is possible to regard qualitative and quantitative analysis as a "continuum, not as opposites or mutually exclusive models of analysis" (p. 7).

The combination of the two approaches has been facilitated through the use of computers and especially the growing role that they play in qualitative analysis (Dey, 1993). Some software packages that have been designed to assist qualitative data analysis offer the feature of linking statistical data to qualitative data – NUD*IST being one of the best known software packages that has this trait (QSR NUD*IST 4 User Guide). Qualitative research is:

> grounded in a philosophical position which is broadly 'interpretivist' in the sense that it is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced or produced ... [it is] based on methods of data generation which are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced, ...[it is] based on methods of analysis and explanation building, which involve understandings of complexity, detail and context [and] aims to produce rounded understandings on the basis of rich, contextual, and detailed data. (Mason, 1996, p. 4)

On the other hand, the feature that characterises quantitative research is that it:

employs categories, viewpoints and models precisely defined by the researcher in advance as possible, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test the research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge. (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 192)

The noted differences between the two research paradigms are presented below:

1. With regards to its philosophic underpinnings, qualitative research relies on a phenomenological stance, while quantitative research is based on a positivist position (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The positivist position holds that science should mainly engage with the explication and prediction of events that are observable, while the phenomenological orientation holds that understanding the meaning that events have for participants should be the focal point of research (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

2. Qualitative research focuses on processes and meanings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 1998), which implies that the analysis is done through *conceptualisation,* whereas quantitative researchers do the analysis of numbers through statistics (Dey, 1993). Particularly, qualitative research deals with the examination of the words and actions of the participants, which are presented as closely as possible by the researcher in *narrative* and/or *descriptive* ways, while quantitative research is based on observations made by the researcher, who then converts them into *discrete units* so as to compare them to other units by using statistical analysis (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). However, as Dey (1993) postulates, even though meanings may be regarded as contrived and

unreliable compared to numbers, they can be more significant, more enlightening and more exciting.

3. Qualitative research lays emphasis on the socially constructed nature of reality, while quantitative research lays emphasis on the "measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 8). This is the reason why qualitative research is claimed to be value-laden while its counterpart is carried out within a value-free framework. Thus, the role of values in understanding the world is different; in the quantitative approach values can be laid aside in order to understand, whereas with the qualitative approach values intervene and determine what is understood (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
4. In the qualitative paradigm there is interdependence between the knower and the known (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is because the researcher is in-dwelling[7] (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994), while in the quantitative paradigm the knower stands outside the thing that is to be known and thus objectivity is possible.
5. Events in quantitative research are seen as coming one after the other thus having a causal link, while with qualitative research events shape each other and there is a multidirectional relationship among them (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
6. The quantitative research approach lends itself to generalisation while the qualitative lends itself to a-one-time-and-place tentative explanation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

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[7] "A qualitative researcher assumes the posture of in-dwelling while engaging in qualitative research...To indwell means ...for naturalistic inquiry ... being at one with the persons under investigation ... The qualitative researcher...is a part of the investigation as a participant observer, an

7. A quantitative researcher looks for proof and confirmation of propositions. On the other hand, a qualitative researcher sets out on a quest for uncovering or discovering propositions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

5.1.1 The researcher's role in qualitative research

Drawing on Rew, Bechtel, and Sapp's work, Strauss and Corbin (1998) give the following list of attributes that qualitative researchers need: *appropriateness, authenticity, credibility, intuitiveness, receptivity, reciprocity,* and *sensitivity*. Denzin and Lincoln (1994, 1998) identify qualitative researchers as *bricolcurs,* which was firstly defined by Lévi-Strauss in his 1966 *Savage Mind,* as *Jack-of-all-trades* or a kind of *professional do-it-yourself person*. Thus, besides being an expert at different tasks, ranging from data generation to the writing up of the findings, the qualitative researcher needs to be aware that s/he is "an interactive process shaped by his or her personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity, and those of the people in the setting" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 4). Even though both the quantitative and qualitative researcher's concern is their participants' points of view, qualitative researchers tend to get closer to the their views by means of exhaustive interviewing and/or observation, while the quantitative researcher has to depend on more distant deductive material (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

The qualitative researchers tend to be closer to the participants in their studies than their quantitative counterparts and this is because they need to be in direct contact with them. This, however, brings about the danger of the researcher not

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in-depth interviewer, or a leader of a focus group but also removes him/herself from the situation to rethink the meanings of the experience" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 25).

being as objective as one should be when carrying out a study. For this reason, if researchers want to achieve the required *objectivity,* it is of great significance that they conceptualise themselves not only as active researchers but also as reflective ones, especially in the process of data generation (rather than conceptualising the self as a neutral data collector). In Denzin's (2001) words, a qualitative researcher "is not an objective, politically neutral observer who stands outside and above the study of the social world. Rather, the researcher is historically and locally situated within the very processes being studied" (p.3). This implies that the research study portrays the point of view of the researcher and as such there cannot be observations that are not theory-laden.

Despite the fact that the ambition of most qualitative researchers is to be neutral with regards to data collection, it is important that they take on the challenge to analyse their role within the research process (Mason, 1996) so as to minimise bias. After all, what distinguishes a qualitative researcher from a quantitative researcher is the "intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 8).

5.2 Rationale for selecting qualitative research methods for this study

Several motivational researchers, such as Evans (1998a, 1999), Ushioda (1994, 1996, 2001b), Pennington (1989, 1994, 1995), Doyle and Kim (1999), Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a), Nias (1981, 1989) have opted for the qualitative research paradigm for two reasons: firstly, because it has proved to have the potential "to cast a different light on the phenomena under investigation and to raise a different set of issues" (Ushioda, 2001b, p. 96), and secondly because it lends itself to the

examination of aspects of motivation that cannot be easily accommodated within the quantitative approach (Ushioda, 2001b).

Taking into account the fact that motivation, as mentioned in an earlier chapter, is characterised by a dynamic nature, and that qualitative methods are more sensitive to the portrayal of the dynamic trait of L2 motivational experiences, I opted to conduct this study employing a qualitative approach. Even though this approach by definition restricts claims to generalisability, it still offers some scope for the comparison of data across the participants.

Furthermore, my choice of employing a qualitative approach for my research was based on the understanding that qualitative methods would allow me to "explore substantive areas about which little is known to gain novel understandings" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 11), and this seemed to be the case with my research, as no other research study had been conducted in the Greek context on teacher motivation. I received confirmation that my decision to use a qualitative approach was proper when I read a statement made by Pennington (1990) regarding two of the well-known and most commonly used job satisfaction survey instruments, namely the MSQ (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) and the JDI (Job Descriptive Index). As Pennington (1990) argued, these two survey instruments were found to be less effective and comprehensive than expected when the researcher attempted to uncover certain facets of job satisfaction. According to Pennington (1990) "face-to-face interviews for uncovering valid assessment of job satisfaction" (p.65) were more effective.

5.3 The specific type of qualitative research adopted: Grounded theory

Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss coined the term and introduced *grounded theory* in their 1967 publication, *The Discovery of Grounded Theory.* Grounded theory is a research approach typically associated with qualitative research, which can also be applied to quantitative studies (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Charmaz, 2000). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), the grounded theory approach is "a qualitative method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (p. 24).

The main feature of grounded theory is that theory is developed through a continuous interaction between data collection and analysis while flexibility is also allowed since the researcher can modify the analysis that emerges when conditions alter and/or more data is gathered (Charmaz, 2000). Furthermore, grounded theory entails the interpretations of both the researcher and the participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The prescribed procedures, which will be discussed in detail below, entail:

- simultaneous collection and analysis of data,
- a two-step data coding process,
- comparative methods,
- memo writing aimed at the construction of conceptual analyses,
- sampling to refine the researcher's emerging theoretical ideas, and
- integration of the theoretical framework (Charmaz, 2000, pp. 510-511).

In general, the aim of grounded theorists is to generate analytic interpretations of the collected data in order to gather further data, which they use in

order to inform and refine their developing theoretical analyses (Charmaz, 2000). Grounded theorists can achieve this by concentrating on meaning which promotes rather than restrains interpretive understanding. However, the grounded theorist needs to be equipped with certain qualities, which are presented next, in order to be able to interpret successfully the collected material following certain procedures.

5.3.1 The grounded theorist

Grounded theorists do not start with a preconceived theory in mind except if their aim is to develop and expand an existing theory; instead they set out on a study that permits for the theory to surface from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This is achieved through a continuous interaction between analysis and data collection, which implies that there should be a continual interplay between the researcher and the research act. This interaction enables the researcher to immerse himself/herself in the data and thus allows the researcher to be sensitive to the different issues and problems that the participants are confronted by. At the same time this also brings up the issue as to whether the researcher can remain objective and sensitive. *Objectivity* and *sensitivity* are two important factors which are indispensable if one needs to carry out an impartial, accurate and subtle study. Objectivity, as Strauss and Corbin (1998) maintain, does not imply the controlling of variables, but rather it means being open and willing to listen as well as giving voice to the participants. The immersion of researchers in the data, as discussed earlier (5.1.1), is an issue that researchers should be wary of, as this can restrict the possibility of their being biased. Thus, according to Strauss and Corbin (1998), it is important that the grounded theorist is:

- able to step back and carefully analyse the situation,

- able to identify bias,
- able to think abstractly,
- able to be flexible and open to useful criticism,
- sensitive to both the actions and words of participants, and
- completely absorbed and devoted to the process of the study.

5.4 Methodological Issues

5.4.1 Sampling

The rationale of sampling in qualitative tradition is distinct from the logic of sampling in the quantitative paradigm. Qualitative researchers are not concerned with having large samples which will give them the opportunity to generalise based on the statistical findings, but rather to have profound insights into the subject matter they are investigating by employing informed and purposeful sampling strategies (Kelle & Laurie, 1995).

According to Mason (1996), the task of sampling and selecting should:

- Allow the establishment of a relationship between the sample and the total population.
- Be relevant to the research questions and the analysis that is to be developed.
- Be meaningful, allowing the development and testing of the theory and explanation that the researcher wants to construct.
- Allow the researcher to make key comparisons in order to test and build theoretical propositions – an action that links sampling into the process of developing theory and therefore explanation is achieved inductively from

or through the data. This implies that when deciding about the sampling strategy, the researcher is thinking ahead to the kind of analysis that is to be conducted. This link has an impact on the sampling strategy both conceptually and procedurally, in other words it affects the logic of the strategy and the manner in which it will be executed.

- Be done with caution since there is the danger of disregarding the components that are inconvenient and of just picking the ones that will support the intended theory. Convenient sampling, which would most probably give convenient results proving the theory the researcher has in mind, can be avoided through the standard strategy of *analytic induction.*

The avoidance of disregarding 'inconvenient' sampling involves the seeking of negative or contradictory cases, which is known as the *deviant case* (Alasuutari, 1995; Silverman, 2000). The construction of a non-representative sample, which aims at comparing, testing and generating theories, is called *theoretical sampling* or *purposive sampling* or *purposeful sampling* (Kelle & Laurie, 1995). Theoretical sampling, according to Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1998), entails sampling that is not predetermined, but rather develops during the process. Theoretical sampling enables qualitative researchers to generate and test theory from data analysis, which is called *inductive reasoning* (Mason, 1996). Strauss and Corbin (1998) claim that theoretical sampling is *cumulative*, as every event that is sampled adds to data which has been collected and analysed beforehand. They also suggest that sampling becomes more specific in the course of time because the researcher is directed by the developing of theory.

However, theoretical sampling "can be criticized for being *ad hoc* and vague if not employed systematically" (Mason, 1996, p. 95). Therefore, it is of paramount

importance to have a sampling strategy when conducting research while at the same time the researcher has to be able to explain its logic. If the researcher does not have a sampling strategy then there is the risk of having a misjudged sampling. Flexibility is important as it allows the researcher to take advantage of accidental incidents that may add to or change the development of theory. In fact, the researcher can sample until s/he reaches a *theory saturation point* – a point where data has nothing new to offer. Saturation entails the "repetition in the information obtained and confirmation of previously collected data" (Morse, 1994, p. 230).

5.4.2 Data Collection: Qualitative Interviewing

Interviews are sources of data which can provide the researcher with rich records related to the phenomenon under study. Qualitative interviewing does not aim, at getting an answer to a question, nor at testing hypotheses, but rather it entails an interest in comprehending the experience of respondents and the meaning they make of that experience (Seidman, 1998). In order to attain a naturally flowing interview the interviewer needs to be quick or to be able to think on their feet to assess the relevance of each part of the interaction with the research questions even if the researcher has an aide-mémoire, as a reminder of the topics to be dealt with (Mason, 1996).

The interview questions can be based on either concepts derived from the literature or the researcher's experience or a pilot fieldwork (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In fact, Kvale (1996) points out that it is pivotal that conceptual and theoretical understandings are established prior to taking interviews. However, the set of questions should not dictate the interview, but rather guide it, as it is important that it follows the participants' interests and concerns. Consequently, the interviewer

should focus his/her attention on to the interesting themes that come up rather than just adhere to the ordering of questions, and also attempt to establish rapport with the respondent (Smith, 2001).

There are four types of interviews: the *unstructured in-depth*, the *semi-structured*, the *structured*, and the *focus group*. Due to space limitations I will not describe all the types of interviews, but only semi-structured interviews, as my study was conducted using this type of interview. *Semi-structured* interviews or otherwise *focused* interviews are guided and focused because the interviewer guides the interview by asking specific questions (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to obtain "descriptions of life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena" (Kvale, 1996, pp. 5-6). Furthermore, they allow the gathering of factual information, personal views of the interviewees and a complete picture of the participants' stances and emotions. This is achieved on condition that the interviewer has established a harmonious relationship with the participants, who have accepted the aims of the research and as a result try to actively help by giving the necessary information (Komili, 1989).

Semi-structured interviewing requires the process of taking cues from the interviewees rather than rigorously adhering to the 'pre-scripted' interaction, as it is natural that the researcher may not have anticipated in advance certain issues that interviewees may bring up. Normally, the interviewer has an interview guide, which comprises a list of general questions or issues, enabling the elicitation of responses relevant to the research problem. The interviewer is free to modify the guide by either adding or discarding questions according to the participants' reaction to the

questions and the need to fill gaps. This of course presupposes that the interviewer has background knowledge related to the literature research.

A disadvantage of semi-structured interview is that it does not share the advantage of minimising bias. However, if one takes into account that interviews are social interactions no matter how structured or unstructured they are then it is altogether improper to regard social interaction as 'bias' (Mason, 1996).

5.4.3 Data analysis

The hallmark of qualitative analysis techniques is the depth of the interpretation, which is achieved through data analysis – either done manually or using the same computer software. I opted to use the QSR NUD*IST 4 software package to analyse my data in a more systematic manner than if I had done the analysis manually.

Taking into account that this computer software has been based on grounded theory, I will look at the principles of coding in grounded theory and then by narrowing it down we can see the use of this computer software in the analysis process.

Coding

In grounded theory data analysis begins early with the coding of the material that is gathered and according to Kelle (1995), coding is the task of "relating chunks of data to categories which the researcher has either previously developed or which he or she develops *ad hoc*" (p. 4). In other words, coding entails the definition and categorisation of the rich data which are created while studying the data. In fact, one of the central tasks of a qualitative researcher is to notice phenomena without having

ready-made hypotheses; this, however, does not imply that the researcher's mind is a *tabula rasa* but s/he has some preconceptions (Seidel & Kelle, 1995).

Coding begins the development of theory (Charmaz, 2000), which the researcher can do line-by-line, allowing for the refinement of concepts as well as the building of ideas, while at the same time the researcher familiarises himself/herself with the respondents' views and realities. In grounded theory there are three basic types of coding involved: *open coding, axial coding,* and *selective coding.* When the researcher tries to detect, name, and categorise phenomena in accordance with their properties and dimensions then this is called *open coding* (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The next step that the researcher should take is to do intensive coding around the single categories that are created during open coding. This is called *axial coding* – it is when "the analyst begins to build up a dense texture of relationships around the 'axis' of the category being focused upon" (Strauss, 1987, p. 64). The idea behind axial coding is to examine how categories relate to their subcategories and to further develop categories in terms of their properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Stated differently, the researcher's aim is to specify the relations of a category to other categories.

Selective coding aims at (i) the *integration* of categories in order to develop a theory, (ii) the *validation* of the relationship among concepts, and (iii) the *filling in and refinement* of categories. Selective coding occurs after the researcher has developed the categories and specified their relations. The researcher in selective coding selects the most significant category, which is called the *core category*, and then attempts to "orient the study around the core category by specifying and validating the relationships between it and the other categories" (Lonkila, 1995, p.

44). With selective coding one can check whether the theories that emerged from the data and the reality it explicates are compatible (Charmaz, 2000).

With regards to the software many codes are converted into *categories* of the emerging theory. Category is a "container or a computational data structure, that can hold material unified by a common definition" (Richards & Richards, 1995, p. 82). The researcher's task is to find and examine categories in the unstructured and sometimes chaotic records. In fact, categorising entails more than just labelling the data on topics, it actually allows:

- the discovery and ordering of ideas and themes,
- the storing of growing understandings,
- the linking of ideas to data,
- cross referencing,
- sorting, and
- clarifying (Richards & Richards, 1995, p. 80).

Memo writing

Memo writing is an intermediary stage between the first written piece of analysis and coding. Memos can be visualised as signposts down the path between the material and the theory (Kelle, 1995). In particular, a memo is what the researcher records whilst doing data analysis and it forms the basis for the emerging theory (Kelle, 1995). Memo writing can either be done by-hand – the old-fashioned way – or, by using the specially designed computer programmes like NUD*IST or Atlas (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Memo writing encourages the researcher to think about the data,

and look at it in a different light as well as direct the collection of data (Charmaz, 2000). Memo writing, allows researchers to:

- grapple with ideas about the data,
- set an analytic course,
- refine categories,
- define the relationships among various categories, and
- gain a sense of confidence and competence in their ability to analyse data (pp. 517-518).

5.4.4 Generalisability, validity, reliability and transferability

As opposed to the quantitative research paradigm, the qualitative society has not yet agreed on the rationale and the use of *generalisability*, *validity*, and *reliability*. In fact, some qualitative researchers have disregarded them altogether, while others have used ordinary language such as credibility, dependability, trustworthiness and confirmability to discuss the significance of the findings. In qualitative research, *generalisability*, *validity*, and *reliability* were reconceptualised to fit the forms of qualitative researching in order to measure the quality, and rigour of every research study.

Generalisability entails the degree to which the researcher can make a wider claim based on the findings of the research study – making generalisations is not easy to achieve, be it in qualitative researching or in quantitative. In order for the researcher to be able to generalise, one should "think carefully and strategically throughout the whole research process, not just at the end when you are 'writing up'" (Mason, 1996, p. 158). In fact, the spelling out of the steps taken throughout the research study are important, as the researcher makes the processes that were

followed clear to the reader, which consequently persuades the reader about the findings. In other words, the researcher proves not only the claims that were made, but also the grounds on which they were made (Mason, 1996).

Unfortunately, it is still the norm that qualitative researchers have to defend their findings despite the in-depth investigations that are carried out. The reason for this is that findings from a qualitative research are believed to be unsuitable for generalisation since the sample is not representative of the population at large. The defence strategy taken against this charge concerning the validity of qualitative research was claiming that the main aim of this research approach is not to generalise but to (i) unearth problems, (ii) pinpoint indicators, and (iii) express hypotheses instead of looking into predetermined problems (Dey, 1993).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest *transferability* instead of generalisability to reject the criticism qualitative research received. *Transferability* is a notion that involves the congruence of the findings of one study to any other to the extent that the findings are fitting. Stated differently, qualitative researchers, who in effect offer a full picture of the context in which their studies are conducted, allow their stories to resonate with other contexts with which readers or other researchers may relate. In fact, grounded theory is reproducible if "a similar set of conditions exists, and if the same theoretical perspective and the same rules for data gathering and analysis are followed" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 329). Still, in order to diminish the concept that qualitative research produces unreliable and unrepresentative data, it is essential that the qualitative researcher not only employs systematic data collection and analysis, but also to resort to a variety of data sources.

With regards to reliability[8] Denzin and Lincoln (1994) define it as the "extent to which findings can be replicated, or reproduced, by another inquirer" (p. 100). A problem that arises here is whether the findings that are presented by the researcher by means of long descriptive narratives are credible. *Credibility* is problematic because there is the issue of how researchers categorise the described events. Apart from the criterion of *reliability,* what makes a study credible is also the principle of *validity*[9], which, according to Kvale (1996) "refers to the truth and correctness of a statement" (p. 236). This requires the researcher to have the ability to work out and show that his/her concepts can be specified, observed, or measured in the way the researcher say they can (Mason, 1996). In other words, the question of validity has to do with the researcher's judgment of whether s/he is explaining or measuring what s/he claiming to explain or measure.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) distinguish two types of validity: *internal* and *external. Internal validity* pertains to the extent to which findings map the event correctly while *external validity* concerns the degree to which the researcher can generalise for the findings in other similar settings. This requires the researcher to be conceptually and ontologically clear and successful in translating these into "meaningful and relevant epistemology" [10] (Mason, 1996, p.146). In fact, researchers

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[8] In quantitative research reliability is achieved through the standardisation of methods, that is, by pre-testing the measures and scales used, which according to Silverman (2000), is not necessarily conducive to having reliable findings, as the researcher might come up with "highly unreliable tabulations" (p. 185).

[9] Kelle and Laurie (1995) postulate that the qualitative researcher should not adopt validity concepts and strategies from the quantitative approach, as this can lead the researcher to false conclusions. Quantitative researchers demonstrate their findings on statistical tables while qualitative researchers rely on long descriptive narratives, which, according to Silverman (2000), is the strongest feature of qualitative research.

[10] The *ontological* position or perspective of a researcher involves the way that the researcher sees the "nature and essence of social things in the social world" (Mason, 1996, p. 11). *Epistemology* encompasses the researcher's theory of knowledge, thus it concerns the rules and principles according to which the researcher decides whether and the manner by which social phenomena can be found out as well as how this can be demonstrated. Epistemology helps the researcher "to generate knowledge

have to convince their readers of their project as to how and why the methodological strategy used is a valid way to pursue the research questions (Mason, 1996).

With regards to whether validity is applicable to computer-aided methods, Kelle and Laurie (1995) maintain that *validity* can be enhanced in two ways. Firstly, through the facilities that are provided by computer software to manage larger than usual samples (qualitative researchers normally deal with rather small samples compared to quantitative researchers), and secondly through the facilities of retrieval of the information that is supposed to have been coded in a reliable way. The trustworthiness of the findings is increased through the use of these facilities, ensuring that the "hypotheses developed are really grounded in the data and not based on single and highly untypical incidents" (Kelle & Laurie, 1995, p. 27).

Kelle and Laurie (1995) posit that computer aided methods for qualitative analysis add validity and trustworthiness, provided that the researcher "pays attention to the different meaning of validity concepts in different research paradigms" (p. 10). Furthermore, they claim that computer aided methods provide a strong tool for the enhancement of validity at the stage of refinement of the codes.

If one was to check the *reliability* of the coding and indexing then a researcher other than the one who initially did the coding should be able to develop a similar coding scheme to the original coder "within an acceptable margin of error" (Kelle & Laurie 1995, p. 24). However, as they go on to postulate this has to do with the different approaches that the two paradigms employ. The quantitative approach employs a hypothetico-deductive (H-D) research design, whereas the qualitative paradigm applies an exploratory research design which allows the drawing of theories based on the data. In an H-D research design the purpose of coding would

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and explanations about the ontological components of the social world, be they social processes,

be to summarise the information in the data, while in the exploratory codes are "'signposts to' and not ... 'models for' the information contained in the data" (Kelle & Laurie, 1995, p. 25).

Thus, the qualitative approach does not test "ready-made hypotheses", but instead it aims at (i) the formulation of categories and hypotheses, which are grounded in the data, and (ii) their refinement (Kelle & Laurie, 1995). The reliability of the code scheme in qualitative research is as vitally important as for the quantitative paradigm. However, the implementation of consistent and stable patterns at early stages of the research could be dangerous, but necessary in later stages. The reason is that consistency and a more systematic analysis can lead to greater trust in findings (Kelle & Laurie, 1995). In fact, in the event that codes have been used with a different meaning at different text passages, this can cause contradictions, and result in false conclusions.

5.5 Computer aided data analysis

The appearance of computers in qualitative analysis thrilled qualitative researchers, as prospects for transparent and rigorous ways to carry out projects were attainable (Kelle & Laurie, 1995). However, as Coffey, Holbrook and Atkinson (1996) warn, the growing use of software packages in qualitative research is tacitly driving the approach towards a renewed orthodoxy to data analysis. According to the optimists, the advent of CAQDAS (Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis) has rejected the accusation that qualitative researchers are "soft and wooly" (Lee & Fielding,

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social actions, discourses, meanings, or whatever, which you have identified as central" (p. 13).

1995, p. 32) and has added trustworthiness making qualitative research "more transparent and rigorous" (Kelle & Laurie, 1995, p. 19).

Richards and Richards (1992) maintain that the use of specialist software for qualitative analysis contributes to certainty. Furthermore, they claim that software techniques are expected to give from soft data hard results, which are meant to be exact, quantifiable, generalisable, justifiable, verifiable, replicable and involving theory-testing, while at the same time they are open to assessment of validity. Put in Richards and Richards' (1993), words: "Qualitative computing also appeals strongly to those who (rightly!) see the doing of good qualitative research as really hard." (p. 2).

Dey (1995) also posits that computer-assisted qualitative analysis has contributed immensely to making vital improvements in traditional methods of both coding and retrieval of data. This is because computer-assisted qualitative analysis is done not only with amazing speed, but also with great efficiency, allowing for greater thoroughness and rigour as regards coding as well as flexibility and sophistication as regards data retrieval. In other words, the qualitative researchers can have more thorough records which they can have better access to, while they can also have the ability to move between the recorded data and their thinking about it (Richards & Richards, 1992). Thus, an advantage of using computer software when doing qualitative research is the fact that the computer symbolises a strong metaphor for *systematicity*, *objectivity*, and *rigour* (Kelle, 1997).

Richards and Richards (1993) postulate the best reasons for utilising computer software are:

- They offer rigorous and exhaustive interrogation of data records as well as reliable theory-testing.

- They can be used for larger than usual volumes of data, as the limitations imposed by manually handled data are raised.
- They offer speed, as researchers have direct access to data records while at the same time they can do immediate retrieval of and exploration of their content.

Richards and Richards (1992) postulate that the main impact of computer use in qualitative analysis lies in:

- the building of theory by examining the relationships between categories repeatedly,
- the flexibility for the development of indexing categories in interaction with the actual text,
- the ability to recode the text when new categories appear,
- the writing of memos, which contribute to the thinking about categories and their relationships, and
- the ability to conduct analysis through the emerging themes by creating new index categories.

Researchers who are not convinced by the positive arguments regarding computer-aided-analysis, on the other hand, focus their attention on the danger of alienation of the researcher from the data and the development of a *Frankenstein's monster methodology* (Kelle, 1997). Particularly, Coffey et al. (1996) express their concern regarding the increasing use of computer software, which could create methodological dangers. The reason for their concern is that they think that the use of computer software could lead to the alienation from the data and the enforcement of analysis strategies.

In spite of the latter, there are some very well known and widely used series of specially designed qualitative software packages, which have brought about a revolution in qualitative analysis: NUD*IST, which was upgraded in the recently developed NVivo and N6 software packages, Atlas, Ethnograph, Qualpro, TAP and WordCruncher (Seale, 2000). Computer software packages have changed the whole approach to qualitative data analysis by introducing methods that are in the direction of 'hard' methods, thus establishing the credibility and validity of analyses (Richards & Richards, 1992). In fact, the strong point of CAQDAS is that they allow the qualitative researcher to store-and-retrieve the data introduced in the computer system. The storage-and-retrieval system allows the researcher to draw together the texts and the memos that share something common, thus initiating the analysis of the data.

Methodological writings about software and user's guides of software packages point out that computer software should not only be regarded as a tool for data archiving and management, but instead should also be viewed as an instrument for data analysis. Most software packages support not only the code-and-retrieve procedure, but they also allow the researcher to attach memos, which contribute to the analytical thinking of the researcher. These three procedures are key aspects of grounded theory and as Lonkila (1995) suggests, they are overemphasised in the design and development of the qualitative data analysis software.

This, as Coffey, Holbrook and Atkinson (1996) maintain, brings about the problem that the user of the software package, who is not epistemologically informed, may adopt a particular set of strategies without questioning. Thus, as Lonkila (1995) emphasises, the researcher who wants to adopt a computer-aided analysis needs to be acquainted with grounded theory. It is, after all, important for a

researcher to have some epistemological background knowledge in order to be able to make meaningful interpretations. However, as Coffey, Holbrook and Atkinson (1996, ¶ 7.6) suggest: "the association of CAQDAS (Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis) with a simplified 'grounded theory' justification can be misleading to students and researchers to whom it is introduced".

5.5.1 NUD*IST attributes

My decision to use NUD*IST depended on contextual factors, namely of the availability and accessibility of certain technology, which, as Platt (1996) postulates, influences the choice of the research method to be employed. NUD*IST, which stands for *Non-numerical, Unstructured, Data: Indexing, Searching and Theorising* was one of the widely used computer packages at the time I set out on my research and the School of English Studies at Nottingham University offered to buy me this software package.

I opted to employ the rules of grounded theory, even if I did not adhere to them rigidly, not only because computer aided research is based on it (Richards & Richards, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1999; Lonkila, 1995), but because it is a rigorous research approach which allows the researcher to be flexible as one can modify the emerging or developed analysis according to the change of conditions, or the additional data that is collected (Charmaz, 2000).

Qualitative research requires direct access to the data and the searching of texts should give accurate access to the data through the actual words and phrases that occur in the data. This is achieved through NUD*IST, which not only allows the researcher to have direct, accurate and rapid access to the data, but it also enables the user to code the results of text search. This ability to save replies is called *system*

closure and it is the hallmark of NUD*IST. In fact, NUD*IST is particularly designed to facilitate users in handling Non-numerical and Unstructured data through *coding*[11] data in an index system, *searching* text and *searching* patterns of coding and *theorising* about the data. It is a software that supports *text based management, code and retrieve, text retrieving*, and *code-based theory building.*

Furthermore NUD*IST embodies features which support the building of hierarchies of code categories (Kelle, 1997). Coding, which is done for retrieval, is invariably a theorising process, as it entails: (i) the generation of categories from pre-existing theory, (ii) the detection of new categories, and (iii) the designation of segments of data to a category or categories (Richards & Richards, 1993).

NUD*IST has two separate data bases, one for the documents and one for the indexing of documents, called *document system* and *index system* respectively. These systems are linked by *search procedures*, which allow the researcher to build up a conceptual structure. These search procedures can be explored independently from the textual records that are kept intact in the document system (Richards & Richards, 1992; QSR NUD*IST User Manual, 1997). *The document system,* containing textual-level data about the documents, may be texts, photographs, tapes, newspaper articles – anything that can be sequentially divided into parts in order to be coded. *The index system* allows the researcher to generate and handle hierarchically linked concepts, which are displayed in the system as an upside down tree. The trees can be visualised as networks made up of *nodes*. The function of trees is to organise the nodes in an easy and comprehensible way. *Nodes* are containers of the researcher's thinking, that is, concepts, and the indexing references to data.

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[11] The developers of NUD*IST, Lyn Richards and Tom Richards prefer to use the term indexing instead of the term coding.

The search procedures enable the researcher to search either the document or the nodes in order to find out and examine patterns and themes and build or test theories. The software package supports Boolean searches, allowing the researcher to create new categories in order to examine them in combination with other categories. The results that are kept in a new node can be fed back to the software programme, allowing the researcher to investigate further and as such have more node-building (Richards & Richards, 1993) – the so called *system closure.*

Gahan and Hanibal (1998) point out that one of the strengths of working with NUD*IST is that it allows the researcher to move interactively between the data in the document system and the concepts in the index system. Conversely, one of the disadvantages of using NUD*IST is that once the documents have been imported into the Document System any corrections or alterations can become problematic. This requires a thorough preparation of the documents before they are loaded onto the software. The role and capacity of NUD*IST to contribute to research was also questioned by certain researchers who claimed that its use deprived researchers of the "feel, flavour and connectedness of the data, i.e., distancing" (Holbrook & Butcher, 1996, p. 66).

5.5.2 The role of grounded theory in computer-aided qualitative analysis

Tom Richards and Lyn Richards, the qualitative software developers of NUD*IST, maintain that grounded theory has exercised particular influence over the development of the analysis programme, which is obvious in its structure (Richards & Richards, 1998). Lee and Fielding (1996), however, postulate that the similarity between CAQDAS and grounded theory is exaggerated, as computer-aided

qualitative data analysis adopts only certain aspects of grounded theory, particularly the data management strategy. Kelle (1997) corroborates this view by stating that the relation of certain data archiving and some methodologies, and notably that of grounded theory, is much looser than it is normally believed. Nonetheless, the combined use of grounded theory and computers is an endeavour to promote a more structured and rigorous analysis, process (Lonkila, 1995). The connections between grounded theory and computer-assisted qualitative analysis and in particular NUD*IST, are the following:

1. One of the analytical operations, which is pivotal both to NUD*IST and grounded theory, is *coding*. However, as Lonkila (1995) states, the concept of coding in grounded theory differs from computer-assisted qualitative analysis in that coding for grounded theorists is more than just assigning a label to text segments. According to Strauss (1987), coding involves not only the isolation and labelling of categories, but also the way to dimensionalise the categories and "discover the conditions, consequences, and associated interactions and strategies" (p. 154).
2. Making *constant comparisons* and *asking questions* are two central procedures of coding in grounded theory, which are facilitated by the code-and-retrieve function that computer softwares have. The ability to retrieve and compare text segments which are coded, and compared, permits the researcher to be thorough and rigorous as regards the development of concepts and allows him/her to compare their coding results. Qualitative data analysis software can enhance both *axial coding*, which pertains to the practice of developing the relations between categories and their subcategories, and *selective coding*, which entails the relation of categories to

core categories. *Memo writing* is an activity that is principal for both grounded theory and computer-assisted qualitative analysis.

3. *Theory building,* a central characteristic of grounded theory, is also principal to the design of NUD*IST, as it catches and interrogates meanings that have emerged from data (QSR NUD*IST User Manual, 1997). Theory building is achieved through more advanced code-and-retrieve facilities, which are provided by the software. The function of the tools is to connect codes to each other in order to display the structure of the emerging theory, thus contributing to theory building (Kelle, 1997). The codes[12], which are used to organise the data, portray the theoretical categories upon which the researcher can develop during the process of analysis.
4. The display of a *diagram* is central both to grounded theory and software packages, allowing the researcher to clarify and visualise his/her thinking.

[12] Codes or indexes as they are called by Lyn Richards and Tom Richards.

Chapter 6: The methodology of the study

Introduction

Based on the arguments and the theoretical summary described in the previous chapter, this study was carried out following the main principles of the qualitative research approach. The means used to explore EFL teacher motivation in Greek state schools was a series of in-depth interviews taken from EFL state school teachers and non-EFL teachers. A special feature of the study was that it contained a longitudinal component, that is, some of the participants were interviewed several times, and in one case as many as five times during a period of two years. The following sections will provide a detailed technical description of the main aspects of the study.

6.1 The sample

The sample of this research study consisted of four EFL teachers, two non-EFL teachers – a Greek language teacher, a maths teacher currently serving as an administrator – a teacher-trainer, the headmistress of two EFL participants and the director of the Local Educational Authority, all living in a town very near Athens. The decision to constrain the sample to a town had to do with practical convenience as this town was easily accessible to me. However, I believe that I would have obtained similar results in other locations because state schools and state school teachers do not appear to differ within the boundaries of the Greek state.

With regards to the decision to restrict the study to a small number of informants, this was intentional as my aim was to collect rich data in order to allow me to carry out in-depth analyses. A pilot study was carried out with seven EFL

teachers at the outset of the study to help me pick out the most appropriate participants, those that were willing to be interviewed several times and I felt were willing to talk about their personal experiences in their work contexts. I was able to access teachers for the pilot and the main study through the director of the Local Educational Authority, who allowed me to contact teachers at different schools in the town. The participants taught in schools in which the students came from mixed backgrounds. All of the participants were qualified, with qualifications ranging from undergraduate qualifications to an MA degree.

In the end, two out of the seven teachers, who seemed to be comfortable with expressing their points of view their insights and their emotions, agreed to participate in the series of interviews. However, because I needed to incorporate more participants so that I could gain alternative perspectives, I had to look for other teachers who were prepared to be interviewed successively. I was able to access two participants through a teacher-trainer friend and the director of the Local Educational Authority – a procedure known as *snowball sampling* (Mason, 1996). Some more participants were chosen on the basis that they could provide me with data that would allow me to 'control' for the accounts of one of the participants. A detailed description as to why each participant was added/selected and what the main idea was behind this selection will be given below. The main descriptive details of the participants are summarised in Table 6.1.

We could divide the participants of this study into two groups to help organise this section: the EFL teachers and the non-EFL teachers. To ensure confidentiality the EFL participants were given initials of pseudonyms – KK, HM, MP and SH – while the others were called by the title of their profession, for example the 'maths teacher'. The school locations and some other minor details have

also been altered so that the town in question cannot be identified. In fact, most of the participants revealed certain information on condition of anonymity.

Table 6.1 EFL/Non-EFL teachers

EFL teachers

Interviewee	KK	HM	MP	SH
Sex	F	M	F	F
Interviews	5 & 1 vignette	3	3	1
Interview Span	January 2000-March 2001	April 2000-May 2000	May 2000-Dec 2000	June 2001
Teaching experience (years)	5 years state 10 years private	20 years state 1 year private	4 years state 5 years private	10 years state 7 years private
Qualification	MA in literature	BA & attended privately run teacher training courses	BA & attended privately run teacher training courses	BA
School Type	Middle class	Upper class	Lower class	Middle class

Heads and non-EFL teachers

Interviewee	T. Trainer	Head of Administration	Non-EFL 1	Non-EFL 2	Headmistress
Sex	F	M	F	F	F
Interviews	1	1	1	1	1
Profession	EFL teacher, Teacher trainer	Ex-headmaster & Head of Administration	Maths teacher & administrator	Greek language teacher	KK and SH's Headmistress

Pilot study: 7 interviews

6.1.1 The EFL group

The EFL subjects were all university graduates from the Department of English Language and Literature at the University of Athens. Because it has traditionally taken approximately seven years for university graduates to get their first appointment in state schools after having entered their names on a national waiting

list (see Chapter 1) our EFL participants, like almost all of their colleagues, have initially worked in privately run foreign language frontisteria. Their appointment in a state school after a long wait was in fact the realisation of a lifelong ambition, as pointed out in Chapter 1. Following is a brief summary of each interviewee's descriptive details:

KK

The most important information regarding KK's story will only be outlined briefly here because a whole chapter is dedicated to KK in the analysis section of this dissertation. KK, who was one of the two pilot study participants to have offered to be interviewed as many times as necessary, was the only one to have been interviewed for five sequential times over a period of two years. She was the only participant who held a Master's Degree (in literature, though) awarded from an American university. KK had been working for the state sector for five years, but prior to that had taught for the private sector for a total of ten years. When I met her for the first interview, the school she was working at had largely middle-class students. The interviews with KK were conducted either in her flat or mine, and in order to insure that she did not feel threatened we sat comfortably in the living room, where drinks and light snacks were offered. In return for her time and effort I offered her a token of appreciation at the end of the series of interviews. All five interviews were conducted in Greek because she felt more comfortable using her mother tongue. The tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and then translated into English.

HM

HM was the only male EFL teacher to have taken part in this study. He was the other pilot participant who also offered to be interviewed for as long as it was necessary. He was a BA degree holder and he had been working for the state sector for 20 years. He was one of the fortunate ones as he only had to teach in a frontistirio for one year. The reason he did not have to wait long on the waiting list was because he accepted to be appointed in one of the remotest islands in Greece. After teaching in this school for a year, he managed to get a transfer to the school where I met him in, which was attended by students coming from upper-class families. The school had a good reputation for having the majority of its students enter tertiary level institutions. HM was interviewed three times in the Greek Cypriot community lounge at closing times. The interviews were conducted in Greek, as he felt more comfortable with it, and then the recorded cassettes were transcribed and translated into English.

MP

Because it was also essential that I also interviewed cases that were not considered as automatically fitting my ideas, I sought out a *deviant case*, as was suggested in the previous chapter. The teacher trainer who was also a participant of the study and an acquaintance of mine, knew that I was looking for a teacher who differed from the other ones with regards to his/her motivation. She therefore informed me that in an in-service training seminar, she had met a teacher who seemed to be motivated despite the adverse teaching conditions she worked under. This teacher was MP. I was given her contact phone numbers, and when I contacted her she immediately agreed to take part in the study. She was interviewed three times and being a Greek-

English bilingual, she chose to be interviewed in English. The tape-recorded interviews were then transcribed following the procedures of qualitative approach. In return for her time and effort I treated her to a meal at a very well-known sea-food tavern which she enjoyed.

MP was born and brought up in South Africa, where she attended an English language school. Her parents, who were both Greek, were obliged to return to Greece because of the political turmoil in South Africa in the 1980's so she attended the last three senior high school classes in Greece. Upon graduation she was successful in entering the English Department at the University of Athens, where she attended the course for four years. However, because she felt that the department did not offer her the appropriate teacher education, she also enrolled in privately run teacher training courses. Prior to her appointment in the state sector she had worked for a frontisterio and in fact owned one for a couple of years. At the time she joined the study, MP had been teaching in the state sector for four years. The school she was working in was attended by students coming from lower class families. Even though MP seemed to be dissatisfied with the teaching conditions in Greek state schools, which was obvious from the fact that she constantly applied to get a transfer abroad, she seemed to give her best to teaching – a feature that was initially detected by the teacher trainer.

SH

The flexibility permitted by qualitative research regarding sampling methods allowed me to increase the sample size, so I decided to include SH in the project, because she had been placed in KK's position after KK got a transfer to another school. The reason I chose to incorporate her in the study was that I needed to see

whether the different data given by the two participants coincided. In other words, I was aiming at achieving triangulation[13], that is, I wanted to triangulate the postulations KK made regarding the teaching conditions, her headmistress's and colleagues' attitude towards her as an EFL teacher with those of SH. Choosing SH to participate in the study allowed me to think critically about the data, as I could compare the accounts of the two participants.

At the time of the interview, SH had been working for the state sector for ten years. She, like MP, had received most of her education outside Greece, in Australia. She had taught for seven years in foreign language frontisteria prior to her appointment in the state sector. SH was interviewed only once and the interview was conducted in English (her native language) and then the tape-recorded interview was transcribed. Due to the fact that SH agreed to be interviewed only once, I attempted to ask her the most critical questions I had posed to the other three EFL participants. SH's interview showed that there was nothing much new I could elicit from EFL teachers, that is, the data collection had reached a *saturation point* regarding the findings on the EFL group.

6.1.2 The non- EFL group

The reason that non-EFL teachers, a teacher trainer, KK and SH's headmistress, and the director of the Local Educational Authority, were included in the study, was to get a more rounded picture of the perceptions that prevailed in the state education domain concerning the status of English language teachers and their subject. The maths and Greek language teachers were chosen on the basis that their insights

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[13] " the logic of triangulation says that you can use different methods, or data sources, to investigate the same phenomena, and that in the process you can judge the efficacy or validity of the different

would be different from those of other teachers, since their subjects were valued and as such they enjoyed high status – contrary to our EFL participants, whose subject was degraded and who consequently were regarded as 'second class' teachers. Interviews with the director of the Local Educational Authority, the headmistress, and the two non-EFL teachers were carried out in Greek, which were then transcribed and translated. The teacher trainer, being Australian, chose to use her native language, English, to be interviewed.

The teacher trainer

The teacher trainer was chosen on the grounds that she knew quite a lot about EFL teachers in Greece, as she occasionally gave seminars both to public school and foreign language frontisteria teachers. What is more, she had contacts with quite a few public school teachers as she, at the time of my research, was President of TESOL Greece.

The director of the Local Education Authority

The director of the Local Education Authority – the person who allowed me to get in touch with most of the EFL teachers – was an ex-religion teacher who had also served as a headmaster for many years prior to his appointment as director. The reason he was chosen for the study was that due to the positions he had held, he had extensive experience in how teachers function.

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methods and sources by comparing the products" (Mason, 1996, p. 148).

The headmistress

The headmistress was KK and SH's headteacher. She was chosen on the basis that the information she would give me could be compared to KK and SH's accounts. What is more, I thought that her participation in the study would allow more insight into the way the head of the two EFL participants perceived the teaching of English in the state school and into the teachers' performance/motivation.

The maths teacher

The maths teacher was currently serving as an administrator at the time that the study was carried out. She was chosen on the grounds that from her position she would have a very different perspective regarding EFL state school teachers, thus contributing a different angle to the study. Furthermore, because of her position I felt that she might be more aware of EFL teachers' personal and teaching needs.

The Greek language teacher

The Greek language teacher was selected on the basis that (i) she had been working for the state sector for more than 25 years, therefore she had quite broad experience of how EFL teachers function within the state school context, and (ii) being a mother of two boys who were actively involved in foreign language learning, she must have formed an opinion regarding EFL teaching from a parent's perspective.

6.2 Ethical considerations

Safeguarding the participants' interests and ensuring the authenticity of the research are two major concerns of a qualitative researcher. Accordingly, provisions were made so that this study maintained its authenticity, while our participants' anonymity was secured and promised. Thus, when a participant was contacted and arrangements were made for an interview to take place on a day and at a time of their convenience, I employed the following safeguards:

- I made sure that their participation in the study was altogether voluntary,
- I assured the participants that the information they would give me would be strictly confidential and their anonymity would be maintained forever,
- I articulated verbally the purpose of the research, giving them a complete picture of how the data would be used and what I anticipated to derive from it, and made sure they comprehended fully what I said,
- I verbalised that my research was carried out in order to complete a requirement for the drawing up of my dissertation,
- I assured the interviewees that their interests, wishes, and rights were ensured regarding the reporting of the data,
- I obtained written consents from the interviewees before the start of the interviews.

6.3 Interviews

The interviews were carried out off-site in a congenial social environment in order to reduce bias deriving from researcher effects on the site. The interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. They were tape-recorded, transcribed verbatim and

translated when they were in Greek. Techniques of semi-structured interviewing were used both in the initial set of interviews and the follow-ups.

In order to investigate my research problem, I developed a set of questions that were topic-centred, focusing on the factors that are thought to influence EFL teacher motivation. The questions were tested in a pilot study, which was carried out between September 1999 and October 1999 with seven EFL high school teachers, as mentioned earlier.

Based on the responses I collected from the pilot study, I reformulated the set of questions and set out to generate data from the sample of teachers that were willing to give a series of interviews. The interviews were carried out in three phases (i) the reconnaissance phase, which lasted around 5 minutes, (ii) the active phase, which was the time when targeted questions were asked, and (iii) the reactive phase, which pertains to seeking clarification (Canon, 1998). The data elicitation was conducted between January 2000 and December 2001. An illustration of one interview guide is presented in Table 6.2. It is the interview schedule for KK's – the first participant's – first interview.

Table 6.2 Interview Guide for KK's First Interview:

1. What influenced you to become a teacher?
2. Were there any teachers in your family?
3. What do you remember of your favourite teacher?
4. What do you like about teaching?
5. Could you please list some aspects of teaching that are rewarding to you in the state school?
6. Are there any negative aspects about teaching in the state school?
7. What roles do you think a teacher should play in the classroom – that of a facilitator or that of an orchestrator?
8. What do you spend most of your time on in the classroom?

9. Do you diverge from the set text in response to students' needs? Give an example.
10. How do you feel about the material you are teaching presently?
11. What do you do to make your teaching more meaningful and more flexible when materials are not those you would like to teach?
12. What changes do you make in order to make your profession more appealing to practise?
13. Are there changes you would like to make?
14. In what ways could your teaching practice become easier if you were supported by the:

    parents' association,

    school advisor,

    administrative staff, and

    your colleagues.
15. Is your classroom environment favourable to you?
16. Is your status within the school good?
17. Do you think that only you are responsible for the students' learning process?
18. Do you think that students also share the responsibility for their learning?
19. If students are responsible in what ways can you help them learn?
20. What techniques do you use to learn the personal needs of your students?
21. How does this knowledge help you with your teaching?
22. What do you do to show them a good model of teacher? Do you:

    model excitement and enthusiasm about various subjects;

    model expertise;

    model and instruct the value and benefits of the learning process?
23. Do you think that your students are motivated to learn? If yes, how do you feel about their being motivated? If no, what feelings do you experience?
24. Can you think of some reasons that your students are not motivated to learn?
25. Do you think it is within your power to change their attitude towards learning the foreign language you are teaching them? If yes, what do you do to change their attitudes?
26. What is your attitude towards the non-motivated students?
27. How does that affect your teaching?

28. How do you think you would feel if you could contribute to the students' positive growth and development? 29. Do you think it is important to attend seminars and /or teacher groups where problems are discussed?

Because semi-structured interviews are flexible, the interview guide was not strictly adhered to. Thus, questions varied depending on the flow of the interview, but I made sure that the main aspects of the research question were covered. As presented in the table above, the initial interview guide comprised questions that provided me with an overview of the respondents' background, such as working experience, the reason they chose to become a teacher and how they perceived themselves as teachers within the educational system they were working in. Questions on whether they received any kind of support from the administration, colleagues and the school advisors were asked. In the follow-up interviews, questions were posed regarding the participants' relationship with the administration, their colleagues and their students, while at the same time I tried to find out how the administration and their colleagues perceived EFL teachers in the state sector. Teachers were also asked whether they were given feedback, and in cases where their answer was negative, they were asked whether they thought it was necessary that they were given feedback. Access to teaching aids was another question. In addition, questions that allowed them to express underlying factors that inhibit their enthusiasm to teach were asked. They were also urged to suggest changes that would improve their teaching conditions.

The follow-up questions were partly centred on events since the previous meeting and partly concerned with the clarification of points that were brought up in the previous interviews, but were not clear. My aim was to find a pattern of the real

motivational issues behind their detailed account. A representative question that was asked in the follow-up interview with KK is: "In the previous interview you repeated two expressions *'Lack of freedom'*, *'I feel trapped'* – What exactly did you imply? What exactly are you looking for?"

The second set of interviewees, that is, the headmistress, the teacher trainer, the director of the Local Educational Authority and the two non-EFL teachers were asked a different set of questions. These interview questions focused on issues such as whether English should be taught in the state sector considering that it is devalued by pupils and the system in general. Another question was: "If frontisteria were banned, would things be different regarding the subject of English in the state school?" They were then asked to suggest changes they thought would enhance the effectiveness of English language learning. Questions as to how they and their students perceived EFL teachers and how they visualised a motivated EFL teacher were also asked. If the interviewee was a parent, then his/her opinion was asked concerning their children's English classes. The interviews in the Appendix include the exact wording of all the questions posed.

The teacher trainer was asked about the general commitment, disposition, motivation and effectiveness of EFL teachers in the state sector. She was also asked about the training EFL teachers received both at the university and in-service. She was asked to make suggestions as to changes she would implement to promote English language learning, and whether she thought the state sector could take on full responsibility for foreign language education. Furthermore, she was asked to give her opinion of her daughter's English language classes and teacher, who happened to be KK, one of the participants in this study.

6.4 Data analysis

As was mentioned in Chapter 5, after transcribing the interviews and translating the ones conducted in Greek the generated data was sorted and organised in an index tree using a custom-designed computer software package, *'QSR NUD*IST (N4)'*. The decision to choose NUD*IST was based on the fact that at the time I set out to do my analysis this was the best-known computer software available to use for qualitative data analysis. 'NVivo', which is a newer computer software package developed by the same company, appeared on the scene halfway through my research project, but because it followed more or less the same analytical principles as NUD*IST, I decided to adhere to NUD*IST.

In accordance with the considerations outlined in the previous chapter, the coding and thematising of the data was carried out through the identification of *themes* using the literature map or based on a set of key words that were derived from the transcripts. The fact that the data was thematised in different ways was believed, following Cannon (1998), to be a strength rather than a weakness.

Because the index system was shaped and re-shaped repeatedly during the thematising/coding stage, the interpretive methodology was of an *organic nature* (Cannon, 1998). Taking into account the fact that there is high penalty to be paid for a sloppy index construction, the task of indexing was carried out with particular care. A coding frame was developed reflecting the theoretical schema of teacher motivation, and inferences were made from a careful reading of all interview transcripts. The coding frame was used to attach codes to segments of text in the interview transcripts, and the data was then interpreted following the procedures developed by grounded theory, as there was likely to be a *software design impact* on the analysis (see the discussion of this issue in the previous chapter). I aimed at

organising my conceptual categories hierarchically, and the presentation of hierarchical relations *among* codes and text suggested a strong grounded theory influence. Following is a detailed description of the various phases of the analytical procedure using NUD*IST.

6.4.1 The analytical procedure

Taking into account Weitzman's (2000) statement that (1) computer software can help competent researchers to do "more rigorous, consistent, and thorough analysis than they otherwise might" (p. 817) and also (2) di Gregorio's (1997/1998) advice that novice qualitative researchers really need to get to grips with the software package they will be using in order to gain its full potential, I was determined to master an advanced level of the use of NUD*IST. Therefore, my supervisor and I decided that it was important that I attend a structured course that would enable me to have a better understanding of the capabilities and the 'nuts and bolts' of the software.

At the time I embarked on my research programme Nottingham University did not offer such a course so I enrolled in a distance training programme recommended by the official QSR support service. This course was organised by the "Tagg Oram Partnership" and led by Dr Clare Tagg, an international expert of qualitative analytical softwares. She is an advisor to the Strategies in Qualitative Research conference series at London University Institute of Education and is the author of several research papers (e.g. Tagg, 2002)). With the help of a *'Lesson Guide'* and an *'Exercise Book'* (Tagg, 1997, 1999) the course made me become familiar with the package: Besides teaching the use of the various tools for managing

the data, it also introduced the different sophisticated retrieval combinations that allow researchers to look at the data from different angles.

Armed with this knowledge I started to analyse my data, adopting the principles of grounded theory discussed in detail in Chapter 5. Accordingly, the analysis consisted of three phases: (1) *open coding*, (2) *axial coding*, and (3) *selective coding*.

Phase 1: Open coding

My first attempt to code my data involved *'first level coding'*, that is, the detection, the naming and categorisation of the different themes that surfaced from the dataset. The outcome of this initial coding phase was the production of a large number of *nodes* (a total of 280) – this large quantity was not only difficult to manage, but it did not allow me either to uncover the hidden factors that motivated and/or demotivated Greek state school EFL teachers. A small illustrative sample of nodes connected to 'feedback', taken from the initial coding phase, is presented in table 6.3.

Table 6.3. Illustrative subsample of the node list of the initial coding phase.

(...)

- Colleague feedback
- Student feedback
- Administrative feedback
- Senior teacher feedback
- Measurement performance feedback
- Reflective feedback

(...)

It is worth noting here that at this stage I seem to have fallen into the so-called *'coding trap'*, as at this initial stage I tended to excessively code every bit of the dataset. The constructive aspect of this phase was, however, that I started to write extensive *memos*. These memos, which were organically incorporated in my project since NUD*IST offered an integrated memo-writing facility, stored my ideas, insights, interpretations and my growing understanding of the data. The consistent and continuous use of these memos proved to be hugely beneficial in the writing-up phase.

As the analysis proceeded and my knowledge of the teacher motivation phenomena expanded, I began to see trends in the data which led to the second phase of the data analysis.

Phase 2: Axial coding

This phase allowed me to generate a second level of coding, known in grounded theory as *axial coding* (see Chapter 5). The coding at this stage was more powerful because some deep reflection was involved, as I needed to create umbrella categories which would incorporate subcategories. This was the phase when the first *hierarchical tree* was generated. The different themes I came up with in the initial coding phase were refined, developed and interconnected, thereby building up a dense texture of relationships around the core categories. This phase served as a stepping stone to the reorganisation of my data. The outcome of this phase was that the number of nodes decreased to 62 which made the dataset manageable. The sample of nodes presented in Table 6.3 are used to show in Table 6.4 how an umbrella category and its subcategories were developed into a hierarchical tree.

Table 6.3. Illustrative sample of the 'hierarchical tree' from Phase 2, including a node and six 'children'

(...)

19 SOURCES OF FEEDBACK

- 19.1 Colleague feedback
- 19.2 Student feedback
- 19.3 Administrative feedback
- 19.4 Senior teacher feedback
- 19.5 Measurement performance feedback
- 19.6 Reflective feedback

20 ...

Phase 3: Selective coding

As the research progressed and I became more familiar with both the literature and the data, I felt that I needed further expert input in helping me to 'theorise' the data and thus develop an overall pattern representing the whole picture. It was then that I consulted one of the world's leading computer-assisted qualitative data analysis experts, Dr Pat Bazeley. Dr Bazeley is one of the most senior official trainers associated with QSR, and has been closely involved in the development of theories regarding the best use of qualitative analysis computer software (e.g. Bazeley, 2002). Her main interest involves the exploration of ways in which qualitative software can be used in combination with statistical software to assist integrated analysis.

As a result of this consultation, I came to the conclusion that Dörnyei's (2001a) theoretical conceptualisation of teacher motivation could be used to fit the categories I generated in a more contained way. This conceptualisation allowed me

to tie all the categories together and to specify the relationships between them. Thus, in this phase the *integration* of categories was put into effect, which reflects the *selective coding* phase within grounded theory (see Chapter 5). Following Dörnyei's taxonomy, the refined categories illustrated in Table 6.4 were placed under the final umbrella category *"school specific factors"*. These are illustrated in table 6.5.

Table 6.5. Illustrative sample of the final 'hierarchical tree' from Phase 3

3 School specific factors

- 3.1 Sources of feedback
- 3.2 Support structures
- 3.3 Collaboration
- 3.4 School climate
- 3.5 Class size
- 3.6 Mixed ability classes
- 3.7 Discipline problems
- 3.8 Facilities and resources

It is worth noting here that the categories that were finally developed in the third phase were used as a means to organise the data analysis chapters of this thesis; in other words, the subheadings of the analysis chapters coincide with the *nodes* and *'children'* of the final tree hierarchy.

Reliability checks

Given the uttermost significance of reliability in qualitative research – this is after all which convinces both the readers and, most importantly, the researchers themselves

as to whether the findings of an inquiry are worth taking seriously or not – I applied three types of *reliability checks* during the analysis process:

(1) *My own reliability check:* The first reliability check was carried out by myself. The strategy I used involved first of all to leave my data 'rest' for four months after I completed *axial coding*. The reason for this interval was that I wanted to go back to it in a more 'detached' attitude so that I could see whether I would come up with different categories from the ones I had generated during the second phase. The next step was to get a chunk of the dataset from one of the interviews and recode it 'blind', that is, without seeing the initial codes. The newly coded categories where then compared with the original coding and I was more than relieved to find that the match was satisfactory: the codes I came up with when doing the reliability check did not deviate from the ones that I produced in the axial coding phase.

(2) *A qualitative researcher's reliability check:* Being aware that I needed also to perform an inter-rater reliability check, I approached an experienced qualitative researcher at the Nottingham University School of Education, Dr. Mark Dale. After advising me on certain matters regarding my research, he carried out the second type of reliability check by recoding a chunk of my data. The positive result of this reliability check was that the two sets of codes were very similar, which reassured both of us.

(3) *A Greek colleague's reliability check:* The final reliability check was carried out by a lecturer at the University of Athens, Dr Eleni Manolopoulou-Sergi, who was

both knowledgeable in the area of motivation and the Greek context (as her PhD dissertation concerned the motivational disposition of Greek learners of English). The reason I felt that I needed this additional check was the fact that I wanted to make sure that the more context-sensitive categorisations were also accurate. Like Dr Dale, she was also given a chunk of data and again it was found that my and her coding was very similar.

The three reliability checks confirmed to me that my stepwise analysis was sound and increased the overall credibility of the results. I felt that I was ready to start interpreting and summarising my findings.

Chapter 7: The intrinsic component

Introduction

Chapter 7 and the consecutive three chapters will deal with the analysis of the dataset, aiming at identifying and documenting various motivational factors that affect teacher motivation. In order to group the various themes in broader dimensions, I have adopted a classification of teacher motivational aspects from Dörnyei's (2001a, pp. 157-158) book, comprising the following four themes: the *intrinsic component*, *contextual influences*, the *temporal axis* and the *aspect of fragility*. The reason I used Dörnyei's (2001a) teacher motivation construct is that it provided a logical sequence for the significant motivational aspects of teacher motivation. However, there is a slight modification in the application of the dimensions as the *aspect of fragility* – which is a separate aspect in Dörnyei's teacher motivation construct – is not discussed in an individual chapter, as is the case with the other dimensions. Instead, the aspect of fragility is identified when issues like the absence of autonomy and recognition, insufficient challenge and self-efficacy and an inadequate career structure are tackled.

In Chapter 7, I will address the intrinsic component of teacher motivation by analysing the various motivational issues which relate to the inherent attraction to and enjoyment of teaching, also touching upon the participants' initial choice to become a teacher and their decision to join the state sector. In addition, I will attempt to illustrate the issue of 'purposelessness', a distinct emerging theme in the dataset with a strong influence on the participants' motivation.

The following two chapters, Chapters 8-9, will focus on the contextual influences on teacher motivation. This theme is divided into two different dimensions, one pertaining to the *macro-contextual* influences and the other to the *micro-contextual* influences, thus one chapter is devoted to each. Thus, in Chapter 8, I will deal with the macro-contextual factors, namely the general work ethos which prevails at the societal level. Issues such as the value of English as a school subject, insufficient teaching time, the introduction of a state school certificate, the impact of students' attitudes on EFL teachers, the value of EFL teachers in the state sector, salary, job security and finally advancement prospects will be dealt with in detail.

Chapter 9 will examine the micro-contextual factors, particularly the organisational climate of the schools in which the participants of this study worked and the characteristics of the classroom environment. Specifically, themes related to the school climate, collaboration, rapport with students, class size, mixed ability classes, discipline problems, facilities and resources, support structures, sources of feedback, recognition and sense of accomplishment will be discussed.

Finally, Chapter 10 will touch on the time element of the motivation to teach, which is a lifelong process. The temporal axis of teacher motivation is examined through an annotated longitudinal study carried out from the very start of the research resulting in one of the participants' 'story'.

7.1 Initial decision to become a teacher

Studies conducted to explore teacher motivation show that the main reasons for deciding to become a teacher can be divided into three main areas (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000):

- *altruistic*, which relates to the teachers' desire to help children succeed and by extension society,
- *intrinsic*, which relates to teaching itself,
- *extrinsic*, which relates to aspects that are not inherent in the job itself.

Most of the interview data collected concerns the first of these areas, that is, the teachers' desire to educate the young, a finding that coincides with those of Dinham and Scott in the Teacher 2000 Project (Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000a, 2000b) as well as Pennington's (1995) and Nias's (1981) studies.

The dataset revealed that our EFL teachers aspired to equipping the new generation with something that would be of use to them. KK's account reflects this well:

> *in those days, we used to think in a more romantic way, I firstly liked the youth, the young people, secondly, the children. When I say the youth, I include the senior high school students too, and the ages in between, and the very young children. ... I like teaching them English. I felt that whatever mentality, perceptions they might have English will come to be handy, in their future lives both practically, for their profession, their studies and their communication with people. It is a means of contact with other cultures. I, therefore, felt that this subject as a subject could really be the most useful of all* [subjects]. *I thus, felt that, as a teacher I could get across something useful, benefiting and pleasant...*

This personal account, together with those of the other EFL teachers, who have also expressed identical feelings to the ones articulated by KK, confirms the

claim commonly reported in the literature that EFL teachers typically set out on their careers being intrinsically motivated.

7.1.1 The erosion of the initial intrinsic interest

The type of dataset used for this study gave me the opportunity to investigate the extent to which my participants' intrinsic motivation was sustained during their teaching practice. As was argued in Chapter 4, teachers traditionally anticipate receiving two types of intrinsic rewards, one pertaining to the *educational process* and the other relating to the *subject matter* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). My findings showed that the EFL participants are often deprived of both types of rewards, as three out of the four subjects reported that their teaching had no impact on student learning, which means that they did not take pleasure in the *educational process*.

Furthermore, because the subject of English in the state school is devalued, as pointed out in Chapter 1, EFL teachers' initial value of their subject seems to be undermined. KK revealed that English in the state sector did not bear the significance she attributed to it and this had a negative effect on her teaching practice:

> *it* [English] *is a second class subject. This subject in particular has been degraded. It is even more degraded than the other subjects. This implies that the interest of the school and the administrative staff and in general of all my superiors, but also of the students and of their parents for a really substantial and effective* [English] *lesson is minimal to non-existent...*

This implies that the participants were deprived of the feeling that they were dealing with a valued field, which would subsequently activate their interest in constantly incorporating new information to enhance their professional skills and knowledge. This would seem to suggest they did not enjoy the *subject matter* either, which signifies that their initial intrinsic motivation, which was based on their desire to contribute to their students' English language learning, was deterred in the course of their practice.

The decline of our participants' motivation was made apparent in MP, as the demotivation phase actually started while this study was in the process of data collection. MP, as stated in Chapter 6, was chosen, as the *deviant case*. Her choice to become a teacher, like that of the other teachers in this study, was associated with intrinsic motivation. However, the aspect that made her distinguishable from her colleagues was that she, in contrast to her colleagues, did manage to enjoy the two types of intrinsic rewards, that is, the *educational process* and *the subject matter*. Her ability to experience these rewards had to do with her self-efficacy, a facet which will be discussed in detail later on in this section.

Unfortunately, her motivation did not last long, as she, like her other colleagues, started to experience a drop in her enthusiasm for teaching. She attributed her depression to the fact that she thought she was losing her stamina to persevere at teaching as 'efficiently' as possible in the face of the adverse contextual influences. She basically refused to be interviewed for the fourth sequential interview because of the depression she felt.

In contexts other than the state sector, teachers in such instances would normally resign and this in order to find a job that would allow them to be intrinsically satisfied. This is not, however, the case in this context, as joining the

state sector is beneficial in itself. In Greece a lifelong dream comes true if an individual is offered a post in the state sector, as was discussed in Chapter 1, since it is tenure for life, a factor that has been found to contribute to job satisfaction. This implies that teachers are reluctant to give up their job, because in effect, it would mean throwing away their luck. This is reflected, although not directly stated, in the following passage:

> [MP:] *I think I would give it a few more years and see* [before I consider doing something about the situation I am in], *and try again, but I do feel that things will change. I seriously hope so. Maybe I am too optimistic ... I feel and hope that things will change. If they don't, well you can ask me the same question like in five years time.* (laughter) *Well, I couldn't see myself doing anything else. Eh, I don't know. Things can't remain the way they are. Definitely they can't.*

7.1.2 'To be or not to be in the state sector...'

As described in Chapter 1, the majority of EFL teachers work for the private sector for several years before they are appointed to the state sector[14]. Here they are initially enthusiastic since a lifelong dream has been fulfilled. However, as time goes by this enthusiasm fades away and the adverse teaching conditions take their toll.

From our participants' accounts it was obvious that they were not satisfied with their choice to join the state sector. Still, when they were asked why they chose to remain in the state sector they reported that they had no other choice, since there is

[14] Graduates from universities were normally put on a waiting list for their turn to be appointed before the reform in 1998. The system of appointments since then has been changed, as candidates who

so much exploitation and insecurity in the private sector. KK's comment is quite revealing:

> *With regards to the job security, if you take into consideration that all us* [English language teachers] *have been through the same stages, that is, we have been through the private language schools, the private schools and finally succeeded in getting a post in the public sector, you cannot say that we all wanted to leave one sector for the other. Simply, we all got a taste of the exploitation that exists, the exploitation in the private sector...*

Thus, our participants seemed to have readily accepted the fact that their jobs were not that challenging and self-actualising, and they counterbalanced this shortcoming with the positive aspect that they had a job that offered them security[15] and a monthly salary no matter how hard they worked. This point is reflected in the quotes taken from the interviews conducted with the director of the Local Education Authority and one of the non-EFL teachers.

> [Director of the Local Education Authority]: *I consider people who work for the state sector secure. A month comes or goes by and they get their salary no matter what they did, no matter what they have offered, even if they are absent for many days.*

would like to become teachers are required to take exams, and if they are successful then they are offered a post provided there is a vacancy somewhere.

[15] The number of English language teachers-to-be who aspired to join the state sector in the 2000 exam rose to 3,256 for 12 posts (Exousia, 2000), a figure which shows how attractive it is for an individual to join the state sector.

[Greek language teacher]: … *without any hindrance they get a rise in their salary.*[16] *Any teacher can get the highest salary without having done anything special so why should one bother to improve herself/himself? They consider it* [the school] *as a place that they can go and receive their salary on the 1st and the 16th of each month. There is no control over the teachers whatsoever…*

In Chapter 3 it was discussed that *self-actualisation* (Maslow, 1970), is a need which, if fulfilled, can be an important motivating factor. Before joining the state sector, most of the EFL participants were unaware that some of their basic needs would not be met, which deprived them of the feeling of self-actualisation, sense of achievement and responsibility, and consequently had a negative impact on their psychological disposition and motivation. The exchange of their self-actualisation, sense of achievement and responsibility for a regular full paying job that secured their future, is reflected in the following quote taken from KK's interview:

> *In the private language school where I wanted to remain, I had been appointed on an annual contract, because they had annual contracts, that is, they employed us in October and dismissed us in May. What is more, the wages were very low, and there is a great deal of exploitation. In the public sector the salary is much better and there is the advantage of being permanent in the position you are at, although this is going to be changed.*

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[16] This promotion is automatic and is based on the years that the teacher has been offering his/her services.

When I asked her whether she would choose the private or the state sector if the pay and job security were the same, she replied that she would opt for the private sector. The reason she gave was that in the private sector her teaching would have an impact on students' learning, which implies that she would experience achievement, a key internal motivator factor (Herzberg et al., 1993) and by extension self-actualisation.

I: Supposing you could choose to work either in the public or private sector, having the same pay and insurance which would you choose to join and why?

KK: Well, I would not give it a second thought I would choose to join the private sector.

I: Why?

KK: Because there, in some language schools they appreciate your effort of being better in your field, of offering something more. Here, on the contrary, in the public sector they don't care. You have to appear that you have covered the syllabus. All of them send their children to the private language schools to learn English. They [the management in the public sector] *do not care if you teach them something extra...*

Furthermore, most of our participants pointed out that teaching in the private sector would allow them to have goals to achieve. These goals related to their students' acquisition of the First Certificate and/or the Certificate of Proficiency issued by the University of Cambridge or Michigan University. Had our EFL teachers been given the opportunity to prepare their students for a certificate then this, as they reported, would have given them a sense of purpose, which is in

accordance with Locke and Latham's (1990a) argument that *goal-setting* is a regulator of people's actions, as stated in Chapter 2.

It seems, therefore, that the teachers did not perceive their job as meaningful and this is because they did not experience *task significance,* a component that characterises *experienced meaningfulness* (Hackman, 1987), as was discussed in Chapter 3. Their motivation decreased due to the absence of goals, which are believed to have a strong impact on the commencement and focus of either self-regulatory or volitional activities (Kanfer, 1992) and subsequently on motivation.

MP, who also joined the state sector out of necessity after being forced to close down her *frontisterio,* confirmed that she was unaware of the conditions that she would be facing and in order to avoid the situation she tried to get a transfer abroad. The following quote illustrates her feelings about having to work for the state sector:

> *I told you that I am not very happy about how things run in Greece and* [especially] *the school system.* [This is why] *I have applied to go abroad and teach. Okay and I am waiting for this transfer now. If it doesn't come through, I don't know (laughter) I'll jump off the balcony or something. Eh, no, so I am thinking of going abroad. If things don't change in this country then it is a very difficult thing. ...If I get a transfer, it will be in January because I have applied for a transfer to South Africa, okay, because that is my home town. And hopefully, hopefully I will get a teaching position there, which I pray, truly I pray everyday because I mean I do need something more,* [something more] *challenging in my life. Because if I don't?! I don't even dare think*

about it! I don't dare think about it, I can't. I can't move in that direction seriously.

Still, it is amazing that despite the participants' overt dissatisfaction regarding the bad teaching conditions, which could have affected them to the degree that they would decide to abandon teaching altogether, when asked whether they would give up their job and do something different, they all stated that teaching was the job cut out for them. This proves the universal that "work and self are not readily separable" (Fraser et al. 1998, p. 70) in the teaching profession. The following quotation taken from KK's interview exemplifies the point made above:

It would be very difficult for me to find to do something that would interest me, to do something more interesting. I don't think I would have liked to work in an office.... I wouldn't like to work as an employee in an office and have peers near me and try to collaborate with them. I would say that I am good at communicating with children and therefore if I had to change my job I would do something that would be similar [to teaching]*; something that would involve young people....*

7.2 Purposelessness

In Chapter 3, we saw that one of the psychological states that significantly influences an employee's motivation and satisfaction is the *experienced responsibility*, that is, the responsibility and accountability employees experience while carrying out their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). It was also argued there that employees would like to be held accountable but only on the condition that they have been trained

sufficiently and have been given some kind of control and scheduling (Herzberg et al., 1993).

In line with this, two of our participants' accounts revealed that they considered their jobs to be meaningless and this was because they felt that they were deprived of the responsibility to contribute to their students' language learning, since English language instruction had in effect been handed over to frontisteria. HM's comment is illustrative:

> *...the job in the private sector is more responsible* [for the EFL teacher]. *It is more responsible because firstly students, who attend the frontisteria in Greece, attend them so that they can acquire a certificate. Therefore, you have certain aims when you teach, whereas in the state you don't aim at anything. You teach just to teach. Whereas in the private sector there is a certain aim. The students come to the frontisteria to attend the different levels until they get to the level when they are able to take the exams. Therefore, the job requires you to be more responsible. You can't just teach just for the sake of teaching and what is more, a thing which is important – they check on us and you can't just sit back doing nothing. You are accountable, you are even afraid that you might lose your position. That is because if a student or a parent complains to the headmaster that teacher X doesn't teach well and they don't like him they give him the sack. Whereas in the state sector this doesn't happen and if it does then it is very rare...*

Furthermore, these two participants were also convinced that there was no hope that they would ever be given any responsibility in the future "*because the system of the frontisteria will never change*", as KK reported. This insinuates that the

deprivation of responsibility has been a continuous source of demotivation for them, as they were deprived of one of the main features that establish whether a task is important enough to be carried out or not.

Nevertheless, the few occurrences when students showed interest in the lessons were indeed satisfying and gave the participants the opportunity to feel that their job was meaningful indeed. Unfortunately, this only happened rarely because as HM pointed out, EFL teachers are confronted, as a rule, with instances when they are prepared to teach a certain point and students react to the lesson by saying:

> *they already know* [the point to be taught] *because they have been taught those things in the frontisterio, then I say to myself, how can I put it, you don't feel like teaching them. I personally think that the most important reason that a teacher wants to teach is when the students are interested in learning, which is when I give my best self.*

On the contrary, having realised that 'purposelessness' would lead her to a dead end, MP applied a different approach to the one taken by her colleagues. She actually tried to see what her students' needs were and designed her lessons accordingly to suit these needs, which seems to have allowed her to overcome this feeling of purposelessness:

> *...if I was heading their way I think... I wouldn't be developing as a person or as a teacher, or as a professional...*

Thus, MP must have developed an 'immune system' against the feeling of purposelessness, which in fact seemed to have allowed her to overcome the lack of autonomy that the other participants experienced by ignoring the curricula constraints, (as will be discussed next). The question then here is what made MP

different from the others? Could it be her self-confidence or her teaching efficacy? Both of these elements must have contributed to her ability to rise above the feeling of insecurity EFL teachers normally experience, because her effort to resist the mentality of 'purposeleness' is commendable:

> *What I see is that lots of English teachers, okay, feel sort of that the majority of work is done by the frontisteria, so what? The students know their English already. And some of them better than others or whatever, they will go to the frontisteria so we* [teachers, who are not fighting this attitude] *don't even have to try and you know, so what? They have this kind of attitude that really annoys me. You can always change* [things] *and you can always adjust the level in the classroom and you can always make each and every one of them motivated and do something.*

Indeed, MP tried to feel responsible for her teaching, which is in stark contrast to the other subjects' attitudes toward responsibility. The fact that she undertook some kind of responsibility concerning the teaching of English in the state school enabled her to feel that her job was meaningful, a psychological state that critically influenced her motivation and satisfaction. Of course, in order to experience meaningfulness and responsibility in her job, she had to put in a considerable amount of work and effort, which many if not most, other EFL state school teachers typically avoid.

7.3 Autonomy

The EFL teachers' personal accounts that they were satisfied with teaching when they felt autonomous, reflect the argument made in Chapter 4, namely that autonomy plays a significant role in teacher motivation. This, in particular, was made explicit by KK, who reported that she felt satisfied at the beginning of the school year, before course-books were given to the students and before she started to feel that she had to follow her colleagues' pace and teaching approach, even if this was not directly imposed. The autonomy she had when no books were around and she felt she did not have to conform to her senior colleague, gave her the opportunity to teach her students what she thought was most appropriate, which allowed her to see some outcome from her teaching:

> *if I were to judge from the first days, the first month yes, they were such days* [satisfying], *that I dared to do something different and a very good atmosphere was created and the students seemed to be very pleased...and what is more their self-confidence rose because they had used their English more creatively and my own self-confidence* [rose] *even more, because there you are, I succeeded in taking another step in this job and I contributed.*

Thus, when KK experienced autonomy she made an effort to keep up effective teaching, which is in accordance with Deci et al.'s (1997) postulation that teachers whose *autonomy* is supported sustain good teaching. The inevitable deprivation of autonomy when the imposed books arrived, and the fact that she had to employ an approach that was not to her liking, made KK feel that she was stripped of task significance, which affected her immensely:

Because in this particular school, due to the fact, as I have already mentioned, that there is this senior English teacher, who changes the flow of things ...I realised that I had very limited scope... Instead of rushing the course book, which is a boring thing to do, as we would normally say [to ourselves and the students]*: "Let's see what is there in this unit? Oh, there is a text to read, there is a grammar point to cover and I gave you* [i.e. the students] *the rule, you did the exercises". Well, this is the worst thing I could do and of course this belongs to that very ancient method. What is it we called it at university? The structural approach. Nowadays, we have to move to other methods much more promoting, and surely the teacher must exploit something from all the methods. So that his/her job can be complete. And with a bit of effort despite the unfavourable conditions something could be achieved more than what it is done. This extra thing makes a difference to the students...they could in fact learn a lot in the classroom maybe not much, quantity wise. ... Because now that I have to cover a text as big as this* [shows me the length of an A4 page] *in a week, that is, in two sessions...I have to use the book and rush it.*

KK's case is a good example of how stifling teachers' autonomy has a detrimental effect on both teachers and students; it kills any kind of creativity on the part of the teacher and consequently results in a decrease in teacher motivation and student attention.

As we saw in Chapter 4, teaching is a profession that inherently allows some autonomy even if this is restricted to the classroom context. Given that teachers in Greece have no say over higher level decision-making (Pigiaki, 1999), the autonomy

they are allowed in the classroom context is what they are left with. This study revealed that this 'partial autonomy' was taken advantage of by only one of the participants. It was MP, the *deviant case*, who put to full use the autonomy she enjoyed in the classroom. The reason that the other teachers did not make use of this partial autonomy could be attributed to their inadequate teaching efficacy. In particular, our EFL teachers' inability to handle mixed ability classes could be attributed to their insufficient initial training and the lack of in-service training, two factors, which must have inhibited them from making the most of their limited freedom. Their insufficient teaching skills did not permit the employment of approaches that would promote effective teaching in mixed ability classes (the insufficient training teachers receive is discussed in a later section of this chapter).

However, the insight provided above was not perceived by the participants, as they attributed their teaching difficulties not to their inadequate training but to the mere fact that they were stripped of their autonomy. They pointed out that the restriction imposed by the Ministry of Education regarding the books they taught, was the main cause of the absence of autonomy. This nevertheless was not the whole picture, because their accounts were contradictory: on the one hand, they said that there was an extensive list of books from which teachers were allowed to choose a book to their liking, and on the other hand, they stated that they felt restricted by the imposed book. Even so, after a book was chosen, it was up to the teachers to make good use of the book. The EFL participants, the Greek language teacher and the teacher trainer's descriptions revealed that teachers tend to follow the book slavishly, which could be happening because they cannot manipulate the book in the most effective way – a fact that once again brings out the issue of their insufficient training.

As long as they continue to do that, Eleni, as long as they continue to just blindly follow the book then teaching won't be interesting for them. It's like a self-perpetuating rot! If they don't get out of it they'll keep on doing the same thing over and over again. You don't feel enthusiastic. It is amazing that by just doing one thing differently you have a positive reaction from the kids. It is amazing how it can fill you and think "Hah, that's good!" I mean they just do one thing. What's the point of just doing the same thing all the time, "Turn the pages, turn the pages. Shut up, shut up, turn the pages turn the pages, shut up, you didn't do your homework! Shut up, turn the pages, turn the pages" all day, every day! They do that! Why don't they want to find a way out?! I wouldn't know! (Teacher Trainer)

In order to rule out every source that might have inhibited their autonomy, I asked the EFL participants whether they were subjected to any kind of control regarding their adherence to the book. They all replied that there was no control – thus they could, if they had the competence, modify the book material according to their students' needs in order to make their teaching effective. MP, who as mentioned earlier, had teaching efficacy and personal efficacy, was able to sustain her motivation; her control over her teaching and the feeling of autonomy is exemplified in the following quote:

Who cares about the set curriculum? Who cares? I sort of, I take the liberty of doing exactly what I want. I mean of course I have, I sort of do a number of units that I have to cover, I can't cover two units. But the teacher last year, she did [cover only two units]. *Okay nobody checked anything so who cares. This year we did* [that is, covered] *like ten thousand more units, but units I choose in random order, you know*

things, topics that are more interesting than others of course next year if I am here I'll go back to those that we didn't do, but again I act more freely sort of...

7.4 Relatedness

As we saw in Chapter 4, *relatedness* is another vital factor that contributes to the enhancement of intrinsic motivation. Our EFL participants, except for HM, complained of loneliness, as communication and by extension collaboration with their colleagues was non-existent. KK and MP's comments reflected the absence of relatedness among colleagues:

KK: There are no ideas. How can you expect this lady [her senior colleague] *to have any ideas!!! She doesn't have any ideas, this colleague of mine she has not got any ideas about anything. I can't imagine myself starting a conversation with her!*

MP: Eh, how would I describe my relationship with them? Eh, formal to friendly. Okay with some of them it's a very sort of formal relationship and with some of them it is a friendlier one. My relationship with the other English language teacher is, you know there are two English teachers in the school, my self and this other teacher. She comes from Athens everyday. Eh, that's a rather difficult relationship in the sense that, eh, she sees things differently. I want to, how can I say this? I work in a completely different way than she does. Okay. Shall I say what she does and...?

I: Yes.

MP: She sort of walks into a classroom and she presents her unit or whatever it is or passage. She does translations in the classroom. And this is something I don't do. I work completely different, in a completely different way. Eh, I do pair work I do things. Speaking activities lots of things like that, okay. Students are involved in doing what they want. I prepare my lessons a lot etc. Eh, she doesn't seem to think that way, okay, which means for example now she has reached unit 40 something and I am in unit 20 because I have done other things, okay, and a lot of revision work etc so that things can sink into their minds and you know, eh, she just marches on. Okay. We just can't communicate and that's a very difficult thing, okay, and you don't get any support from that person. We just can't seem to get down and you know discuss things in a normal way.

Warm collegial relationships among colleagues are believed to enhance commitment. The absence of relatedness and by extension of collaboration in our context suggests that it is no wonder our EFL participants' commitment was low or difficult to sustain, particularly in the kind of environment they were required to work in. In fact, the contemptuous treatment our participants reported they received from their other colleagues made their working environment quite unfavourable, which obviously had a negative impact on their intrinsic motivation. When asked why they thought their colleagues treated them disrespectfully, they explained that this was happening because their colleagues looked down on the subject of English, which in turn affected their disposition towards the EFL teachers:

I assume that, certainly, the teachers who teach Greek and Maths feel exalted. In the senior high school there is an apparent difference you

are even less than a second class teacher, due to the fact that even your subject is a second class subject and this [is the kind of] *attitude you are more likely to receive*...(KK)

This condition has extensive implications on the teachers' practice because relatedness is extended to the opportunities given to teachers to collaborate with their colleagues, as was argued in Chapter 4. Hence, in the case of Greek state EFL teachers, the contempt displayed by their colleagues signifies that any prospect for collaboration between teachers of different subjects is annihilated. Taking this point one step further, one can infer that these EFL teachers' intrinsic motivation is impaired from yet another angle, thus contributing to the general crumbling of their intrinsic motivation.

7.5 Self-efficacy

As we saw in Chapter 2, individuals choose to perform actions depending on their self-efficacy, that is, the beliefs they have regarding their capabilities to organise and execute these actions. By the same token, as discussed in Section 4.3.1, teachers' self-efficacy is an important mediator in teacher motivation and consequently in student achievement. However, teachers' self-efficacy has been proven to be susceptible to various factors that reduce it, namely the "inadequate salaries, status panic, lack of collegial and administrative support, uncertainty and powerlessness" (Ashton, 1985, p. 157).

The findings of this study verified that some of the above-mentioned conditions did indeed contribute to the weakening of the participants' self-efficacy, while at the same time a further element was identified to greatly affect their self-

efficacy. This additional condition pertained to the fatalistic attitude two of our four EFL participants had implicitly adopted, that is, the assumption that their students did not learn English in the state school, but only in the frontestiria, as mentioned earlier. As Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) claim, "efficacy includes the teacher's rejection of fatalism" (p. 243) – an action that these two participants never took. On the other hand, there was MP, who explicitly expressed she had a lot to offer students despite the prevalent mentality that English is not learnt at state schools, but only in the frontisteria. The following quote illustrates her belief:

> *I: You mentioned that the students tend to undervalue the subject of English either because it does not count in their final assessment to enter the tertiary level or because they learn the language in the frontisteria. Do you see any meaning in teaching them in the state sector, bearing in mind the indifferent attitude students have?*
>
> *MP: Okay. Of course there is. I mean you can always do more things, I mean, okay, maybe they know all the grammatical items maybe they know how to use this and they know how to use that* [meaning they know how to use different structures]. *You could always reinforce that* [the structures]. *There are other things to...*
>
> *I: Supplement?*
>
> *MP: Exactly.*
>
> *I: But it is the attitude, like: "Since I am learning things at the frontisterio there is no need for me to do the work".*
>
> *MP: Okay, but it depends on how you present your work again. Because if you really try to do things to motivate* [students] *they will do it. Or you know, eh, you do group activities and things like that. You*

know they enjoy things like that, they really enjoy them. So it is just supplementing or reinforcing what they already know, if they have done all these things before in an interesting way.

Ashton (1985) argues that low expectation can cause low sense of efficacy. It seems that this is also reflected in the two participants' accounts, as they were convinced that students' learning of the language in the milieu of the frontisteria had deprived them of expecting any outcomes from their teaching. This could be the reason why the participants put in minimal effort to motivate students in the state sector, since they perceived that their effort was made in vain. The perception that their effort to motivate their students was basically pointless is a *motivational deficit* (Ashton, 1985) affecting their self-efficacy.

Some more conditions that reduced the participants' sense of efficacy are briefly summarised below, as these will be discussed in detail later on in the chapter, (except for the first factor, which has already been discussed earlier in this chapter):

- *lack of collegial support*, especially when it came to receiving support from their colleagues and in particular from their English language colleague;
- *lack of administrative support*;
- *uncertainty* pertaining to the absence of a well-defined syllabus;
- *powerlessness*, which relates to their lack of responsibility regarding the teaching of English, as the competence cues the participants received were discouraging, due to the fact that English language learning is attributed not to their teaching, but to the teaching students received from the frontisterio;
- *lack of autonomy*, for instance the imposition of a course book.

Finally, an additional factor that diminished our participants' sense of efficacy was the issue of discipline. Our participants were confronted with discipline problems in class due to the degradation of the English subject. Woolfolk et al. (1990) postulate that teachers' ability in classroom management is related to their sense of efficacy – an ability our participants seemed to be lacking, once again due to the inadequate training they had received as well as the absence of in-service training.

Yet, even though the participants of this study lacked teaching efficacy, they did not lack *personal efficacy* (Ashton, 1985). This is because of the participants' firm conviction that if conditions were permissive and if learning English had not been credited to the frontisteria, then they would be able to see some outcome of their teaching. It is a kind of 'absolution' they granted themselves regarding the responsibility for the condition that prevailed in the state sector. This absolution was what allowed them to maintain their self-esteem and therefore there was *no affective deficit* (Ashton, 1985, p. 143).

The fact that their self-esteem was not affected despite the negative influences exerted on them, was confirmed when they were asked to do a self-assessment, and their replies regarding their image as teachers were all positive:

> [MP]: *Eh, okay I try my best, of course, I do really try hard. I would say I am a good teacher, but there are always like, eh, ways where I could develop more. Okay not that I am not, it is just that I continuously want to find ways to do things differently. You know I strive.*

> [SH]: *I am generally very modest about myself so I would say good and with a lot of room, a lot of potential for becoming even better*

7.5.1 Initial and in-service training

As was pointed out in Chapter 1, English language departments do not equip prospective teachers with sufficient classroom skills and techniques, leaving them ill-prepared, especially when they have to teach in adverse teaching conditions. The English departments do not meet teachers' needs in their practice, because most of the modules teacher trainees are taught are irrelevant to the teaching profession (Gheralis-Roussos, 1997), covering knowledge of American and English literature and the history of England.

The inadequacy of teacher education was underlined by all the participants, and their disillusion is exemplified in one of the many comments made by IIM regarding their initial training:

> *the university does not prepare us to be teachers. They didn't prepare us to be able to go into the classroom and be ready to teach*

The participants pointed out the importance and necessity of providing prospective teachers with a methodology course, which should not be restricted to theory only, but should mainly encompass teaching practice, a component altogether non-existent in the curriculum (Starida, 1994; Gheralis-Roussos, 1997; Kassotakis, 2000). The data revealed that our EFL teachers felt insecure due to their insufficient training, a feeling they tried to counterbalance by attending privately-run training courses, as in-service training was almost non-existent. In-service training and support was negligible[17], and therefore EFL teachers were not provided with substantial help, except for the annual seminar which supplied teachers with

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[17] A survey conducted with state school teachers in the Greek domain showed that 65% of the teachers found in-service training unsatisfactory and inadequate (Ethnos ths Khriakhs, 13th February 2000 – daily newspaper).

theoretical knowledge instead of the much-desired practical teaching skills that they wanted and needed. The lack of in-service support is illustrated in the argument made by the teacher trainer, who said:

> *in the public school you have got every level* [that is every type of ability] *in your class which is very hard to deal with, especially if you had no pedagogical training, and especially if you aren't in a continual professional in-service support and I understand that you get almost no in-service support.*

Hence, in order for teachers to maintain their professional commitment it is essential that they are provided with in-service support, which will ensure their professional development (Pennington, 1995). Given this perspective, we can infer from the discussion made above that the participants' deprivation of in-service support in effect contributed to the weakening of their commitment.

7.5.2 Alternative paths of professional development

Dinham and Scott (2000b) argued that teachers felt satisfied when they experienced self-growth and the mastery of both subject content and teaching skills. In our context, the dataset revealed that our teachers felt disillusioned because of the absence of opportunities to experience self-growth and mastery of their subject and teaching skills, which as discussed earlier, was due to the inadequate initial training and lack of in-service training.

In fact, our participants expressed their indignation at being left powerless in this aspect of their profession. Fortunately, they seemed to take action in order to alleviate their situation by making provisions for their self-growth and updating. For

example, HM maintained that it was in his own interest to provide himself with the appropriate training run by private institutions. This was also the case with the rest of the participants in this research study, which showed that they were indeed interested in their profession, as the courses/seminars they attended were self-sponsored. The following quotation illustrates the complete picture regarding their initial training and their need to resort to privately-run teacher courses/seminars, as HM stressed:

No, I didn't have the right training. I received all the training, all the training that I got was from all these seminars that I attended and workshops and things like that, ideas. Coming out of university, attending Greek university here, I finished here in Athens ... I don't know what's happening now, but teachers are definitely ill-equipped to teach in the state school. ...all those things that I got from all these seminars and things, like, I mentioned I have attended I never did a single one of them at university. Not a single thing...

HM's account of his repeated efforts to attend a training course in Oxford after having applied in the span of fourteen consecutive years since his appointment is indeed touching, while it showed his eagerness to experience self-growth and mastery of the subject content and teaching skills:

I applied on a yearly basis for seminars that lasted for long. I had also taken exams at the British Council I had taken the exams for three consecutive years and in the end somebody told me it wasn't worth going and taking exams in order to be chosen to attend those seminars either in England or anywhere else, because only very few people could attend them and actually they had already been chosen [that is, before

the candidates took the exams the committee had already chosen the ones to attend the seminars, as they were recommended by friends or officials who were holding higher posts]. *And I realised it quite late. I managed to go and attend a seminar in Oxford in 1994. I was appointed in 1980, that is, after14 years. As you can see for yourself the opportunities are quite few for us to develop. So it is upon each one of us to do things on his/her own, or by discussing with other colleagues ... whatever I have managed, I have managed on my own, that is, the ministry has not provided me with anything in order for me to improve.*

HM's effort to improve his teaching expertise, which he thinks is minimal compared to what he could have obtained, if he had been trained appropriately, proved his eagerness to feel self-actualised, and also evidenced that he wanted to offer his students the best he could. Furthermore, the data also revealed that even though the participants tried to keep themselves informed, their interest in being updated did not remain constant; HM, the only subject to have been in practice for nineteen years, for example, maintained that the intensity of his eagerness to remain up-to-date declined as years went by. This decline could be attributed to three reasons; (a) fatigue; (b) a feeling of confidence a teacher acquires with the passing of years; (c) a feeling that the teacher does not draw anything new and as such finds it superfluous to attend seminars or read books and articles. This again related to the issue of *time*, which seems to take its toll on the teacher. This is reflected in the following quotation:

Actually I attended every one of them [at the beginning and in the middle of his career]. *I mean the seminars given by the school advisors*

and the British Council. Everything contributed to my teaching. I tried not to miss any of the seminars. I attended all of them and I tried to absorb things. I have read quite a lot of books. I haven't read [about] *teaching methods for some years now. I don't read, at present, after 19 years. I used to read during the first ten years, or during the eight. It was then that I read and I tried to try things out that I didn't try out in the classroom* [before]....

7.6 Concluding remarks

The discussion above showed that the participants in this study set out in their careers with a desire to educate the next generation. However, the teachers' intrinsic motive was undermined by the absence of two main intrinsically-satisfying factors: (i) the pleasure one gets from teaching one's subject matter and keeping oneself informed at all times; and (ii) the educational process, which has to do with the enjoyment a teacher derives from seeing some outcome from the teaching and in particular having an impact on the students' learning. This unfortunately was not the case with our participants who experienced purposelessness.

Furthermore, the participants did not experience autonomy due to the insufficient teaching efficacy they had, and this lack of autonomy in effect deterred them from being as motivated as they should have been. The partial autonomy teachers could have still enjoyed was marred, according to the participants, by the presence of the imposed course book. Only the *deviant case*, who happened to feel efficacious, seemed to take advantage of the autonomy, and this was because her teaching efficacy rendered her capable of handling this partial autonomy skilfully.

The issue of relatedness seemed to have a negative impact on teachers, especially when it came to the lack of relationship with their English language colleagues. Having no one to confer with, especially when teachers were aware that their colleagues faced the same problems as they did, must have demotivated them greatly.

Chapter 8: Macro-contextual influences

Introduction

In Chapter 4, we saw that teachers' status/image is beyond their control, as it is a function of the general societal opinion, which occasionally is aggravated by the negative image portrayed in the media. Furthermore, it was discussed that the low opinion society has of teachers affects teacher motivation, but this takes effect only when it is contextualised in the school environment (Evans, 1998a). In line with this argument, this study also showed that the participants were influenced by the low opinion of their colleagues, the head, the parents and the students. This was not explicitly stated by the interviewees, but was inferred from the statements they made regarding the devaluation of the subject of English, which subsequently affected their status/image in the school contexts they worked in. Following this cue, I will first examine the data regarding the status of the subject, then talk about the teachers' status and finally I will tackle issues relating to salary, job security and advancement prospects.

8.1 The value of English as a school subject in the state sector

State education has been strongly criticised in Greece for its inefficiency in recent years[18], with one of the main criticisms expressed by people concerning the students' failure to learn English. This situation emerged as a result of the fact that Greek society in general is convinced that English language learning occurs almost exclusively in the privately run frontisteria. Students attend these frontisteria, as

[18] One of the reasons for the decline noticed in education is the fact that Greece has the lowest share of GNP (Gross National Product) allocated to education compared to other EU countries (Kassotakis, 2000).

discussed in Chapter 1, normally from the age of eight, while in state schools English language teaching commences in the fourth grade when students are almost ten years old. This means that students who attend the frontisteria in conjunction with the state school already have substantial knowledge of the language and thus find the subject of English in the state sector dreary (Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2001).

Students' conviction that their language learning takes place in the frontisteria, is a belief difficult to change. In Chapter 2, it was pointed out that individuals choose to perform a task depending on the value beliefs they ascribe to it (Eccles et al., 1998), which implies that students' reluctance to pay due attention to the subject of English is closely related to their value beliefs. In order to change these students' perceptions regarding the opportunity they are given to learn English in the state sector, some sort of *socialising processes* must be put into effect, primarily (a) *modelling*, a powerful way of teaching, (b) *persuasive communication*, and (c) *participation in powerful learning experiences* (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 52). However, these processes are difficult to be put into practice because teachers may not be sufficiently eager and committed to instil their students with enthusiasm for reasons stated in the previous chapter.

Hence, even though the subject of English is highly valued in Greek society, it is looked down on in the state sector, rendering the subject of English a subject that merely plays a 'filler' role in the curriculum rather than offering the students something worthwhile to learn. This is exemplified in the following comment made by the Greek language teacher:

> *English has always been a subject to fill in the schedule. This has been the status of the foreign language in the state sector. You could see it*

was just filling the schedule from the time that they [that is, the ministry] *assigned the subject.*

The statement made above brings us to the conclusion that EFL teachers in general have to overcome all the problems that arise due to the degradation of their subject. The sustainment of their enthusiasm to teach, however, is quite difficult to achieve, as it would require enormous and continuous efforts from them. This is even more complicated, given that they need to maintain their enthusiasm for long periods of time, and what is more, the adverse conditions they have to teach under could not in any way facilitate any possible improvement of their situation. In fact, what was revealed from the dataset is that our EFL teachers' enthusiasm decreased with the passing of time and consequently their demotivation increased. This was even further aggravated by the fact that our EFL participants were struggling on their own and by the fact that their inner resources to persevere were not infinite, as MP remarked:

I would see myself trying very hard to overcome certain obstacles, but I seem to sort of come up against the wall each and every time, and it is making [me] *sort of very hopeless. I feel if things continue the way they are, which I am quite sure they will, I don't see a change within the near future, eh, I don't know most probably, I will leave* [the teaching profession] *sometime, I'm very frustrated with the whole situation with how things run. And with the colleagues around you, no support no nothing, very difficult. ... And there are like, as I mentioned before, thousands of obstacles in working in the state school and it is, you feel sort of by yourself doing things, you know having to surpass many things.*

One more indication that documented the negative stance towards the subject was the explicit objection raised by the director of the Local Education Authority regarding the existence of English as a subject in the curriculum:

> *Director of the Local Education Authority: ... I have been speculating hard whether the subject of English should exist, as a subject at school, given the way in which it is taught by the people that teach foreign languages in the public sector.... I don't know whether there is any sense in teaching foreign languages and if it is a real necessity that students are taught* [foreign languages]. *I have been speculating a lot about this matter ...English is taught for so many years in the state schools, foreign languages are taught even in the primary school, three years in the junior high school and three more years in the senior high school and the student* [in the end] *is unable to produce 10 let alone 20 or 50 words of English, which means that something is wrong with this whole matter.*
>
> *I: What is wrong in your opinion?*
>
> *Director of the Local Education Authority: It is difficult to analyse...I have difficulty in defining what might be wrong. It could be the mentality of the state the general indifference ...*

The apprehension that English was a devalued subject and in effect was there to 'fill in' the school schedule deprived the participants, in the first instance, of the possibility of contributing to students' learning, but as KK reported, there was always the hope of upgrading English in the future:

We only hope that the English subject is upgraded so that our contribution can be seen by both the students and the parents. It shouldn't be the session when students play and just have fun, as is the case now; so that we can feel that we have also contributed and the frontisteria of course, since they exist, but we should feel that we also did something.

EFL participants' desire to contribute and their wish to offer their services indicate their need to feel self-actualised, a need they appear to have been deprived of and which they compensated for in another way, as will be shown in the following chapter.

8.2 Insufficient teaching time

Time inadequacy was another aspect that contributed to the degradation of the subject of English. The time allotted to the subject of English on a weekly basis was very limited, a fact perceived not only by EFL teachers but also by their colleagues and most importantly by the students[19], who had complained to HM:

> *Students in our school this year have been complaining, making serious complaints to me and to other teachers I believe. They complain about the fact that they have to have three hours of French instead of having English, which they have to attend for only two hours. Therefore, the students have realised that the first and most important language* [to learn] *is English. Even if they are taught English at the frontisterio they*

[19]Chryshochoos (1998) also pointed out that students were not satisfied with the time allocated to the subject of English in the state sector and complained about the limited hours they were taught the subject of English.

want to be taught at school as well, at least as many as hours as they are taught French.... I believe that the teaching hours are few at school. I think I have already mentioned it at the previous interview. Even the students pin-pointed that they can't be taught French or German three hours weekly while they are taught English only two.

The general conviction is that if the time assigned to the subject of English was increased then, as the Greek language teacher and KK suggested, English would receive the value it deserved, because students could then partly review their perception about their expectations of learning English in the state sector and thus choose to pay more attention. This, however, is a view that has been adopted without taking into consideration the following insight: the problem of the subject of English in the state sector is so deeply rooted that even if the hours were increased things would be unlikely to change. A good possibility for change would be if teachers started employing different teaching approaches in order to be able to capture their students' attention. This of course presupposes that teachers are well-equipped with teaching efficacy, which unfortunately they seem to be lacking, as was discussed in Section 7.4.

8.3 Examinations and certificates

As discussed in Chapter 2, *extrinsic utility value* concerns the individual's choice to perform a task because of its usefulness in relation to the improvement of one's life or personality. Students' lack of interest in the subject of English indicates that they see no extrinsic utility value and consequently do not give this subject the attention it deserves.

Taking into account the fact that Greek students' learning is highly grade/certificate-oriented (as mentioned in Chapter 1), one can infer that the concept of *extrinsic utility value* is more intense in our case. The fact that English does not count for students' entrance in most of the departments at the university leaves no room for the subject to be taught in such a way that students can either take pleasure in the lesson, or just learn it for the sake of being able to communicate with English speakers. Thus, this lack of *extrinsic utility value*, which contributes to the subject's degradation, also affects teachers' motivation negatively. Nevertheless, this could be alleviated through the introduction of a state certificate of language proficiency, as was suggested by all of the EFL participants and even the non-EFL participants.

The introduction of a state certificate could also be regarded as a means that would allow both teachers and their students to activate the goal setting process. In Chapter 2 we saw that one of the principal motivational processes is *goal setting*, a process which regulates an individual's actions. Following this line of thought, the introduction of a state certificate, as was recommended above, would raise the status of the subject. The reason is that since learning in Greece is grade/certificate-oriented, both students and teachers would have a goal to pursue, and therefore they would regulate their actions toward the acquisition of a certificate. This contention coincides with the finding revealed in a study conducted by Manolopoulou-Sergi (2001). KK's conviction regarding the introduction of a certificate is illustrated in the following quote:

> *Well, first of all in order for the student to learn English there should be another motive besides that of the grade. The proposal that was made, that is, the introduction of a state language proficiency certificate, which would allow the student to receive a certificate upon*

graduation, of course after having taken exams, would be an ideal solution, which would correct the whole system.

The status of English in the state sector is further lowered because of the fact that candidates who have to take English in order to enter departments where English is taught, are not prepared at state schools, but resort to private tuition or private institutes. The lack of opportunity for EFL teachers to prepare candidates for the exams, as was pointed out in Chapter 1, could be attributed to the fact that the Ministry of Education is inefficient or indifferent regarding the fulfilment of students' needs in the state school, even when the requirements are set by the ministry itself.

Another possible explanation is that the Ministry does not hold teachers capable of preparing candidates for the exams, which implies that the Ministry is indirectly acknowledging that the appointed state EFL teachers are not competent and capable enough in general. This perception may have affected our EFL participants, having a detrimental impact on their motivation. In fact, there is the mentality that state EFL teachers are not to be trusted for their knowledge compared to the private institute teachers, which is paradoxical, as the majority of EFL teachers normally serve the private sector prior to their appointment to the state sector. HM's account is enlightening:

As soon as I got my teaching license, that is, when I was in the third year of my studies[20] at the university of Thessalonica I started working in a frontisterio, which means that I was teaching in the frontisterio

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[20] Students of the English departments in Greece are granted a licence to teach by the Ministry of Education in the third year of their studies, that is, one year prior to the completion of their taught course. These teachers, however, are allowed to teach in the frontisteria, but cannot be appointed in the state sector.

while I was studying at the university in the fourth year... and I remember that something made a bad impression on me concerning the state school. Although I hadn't even graduated I remember the students trusted me more than their teacher in the state school. I, in particular, remember the students telling me, "Sir, the state school teacher told us that the reported speech is like this. Is what he told us correct?" The students were senior high school students. They questioned, actually they doubted whether the teacher was telling them the right thing [or not]. *They were not sure whether what the state school teacher was telling them* [was correct] *and they came to the* [frontisterio] *teacher, that is, me, who hadn't even graduated* [to confirm whether the state school teacher was correct]. *That is, they trusted me and the reason is that I was teaching in the private sector.*

In sum, the introduction of a state certificate, for which candidates would be prepared in the state sector, is another change that would promote English language teaching/learning. Unfortunately, this is not feasible any more, as the preparation of candidates to acquire the state certificate has been handed over to the private institutes once again (ELT News, April 2003), as was explained in Chapter 1.

The paradoxical thing here is that even though the Panhellenic Association of State School Teachers of English were the ones who initially proposed the preparation of candidates in the state schools (Charitou, 2002), they now seem to have readily accepted the instruction of candidates by the private schools instead of fully supporting their initial proposal to 'prepare candidates in the state schools'. In fact, they could have strongly supported their right to teach candidates based on the

fact that the certificate was awarded by the state and in particular by the Greek Ministry of Education, which is the sole authority managing state schools.

8.4 The impact of students' attitude on EFL teachers

As was discussed above, students do not take English in the state school very seriously for two reasons: (a) they do not expect to learn it at school, and (b) the level of English they are taught is lower than the level they are at. This makes students have an indifferent attitude towards the subject of English, which consequently has a negative impact on teachers' practice. When teachers perceive their students' indifference towards their subjects, they try to overcome this problem, but because they are typically unsuccessful at convincing their students of the significance of their subject, they tend to shift into passivity. Having no worthwhile goals to pursue must have led teachers to develop a sense of learned helplessness about their efforts (Dweck & Goetz, 1978, as cited in Eccles et al., 1998), which they do not attribute to their lack of ability to teach, but rather to a factor which is beyond their control: the existence of frontisteria. The reason that they do not question their ability to teach is because of the achievement they have experienced when serving the private sector. Their achievement is closely related to the achievement of their students in acquiring the Cambridge/Michigan First Certificate or the Cambridge/Michigan Proficiency Certificate.

The following quotation illustrates the disparate appreciation students in general show in the two educational settings and KK's disillusionment about it:

I don't relish the same admiration and respect I would relish if I taught the same students at a private language school. And anyway I do have

the recent experience to compare because I was only recently appointed to the state sector, because, let's face it, it is one more subject that they have to undergo and in their minds they do not have any reason to live through it since they attend the private language school – I am actually talking about the ones who want to learn the language.

Students' inclination to disregard what the EFL teacher has got to offer is further increased when they have passed the Cambridge/Michigan First Certificate exam or even the advanced Cambridge/Michigan Proficiency Certificate exam. The reason students react in this way is that they feel there is nothing more that the teacher can offer[21] and in fact there are cases when they regard their teachers as inefficient. Manolopoulou-Sergi (2001) has revealed that "students do not consider the teachers of English at state schools *good* teachers" (p. 230), which is also exemplified in the comment made by the Greek language teacher:

> *they* [students tend to] *look down on the teacher when he/she is not competent, which is true in most cases either because he/she doesn't pronounce things correctly and this is because the English language department, from what I hear is a department where you are taught everything except for English. And there are many instances when a student who has the Proficiency Certificate knows more and better English than the English language teacher, who is a graduate of the English department, as students* [of the English Departments] *learn a lot more about History, and Literature, but very little English.*

[21] Manolopoulou-Sergi, (2001) revealed that students equate the acquisition of a certificate, namely of the Proficiency Certificate, with having acquired the language and thus further efforts in FLL ceases.

Teachers could, in principle, overrule this negative stance towards them by employing teaching approaches which would raise the students' interest. Two out of the four EFL participants complained that the material, that is, the books they taught their students with were at a much lower level than the level students were accustomed to, thus making the lesson for them too dreary to follow. This of course had to do with the way teachers approached the material: following the book slavishly while students passively listened. If these teachers had employed teaching approaches which helped raise students' interest, then they would have had a better chance of changing their students' attitude towards them. This brings us back to the issue of whether they had the sufficient competence to put into effect what was just suggested.

MP, as discussed in Chapter 7, seemed to have been successful in changing her students' attitudes because of her competence. Still, KK's case also proved that when she felt autonomous at the beginning of the school-year, her teaching made a difference to students' attitude since her students seemed to enjoy her lessons. The students stopped enjoying her lessons as soon as she started using the book, which arrived a month after the beginning of term, and the reason that students were not interested anymore was, as KK reported, that she was obliged to follow the book slavishly[22]. KK's effective teaching during the first month was also identified by one of KK's students who happened to be the teacher trainer's daughter. The teacher trainer's statement is revealing:

> *Rea* [the teacher trainer's daughter] *noticed that, Rea said that in the beginning that English was more interesting and then later on, the key turning point was, when they got the course book delivered to the*

school and then she's been tied to what they have to do in the course book and not doing other things.

The Greek language teacher also reports that:

the reason that they [the students] *do not pay attention to the English language teacher* [is] [t]*he system.* [It] *is a 'dry' book and questions, which is boring for the student, who is at the level of proficiency, especially at the senior high school and I can tell* [you] *about it because I am working* [in a senior high school]. *Questions such as "What is this?" and whether we need to use 'Present Perfect or Simple Past' are quite boring, the student does not pay attention and he/she loses his/her touch and is prone to create problems and the teacher is obliged to expel him/her or to stop the lesson. It is not therefore a lesson that can offer anything to the student in order for him her to be any better* [in English] *at the end of the lesson. The fault is that teachers don't have the system to make their lesson more interesting*

In sum, the students' indifference to the subject of English in the state sector was apparent to the teachers, who were negatively affected, as will be discussed below.

8.5 The value of EFL teachers in the state sector

In Chapter 4, we saw that teachers' jobs are a source of status, and that their work is inseparable from their self. It was also discussed that if teachers feel that they are not

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[22] It was KK's senior colleague who chose the books they were supposed to teach from and not KK, as would be the norm.

highly valued, then this has a detrimental impact on their 'self', and on their satisfaction with their personal and professional lives.

The interviews conducted with the non-EFL participants revealed that there was a negative stance taken by the EFL teachers' colleagues and authorities towards the subject of English and consequently towards the English language state teachers. This, as would be expected, had a negative impact on the participants' professional lives – a fact confirmed by the EFL participants, who openly admitted that their low status was attributed to the low standing of the subject of English – which in turn undermined their self-esteem. This finding is in accordance with Sweeney's (1981; as cited in Pennington, 1990) argument that self-esteem and self-actualisation are normally unsatisfied in public school contexts. KK and MP summarised the devaluation of the subject and the effect it had on their self-image and status in the following quotations:

[KK]: ... *you are even less than a second class teacher, due to the fact that even your subject is a second class subject and this* [is the kind of] *attitude you are more likely to receive....My status is nothing, nothing and I assume the same is with other colleagues of mine* [English language teachers] *in this respect I feel that this is our common fate. Maybe the older colleagues certainly relish a better status...*

[MP]: *You are the English teacher and English teachers don't count. I mean unfortunately, they sort of, you know,...they tend to undervalue you. Okay. Well, English big deal .You know, I mean it is not a subject that even counts. You know how the school system is like. Eh, they don't just, they seem indifferent to you.... An extension of this negative attitude is how our colleagues view us, English language teachers. I*

feel that a 'caste system' has been created. The teachers whose subjects are less important and this is where the "who cares about English" attitude comes in. It is infuriating that they perceive us as inferior and that they categorise us like that.

In addition, there was also the parents' indifference and disregard towards the subject of English, which EFL participants had to face. This was another contributor to the lowering of the EFL teachers' self-esteem and thus their motivation, especially when, as MP argues:

...parents don't even bother to meet up with or talk to the English teachers at the end of the semester and this yet again indicates their view of the subject in the state sector. And this [attitude] *is passed on to their children.*

Still, despite the unfair treatment of EFL teachers with regards to their value as teachers – a perception society has based not on their efficacy as individual teachers, but rather on the devaluation of the subject – there was the apprehension among the non-EFL participants that EFL teachers in general do nothing to alleviate their situation. The Greek language teacher, in particular, stated that in all the years she had been a teacher (she was about to retire at the time of the interview) she had never seen a foreign language teacher seriously engaged with their teaching:

I have not heard them [EFL teachers] *talk about a new programme, or a seminar. All of them* [EFL teachers] *talked about sweets, about house cleaning, about their walks, that is, I never saw them have any worries round their subject...*

Yet, despite the demotivating effect that their low status had the EFL teachers' persistence in carrying on with their practice could be explained in two different ways: either their intrinsic motivation was so strong that it overrode others' low opinion of them; or the extrinsic motives, such as job security, were so significant that they compensated for the lack of status, recognition and the subsequent motivational deficit.

8.6 Salary and job security

Even though pay is a very materialistic aspect of a job, it is significant because salaries reflect the value society attaches to a particular profession. In Chapter 4 we saw that the poor prospects teachers have concerning pay – a factor predominantly noticed when teachers are in their 40's (Kyriacou, 1998) – is a source of demotivation. The reason is that individuals at this age have the tendency to compare their accomplishments 'career-wise', which usually also concerns their incomes, with those of their peers.

In the Greek state school context, pay is a controversial issue. The relatively low salary teachers receive in comparison to other professions[23] appeared to be a source of dissatisfaction for two out of the four EFL subjects. Yet, at the same time, they seemed to play down the importance of their pay in the light of the responsibility that they have to educate the youth:

> *I mean you can bring changes within your own classroom with your students, I mean you can't rest upon the attitude of "That they* [the

[23] A state schoolteacher with approximately 10 years teaching experience in the state sector would normally receive around € 930 while the average salary of a bank clerk working for a state bank is around € 1,490 (K. Kotsiris, personal communication, May 29, 2003).

Ministry of Education] *don't give a damn about me why should I? Look at the salary I get!" ...and there are thousands of things that you have to complain about, but you have to think differently as well. It is not, like, you are sitting in an office at your desk. You have like little children's faces looking up to you, which makes you more sensitive. You have to think differently. You have to act differently* (MP).

It is worth noting here that KK was the only participant who was satisfied with her pay and this is because she compared it to the salary she used to receive in the private sector, where she was 'exploited'. KK's strong opposition to a money-centred attitude was apparent in the following statement:

> *This should be clear and actually should be clear for all the teachers. His/her pay has nothing to do with the things that he/she is supposed to do in the classroom. This has nothing to do* [with teaching]. *It is completely different. ... I did disagree with the trade unionist for not dissociating the two* [that is, the pay and teaching] *when we went on strike the other day. I don't get paid well, so I won't do the proper job in the classroom and the students will pay for it because my employer or the ministry doesn't pay me. I morally disagree with this view.*

The director of the Local Education Authority's opinion coincides with this teacher's perception, as he postulates that teachers should not be dissatisfied with their salaries as they are much higher and more secure than the ones their colleagues in the private sector receive. We can, then, conclude that pay affected some of the participants' motivation but did not seem to influence the way they taught. Furthermore, the participants' choice to join the state sector, as was discussed in

Chapter 7, relied on the job security it offered,[24] especially after having experienced the exploitation and job insecurity in the private sector, as illustrated by KK's quote in Section 7.1.2.

However, it is worth noting that the job security they longed for and wanted was very soon forgotten once they had joined the state sector, as their attention was almost immediately directed towards other issues that contributed to their dissatisfaction, namely the adverse teaching conditions they have to work under, the feeling of purposelessness, the lack of their self-actualisation, sense of achievement and recognition. It is interesting to note here that one of the participants, IIM, proposed that a performance-related policy be applied in the state sector so that teachers could start to be more efficient and motivated, since many state teachers tended not to do their best because of the low payment they received.

8.7 Advancement prospects

Teaching is a profession that lacks an appropriate career structure or a professional *contingent path* (see Chapter 4). Raynor's *contingent path structure* relates to the consecutive steps of a career path, according to which immediate success secures the opportunity to meet career challenges while failure guarantees career failure and consequently the individual misses the opportunity to continue on the career path. A *closed-contingent path* is when a profession is structured and the hierarchy of advancement is rigidly defined to the highest level, whereas the *open-ended path* is just the opposite. In the *closed-contingent path,* "achievement related motivation decreases with advancement, whereas open paths sustain persistence and prolonged

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[24] Employment in the state sector is regarded as one of the most desired targets for the majority of university graduates (Patrinos, 1997), as it guarantees job security. This job security comprises tenure

effort because additional possibilities for continued career-related striving become apparent as the individual moves along the career path" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 163).

Teachers in Greece, like teachers all over the world, have to put up with the lack of an appropriate career structure, and this is especially true of teachers who wish to remain classroom teachers and do not aspire to join school management. When these teachers experience achievement, which normally does not generate future career steps in the teaching profession then this has noticeable negative impacts on their morale, as they feel that there is nothing they can look forward to. Thus, they experience the feeling of 'futurelessness', which teachers who are indeed intrinsically motivated find difficult to live with (Dörnyei, 2001a). This is the reason, as Dörnyei postulates, that recently some countries have made provisions to introduce "titles such as 'super-teachers' or 'master teachers' within the educational hierarchy" (p. 169).

In the Greek context one could argue that teachers are not deprived of hierarchical advancement, because they are offered it even if it is based on seniority rather than merit[25]. However, this advancement is a mere formality, which implies that it does not have the effect that a hierarchical advancement would have if it reflected the achievements of teachers.

The fact that teachers receive increments automatically has no impact on the EFL teachers' general psychological state, as it makes no difference either to their status or to the responsibilities they may take on. This is clearly reflected in the Local Education Authority director's interview:

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for life, and a salary that the employee receives regularly. Still, state salary is considered to be low.

[25] The rank ordering used in this advancement is A, B, C and signifies the years that they have been working in the state sector and not the degree of their efficiency. Furthermore, according to the rank teachers hold they also receive proportional increments.

well, the question was if there were motives to advance, well here everybody is advanced without any assessment, everybody, and it is quite easy [to get the normal advancement].

8.8 Concluding remarks

The discussion above showed that the macro-contextual factors surrounding our participants in the Greek context affected them negatively, a finding which coincides with Dinham and Scott's (1998, 2000a, 2000b) findings in other contexts. In particular, the unfavourable status of the English subject had a detrimental effect on teacher status. It was argued that the introduction of a state certificate could alleviate the low status of the subject and consequently of the teachers, yet this possible solution has not been seriously considered by the Greek educational authorities. The fact that the state language proficiency certificate is not awarded to candidates who have been prepared in the state sector, also means that any opportunity to change students' attitudes towards the subject of English seems to be remote, as Greek students' learning is grade/certificate oriented. As a result, English language learning is currently not attractive in the state sector. Interestingly, inadequate pay did not appear to contribute to EFL teachers' demotivation, but a decent salary would have been appreciated. One might think that the feeling of job security in state schools would make teachers happy and more motivated in their workplace, but as was evident from the dataset, there are too many demotivating factors in the state school environment that make this happiness short-lived.

Chapter 9: Micro-contextual influences

Introduction

As we saw in Chapter 4, according to Pennington (1995) and Evans (1998a; 1998b; 1999), micro-contextual influences or school-based factors are believed to be major causes of teacher dissatisfaction and demotivation, while according to Dinham and Scott (1998, 2000a, 2000b), they have a neutral effect. Accordingly, the aim of this chapter is to examine how school-based factors, which encompass the school climate, the teacher's interpersonal relations, class-related issues, facilities and resources, support structures and sources of feedback, affected our EFL participants.

9.1 School climate

In Chapter 4, it was argued that teachers normally attach great importance to the school climate they work in. School climate in effect can either intimidate or empower teachers (Pennington, 1995); a pleasant school climate can promote a sense of community and belongingness, thereby promoting commitment among teachers, whereas an unfavourable school climate tends to weaken teacher commitment.

The findings of this study revealed that the participants' commitment was affected by the fact that the school climate they worked in was not pleasant. The participants did not experience the feeling of belongingness, warmth, respect, safety or security aspects which characterise a good school climate. In fact, they expressed their discontent regarding the atmosphere of 'unrelatedness' they felt towards their colleagues and the administration. This climate of 'unrelatedness' was attributed to the heads' inability to promote solidarity amongst the teachers and the indifference

they showed towards the well-being of their staff. This is exemplified in KK's comment:

> *...eh, how shall I put it, a headmaster, in my opinion, is obliged not only to look into the organisational, practical issues regarding the good functioning of the school, but also to give the impetus through the relationship he/she creates to solve various tensions either emotional or problems that the teachers might be facing again because of the school, I don't mean personal problems. They* [the heads] *have not given much importance to the good climate of the school, i.e. to be one, to feel united both the teachers among themselves and the teachers with the students.*

The unprofessional climate the participants had to work in was an additional factor that weakened their enthusiasm to teach. The participants not only disapproved of the indifference their colleagues showed towards carrying out their profession as effectively as possible, but they were also disheartened by their colleagues' general motivational disposition towards teaching. As MP stated: *"I see colleagues coming in the morning, okay, and they sort of drag themselves"*. This highlights Attwood's (2001) statement that a motivated teacher can motivate another while a demotivated one can demotivate others.

9.2 Collaboration

According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), collaboration involves the working of two or more people on a task, which helps to surmount uncertainties about teaching, while at the same time it gives them the opportunity to find common goals and learn

useful methods from each other. Collaboration also promotes a sense of community, as it helps teachers to avoid feeling isolated and helps them to develop a sense of solidarity.

In Chapter 7, we saw that the lack of relatedness between EFL teachers and their colleagues diminished any opportunity for collaboration. The reason that the participants felt there was an absence of collaboration with their EFL colleagues, was either that they were teaching different levels so there was not really anything they could share, or that they employed different teaching approaches, which made it difficult to find a common point to collaborate on. The following quote depicts the incompatibility between MP and her colleagues in the state sector:

> *I work in a completely different way. We just can't communicate and that's a very difficult thing, okay, and you don't get any support from that person. We just can't seem to get down and you know discuss things in a normal way*

In a different context, where collaboration was feasible, the same teacher (i.e., MP), experienced a most benefiting collegial interaction:

> *When I was surrounded by teachers...who I knew were motivated and interested and because it was sort of like, how can we put it, a thing in the air, challenging...I was challenged, they were challenged and it was something sort of mutual, definitely. And that was the period when I was in Athens, working in the frontisterio with adults as well...I enjoyed that period of time because like I said there were teachers who were really interested in what they were doing. In the staff meetings we*

always had something to present, or you know share...which...I miss a lot.

KK also brought up this issue regarding the absence of collaboration with her colleagues. It concerns the so-called *professionality clash* suggested by Evans (1998a). Professionality, according to Evans (1998b), "is the embodiment of professional ideologies and job-related values [and] it reflects what the individual believes education is about, and what teaching should involve" (p. 29). Furthermore, *professionality* allows the development of mutual respect among teachers and between teachers and heads, which as a consequence helps to promote job fulfilment. In our case there was disparity between the teachers regarding their professionality, which inhibited collaboration, mutual respect and subsequently job fulfilment. The only time that MP reported that she had the opportunity to collaborate was with a colleague with whom she shared a common teaching philosophy and interest in their practice:

He [the principal] called the other English language teacher and myself; by the way the English language teacher has changed. She is not the same person as last year. She's more committed and willing to collaborate and it seems that we have a common teaching approach, mind you, she happens to be a Master's holder. Well, as I was telling you, the principal asked to see me and my colleague in his office and he asked us why we had given such low grades, that is, 10's, 11's etc [out of 20]. *They were the grades they deserved, but since each and every colleague, and I can't emphasise that enough, gave their students grades which were very high. Grades they didn't deserve and weren't in accordance to their abilities. That made us look 'bad', that is, the*

English language teachers. I consider the response my fellow English teacher gave as very smart: "We didn't give them low grades, the others gave them very high grades".

This indicates that collaboration is only possible between teachers with shared teaching approaches and between teachers who value each other because of the similar convictions they carry.

9.3 Rapport with students

The importance of teacher-student rapport in relation to teacher work satisfaction is long-established (Pennington, 1995). In line with this, the data obtained from this study showed that the participants were conscious of the significance of having a good relationship with their students. In fact, the dataset revealed that this good rapport with the students seemed to constitute the only positive aspect with regards to their social relationships in the educational environment, serving, in a way, as a means of counterbalancing the poor rapport they had with their colleagues.

The fact that the participants reported that they had good rapport with their students sounds paradoxical if one takes into account that the devaluation of the subject was one of the main contributors to the discipline problems participants faced in their classes. However, the data revealed that this reportedly good rapport teachers had with their students was not in the classroom context – where discipline problems were likely to undermine their relationship with their students – but rather outside the classroom context, where teachers and students could establish relationships on a one-to-one basis. The most interesting aspect regarding the teachers' reports about their good rapport with their students, was that they 'bragged' about their students

trusting them and confiding in them very personal matters. This is illustrated in MP's words:

> *I think it is a very good relationship. They see me not only as a teacher, but as a friend as well. They do come and talk to me during the break, before or after the lesson or whatever. You know talking about other things as well not only about English. Their personal lives or whatever. They seem to trust me as well and feel very friendly and you know close as well...*

This, as the participants claimed, was due to the time and effort they put in to strengthen the bond between themselves and their students, something they believed most of their other colleagues did not even try to achieve. A possible interpretation of this phenomenon is that since EFL teachers are deprived of self-actualisation with regards to their teaching, they have found some other aspect of their profession to fill this gap. This would imply that our EFL teachers must have channelled their efforts into reaching out to their students and trying to be much friendlier than their colleagues, thus gaining their students' respect and trust.

From the interview conducted with HM, I realised that one of his distinctive aims was to gain the respect of his students and to have a good rapport with them, which he managed to achieve. HM's effort to have a good rapport with students relied on the fact that he strongly believed that teachers must be equipped with this ability, as this facilitates one's teaching. This is consistent with Sergiovanni's (1967) statement that once teachers establish good rapport with their students they "can capitalize on this relationship in pursuit of work-centred or job itself satisfaction" (p. 78). HM put it simply by saying:

if there is a good relationship [between the teacher and the student] *and some interest from the students I think that the teacher can teach even better.*

In fact, HM's tactic might have been a clever way to overcome many of the problems that Greek EFL state school teachers confront, thus reducing discipline problems which occur in the classroom context due to the devaluation of the subject. Were English regarded highly by the students, then it would be likely that our teachers would not have as many confrontations as they actually have in their classrooms. Still, it is amazing that, despite the discipline problems, the participants maintained a good relationship with their students, even if this was outside the classroom context. This once again shows our EFL teachers' interest in their students' welfare, proving that they were intrinsically motivated. KK's statement is quite revealing:

I really care about them and generally about them as individuals not only as students who will perform well in the subject of English.

Students seemed to be able to sense the interest their teachers showed in them and they seemed to greatly appreciate it:

[MP]: *There are things that they can find out, like, if you are an inspiring teacher and you know, if you show that you are interested in them, you love them, okay, there is a different way that they see you and it gives each student something doesn't it? ... They were telling me about their previous teachers in their classroom in the first and second grades of the senior high school. They were teachers you know who didn't show any interest in their students and so the students showed*

disrespect towards the teachers and this is because they showed disrespect towards their students. And it is like you said: when they pick that up element, that you are not interested and you are not doing whatever you can, okay, they behave in that similar way sort of thing ...students pick that up and you can't do anything can you?

[KK]: *they* [her colleagues and the headmaster] *have very well understood that I have a good relationship with the students and I am sure that they must have heard comments from students that are quite positive so this has also created the envy they have. Because it is definite and obvious that from the moment I enter the courtyard until I reach the staff room many groups of students will stop me to talk to me about different things, things that students will talk to you if you have shown that you are interested in them. They* [her colleagues and the headmaster] *never do this thing, they don't talk to the students or pick up on issues and have discussions in the break. So they see this and I am certain that they have commented on it, that the students like me and want me. There is a student who is the daughter of one of my colleagues and she has shown me that she admires me in front of all her classmates even though she knows that her father hates me.*

Having a good rapport with students is indeed a positive feature that characterises a teacher; however, we should note Nias's (1981) claim that "it is maladaptive for teachers to take a view of their work which defines its satisfactions solely in terms of contact with pupils" (p. 236). Hence, our EFL participants' contentment with regards to the good rapport they have with their students does not compensate for the satisfaction that these teachers would expect to gain from the

actual teaching practice, in spite of the fact that it allows them to experience a kind of job satisfaction.

9.4 Class size

In Chapter 4, it was discussed that too big class sizes were a source of dissatisfaction for many teachers, and this was also true in this study. All of the participants complained of the large number of students they had to teach in each class, which in effect inhibited them from applying teaching methods that would otherwise enhance student motivation. The reason behind their inability to employ appropriate teaching approaches was that, as KK reported for example, it was difficult for them to organise pair or group work having to teach thirty students, as:

> *with 30 students it is very difficult to organise something that would engage the students in the learning procedure.*

Being aware of the difficulty EFL teachers face due to the large number of students they have to teach, KK and SH's headmistress and the director of the Local Educational Authority also supported the suggestion made by EFL teachers regarding the reduction of the number of students per class. In fact, all of the non-EFL participants (i.e., even the Greek language teacher and the Maths teacher) thought that it was imperative that the number of students was reduced from thirty to fifteen, as this would facilitate the teaching and learning processes and subsequently enhance both teacher and student motivation. However, as the director of the Local Education Authority pointed out, it is quite an unfeasible task for school administrations to provide more classrooms, more hours, and more teachers:

regarding the practical problems that arise due to the infrastructure the state school has, which has been there ever since and we have had a specific number of classes, specific schedules, specific personnel, there is definitely difficulty and inflexibility in coping with the separation of the classes when the students are streamlined ...

Thus, EFL teachers need to be able to manage large classes, which implies, that this is one more reason why the ministry must try to ensure that would-be-teachers are well-equipped to cope with this challenge.

9.5 Mixed ability classes

Manolopoulou-Sergi (2001) reported that state EFL teachers found mixed ability classes difficult to handle and this issue made their teaching quite problematic. Based on the evidence I obtained through the data, I also identified that our participants had problems teaching students that were not of the same ability/proficiency/level, as this brought about immense classroom management problems. This, as the Greek teacher commented, rendered the EFL teacher a *'tragic character'*:

> *they have to cope with a mosaic[26] of students. There is the indifferent and ignorant student and there is also the student that is at a Proficiency level[27]. ... There is a huge gap between students, that is, there is the excellent one, who has the Proficiency Certificate, and the student who has no idea of the English language. All these students are*

[26] She is using the term 'mosaic' figuratively. What she is implying is that students are of different levels.

in the same class, the teacher feels lost, he/she doesn't know what to focus on.... The EFL teacher is a tragic character as he/she has to face this mosaic of students and all the disadvantages that I already mentioned ...

Our participants' inability to handle mixed ability classes could be attributed to their inefficient initial "pedagogical training" and the absence of in-service support, which is exemplified in the teacher trainer's words:

> *I don't know maybe it is your conditions, maybe you have many more kids in the class probably you've got mixed ability classes, but you didn't have this in the private school where the numbers are smaller and the owner of the school, eh, tailor classes to separate abilities. Whereas in the public school you have got every level in your class, which is very hard to deal with, especially if you had no pedagogical training, and especially if you aren't in a continual professional in-service support. And I understand that you get almost no in-service support...*

9.6 Discipline problems in class

The devaluation of the subject of English greatly influences student discipline, as pointed out in Chapter 8, causing "psychic debilitation, absenteeism, and attrition among teachers" (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990, p. 245). Two reasons were identified with regards to the participants' inability to cope with disciplinary

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[27] A student at this level has been awarded the (Cambridge or Michigan) Proficiency Certificate or is in the process of attending a course in order to obtain the Certificate.

problems in our study: (a) the inadequate training they had received, and (b) the negligible effort EFL teachers made to present students with an engaging lesson.

The teachers' inability to involve students in their lessons is exemplified in MP's account regarding her predecessor, who faced discipline problems because she did not put forth any effort to attract her students' attention. On the contrary, MP was able to engage her students' interest, which helped her to avoid facing discipline problems. Her ability to successfully deal with discipline was recognised even by the vice principal, who praised her for it:

> *...the vice principal was telling me about the problems that the previous English teacher had the years before I was appointed. And how, like he was so glad that I did not face discipline problems, which made me feel happy to be honest (laughter). When he said to me like, "Mrs MP I see you are doing very well today, like, we don't have students all the time in the office and you aren't complaining about the students and having, like, this broiling in the classroom or whatever. That sort of made me feel, okay, nice...*

An issue that was brought up by KK was the manner in which discipline problems were dealt with in schools. KK reported that there was a discrepancy between her and her colleagues and the head. KK would have preferred to cope with discipline issues in a more democratic way, while she had to tolerate the more autocratic approach the administration and her colleagues adopted in dealing with discipline problems. Here again emerged the issue of *professionality clash* pointed out earlier, which once again was a negative contributor to KK's motivation:

...the handling of the disciplinary problems by the senior colleagues is done through infliction [of punishment], *and there is not, how can I say, that much communication with the students. While I follow a different approach, and I feel that I maybe exposed [as a bad teacher] in my workplace because I have a friendlier attitude.*

9.7 Facilities and resources

In Chapter 4 we saw that inadequate facilities and resources affected teacher motivation, as they are "the material and institutional means through which teachers are able to accomplish their tasks" (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 508). Adequate facilities and resources were hardly existent in the schools of two of our participants, which is the norm with most schools in Greece, as pointed out in Chapter 1. The reason that the other two participants, that is, KK and SH, did not complain about facilities and resources is that they both worked in a school which was fully equipped with educational facilities and resources. Both participants worked in the same school at different periods of time, as SH was given KK's post after KK got her transfer. This particular school is one of the best-equipped schools in Greece and is supposed to be a blessing for teachers, as this would supposedly provide them with the educational environment needed for effective teaching (Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2001). However, in spite of the provision of facilities and resources, KK and SH's teaching did not improve, a point which will be tackled later in this section.

HM, on the contrary, complained about the lack of facilities and resources, but at the same time he seemed to have come to terms with their absence, as there was nothing that he or the school administration could do to change the situation. As he explained, the reason that resources in general were inadequate was that subsidies

granted by the Ministry of Education to equip schools with the necessary teaching aids were limited. MP, on the other hand, claimed that there was some kind of 'subject discrimination' when it came to the distribution of resources and facilities, and this seems to have infuriated MP:

> *For heavens sake, I mean they are busy building a laboratory now and they are busy buying all the equipment and two of the classes are being altered completely so that they might turn them into science labs. Okay, that means there is a lot of money there. I don't know it is just indifference there. Who cares sort of thing attitude...*

In addition, as MP pointed out, the condition that the school edifice was in was quite saddening state:

> *Eh, first of all something with the classroom itself, which is, like, absolutely dirty. I would change maybe the whole place. The windows are painted which means that you can't see outside and they are very high up and there is no light sort of coming in, natural light, right. The doors don't close; there are no handles and nothing. Some windows are broken, I mean, I would change that, okay.*

Even though HM touched upon the issue of lack of facilities and resources, he downplayed their importance when he started to bring up the issue of how important it was to firstly gain his students' interest. In other words, if his students were not in the least interested in what he strived to get across to them, then no teaching aid would make a difference. HM's case is indeed a representative one of teachers' need to have their students pay attention to their teaching, as he

acknowledged that his teaching was not deterred primarily by the lack of teaching aids, but rather by the lack of student motivation in the English subject:

> *The teaching conditions are favourable for a teacher when there is the utmost interest on the part of the students. ...When you get into the classroom and there isn't any interest then the teaching conditions are difficult and I would say at this point that if I were the Minister of Education I would do two things. I would either close down all the frontisteria at once so that students would learn English as they learn maths, physics, chemistry at school and therefore they would start taking an interest in the lesson or if I wanted to keep the frontisteria I would remove the subject of English from the curriculum.*

From the discussion above, one can infer that the provision of facilities and resources does not necessarily result in the raising of teacher motivation. This is in accordance with the argument made in Chapter 3, where it was discussed that the removal of hygiene factors, is not automatically conducive to satisfaction an occurrence revealed in our dataset. Despite the fact that KK and SH's school was one of the best-equipped schools in Greece, the students' interest did not seem to differ from that of students in ill-equipped schools.

An indirect, and in the long run more damaging consequence of the lack of provision of the essential teaching aids, was that it was perceived by the participants as a sign that society and, most importantly, the Ministry of Education have *"taken for granted that the actual learning of a foreign language is only realised in the private language schools"* (KK). The lack of resources was thus seen as a symbolic sign of the fact that the necessary attention was not given to the subject of English in the state sector, which inhibited our EFL teachers' motivation.

9.8 Support structures

Support structures encompass the support provided by the administration, the colleagues and the school advisor to make the teaching task easier. In Chapter 4, it was discussed that support from the administration is *an ethical imperative* for the well-being of teachers and that, in cases where teachers are supported by the school administration, the level of stress can be reduced (Pennington, 1995). Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) argue that administrative support can enhance teachers' self-efficacy and make teaching more effective. This is because teachers are then able to focus their attention on more important matters such as improving their teaching skills, rather than coping with issues such as lack of discipline, lack of teaching aids, uncooperativeness and heavy workloads.

Our participants stressed their dissatisfaction regarding the lack of administrative support, and highlighted the absence of *administrative buffering* or *principal buffering* (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). In school contexts, administrative buffering pertains to activities, which comprise "attending to the material requirements of instructional programs, providing clerical assistance for routine paperwork, mobilizing outside resources (such as parents) to assist teachers with non-teaching tasks, and protecting classroom time from unnecessary interruption" (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990, p. 245). In particular, the participants criticised heads for not being supportive on matters they could intervene on and assume responsibility for instead of passing on the responsibility to the teacher:

> *when you have some sort of a management problem okay because they do come up. Well, he* [the head] *doesn't normally support you in the*

way he is supposed to okay! He will just say "You deal with the problem" (MP)

Two out of the four subjects attributed the absence of administrative support to the heads' lack of knowledge about the English subject, which of course does not absolve them from their responsibility to attend to teachers' material needs. In fact, heads could be supportive by just merely being supportive and considerate, two factors which most probably would play a significant role in the raising of teachers' motivation.

School advisors, whose official task is to provide teachers with ongoing support seemed to be, as MP reported, inaccessible: *"the school advisor seems to be sort of absent most of the times when you need him when you want something to happen"*. The only way they could be reached was by phone and this was to be restricted to occasions when teachers reached a deadlock. This kind of support is certainly not what these teachers needed or wanted. Firestone and Pennell (1993) have argued that the absence of counselling has a negative effect on teachers' motivation and this was confirmed in this study. HM in particular has repeatedly stressed that despite the fact that he had privately made efforts to improve his teaching, the lack of support from the school advisor did not allow him to teach as effectively as he would have liked to, a fact which led him to feel much stress and demotivation.

It is worth mentioning here that it would be difficult for the English language advisors to cater for the teachers' needs even if they really wanted to, because of the large number of teachers they are assigned. Furthermore, their inefficiency to provide EFL teachers with the appropriate help is partly due to their inadequate knowledge, as normally advisors are not trained to be advisors, but are holders of a

Ph.D degree in domains other than teacher training or methodology. SH complained about not receiving the help she required when she faced a problem in one of her advanced classes:

> *School advisors do contribute in some way, particularly at lower levels like junior high school level. They do seem to have more ideas about teaching at those levels. But I have not come across an advisor as yet, after my ten-year working experience at public schools with advisors, who deal particularly with senior students. I have not had any kind of help or support on teaching senior students, but fortunately I think I have managed quite well without the advisors (Laughter) so I don't know whether they would be of much assistance in any case (Laughter).*

The most marked finding in this area was that even EFL teachers did not support each other. Three out of the four subjects reported that they were unhappy with the lack of support from and collaboration with their EFL colleagues. SH's reply regarding her collaboration with two of her EFL colleagues is illustrative:

> *...not that there is animosity amongst us, but I just feel that they may evade the subject* [of wanting to collaborate]. *I am willing to speak in English to my colleagues and to exchange ideas with them, but I don't think they would. If they talk to one another in Greek, they talk to me in Greek, which I do not understand, and at least one of them probably has by now her set way of teaching. I think that it is very hard to change that in a person* [a senior colleague of hers, almost retiring from work] *who has been out of touch with new teaching approaches for so long.*

The reasons for this lack of collegiality have been discussed in earlier sections.

9.9 Feedback and recognition

9.9.1 Sources of feedback

We saw in Chapter 4 that feedback is central to maintaining motivation and that there are five sources of feedback teachers can use to reinforce their efforts to teach as effectively as possible: the students, the tests students take, administration, teachers' peers, and the students' parents (Pennington, 1995). Out of the five sources, the participants of this study felt the tests and the students to be the most significant forms of feedback. The other three sources were non-existent, as firstly, parents altogether disregarded the subject of English in the state sector, so there was no way that our EFL teachers would receive feedback from them; secondly, because of the lack of collegial support, collaboration and relatedness it was unlikely that they would receive feedback from their colleagues either; and finally, feedback from the administration and school advisor was altogether absent, as it was not the norm at the time the investigation was carried out for teachers to be subjected to assessment[28]. This lack of assessment led teachers to a state of passivity, which was conducive to their demotivation.

HM pointed out that the absence of assessment was the reason why teachers did not do their best in carrying out their practice in the most effective manner:

[28] Teachers in Greece struggled in the past to abolish the institution of assessment because they thought it was autocratic.

I think, it might be mean with what I am going to say, but most of them, rather us do not do our job properly. This is because there isn't anyone who would check on us. Therefore, we do whatever we think is right. We might not be doing it as well as we can, but if we were assessed then we would try our best.

All of the participants admitted that if assessment was put into effect, then things would be different. MP found assessment essential, because this would allow school standards to be kept high and thus she would try even harder to be a better teacher, as was the case with her school in South Africa:

> *They* [the ministry] *should be very careful about who they select and there should be, you know teacher assessment; we had inspectors in South Africa who came in class and inspected us for two to three weeks. They were inspecting the teachers and the standard of the education, the learning they were offering their students, I mean, if they didn't offer anything then you know, they would send them home or the teachers would do something else.*

However, when our participants were asked whether they were looking forward to the impact of the 1998 reform,[29] which re-introduced teacher assessment, they all sounded hesitant. This was due to the fact that they were sceptical of the validity and reliability of the assessment. In particular, MP remarked that she would not mind being assessed provided *"their* [the advisors'] *opinion is always valued"*.

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[29] State schoolteachers in Greece have not been evaluated for over 20 years, and it seems that it will take a while before the restitution of evaluation according to law 2525/97 article 8 and decree 189/1998 is put into effect.

KK's reaction to the question of whether she minded being assessed is interesting, as she stated that she found it meaningless to be given feedback for a teaching approach that was imposed on her:

> *...eh, I would like to be given feedback, but this presupposes that I went into the classroom and tried to do something of essence, something different, something original, a lesson where I have integrated the skills we mentioned earlier and many more. Then yes I would not mind being assessed. However, considering that I am so much trapped I can't see any reason why I should have somebody in my class to tell me that my lesson is boring, or that I don't give emphasis to the oral skills, and that I'm forced to follow a structural approach...*

KK's reply refers us back to the argument made by Firestone and Pennell (1993), who state that feedback "appears to depend on its relationship to autonomy. Autonomy and feedback go hand-in-hand because knowledge of results is not meaningful unless teachers attribute the activities that produce results to their own actions and view the results as valid" (p. 503).

The mechanism most of our participants used in order to overcome the absence of assessment was to ask for feedback from their students. MP was the only exception who used another strategy to compensate for the lack of feedback. She tried to reflect on her teaching after the end of each lesson, in order to see what went wrong so that she could improve herself in future. In other words, she became a "reflective practitioner" (Schön, 1987):

> *No, I don't have a school advisor to give me feedback. I do that to myself, though you know, I sort of go through, you know, I have my*

lesson plan I guess and I go through it. And then when I get home you know and I see whether these things worked in the classroom. And if they didn't then I see what changes I could make, things like that. So I do sort of give feedback to myself and how things went...Because it doesn't just stop there. I mean what I do in my classroom, I'll go home and reflect on what I did to try and find ways of doing things better the next time. I suppose it is part of what a professional should do, okay

Thus, in the Greek state school context there is an apparent lack of official and professional feedback, which has deprived our EFL teachers of the opportunity to improve themselves. However, it is quite promising that in order to make up for this absence they have resorted to feedback given by their students, and MP has become a reflective practitioner. This is yet another sign that these teachers try their best to keep themselves motivated in spite of all the negative aspects around them.

9.9.2 Lack of recognition and of the sense of accomplishment

In Chapter 4, we saw that recognition from others was a powerful source of satisfaction for teachers, while a lack of recognition was believed to contribute to teachers' dissatisfaction and demotivation. In this study, all the participants expressed their disappointment at the lack of recognition from their administration, colleagues, students, the students' parents and society in general – a point closely related to the low status state EFL teachers have, as was discussed in Chapter 7.

The cause of the absence of recognition was, as the participants pointed out, the existence of frontisteria, which deprived them not only of the responsibility to teach students the language, but also of receiving any recognition they deserved for

having succeeded in teaching them the English language. However, even though recognition was scarce, if not, totally absent, it was something they really longed for. HM is quite explicit about this:

> *But at least the thing that I want is for my effort to be recognised. I get into the classroom to teach, I don't go in to tell jokes and have fun until time is up for us to leave.*

HM reported that he had unofficially received some positive comments from a number of students and their parents concerning his teaching; a kind of recognition which he seemed to be content with. However, he was aware that the recognition he received was only from a minority of his students, a factor which is most likely to have contributed to his demotivation and consequently to stress.

KK remarked that she received a great deal of recognition in the private sector, as opposed to the state sector; in the latter her work was not recognised and this was because, as she reported, apathy prevailed regarding the subject of English. Knowing that it was unrealistic for her to receive any kind of recognition, she tried to rise above this need by focusing on the need for autonomy. In fact, she stated that if she had been allowed to do her job in the manner she chose, she would not really have been worried about not receiving any recognition. The following discussion with KK is illustrative of the point made:

I: *How important is it for you that you be seen to be doing a good job. Or let me put it somewhat differently, what sort of recognition would you like to have for the work that is being well done by you?*

KK: *It is quite a distant thought. Personally, the first thing for me is to be given the chance to do my job properly, and to be left in peace. To expect any kind of recognition is quite farfetched.*

Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning here that however hard she tried to disregard the need for recognition, in one subsequent interview she admitted that she needed her work to be recognised. This proves that recognition is indeed vital, as it allows an employee to derive energy in order to be able to go on with one's job. The need for recognition is exemplified in the following quote taken from an interview KK gave:

As for your work to be recognised, it necessarily might not be recognised so much, or as much as you would like it to, either by the headmaster or the school advisor or the ones that will be assessing us.... Of course you want [your work] *to be recognised ...*

MP received recognition from the vice-principal and her students, who appreciated the hard work she put in regardless of the adverse teaching conditions in the state sector. The positive response on behalf of her students with regards to the good job she did must have given her the impetus to keep on working in the manner she did. This proves that if students are taught in an interesting and motivating way with suitable accompanying materials, they will most probably appreciate it and a positive feedback cycle will emerge. It also needs to be emphasised, though, that a prerequisite of the need for recognition is for the teachers to feel that they have achieved their aims. As we saw in Chapter 3, achievement is at the top of the list of factors leading to job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1993), an aspect that our participants did not usually experience, and which therefore had a negative impact

on their motivation. The reason they did not experience achievement was that they could not enjoy student achievement, as was discussed in Section 7.2, and consequently were deprived of the feeling of accomplishment. This in turn led to the diminishment of the participants' job satisfaction (Pennington, 1995) and most probably to increasing stress.

The other side of the coin, however, is that our EFL state school teachers rarely put much effort into carrying out their job as efficiently as possible, and this could be attributed to the lack of two factors that determine employee effort (Pinder, 1987; as cited in Pennington, 1995): (a) the *value associated with the outcomes* by the individual, a component that our teachers, seem to have foregone as they had psychologically handed over the responsibility of the teaching of English to frontisteria; and (b) *the extent to which the employees feels that their effort is conducive to the receiving of rewards*, primarily intrinsic enjoyment – an issue discussed in Chapter 7.

9.10 Concluding remarks

The discussion above clearly illustrated that EFL teachers were affected negatively by school-based factors. However, as the dataset revealed, what essentially affected their motivation was the disinterest their students showed in their subject, and not so much the absence of facilities and resources. Their good rapport with their students was indeed an asset that allowed them to persist with their teaching and not give up despite the adverse teaching conditions. Conversely, it was illustrated that the absence of the feeling of relatedness within the school context, as well as the lack of collaboration with their colleagues and the unsupportiveness of their heads, did take their toll on their motivation.

Practical matters, such as large and mixed ability classes, made teaching quite a challenging task, which they would have been able to overcome better had they been provided with appropriate pre-service and in-service training. Also, the absence of appropriate feedback and recognition from those around them had a detrimental effect on their motivation, although they tried to compensate for this by receiving feedback from their students.

Chapter 10: The temporal dimension of teacher motivation: An annotated case study

Introduction

The analysis chapters so far have shown that teacher motivation is a complex construct, made up of many constituents which exert different influences by either adding to it or pulling it down. In order for us to see the complete picture of the teacher motivational concept, it is essential that we also look at it from a temporal perspective. This is because teachers live with these interfering motives for a relatively long period of time and thereby experience fluctuations.

KK's teaching story as an illustrative example is an excellent means of capturing this time dimension. The following account is based on a longitudinal series of interviews, in which KK was interviewed five consecutive times until a point of saturation was reached. Additionally, I kept in touch with her via telephone conversations in order to keep a record of her motivational state.

KK's story is an appropriate conclusion to the analysis section of the thesis because not only were most of the issues discussed in the previous chapters reflected in KK's journey, but also the twists and turns in KK's career development showed how different motivational factors exerted their influence on her motivational progress through time. It is interesting to note here that after being interviewed so many times, KK admitted to me that she had found the interviews quite therapeutic, because they helped her understand herself and the situation she was in.

10.1 KK's story

The year 1982

It is 1982. KK's dream comes true. She is appointed as a teacher of English in one of the frontisteria, which most of the university graduates from foreign language departments, like herself, resort to in order to get a job. KK is happy because she can now fulfil her ambition to teach the young generation the English language, which she regards as being the most *"useful, benefiting and pleasant"* language to learn. She feels that, by teaching them English, she will equip them with something that will allow them to cope with life. It seems that her enthusiasm when she sets off on her career is genuine and strong. She is intrinsically motivated in the true sense of the concept.

The year 1988

KK's interest in her profession did not stop when she received her degree and got a job. She aspires to become even better; she is interested in developing herself professionally, so in 1988 she decides to travel to the United States and do an MA in English literature. Having successfully completed the degree, she returns home, full of further ambition and motivation. She gets a job in an even better frontisterio than the one she used to work for.

The year 1994

In 1994, she is finally appointed for the post she has longed for in the state sector. In Greece, one does not need to have an MA to get a post in the state sector, but now it

was her turn to be appointed in one of the state schools after being on a waiting list for so long. She is happy because she has managed to get a job where tenure is for life and the financial conditions are also favourable.

However, her contentedness is soon to change. Her happiness and satisfaction starts fading away due to the adverse working conditions she is forced to work in. In addition, she has to face something that is even more detrimental than the bad teaching conditions: she is *"forced to adapt"* to the passive mentality that prevails in state schools regarding the subject of English, a point that has come up more than once in the previous chapters. She feels that her image as a teacher is unfairly degraded because her subject is the English language. Her managers, colleagues, the parents of her students and, most importantly, the students themselves all fail to give her due respect. Her status is marginal:

> *My status is nothing, nothing and I assume the same is with other colleagues of mine. In this respect I feel that this is our common fate. Maybe the older colleagues certainly relish a better status.*

Thus, very soon after joining the state sector, both micro-contextual and macro-contextual factors start adversely affecting her motivation. She thinks she can avoid the adverse teaching conditions by asking to be transferred to a different school every year. In the four years that this study lasted, she was transferred three times, once from a big city to the town where I met her, then she got another transfer to her home town, and finally to the beacon school where she remained for two consecutive years and is in fact planning to stay for the rest of her teaching career. Her justification for these transfers is that she thought she might just be lucky enough to be relocated to a school which would fulfil her dream of allowing her to

do what she likes most, and which would support the teaching methods and approaches she believes in.

The year 2000

It is the year 2000. KK is transferred to one of the schools in the town I lived when I started my research. It is a new school, well-equipped by Greek standards, and has a good reputation. KK's first month is very much to her liking. She feels satisfied with her job. The course books have not arrived yet, so KK feels that she has the freedom to teach the way she thinks best to capture her students' interest and attention. And indeed she is successful in engaging her students in the lessons. This is the only month during her time in this school that KK feels she has had any autonomy and could really be herself. She feels motivated and her students are responsive to her way of teaching. The classes are not constrained to passive, mechanical tasks, but rather involve active student participation and motivated learning through group and pair work. KK's self-esteem is high and so is her motivation:

> *Well, in this school at the beginning of this school year, I'll just give you an example, I was going to do this, and I used some of the dialogues that are in some units in the first grade book. I organised a sketch and I told them to learn the expressions that were in bold letters and to change the context so that it can suit their situation. I told them to think where they had travelled to, for example, and to be ready to get in pairs or in threes to perform the dialogue. One student would ask the other where he/she went, and the other would answer, let's say, "I went to Australia". And I got some students to come to the front of the room, Eleni, I made them get up so that the others could hear them.*

Students that wanted to get up and perform and sincerely, the others sitting at their desks were watching carefully and enjoyed it. There were many students who volunteered. However, I didn't have the scope to do it with more than three pairs of students or how many they were three groups of three students, let's say, but it worked out well even for the rest. The ones who didn't perform and actually wanted to perform I told them to keep their appetite for next time, as we would be doing something similar, but with a different topic.

Things start to go wrong

KK soon realises that she might be facing problems with her new headmistress who is not a very open-minded or considerate person. The only thing she is concerned with is the smooth running of the school, without any interest in the well-being of the teachers, and that is an issue that very much infuriates KK:

The heads are only interested in matters that have to do with the smooth running of the school. She wants everything in working order to make a good impression on society...The headmistress is interested in that, I don't think that she would be interested in anything else.

Her other problem is that she has no one to share her enthusiasm with. Nobody around her seems to care whether the students have learnt anything or not. She knows that her colleagues will never understand her way of teaching. They want to quickly get the teaching done and over with. They teach approximately 30 students at a time, lecturing them monotonously, without trying to challenge them or

attract their interest, so the negative reaction they get from the students is not really surprising:

> *They finish school at noon having been attending classes from morning to noon and they literally haven't learnt anything new in essence, they have to go home to study if they want to learn. They are passive listeners they have listened to their teachers teach, they have sat like plants, like sacks of potatoes on their chairs for so many hours. They get bored and it is only natural that they talk with their classmate in front of them or next to them and they start becoming naughty and they leave class having learnt nothing. If for example I dedicate a session to do a speaking activity, as I have already mentioned, and as a result the students have learnt to use three expressions, at least three, which they have articulated, they have heard, they have used during the session – this will be taken by a third irrelevant person,...as a waste of time!!!*

In spite of the fact that KK knows her students enjoy her classes and her untraditional way of teaching, at the back of her mind hovers the fear that the headmistress or any other of her colleagues might one day come up and reprimand her because of the noise and 'disorder' that is created in her classes. This would suggest to them that she is an ineffective teacher. And although she could try to explain to them that her approach is considered one of the most effective ways of teaching students a language, would they ever understand?

> *If we do group work in the classroom, Eleni, and I divide the class into five students to do something, another five to do something else in groups won't there be any chaos?...But this* [group or pair work], *in*

this school gives the impression that you are a bad teacher. Do I have to get down and explain to them how a foreign language is taught!!! They are not interested in how they are to teach their own subjects [let alone how a foreign language is taught]. *I don't think they have ever bought a book to read to update their teaching. They have not devoted time to open their eyes!!!*

Thus, her initial efforts to engage her students' interest and attention through such a 'different' teaching approach is, according to KK, rather risky as it is unlikely to be approved of by the head and can thus cause KK damage:

I'm on my own as far as the methodology is concerned, whatever you can bring apart from what is in the book...[for example] *a song with the lyrics which you can embody to your lesson, an oral activity you can do even a small theatrical, things that the students themselves can do...they go crazy about them, they love it, there may be commotion in the classroom, and this is not desirable by the heads, but the students like it and they respond and they participate*...[and] *unfortunately if you decide to go against the current on your own, to improve your teaching and the way you confront the students generally but also indirectly your teaching methodology you will be bogged without doubt.*

It seems that going against the tide and trying to do things differently, without being discouraged by the other teachers' demotivation, take their inevitable toll on a person: KK is now feeling the pressure of working in such an environment.

Going with the flow

The new schoolbooks are here! The motivation that filled KK and her students is diminished. KK is dictated by school policy to cover the units assigned, thereby leaving no room for her to apply any of her up-to-date approaches to teaching. Furthermore, even if she finds the time, she has the problem of working with a very traditional senior colleague. KK is afraid that if she employs her own approach to teaching with these new books, her senior colleague might report this to the headmistress. It is the standard practice that the headmistress would not ask KK but the senior colleague about KK's performance. Other teachers in a similar situation might not care, but KK's sensitivity makes her wary of everybody and everything around her. KK could have discussed with her colleague her dislike of the books they were to use, but she does not do it for two reasons: out of respect for her senior colleague, and because she knows that this colleague has unofficial authority over book choice and curriculum pace. Consequently, KK feels trapped and helpless, as she is obliged to follow her colleague's pace and approach, which to KK is very traditional and boring:

> *Eh, I have some problems with my colleague who teaches English. I have been stressed a bit from one aspect. She works in a way and a style that I have to follow. I realised from the very beginning that I would have a problem because she picks the course book and rushes it by just doing the reading passages, the grammatical points, exercises and then goes onto the next unit. She doesn't do any of the speaking or listening activities.*

In addition to all this, KK is also demotivated by the lack of hierarchical advancement in the teaching profession, a point usually referred to in the literature as 'insufficient career structure':

> *Because if you are under circumstances where you are obliged to pick the book and start rushing it through, as I am doing at present and fortunately, I hope this is going to be a temporary situation, I have no scope to think beyond this point. I am also actually bogged down, talking about my professional development as a teacher. Eh, I am not hoping to have any hierarchical advancement. And I wouldn't care the way things are functioning to be in a position more responsible than this one. As a result, I will only have the rank advancement that the law makes provision for.*

KK's motivation and enthusiasm is almost totally drained by now. She has been overwhelmed by a combination of several micro- and macro-contextual problems. She decides to give up trying to be different. Why should she try after all? There is no support from any direction, be it her administration, her colleagues, the school advisor, or the in-service training the Ministry of Education has deprived her of. KK, who initially started with great aspirations, is left with nothing but the necessity to go into class, be done with her job and leave. She seems to be constrained by the curriculum, even though she knows that no one will ever check on her. Still, she is paranoid about the possibility of her senior colleague coming and reporting on her work if she does not cover as many units as her colleague has. She would be *"exposed"* and to avoid this she needs to complete as many units as possible to show that she is progressing well. It does not matter that her students

might not have learnt the material, or might not have shown any interest or paid attention. Covering the assigned units is what matters:

> *... she is the one that will report on me for my teaching if the headmistress asks her to give her information about me. So, when she is asked how the other teacher of English, that is me, is doing in her lessons whether she is moving on or not* [unit wise], *then you are doing okay* [if you are moving ahead with the units] *because this is what the headmistress wants to hear; she will say yes, okay or otherwise she will tell her that the other teacher is behind with the units. And, I for fear that I will be exposed towards the head, who will in future make a report on me, as you know according to the new appraisal system*[30], *both the school advisor and the headmaster write reports except for the SMA, that is, the Body of Anonymous Evaluators I definitely don't want to find myself exposed, that I am not moving on* [with the units and] *that I am not teaching the next unit.*

KK believes that the only remedy to her situation is to get yet another transfer and this is what she is looking forward to. She really wants it, because she hopes that finally she will be able to work in a supportive and satisfying educational environment:

> *I'm counting the days until I get a transfer to another school, which would be smaller and I would be the only English teacher, or I would have a more 'normal' colleague, with whom I could collaborate...*

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[30] It is 2003, and the appraisal system has not been put into effect as yet, even though it was re-introduced in 1998.

School transfer

It is 2001 and KK is happy because she was granted the transfer. The school is in a village near her home town. KK seems to be enjoying more autonomy here because she is the only English language teacher in the school. She seems satisfied, as this feeling of autonomy has contributed to her creativity in class:

Yes, yes I feel freer to do things without having to worry whether I have moved on in the book and that I have covered certain units ...I am in control of the class I am the one in charge, I am the boss and it all depends on me and there won't be anyone who will come and interfere with what I am doing at least for the things I do in the four walls of my classroom. This is already important but it is not enough in any case it is not enough. I don't feel it is enough.

The reason *"it is not enough"* is that once again the headmaster is neither open-minded nor supportive, and neither are her other colleagues, except for the French language teacher. She starts off the school year once more with the ambition of offering her students her services, but her efforts are not devoid of problems.

History repeats itself

In addition to the unsupportive atmosphere, KK finds it difficult to come to terms with the passivity that prevails regarding the subject of English. She becomes very disappointed in spite of getting the transfer, as she has not managed to find what she was looking for. Her response to my question as to whether she had found what she really wanted by moving to a new school, is quite revealing:

No, I wouldn't say so, but the difference now compared to last year is that I have now been persuaded that I will never find what I am looking for in the public sector. I am certain that it is a lost case [to work for the public sector].

To cut a long story short, she once again finds herself in a position where she is counting the days until she gets another transfer:

> *I plan to stay in this school for this year and then in autumn to ask for a transfer to a town closer to my house hoping that I will be in a school where the staff will be more collaborative ...*

This time she is going to apply for a beacon school, although she is aware that obtaining a position in one of these schools is not easy. Things must surely be different there; teaching and learning are serious matters in beacon schools, and school policies are stricter. KK is once again lucky and succeeds in getting the position she longed for. Her MA degree has allowed her to claim the position. She is indeed looking forward to teaching in this school. She has heard so much about how good beacon schools are.

The year 2002

It is 2002. She contacts me and seems very disappointed. She cannot believe that English is not even valued in a beacon school, and here again she cannot relate to her colleagues. She finds them arrogant, because of the status of working in a top school. Still, the teaching conditions are much better in this school and, therefore, KK has made up her mind that even if things are not getting better, she has nowhere else to

escape to now. This is the school where she will spend the rest of her working life. After all, the school has got prestige, which is an important factor she cannot disregard. In spite of the fact that teaching becomes a routine, she tries her best to improve her status and the subject's status. She works hard.

The year 2003

It is 2003. KK again gets in touch with me and informs me that the school advisor has asked her to do some model teaching. This is indeed a privilege – she has been chosen out of all the teachers to do the presentation. She sounds as if she has finally received a kind of recognition and a challenge. A few weeks later, KK contacts me again and informs me that the model teaching she was supposed to give was postponed even though she had been preparing for it, and this disappointed her. Yet, she appears to be satisfied with her job and it seems that finally she feels settled.

10.2 An analysis of KK's journey

A good framework for explaining the changes that occurred in KK's motivation from the start of her career to the present time is Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of motivation, because its design to explain motivation is centred around the time element, that is, a featured temporal axis (see Figure in Appendix II).

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process is organised "along a sequence of discrete actional events within the chain of initiating and enacting motivated behaviour" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 85). Two main dimensions are present in this motivated behavioural process:

- *action sequence*,

- *motivational influences.*

The dimension of *action sequence,* according to Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of motivation, is divided into three phases:

- *the preactional phase*
- *the actional phase*
- *the postactional phase*

These three motivational behavioural phases are affected by a variety of *motivational influences* which provide the *energy* and the *motivational sources* according to the process model. These motivational influences include most of all the motivational factors discussed in the motivation literature (Chapter 2), for example self-efficacy, autonomy, need for achievement.

The preactional phase

The *preactional phase,* which pertains to the individual's choice to carry out an action, relates to KK's motivational behavioural process when KK's initial *wishes/hopes* were being formed and came to be realised. This was when she was accepted to study English at the University of Athens and thus had the opportunity to train to become a teacher.

The three subprocesses to this phase, which can either have a long time interval between them or follow on rapidly from each other or terminate before reaching action, are, according to Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, the following:

- *goal setting*
- *intention formation*

- *initiation of intention enactment*

KK's motivational behaviour began when she set the goal to graduate from the Department of English so that she could practise teaching. However, her goal in itself was insufficient to initiate action without forming an *intention*. This is because her *intention* to become a teacher, which is the immediate antecedent of the action plan, involves commitment to her goal and the development of a manageable *action plan,* which contains:

- *action schemata* (her enrolment and attendance), and
- *a time frame* (to complete her studies in four years in order to be awarded her degree and then be able to join a school in order to teach)

The *initiation of intention enactment,* which takes us to the *action phase* is realised when two preconditions are present: the *means and resources* are available and there is the *start condition*. In our case, KK acquired her necessary degree and became eligible to apply for a post as a teacher, and all she needed now was to receive a job to move into the actional phase. What were the main *motivational influences* taking her through the preactional phase? In the goal setting subphase, positive *subjective values* and social *norms* influenced her choice to follow this profession. These were her past experiences, regarding the value of becoming a teacher and the pleasure she expected to get from contributing to society by educating the future generation. An additional motivational influence which played a significant role on her motivation was the *external environment,* and this is because both socioeconomic and socio-cultural norms are thought to exert forces on the individual's choice of potential goals.

In the intention formation subphase, KK displayed sufficient *expectancy for success* (see Section 2.2.3), and made a positive evaluation regarding her coping

potential based on several interacting factors, such as her *self-efficacy*, the amount of *expected support*, and the *causal attributions* about her past experiences.

The actional phase

The *actional phase*, which according to Dörnyei (2000), "can be compared to crossing a metaphorical 'Rubicon'" (p. 527), relates in our case to KK's actual embarkation on her profession (her first teaching appointment). Her initial choice motivation was thereby replaced by executive motivation, which means that the emphasis has shifted from deliberation and planning about becoming a teacher to the implementation of being a teacher. This is the point where she commits herself to the teaching profession.

After KK surmounted all the 'obstacles' and was ready to start the course action, three basic processes came into effect in this phase:

- *Subtask generation and implementation* – when KK started putting into practice her knowledge of teaching English.
- *A complex ongoing appraisal process* – when KK evaluated all the stimuli that came from her work setting, for example the different micro- and macro-contextual issues. This appraisal process affected her motivational behaviour, and consequently contributed to her broader perspective regarding her ability to cope with the teaching profession.
- *The application of a variety of action control mechanisms* – when KK tried her best to control the action plan through a self-regulatory mechanism she adopted in order to improve, scaffold or protect the specific action. The adopted mechanism was her persistence in asking for yearly transfers until she found a school where the ongoing action, that is

her teaching, would lead her to some kind of *actional outcome*. This would allow her to feel that her teaching has offered both herself and her students the desired outcome. However, because this *actional outcome* was not achieved in the schools she got the transfers to, she persisted in asking for transfers until the *actional outcome* was achieved. It seems that the beacon school was where, in 2003, she felt that the actional outcome had been partly achieved, and thus her desires/hopes and ambitions for this specific action plan had been fulfilled.

Due to the fact that KK did not initially experience what she desired, every time she got a transfer to a new school, she adopted a defence mechanism: requesting a transfer. Thus, every time she was relocated to a new school, the whole actional process started afresh from the *preactional phase*.

The postactional phase

The last phase is *the postactional phase*, which according to Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, begins when the goal has been attained or terminated for different reasons. It involves the evaluation of the achieved action outcome and the deliberation for future actions. The main characteristic of the *postactional phase* is that the individual is not engaged in the actual activity any more, allowing one to have a broader perception of the whole behavioural process (Dörnyei, 2000).

In our case, determining the postactional phase is difficult because KK is still teaching, so there is no actual termination of the action. However, because the cyclical transfer process was finally broken, her final decision to stick to the beacon school, even though it was not the school she dreamt of, was in effect the result of some retrospective deliberation. Having compared her initial anticipations and the

implemented plans with the outcome, and thus having formed causal attributions, KK was able to see the degree to which her goal had been achieved. This is a crucial reflective act, as it contributes to the individual's *internal standards* and the range of *action-specific strategies*, which in fact are the means that allow the activation of the defence mechanism KK has adopted.

10.3 Concluding remarks

KK's story showed us the dynamics of the temporal dimension of the motivational changes that took place in time. KK has achieved her goal to join the teaching profession and in particular the state sector. Because initial hopes and desires were not realised in the actional phase, her main action control strategy was to constantly request transfers. Her relocation to new schools implies that there were repeated preactional phases, which involved hoping and planning for the new school.

The fact that there was a cyclical process in her action process means that she did not initially reach the postactional stage, that is, the retrospection phase. This is because she refused to face up to her problem until 2003, when she realised that there was nowhere for her to escape and therefore she needed to confront the situation.

In 2003, because of the fact that she got to the best possible school she could ever hope for, making her idealised dream come partly true, and also because of the fact that she could not hide behind her dream of the perfect school any more, she accepted that she had to put an end to this repeated process. She came to terms with the situation and she decided that she was going to stay in this school for the rest of her career.

Depending on the motivational influences that are exerted on the teacher, the temporal course takes a different course for every teacher. In our case, KK seems to have settled in the end, which is fortunate.

Conclusion

Teacher motivation is of primary importance with regards to student motivation therefore setting out to research teacher motivation was indeed an interesting and important topic to look into, especially in view of the fact that EFL/ESL teacher motivation is largely uncharted territory. The objective of this exploration was to gain insights into the range of underlying factors that are perceived to contribute to the motivation or demotivation of EFL teachers in the Greek state sector, where English language is regarded as a second rate subject.

In this thesis, a qualitative approach was employed in order to enquire into EFL school teacher motivation in Greek state schools, and findings were arrived at by means of a series of in-depth interviews. As is often the case with exploratory qualitative studies, there was a wealth of data that emerged, not all of which could be included in the dissertation. The unused data will give me plenty of 'ammunition' for future research.

The analysis of the data clearly indicated that there was a lot of dissatisfaction among EFL state school teachers in Greece, and in fact there was strong evidence that both macro-contextual influences (i.e., the prevailing work ethos at the societal level) and micro-contextual factors (i.e., school-specific circumstances) had an impact on EFL teachers' motivation, morale and job satisfaction. The data also showed that there was a lot of underlying intrinsic motivation to teach, which concerned the enjoyment teachers experienced of being with young people and their desire to contribute to their students' personal growth – two good reasons that allowed them to keep on with their teaching despite the adverse working conditions. An additional element that must have contributed to their persistence with their profession was their voluntary commitment – a

mechanism that is a characteristic of Greek people – the philotimo[31] or in other words that of offering *social services*.

It was revealed that our participants' initial motivation to teach was weakened by a number of factors, most notably the following:

- Their view that there was no outcome to their teaching, as students attributed their learning to their attendance at the frontisteria, which resulted in students' unresponsiveness in the state English classroom. This in turn led the teachers to experience purposelessness, as they had no goals to accomplish, and a lack of self-actualisation. Thus, the teachers felt deprived of the responsibility to contribute to their students' education, which resulted in a low sense of self-esteem, also leading to minimal job involvement and reduced job satisfaction.
- The restricted autonomy the teachers had, due to the centrally imposed teaching material and their inability to exercise even their autonomy, because of insufficient teaching efficacy caused by the inadequate teacher training.
- Their lack of personal growth and intellectual stimulation.
- The prevailing feeling of unrelatedness with their colleagues and especially with the other English language teachers.
- The unfavourable status of the English subject in the state sector, which was overwhelmingly attributed to the fact that English was not learnt at school but rather at the frontisteria.

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[31]"A person is *philotimos* to the extent to which he conforms to the norms and values of his in-group. These include a variety of sacrifices that are appropriate for members of one's family, friends, and others who are concerned with one's welfare; for example, for a man to delay marriage until his sisters have married and have been provided with a proper dowry is part of the normative expectations of traditional rural Greeks" (Triandis, 1972, p. 38, as cited in Hofstede, 1991, p. 61).

- Their low professional status, which was directly related to the status of English as a subject.
- The unsupportiveness of the school administration.
- The absence of in-service training, which would have equipped them with teaching efficacy given that their initial training was not adequate, and the lack of any support from the school advisors.
- Insufficient respect and recognition from the school administration, their colleagues, the students' parents and, most importantly, the students themselves.
- Practical matters, such as large and mixed ability classes, which made teaching quite a challenging and stressful task.
- The incompatibility of teaching ideologies between individual teachers and the school leadership and colleagues, and a school climate that did not promote a positive work ethos.
- The poor working conditions in the under-resourced state schools.

Interestingly, even though teaching resources were reported to be of crucial importance, it was found that their provision did not lead to the participants' satisfaction – a point which confirms Sergiovanni (1967) and Dinham and Scott's (1998, 2000a) postulation that the elimination of dissatisfiers in general does not necessarily result in increased teacher motivation. The data analysis also showed that certain micro-contextual factors that were found to affect teachers in other studies did not influence our participants greatly. In particular:

- The inadequate pay they received did not appear to contribute to their demotivation, despite the fact that a decent salary would have been appreciated. The reason low pay had minimal impact on their motivation

was related to the fact that even though it was low, it was a regular income, and in fact a much higher one than they received in the private frontisteria.

- The lack of advancement did not seem to affect them greatly, as they knew from the start that the teaching profession did not lend itself to such promotion.

A finding that is worth pointing out is that despite the fact that they enjoyed job security in state schools, this feeling was marred by the many demotivating factors. Finally, a significant aspect of my thesis not elaborated in other studies on teacher motivation before, was the analysis of the temporal dimension of teaching. This dimension is related to the fluctuation teachers experience in the course of their careers, and my study showed that the pattern of the fluctuation depends on the succession of motivational influences that each teacher is exposed to.

The major implication of the findings is that foreign language teacher motivation should become an issue of increasing research interest, and the following points should be taken into account by educational authorities:

- Because school leadership influences teachers' attitude to work, the Ministry of Education should make sure they employ headteachers who can provide support for their teachers.
- Because a lack of collaboration was found to be a major demotivator, it should be encouraged by giving teachers space, financial support, access to knowledge and constitutive feedback through the selective assistance of a counsellor or a school advisor.

- Because the introduction of a state certificate could contribute to the alleviation of the low status of the subject, the Ministry should reconsider assigning the granting of a state language certificate to state schools.
- Because teachers are ill-equipped for their job, due to the inadequate initial training they receive from their departments at the university, there should be a revision of university curricula.
- Because recognition and approval is of vital importance to raise the teachers' sense of self-esteem, teachers should be offered awards, prizes or titles for outstanding achievement.

The promising aspect of teacher motivation is that there is currently an interest in the topic. Future research should, obviously, involve a larger sample of English language teachers, coming from a range of school types and national contexts, since the participants in this study were not representative of every teaching situation. Furthermore, I consider it vital that more research is carried out using a mixed method approach, that is, a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques.

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APPENDIX I

The Greek Educational System

Pre-primary education (1-2 years)**:**
4-5 years old

Primary School: 6-12 years old (6 years) – English introduced at the 4th grade

Frontisteria: (Preparation for language certificate) English language starts at the age of 8. German or French languages start at 10 or 11.

Junior High School: 13-15 years old; English; French/ German languages introduced

Frontisteria: (Language certificates) English and either German or French languages. In addition, supplementation of core subjects, e.g. Greek, Maths, science.

Unified Senior High School: 16-18 years old; English

Technical Vocational Institute: 16-18 years old; English

Frontisteria: Supplementation of core subjects, e.g. Greek, Maths, science. A small percentage of students attend language courses.

University (4-5 years)

Non-university (3 years)

Vocational Institutes (different durations)

Appendix II: Figure 3.8.1 Dörnyei and Otó's (1998: 48) Process Model of L2 motivation