

The Relationship of Teachers' and Students' Motivation in ELT in Malta: A Mixed Methods Study

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the relationship between the motivation of secondary school teachers and students of English in Malta. The study involved 34 Form Four teachers of English and their 612 students (15 year-olds). A mixed methods research methodology, involving a survey and an interview study which complemented each other, was employed. The survey measured levels of teacher and student motivation and the relationship between them through questionnaires. Some of the teachers who had taken part in the survey were then interviewed about their motivation to teach and their perceptions of the relationship between this motivation and their students' motivation to learn.

The results show that mainly two factors link the motivation of teachers and students of English. These are a good rapport between teachers and their students and high teacher efficacy. Both of these factors increase the motivation of the students and their teachers. Type of school and the students' attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English were also found to be influencing factors in the relationship between teacher and student motivation.

Recommendations which stem from the study are that teachers should seek ways of professional self-improvement through support groups and Continual Professional Development courses. Other suggestions, both at the school level and the policy level, are put forward. These recommendations, if implemented, should improve teacher motivation which would in turn lead to improved student motivation as a positive relationship between the two has been established. The study is one of its kind in that it has established, for the first time, that an empirical link exists between teacher and student motivation.

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Lastly but most importantly, I am indebted to my brother Charles whose belief in me has been unrelenting. I owe him for his words of enthusiasm, his sound advice and good company throughout this venture. This thesis would not have been possible without him.

To

*My brother
Charles,*

who is my role model

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Introduction

Very few studies have investigated whether a relationship exists between teacher and student motivation. The extent of this relationship and on what levels it exists warrant investigation. This study strives to do this in the context of English language learning, and furthermore it offers recommendations about how teacher motivation can be enhanced through our knowledge of this relationship.

The present study has been inspired by my own teaching English to teenagers for fifteen years. Throughout this time I have always striven to keep high my motivation to teach English. I have been compelled to engage in further research, both for my own professional development, to sustain my constant interest in and enthusiasm for my job and also so that I am able to instigate the same enthusiasm for learning English in my students as I believe that this can be contagious. I also soon came to realise that my students have been the main source of my motivation. It was very motivating for me when my students collaborated with me and showed a keen interest in what I presented them with. I became interested in the issue of the relationship between teacher and student motivation and wanted to delve further into the matter. This is when I discovered that there is a dearth of literature that relates teacher motivation to student motivation. This instigated me to conduct this study.

I have conducted the present study about motivation in English language teaching in Maltese secondary schools for two main reasons, one because of the importance of learning English at that level in Malta and the other for personal reasons.

It is essential for students who are now in the final years of their compulsory schooling to have as high a level of English language proficiency as possible. Following this stage of their schooling, whether they continue with their studies or look for a job, proficiency and qualifications in English are essential for them. English is not only crucial for them in order to be able to have a successful career but also for them to be fully functional Maltese citizens. As Malta is a bilingual country, proficiency in English as the language of wider communication is indispensable. This means any research which can contribute to the improvement of English language teaching and learning at this level is especially important. I believe that teacher motivation is a key contributor to this improvement. This study seeks to find ways of improving teacher motivation through student motivation.

On a personal level this study is significant as it should help me both as a teacher of English and as a teacher educator of intending teachers of English. It should help me to become aware of the dynamics that exist between my motivation as a teacher and that of my students and to work on these to improve both. I will also be able to transmit any knowledge and insights gained into this issue to the student teachers who are under my guidance.

The main aim of this study is to investigate the relationships that may exist between teacher and student motivation in the English classroom. If such a relationship is established, then the motivational influences affecting teachers because of this relationship will be identified. The factors which may hinder such a relationship will also be examined. The objective ultimately is to provide both theoretical insights and practical recommendations that could be implemented by teachers and the relevant institutions to raise the motivation of teachers of English at secondary schools in Malta. I think this study makes an essential contribution to

English language teaching as in a time of global recession, budget cuts, classroom overcrowding, and compulsory high-stakes testing; teacher motivation is more and more difficult to sustain. This study is one of its kind, not only in the field of English language teaching, but also in that of Educational Psychology.

The thesis is divided into 8 chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: English Language Learning and Teaching in Malta This chapter provides a brief history of the development of the English language in Malta. It seeks to shed light on the attitudes which have evolved over time toward the language and toward Maltese speakers of English. It provides also a brief overview of the Maltese educational system with a specific focus on the English language syllabus, English teaching methodology in schools and teacher education. The main aim of this chapter is to place the current study in a context.

Chapter 2: Student Motivation This chapter reviews the current research on student motivation in second language (L2) learning. The various conflicting definitions of L2 learning motivation and a history of L2 motivational research are presented. This history spans three periods; the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process-oriented period. It includes a chronological overview of the main theories of student motivation in L2 learning. The chapter ends with a review of the recent concepts in L2 motivation such as the possible self,

Dörnyei's self-system, motivation at group level, motivational self-regulation and teacher-controlled strategies.

Chapter 3: Teacher Motivation The introduction of this chapter presents a definition of the main components of teacher motivation and the role they play in teaching. The two-dimensional model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the third domain are presented. This is followed by an overview of the issues of teacher autonomy, efficacy, stress and burnout, and feedback given to teachers. Finally recommendations for the enhancement of teacher motivation are put forward.

Chapter 4: The relationship between Teacher and Student Motivation This chapter presents the limited literature which is available about the relationship between teacher and student motivation in English language learning. Three major studies are described: Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and; Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). Then the possible factors that act as mediators in this relationship are examined. In conclusion a brief discussion of the influence of student motivation on teacher motivation is presented.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology The methodology employed in this study is presented in this chapter. The research question is put forward and the rationale behind using a mixed methods approach is discussed. A comprehensive account of the research design which incorporated both

a survey and an interview study is provided. The description of and commentary on the design includes the selection of the participants, the development of the research instruments, the procedure adopted for the collection of data, ethical considerations, reliability and validity issues.

Chapter 6: Quantitative Analysis This chapter presents the analysis of the quantitative data and the relevant results. The responses from the teacher and student questionnaires are analysed for possible relationships and factors that may affect these relationships. The variables considered are the type of school, language use of students and the students' attitudes towards Maltese speakers of English.

Chapter 7: Qualitative Analysis This chapter presents the analysis of the qualitative data and related results. The main conceptual dimensions which constitute teacher motivation and other factors on the micro and macro contextual level which influence it are explored. An analysis of the data for possible relationships that teachers make between their own motivation and that of their students is then carried out.

Chapter 8: Conclusion This chapter presents and discusses the overall findings of this study. Recommendations which emerge from the findings and the literature review are listed and proposals for further research are put forward. Finally a personal reflection is made on the impact of this research on the professional development of the researcher.

CHAPTER 1 English Language Learning and Teaching in Malta

This chapter provides a brief history of the development of the English Language in Malta, discusses how attitudes towards this language have evolved over time and describes the present situation. Furthermore it provides a brief overview of the Maltese educational system. The English syllabus of state secondary schools, the English teaching methodology implemented in these schools and teacher education in Malta are also described briefly. This should place the discussion and analysis of the research findings of this study in their appropriate context.

1.1 The English Language in Malta

Since 1934 Malta has had two official languages, Maltese and English. This situation emerged from a long history of political conflict. For a long time these two languages, together with Italian, competed for the position of national language.

The Maltese language has for centuries existed in its spoken form and in the eighteenth century all the inhabitants of the Maltese islands spoke the Maltese language (Frendo, 1979). Under the Knights of the Order of St. John (1530-1798), the Italian language became increasingly widespread. In order to be considered educated one had to be proficient in the Italian language as Maltese literature was very limited.

Malta became a British colony in 1800 and after seventy-eight years of British rule, Italian was still the medium of instruction. By this time though, knowledge of the English language was considered useful and “those who needed or could afford to learn English privately did so. English was also taught in the schools. Even so no attempt to diffuse English had succeeded in dislodging Italian from its assiduously treasured status” (Frendo, 1979, p.37).

Italian was difficult to uproot since it was essentially the language of the professional classes who, according to Sultana (1992), considered the English language to be a threat, not only to the ‘cultural capital’, but also to the identity of the Maltese people. One must remember that the natives’ “budding sense of national identity was inextricably linked with the language question” (p.42).

Following a long and hard struggle, the English language made headway in Maltese society. According to Marshall (1971), the English language was introduced as the official language in Government administration during the time of the first British governor in Malta, Sir Thomas Maitland (1813-1824). By 1881, the main cities in Malta had the highest proportion of the English-speaking Maltese population. Most of the Maltese thought that the English language “could be diffused; few were prepared to accept that it should be imposed” (Frendo, 1979, p.42).

Savona (1865) claimed that another language apart from Maltese was indispensable for the Maltese people to carry out any business and to conduct correspondence. For this reason they had to learn Italian. This language was to be taught in every school and English was to be taught in the town schools only. As attendance in these schools was higher, students had a better opportunity to learn both languages.

The language question was extended to the Maltese language itself. Some of the Maltese people thought that Maltese was the only language of the people. Others considered Maltese to be a vulgar dialect and described it as 'the language of the kitchen'. The bias and prejudice against Maltese, according to Marshall (1971), stemmed from the fact that Maltese was a 'remnant of Arabic' and many wished to forget the Arab rule in Malta as any connection with a people of different origin and religion should, if possible, be forgotten. The fact that the Arab rule had ended more than seven centuries before the language question arose, proves that such attitudes can only be 'biased prejudice' (Marshall, 1971) against the Maltese language.

Under the British rule the Maltese language was undoubtedly given a higher status than it had possessed previously. Frendo (1979) says this was done solely to curtail any influence of the Italian language. In 1878, Patrick Keenan was sent by the British Government to report on the educational establishments of the islands. Keenan wanted everything within the educational system to be anglicized as much as possible. This, however, included the fact that English should be taught through the medium of Maltese. In the Keenan Report (1880), importance was given to teaching primary school children how to read in Maltese. The report stipulated that Maltese had to be the medium in which any other language, whether Italian or English, should be taught.

Maltese was therefore introduced in the educational system as the language medium for the teaching of Italian and English. At the time Maltese children had equal opportunities for learning both English and Italian. By the 1890's, parents were asked to make a choice as to which of these languages their children ought to learn. To the delight of those who were pro-English, English was the language most

parents preferred. This choice was offered in the third year of Primary schooling after which most children left school. This meant that many of them learnt neither language.

After 1934, when Maltese and English became Malta's official languages, the conflict shifted onto these two languages. Friggieri (1981) and Brincat (2001) refer to the conflict as one of national identity. The language question shifted from the political level to the psychological one. The Maltese language was given many official advantages, but essentially in practice people in general used Maltese to communicate on a day-to-day basis and English was used for written communication. Considerable friction was generated among various language groups because of the prestige attributed to each language. As had happened with Italian, English as the second language was given a prestigious position. This meant that some used the language to set themselves apart from others in society. This, to some extent, continues to be the case even nowadays.

1.2 The present situation

In the Maltese islands people use both Maltese and English to varying degrees. From a study conducted by Sciriha and Vassallo (2003) among 500 respondents it was found that 98.6% of the population claimed that Maltese is their native language while 87% claimed to have knowledge of English. A high percentage (78.2%) recognised English to be an important language in Malta. In the same study it is recognised that while in the recent past, knowledge of English was regarded positively as an indicator of high education and a definite ticket to success, today sole knowledge of English is becoming 'overtly taboo'. Speaking

solely English is generally scorned at and speakers are sometimes rebuked for not using the native tongue. A good command of Maltese, as well as of English, is particularly essential when applying for a job (Sciriha & Vassallo, 2003). Maltese is in no danger of being eradicated by the English language (Sciriha & Vassallo, 2006).

According to Brincat (2001) what is important in the current linguistic situation is that Maltese citizens are free to choose which language to use according to their real needs as now they belong to an independent Malta, which has a republican constitution and is a member of the European Union.

Family backgrounds

Camilleri (1992) maintains that language use among the Maltese people derives from mainly four types of family background. These family types still apply. They vary according to the order in which languages are acquired (see Table 1).

Speakers coming from family type A have been brought up with a Maltese dialect as an L1 as this is used at home and in the community. Standard Maltese is taught by parents and at school, while English is acquired at school. Family type B members use Standard Maltese as their L1 and learn English at school while Family C members use a mixture of both as an L1. English is an L1 to Family D members with Standard Maltese being acquired at school. One has to point out that which language is used by the Maltese is chiefly determined by the context and domain e.g. Maltese only at home and then Maltese with some English at school (Camilleri, 1995; Caruana, 2007; Micheli, 2001; Sciriha & Vassallo, 2006).

FAMILY TYPE	LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND USE
A	Dialect, Standard Maltese, English
B	Standard Maltese, English
C	Standard Maltese and English
D	English, Standard Maltese

Table 1 Languages acquired in different Maltese families (Camilleri, 1992).

Language and schools

The Maltese language predominates in state schools while English is given more importance in non-state schools. According to Micheli (2001) there is a direct link between language background and school type. Non-state schools have more students who come from English speaking backgrounds than state schools. (Cilia & Borg, 1997; Micheli, 2001; Mifsud, 1998; Zammit Mangion, 1992). This means that the English language is a social class indicator in schools implying that non-state schools are more ‘elite’ than state schools (Mifsud, 1997; Sultana, 1991). English language dominance in the schools which are considered to be more elite than others tends to be greater. The schools which are considered to be less elite vary in their degree of English language dominance. In some of these schools English is taught as it is in most state schools, as a foreign language. In schools which are considered to be the most elite, English is taught mostly as a second language.

Formally, both Maltese and English are given equal importance at the primary level. At secondary level there is a higher number of lessons in English than in Maltese. Informally, as we have seen, English is used more as a means of communication outside the classroom and also during other lessons in non-state schools than in state schools. In secondary classrooms code switching between Maltese and English is common among teachers and learners (Camilleri, 1996). The teachers' choice of language, according to Camilleri (1996) depends on their own family background and their own experience as a student. Teachers coming from English-speaking families and non-state schools are more likely to use English as a medium of instruction in class.

English is taught formally throughout compulsory schooling which extends from age six to sixteen and is taught on a daily basis. At the secondary level lessons of English are usually 45 minutes long. Apart from this the medium of instruction for all subjects, except for Maltese, Religion, Maltese History and Social studies, is English. This, however, is not strictly adhered to, especially in Area State Secondary schools as knowledge of English is less and teachers opt to use Maltese too as a means of communication. Most textbooks used in secondary classrooms are in English and most examinations are conducted in English. This means that most of the reading and writing in class is carried out in English (Camilleri, 1996).

In Micheli's (2001) study it was revealed that pupils learn English mainly for instrumental reasons as this is perceived as a language that is useful for studying abroad, work, travel and because it is required for further education. The study of Maltese, on the other hand, is motivated by integrative reasons as it is seen as a tool for identifying further with the Maltese community. This, however, seems to be changing since Maltese is increasingly being included as an important

academic subject and a necessary qualification both for higher education and employment (Caruana, 2007). Instrumental and integrative reasons for learning English and Maltese respectively were confirmed by Caruana (2007).

Language attitudes

The Maltese, in general, have favourable attitudes toward languages (Caruana, 2007; Micheli, 2001; Sciriha, 2001) and they view bilingualism positively (Micheli, 2001). Certain attitudes toward the use of English and Maltese, however, still prevail. In 1992, Camilleri claimed that different attitudes existed toward Maltese speakers of English and/or Maltese. She provided two distinct examples; those who stigmatise users of Maltese and English or English only as ‘snobs’ and those who on the other hand perceive speakers of Maltese only as belonging to a lower social class and maybe as less educated than those who use English as their everyday language. To a lesser extent these attitudes still exist, especially in the case of when Maltese use solely English (Caruana, 2007; Micheli, 2001). They are still considered to be snobs as they are seen to prefer to use a more international and prestigious language while rejecting their own mother tongue (Micheli, 2001).

1.3 The Maltese educational system

The Maltese educational system is modelled on the British system due to Malta’s colonial past. Schooling in Malta is compulsory up to the age of sixteen and has three levels: Primary Education (ages five to eleven), Secondary Education (ages eleven to sixteen) and Tertiary Education (16+). Those students wishing to pursue

tertiary education can choose from various institutions which include a number of Sixth Form colleges and the vocational college, the Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology. There is only one university in Malta which offers students a range of undergraduate and graduate degree courses.

1.3.1 Secondary schooling

Since this study is concerned primarily with secondary schools the information provided here is limited to this sector of the Maltese educational system. At secondary level parents can opt to send their children to State or Church or Independent schools.

State schools are run by the Ministry of Education and are free for all. There are two types of state secondary schools: Area Secondary Schools and Junior Lyceums. Students are automatically transferred to their area state secondary school when they complete their primary schooling. Admission into Junior Lyceums is controlled by a qualifying entrance examination. Pupils are examined in Maltese, English, Mathematics, Social Studies, and Religious Knowledge. This selective system, however, is currently being phased out. Area secondary schools and Junior Lyceums are currently being assimilated into one college which includes also their feeder primary schools. Although currently there is still a distinction between Area Secondary School classes and Junior Lyceum classes, eventually these will be merged and students will belong to the same class. Also the qualifying examination for entry into the Junior Lyceums is being phased out.

Church schools are also free but they rely on state aid and financial donations from parents which are requested on a regular basis (Cilia & Borg 1997).

Acceptance to some church schools is also controlled by an entrance examination but most rely on a lottery system. Independent schools, on the other hand, are fee-paying and do not have the same selective processes.

Secondary schools are organised in year groups which are called *Forms*, starting from Form 1 and ending with Form 5. All secondary schools apart from two Independent schools are single-sex.

1.4 English language syllabus and methodology

According to the national English Language Syllabus for secondary schools (Education Directorate, 2007) teachers should adopt an eclectic approach as varied methodologies should be used. ‘This approach involves a reflective, open-minded, learner-centred approach to teaching and learning that uses whatever is good and works for the individual learner.’ (English Language Syllabus for secondary schools, 2007).

The syllabus goes on to say that whichever methodology is used whether it is communicative language teaching, task-based learning approach, the Presentation, Practice and Production method (PPP), the lexical approach or the use of Discovery activities, teachers need to ensure that the learning outcomes that are set at various levels are reached. It is, therefore, the duty of the teachers to motivate, challenge and engage students, eliciting their responses and making the whole learning experience enjoyable. They are also to promote ‘learning-to-learn’ skills.

1.5 Teacher education

There are two ways in which one can become a teacher of English at secondary level in Malta. The University of Malta, which is the only university and teacher education institution in Malta, offers a four-year undergraduate course which leads to a B.Ed (Hons) degree and a one-year PGCE course for students who have followed a three-year BA (Hons) course in English. Other in-service specialized courses which offer Certificate, Diploma and Masters level courses in Education are, at times, also offered (Sultana, 2002).

The four-year undergraduate B.Ed (Hons) course, apart from the taught credits and thesis, consists of a field placement component which is made up of teaching observation sessions once weekly in schools during the first year and a six-week teaching practice block every year for the next three years. The one-year PGCE course also includes two six-week teaching practice blocks.

Cilia and Borg (1997) note that, inevitably, given the small size of Malta, qualified teachers have the same training and therefore come from the same ‘mould’.

1.6 The present study

The present study involved twelve state secondary schools; six of which were Area Secondary schools and the other six Junior Lyceums. Only state schools were chosen for the following reasons. The first reason concerns the number of students for the study. Had the church and independent schools been included in the study,

then to achieve representativeness, the number of participants would have been too extensive. This would have shifted the focus of the study too much on to the quantitative survey, not leaving enough time for a qualitative component (for more details, see Chapter 5). Secondly the state system, at the time of the study, provided the researcher with the opportunity to differentiate between high-achieving students (those attending Junior Lyceums) and low-achieving students (those attending Area State Secondary schools). Church and Independent schools do not offer such a clear distinction. Thirdly, a varied school ethos is attributed to Church and Independent schools (Sultana, 1991) making it impossible to group such schools. Therefore, the fact that only state schools were chosen ensured more homogeneity. Furthermore, as was pointed out earlier, Church and Independent schools tend to use English as a language of instruction and of general communication much more than State schools (Caruana, 2007).

The present study dealt with Form 4 students (14 to 15 year-old) and their English teachers. The intention was to study the oldest students in the school. However, since Form 5 students were engaged in the preparation of final exams and school-leaving activities it was not possible to work with them.

The students and teachers involved in this study came from six State Area Secondary schools and six Junior Lyceums; three girls' and three boys' schools from each type. The schools were chosen to ensure a representative sample from the different geographical regions of Malta. Table 2 demonstrates this.

<u>SCHOOL</u>	<u>CATCHMENT AREA</u>
Girls' Area State Secondary 1	Northern
Girls' Area State Secondary 2	Outer Harbour
Girls' Area State Secondary 3	South Eastern
Girls' Junior Lyceum 1	Outer Harbour
Girls' Junior Lyceum 2	Inner Harbour
Girls' Junior Lyceum 3	South Eastern
Boys' Area State Secondary 1	Outer Harbour
Boys' Area State Secondary 2	Inner Harbour
Boys' Area State Secondary 3	Western
Boys' Junior Lyceum 1	Inner Harbour
Boys' Junior Lyceum 2	Western
Boys' Junior Lyceum 3	Outer Harbour

Table 2 Geographical regions of the catchment areas of the schools involved in the study.

1.7 Conclusion

The status of the English language in Malta has evolved over the years from the language of administration under British rule in the nineteenth century to the essential tool of international communication that it is today. It has therefore become imperative for the Maltese to learn English in order to function fully in the bilingual context of Malta. Together with the Maltese language, a considerable amount of variations and code switching exist in the speech of the Maltese people. These come with varying attitudes which have evolved through the years. Such a bilingual context influences the teaching and learning of English in Malta and the motivation behind both.

This chapter sought to contextualise the current study. A brief review of the development of the English language in Malta and its current position especially vis- à-vis the attitudes which have developed toward Maltese people who use English for everyday use was given. A summary description of the Maltese educational system was provided and the English language syllabus of state secondary schools and the methodology that is implemented were described. This was followed by a brief description of teacher education in Malta.

CHAPTER 2 Student Motivation

This chapter, the first of three which constitute the literature review of this research work, reviews the main theories underlying student motivation in second language (L2) learning. This is quite an extensive overview as it was deemed important to consider these theories in order to develop a full understanding of all the influences which contribute to student motivation.

2.1 Research on student motivation: An overview

Motivation is the key to successful language learning as without it very little can be achieved. Yet, as Ushioda (2008) claims, "however commonsensical this general observation might be, the pursuit of its empirical verification has exercised language acquisition scholars for decades and generated an enormous amount of research" (p. 22). Extensive research has been conducted in the area of student motivation, ranging from examining what triggers motivation and what constitutes it, to the identification of factors which sustain and hinder motivation. In an overview article, Spolsky (2000) highlights the versatility of the notion of motivation, which can both be used to explain and manipulate students' behaviour. The ultimate aim, at least of the dedicated teacher, has always been to seek to motivate students and then to maintain and further heighten this as much as possible. High motivation has always been linked to success in the language classroom (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a & b). Furthermore and interestingly, Lamb (2001) considers motivation as teaching material *per se* rather

than as a medium to successful learning. For him motivation is something that should be taught so that students learn how to motivate themselves rather than wait for the teacher to come up with incentives to arouse their interest.

Ideally this chapter would start with a definition of motivation so that it is clear what is meant by this term from the outset. However, when discussing such a complex human notion this may not be possible and, indeed, the literature suggests that there is no such thing as a *definite* definition of motivation (Dörnyei, 1999; MacIntyre, 2002; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Pintrich, 2002). Instead, the various challenges encountered when defining motivation, especially in the L2 field will be considered, together with some examples of definitions. This will be followed by a chronological survey of L2 motivation research, which comprises three major periods: the social psychological period, the cognitive/situated period and the process-oriented period.

The chronological survey of L2 motivation will then be followed by a consideration of recent concepts, such as the notion of the ‘possible self’ and the way in which this forms the basis of Dörnyei’s self-system. Furthermore, motivation will also be examined at the group level, how it can be self-regulated and how teachers can actually control and enhance it by implementing motivational strategies will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

Definitions of motivation

If one were to ask what ‘motivation’ is, the most probable reply would point to the energy that drives one to work toward a goal. One can have the right environment, the right tools but if there is no inclination to ‘do’, to act, then the goal or result will

not be attained. Once one is determined to do something, this determination has got to last, rather than merely being present at the start of an activity. It has to be an ongoing process especially if achievement of the goal is a lengthy process, such as learning a language. There are endless reasons why one can be motivated towards a goal, varying from one individual to another, and there are also various influences which can mar or heighten motivation. In the light of this complexity, it is unsurprising that producing an ultimate definition of motivation has been problematic.

Motivation theories try to explain human thought and behaviour. This, in itself, is a daunting task and so we should not expect a complete and full explanation (Dörnyei, 1999, 2005; MacIntyre, 2002). On the other hand, Pennington (1995) contends that the problem is due to the fact that motivation cannot be directly observed and that the properties of each individual's motivational behaviour are different and vary under diverse circumstances. In fact whilst claiming that professionals differ in what constitutes motivation, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) say that, motivation, in its complexity, "has been conceptualised in varied ways including inner forces, enduring traits, behavioural responses to stimuli, and sets of beliefs and affects" (p. 5). This definition presents us with an assortment of variables. An added difficulty is that the effects of different motives, at times, positively interact, whilst at other times they are in conflict. Moreover, in many studies, according to Schmidt, Boraie and Kassagby (1996), it is not clear whether successful learning is the result or the cause of motivation. Dodick (1996) believes that the perfect explanation of motivation has yet to be discovered and, indeed, no single definition of motivation has been agreed upon at present (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

In 1985, Gardner defined motivation as a multi-faceted construct that combines effort, desire and positive attitudes toward language learning if the goal of learning the L2 is to be achieved. This definition of motivation generated several problems because its main concern was integrative orientation (this will be explained later in the chapter) which implied a situation where the language learners were in contact with the target language community. Often this is not the case and learners have no contact with speakers of the target language (Dörnyei, 1990; Ryan, 2005).

Gardner's definition does not take into consideration that motivational levels fluctuate over time. The idea of time was included in Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) expanded definition of motivation. For them language learning motivation features both internal and external aspects. The internal aspects include an interest in the L2, relevance of learning the L2 to personal needs, expectancy of success or failure and rewards. The external aspects include the decision to engage in language learning, perseverance over time and maintaining the activity at high levels.

Dörnyei (1998) also presents a more dynamic definition of motivation to learn, highlighting the fact that motivation needs to be sustained over time. For Dörnyei, "L2 motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate the learning behaviour and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; that is, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent" (Dörnyei, 1998, p.1).

Both Chambers (2001) and Dörnyei (2001) highlight the multifaceted nature of motivation. They see motivation as changing over time and being influenced by the surrounding context. They identify numerous factors which affect

human behaviour and which are, therefore, related to motivation. Both authors draw upon Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) definition of motivation which takes all of these factors into consideration; "The dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 64).

According to MacIntyre (2002), any explanation of language learning motivation requires one to answer three questions:

- (a) why is the performance expended directed toward a specific goal?
- (b) what establishes the amount of intensity or effort devoted toward achieving the goal? and
- (c) why do people who have the same learning situations differ in their motivational levels?

In respect of the last question, MacIntyre (2002) focuses on the fact that individual differences are of extreme importance when it comes to studying motivation and he acknowledges several authors, such as Crookes, Schmidt, Dörnyei, Oxford and Sherain, who actually promote this in their definition of motivation. This same attention to individual differences is also given by Masgoret and Gardner (2003).

Masgoret and Gardner (2003) define the motivated individual as someone who:

expands effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure, makes attributions concerning success and/or

failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals (p. 173).

The same notion of motivation as being goal-directed is presented by Pintrinch and Schunk (2002). They claim that “Motivation involves goals that provide an impetus for and direction to action” (p. 5).

Motivation is a complex concept that seems to defy a comprehensive definition. Furthermore, from this compilation of definitions one can conclude that, in order to gain a better understanding of motivation, further diverse research efforts are required.

2.2 The history of L2 motivation research

With the development of the various L2 motivation models, different phases in L2 motivational research evolved over time. Dörnyei (2005) divides the history of language learning motivation research into three periods: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process-oriented period.

2.2.1 The social psychological period

The main aspect focused upon during the social psychological period is the contact with L2 speakers and attitudes toward them; namely integrative motivation. The main exponents of this are Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert, their students and associates. Their main premise is that language is affected by social factors such as

language attitudes and cultural stereotypes and these, in turn, affect language learning (Dörnyei, 2005).

Two major theories were developed by Gardner in this period, one of L2 motivation and the other of L2 acquisition. Gardner (1985) also developed a tool which measures L2 motivation, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. These are discussed below.

Gardner's motivation model: Integrative Motivation and Integrativeness

Gardner (1985) featured integrative motivation as the key component of his socio-educational model. For a lengthy period, discussion revolved around the integrative component in L2 motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, 1997b; Gardner, 2001; Lamb, 2004; MacIntyre, 2002; O'Reilly Cavani & Birks, 1997). The integrative goal, which Gardner terms as integrative orientation, refers to the desire to be similar, on some level or another, to the target language group. This could stem from a sympathy towards that community, and could range from just being able to utter a few language structures in order to feel closer to this group, to being completely immersed in the target language group so as to become part of it, rejecting one's own language community. This wish to be associated with the target language group, to whatever degree, leads to an integrative type of motivation. Integrative motivation, according to Gardner (1985), is the combination of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation (see Figure 1, below).

The term integrativeness "refers to a broader concept representing an interest in the target language group, which subsumes the orientation and supports it with positive attitudes and interest" (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 3). With regard to the

second aspect of this model, the “attitudes toward the learning situation”, the learning situation comprises the course and the teacher. In this model, motivation consists of three components; the desire to learn the L2, the effort expended to learn the language (motivational intensity) and attitudes toward the L2.

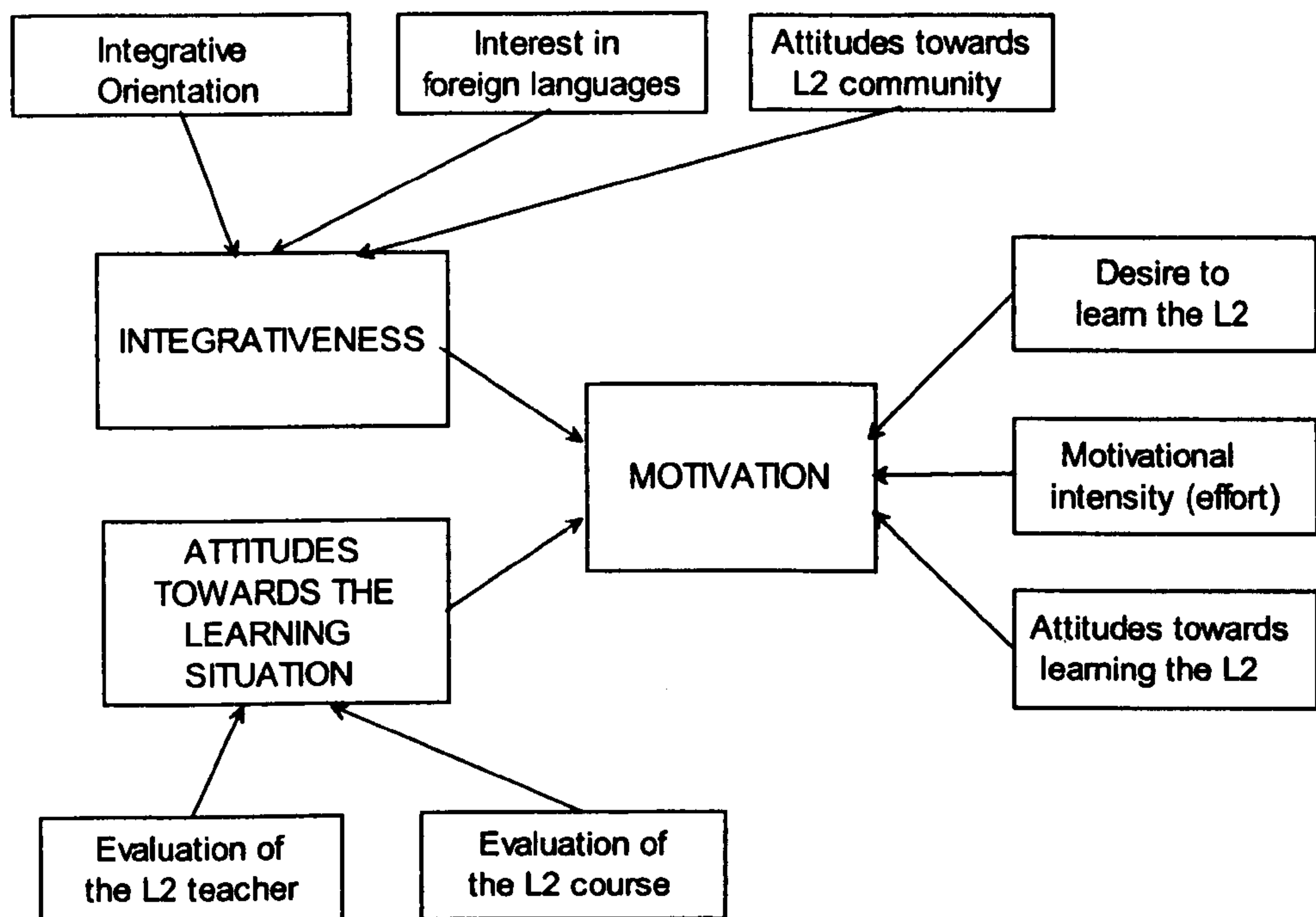


Figure 1 Gardner’s integrative model (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001, p. 50).

Gardner’s (1985) theory of motivation has frequently been criticised for placing too much emphasis on integrativeness. The reason for this criticism is that in the research on which the model is based, integrativeness was the major factor influencing motivation, while instrumental motivation, which is associated with more concrete benefits (this will be discussed in the following section), was found to be the second major type. Despite this criticism, integrativeness actually proved significant in both the later studies of 1993 and 1999 conducted in Hungary by Dörnyei and Csizér (2002). These findings, therefore, unambiguously confirm

Gardner's (1985, 2001) constant claim that integrativeness plays a key role in L2 motivation.

A further major criticism of the integrative model concerns the context on which the model bases its theoretical framework. Both Chambers (1999) and Dörnyei (2001) point out that the Canadian context is one where learners do have some contact with speakers of the L2. This is not a common scenario for the language learner. The majority of the time the context is not conducive to English learned as a second language (ESL) but rather to English learned as a foreign language (EFL). In an ESL situation, the learners are exposed to English outside the classroom, and many times have direct contact with target language speakers. In an EFL situation the learners have no or only limited contact with the target language speakers and the only exposure they get to English is that found in the classroom. One such EFL scenario is found in Schmidt et al.'s (1996) study which was based on Egyptian students of English in Egypt.

In some contexts both EFL and ESL situations prevail. Such is the case in Malta. Some students acquire and use English as a second language as they communicate with their family and friends mostly in English (Caruana, 2007). Other students learn English as a foreign language as they hardly have any contact with English outside the classroom.

Integrative, instrumental and other orientations

Gardner's (1985) seminal work initiated a theoretical dichotomy in the field of motivation. Motivation was, and in many cases still is, described as either integrative or instrumental. Integrative orientation, as stated earlier, refers to the

actual reasons or goals for learning a language that convey a desire to be close to the target language group at least on the language level. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, refers to practical reasons or goals such as passing an examination and finding a job.

Many, including Gardner himself (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994), have disputed the existence of such a dichotomy in motivation, as in different contexts the distance between integrative and instrumental orientations is small and in certain instances the two orientations overlap or do not exist at all. For example, in his discussion concerning the integrative-instrumental dichotomy, Dodick (1996) concludes that the two orientations are impossible to isolate and are not 'mutually exclusive'. In Dodick's (1996) own study and several others (e.g. Dörnyei, 1997b; Dörnyei, 2005; Lamb, 2004) neither integrative nor instrumental orientation seems to be of any significance. Lamb (2004) also draws attention to the fact that as concepts, integrative and instrumental orientation are difficult to separate. This is so because of the global status which English is assuming. Thus, reasons for learning English such as travelling, using computers, meeting foreigners and working or studying abroad are combined and not seen as separately falling under integrative or instrumental orientations. Ozek and Williams (2000) and Dörnyei (2005) point in the same direction, in that English is no longer perceived as a language of a particular country or countries as in the case of other foreign languages, therefore, integrative goals seem to melt together with instrumental ones. Students of English who are not close to any Anglophone community, want to identify with a more global community in order to become 'world citizens'. Yashima (2004) terms this as 'international posture' which Dörnyei (2005) assimilates to an 'international orientation'. This global community is also more

technologically advanced and thus represents more opportunities for professional advancement. In this sense integrative and instrumental reasons for learning a language overlap.

Kaylani (1996), for example, was surprised to discover that Jordanian male students of English possessed an integrative orientation when they were so far away from any English language speaking group. She attributed this to the fact that the students wanted to be part of the international community. The same result was obtained by Ozek and Williams (2000) in their study of Turkish learners of English.

The emphasis in the L2 motivation literature however goes beyond integrative and instrumental orientations. Many studies have identified other types of orientations (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2003) prevalent among the learners which they were studying. These include travel, friendship, international, sociocultural and knowledge orientations. In fact, according to Noels et al. (2003), the desire to be in some way part of the target language group is not essential in certain sociocultural contexts. The same can be said for Belmechri and Hummel's study (1998) in which integrative orientation was absent and other orientations such as travel, friendship, understanding and instrumental orientations were identified.

A further study where various other orientations came into play, other than integrative and instrumental, was conducted by Cheung (2001) in Hong Kong. According to Cheung, in Hong Kong the government has placed emphasis on the English language schools because it is a means of communicating with the world and a means of acceding to a western way of life. The English language gives

Hong Kong a competitive edge in international economic transactions. This has considerable effect on student motivation as, according to Chambers (1999),

The pupils' perception of a subject's usefulness is dependent on its status in society and on the school curriculum; the more enhanced this status, the more likely pupils are to feel encouraged by parents at home; this leads in turn to a more positive attitude to the in-school experience (p. 32).

This notion is reinforced by Ozek and Williams (2000) who point out that students' orientations are not only influenced by external reasons (Chambers, 1999), but also by the fact that they perceive English as an easy language to learn. These instances suggest that various other orientations do exist.

However, according to Masgoret and Gardner (2003), motivation does not rely entirely on orientations. For example, one might be integratively oriented but show no desire to learn the language of the target group. This is in conflict with what Gardner (1985) claims, that orientations are the equivalent to goals. In this respect Gardner differs from mainstream motivational psychology and the practice of defining L2 motivation. However, Gardner's claim was supported by certain studies such as that carried out by Belmechri and Hummel (1998) in Quebec City where it was demonstrated that orientations are related to motivation in that they are 'precursors' of motivation. Their findings upheld what had already been established in an earlier study, conducted in the same city, by Kruidenier and Clément (1986).

Clément's social context model

Clément's (1980) model of second language learning places emphasis on the social context, in that contact with the L2 community is seen as particularly important. The more the learners interact with the L2 speakers, the more they gain self-confidence, which serves to enhance their language learning. The self-confidence construct in this model is a secondary motivational process (MacIntyre, 2002), which involves high proficiency in the language and low language anxiety (Masgoret, Bernaus & Gardner, 2001).

Clément's model was criticised mainly for the fact it was based on language learning situations where there is contact with target language speakers. As was discussed earlier, this is most often not the case. However, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) present a number of studies that suggest self-confidence may be significant in playing a role in second language achievement even in contexts where there is no direct contact with L2 speakers but where the L2 is seen as a prestigious language and where there is some kind of exposure to it (Masgoret et al., 2001).

Tremblay and Gardner's model

Tremblay and Gardner (1995, see Figure 2) expanded Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model so that the language attitudes which influence motivational behaviour consist of three variables:

1. Goal salience: influenced by attitudes as learners are bound to develop specific language learning goals if their attitudes toward the language are positive (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).
2. Valence: refers to the values attached to the learning of the L2. Valence comprises the desire to learn the language.
3. Self-efficacy: refers to the learners' judgement of their capabilities to learn English. It involves expectations with regards to performance minus the anxiety component. However it could be that low self-efficacy includes elements of anxiety. It differs from self-confidence in that the latter is perceived as proficiency during testing, whereas self-efficacy bases itself on what the individual believes s/he can achieve in the future (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Higher self-efficacy leads to enhanced motivational behaviour. In fact, in this model, which was tested among Canadian learners of French, language attitudes together with French language dominance influence motivational behaviour which, in turn, affects achievement.

What is referred to as language dominance in this model includes 'adaptive attributions'. Attributions, which will be explained in more detail under the attribution theory, are reasons which learners ascribe to a particular success or failure. Adaptive attributes refer to attributes that are linked to high self-efficacy which means that success is attributed to ability.

Gardner and Tremblay's model of motivation is an interesting deviation as it does not contain any integrative motivation but rather focuses on new cognitive aspects. It seems to be Gardner's attempt to get into the new wave of motivational research. In his later writings, however, Gardner did not refer to this model again but rather returned to the integrative motivation concept.

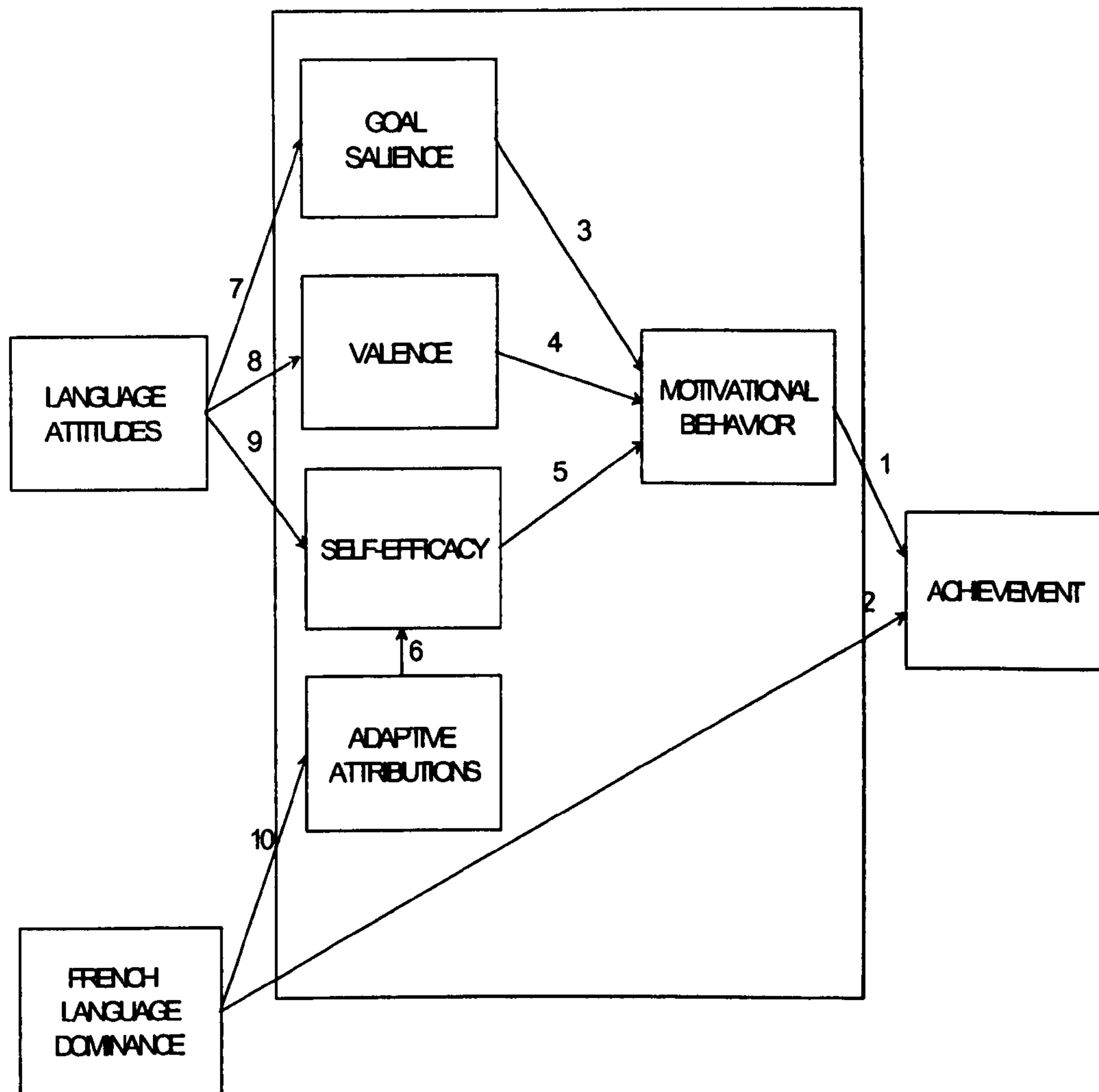


Figure 2 Tremblay and Gardner's model (1995, p.510).

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2.2.2 The cognitive/situated period

Two main trends define this period:

- Focus on cognitive aspects of motivation that were explored in motivational psychology.
- Focus on the learners' immediate learning situation such as the classroom, thus "linking motivation to contextual factors" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 75).

The first trend concerns the cognitive aspect of this period, while the second gave rise to the situated approach.

In the 1980s, several cognitive theories were presented in educational psychological research. These were soon used to explain L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2003). Gardner's work was heavily criticised for ignoring these developments and thus falling short of being of any practical use to language teachers and the context where language learning takes place, namely the classroom.

In the 1990s, therefore, motivational research became more concerned with what occurs in the classroom. The macro perspective of L2 motivation, which dealt with general motivational dispositions within a community, shifted to a micro perspective within the classroom. This 'situated approach' focused on the immediate language learning situation that surrounded the learners and the way in which this affected their motivation to learn the L2. Teachers were less concerned with the reasons why their students were learning the L2, but rather with how the students dealt with the language tasks presented in the classroom (MacIntyre, 2002). The situated approach analysed how the methodology, assessment and relations with teachers and the group affected students' motivation.

Researchers therefore combined the cognitive aspects of some educational psychology theories with a situated approach. According to Dörnyei (2005) this was well illustrated by two theories; the self-determination theory and the attribution theory within the L2 field.

Self-determination theory: Intrinsic/Extrinsic motivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) contend that an individual's reasons for learning a language depend on how free or constrained the learner is. If the individual decides freely then we can say that the decision is self-determined. The self-determination theory puts forward a variety of motivational orientations which range from the most to the least self-determined. The more self-determined the orientation the more the chances for success (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). Orientations that are self-determined contribute to an intrinsic type of motivation, while those reasons which are 'controlled' contribute to extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the positive effects gained solely by the enjoyment and pleasure of the activity itself (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). In an extrinsic motivation situation, the activity is done for the sake of material or other rewards that are not intrinsically related to learning (Husman & Lens, 1999).

Extensive research has been conducted on both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Some studies (see Dörnyei, 2005; Husman & Lens, 1999) have shown that extrinsic motivation hinders and diminishes intrinsic motivation, which is considered to be the best and most lasting type for language learning. However, Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that, extrinsic rewards if self-determined and internalised by the learner, can actually lead to intrinsic motivation. Moreover,

Lamb (2001) argues that, in most cases, teachers cannot do without extrinsic incentives to motivate their students as these have a more immediate effect. However, these could be detrimental to intrinsic motivation as the students might lose any interest in performing the activity for its own sake. Lamb (2001) cautions that “Extrinsic rewards need to be handled carefully and always with the long-term goal of developing intrinsic motivation, i.e. moving from motivating learners to helping learners motivate themselves” (p. 86). When teachers teach their students how to motivate themselves the effects are more long lasting.

Based on their research among university students at the University of Ottawa, Canada, Noels et al. (2003) put forward an expanded theory of self-determination consisting of three categories of orientations; intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. The latter refers to when there is no reason, intrinsic or extrinsic, for performing an activity (Goldberg & Noels, 2006), what Dörnyei (2001) refers to as a ‘there is no point’ feeling. Noels et al.’s (2003) study revealed that students found L2 learning more pleasurable and more appealing to their self-concept if they were encouraged to learn an L2 autonomously, and the feedback given enhanced their sense of competence. Wu (2003) also arrived at the same conclusion when he examined the self-determination theory directly within the language classroom. Here, intrinsic motivation soared when autonomy and perceived competence were enhanced.

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory was the main model in student motivation research in the 1980s. This theory concerns the reasons which learners attribute to their success or failure

in language learning. These reasons are based on past experiences, and once these are processed the expectations for learning the new language can be understood. Attribution theory proposes that these expectations are based on whether the learners see themselves as the main cause of success or failure. A further important consideration is whether this attribute is fixed or can be changed. If the latter is the case, it needs to be considered whether the learner is in control of changing or whether the change depends on external factors (Williams & Burden, 1999). This also means that “the causal attributions one makes of past successes and failures (i.e. inferences about why certain outcomes have occurred) have consequences on future achievement strivings” (Dörnyei 2001a, p. 22). Therefore, if past failure was attributed to uncontrollable factors such as ability, then future failure is inevitable, or the activity will not be attempted at all. On the other hand, if past failure is attributed to factors that can be controlled and changed then future success is possible. In this regard, as Ushioda (1996, 1998, 2001) confirmed, positive motivation is attributed to success which in turn is ascribed to personal ability, and failure to problems which cannot be overcome.

Attributions seem to be based on a combination of “internal feelings, the developmental stage, external influences and social context. One has to note that such external influences include the way teachers teach, teachers' aims and their beliefs about learning and the nature of education” (Williams & Burden, 1999, p. 199). The teacher, therefore, plays a very important role in the learner's expectations of success and failure in their language learning. This will be discussed further in Chapter 4.

The cognitive-situated models of motivation

The cognitive-situated period incorporates the Clément et al. (1994) model of L2 motivation, Dörnyei’s (1994) motivational framework, the Willingness to Communicate model and task motivation.

Clément, Dörnyei and Noels’ Model

Clément et al. (1994) proposed a tripartite model of L2 motivation (see Figure 3) which includes integrative motivation, linguistic self-confidence and appraisal of the classroom environment. The results of the study, which fed this model, proved that in the classroom setting, L2 motivation is more complicated and does not simply deal with ‘social and pragmatic’ aspects (Dörnyei, 1996). This would appear to take the previous models a step further.

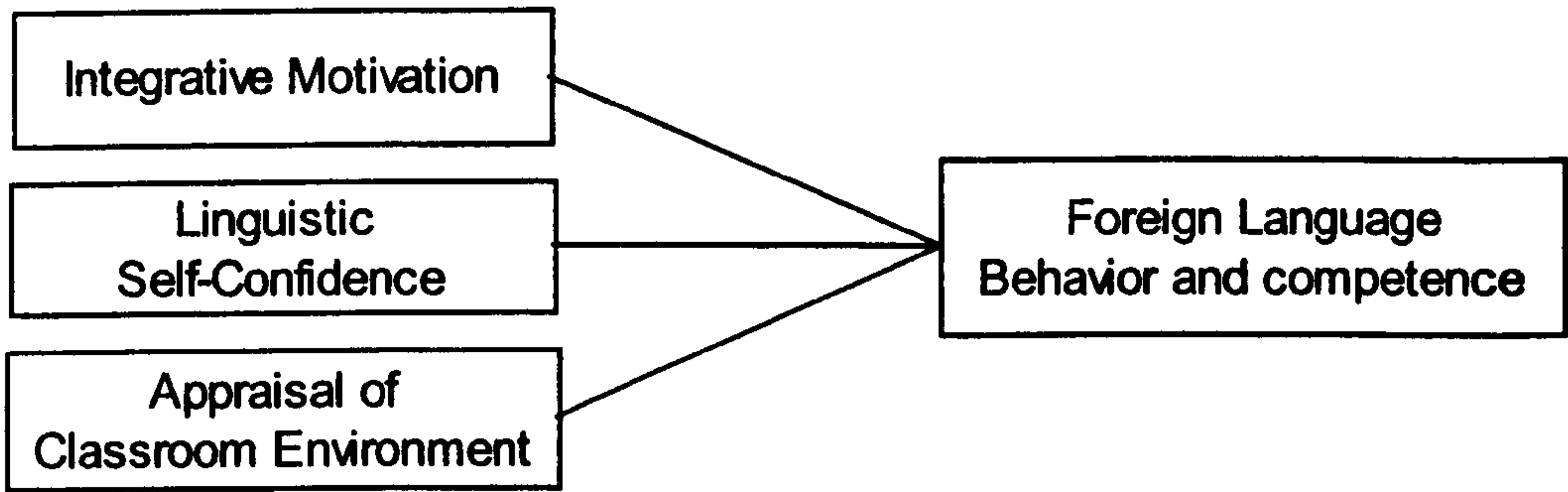


Figure 3 Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels’ model (1994, p.441).

The integrativeness component¹ in this model comprises the positive attitudes toward the language being learnt, the community which speaks it and the knowledge of this language. Some components, pertaining to instrumental

¹ In Clément et al.’s article, the authors refer to this as integrative motivation, however, ‘integrativeness’ is a more precise description of the construct they actually found.

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motivation and knowledge orientation, were relatively small and were included in the integrative motivation construct.

Linguistic self-confidence is crucial, in that students who are confident of their abilities to be successful in the second language and who do not undergo any harrowing language learning experiences are more likely to be motivated to learn. This automatically implies a lack of anxiety. The distinction between the self-confidence component mentioned earlier in Clément's (1980) model and in the model discussed here is that the context in the latter is that of foreign language learning, so there is no direct contact with the L2 community. Self-confidence was still predominant as a main component.

In this model the classroom environment is analysed for group cohesiveness, competence, motivation, the teaching style of the teacher, and the language course itself in terms of "attractiveness, relevance and, difficulty" (Dörnyei, 1996, p. 75). The results of Clément et al.'s (1994) study confirmed teachers' assertions that what happens in the classroom influences the students' affective predispositions (Dörnyei, 1996).

Dörnyei's Motivational framework

Dörnyei's (1994) framework incorporates previous factors from different models into one. Based on the previous model by Clément et al. (1994), it conceives the motivational system on three levels; the language level, the learner level and the learning situation level.

At the language level the focus is on the L2, broadly defined by integrative and instrumental motivation. The learner level comprises the learner's self-

appraisal such as issues of anxiety, perceived language competence, perceptions of past experiences and self-esteem. Two motivational components are essential at this level, the need for achievement and self-confidence (Dörnyei, 1994). Finally the learning situation level encompasses three components:

1. Course-specific motivational components: anything related to the course itself such as the course book, the syllabus and the teaching method.
2. Teacher-specific motivational components: the direct influence of the teacher which includes the “affiliative drive to please the teacher, authority type, and direct socialization of student motivation (modelling, task presentation, and feedback)” (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 280).
3. Group-specific motivational components: goal-orientedness, norm and reward system, group cohesion and classroom goal structure.

Willingness to communicate model (WTC)

This model is concerned with how willing learners are to engage in conversation using the L2. Originally the model focused on L1 use, relying on previous communication experiences, personality traits (such as anxiety) and social psychological characteristics of communication behaviour. These were also found to affect L2 WTC, and consequently the model was expanded to cover L2 conversations (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan, 2002). When dealing with L2 WTC one's level of proficiency and communicative competence in the L2 are considered to be modifying variables (Dörnyei, 2005).

Educationally, this is a very important model as the ultimate aim of communicative language teaching is actual communication in the L2. However, it is known that though some learners are highly proficient in the L2 they do not seek to use it in any kind of communication. This could be attributed to personality traits as some people are more disposed than others to such interaction. In fact, in earlier studies, WTC concentrated on this trait factor and did not place any importance on the influence of the situation surrounding the interaction. The latter surely influences the interlocutors. In fact, MacIntyre et al. (1998) researched WTC from a situated point of view. The WTC model they presented makes a distinction between enduring influences (for example, personality traits, relations between the group) and situational influences (for example, number of people present, topic knowledge, and so forth).

The WTC model is based on a six-layered heuristic pyramid model (see Figure 4) where the ultimate goal is L2 use which lies at the apex of the pyramid (Layer I), while the underlying layers consist of psychological and linguistic variables. The base of the pyramid (Layer VI) is the social and individual context; the former refers to the intergroup relations, the latter to the individual personality traits. The fifth layer (Layer V) subsumes affective variables such as an integrativeness construct, fear of assimilation and motivation to learn the L2, with a measure of experience one has with the L2 community. It also includes the cognitive context which concerns communicative competence. Here, the focus is more on perceived, rather than actual competence (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan, 2003). The fourth layer (Layer IV) comprises motivational propensities, these are “based on the affective and cognitive contexts of intergroup interaction and ultimately leads to state self-confidence and a desire to interact with a

particular person” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 550). This means diminishing anxiety as much as possible. The third layer (Layer III) relates to the situated antecedents of communication which incorporate the desire to communicate with a particular person and state communicative self-confidence (the difference between state and trait dispositions is explained under Task Motivation). All of these variables lead to a WTC (Layer II), generating actual L2 interaction (Layer I) which, as stated earlier, is the main aim of this model.

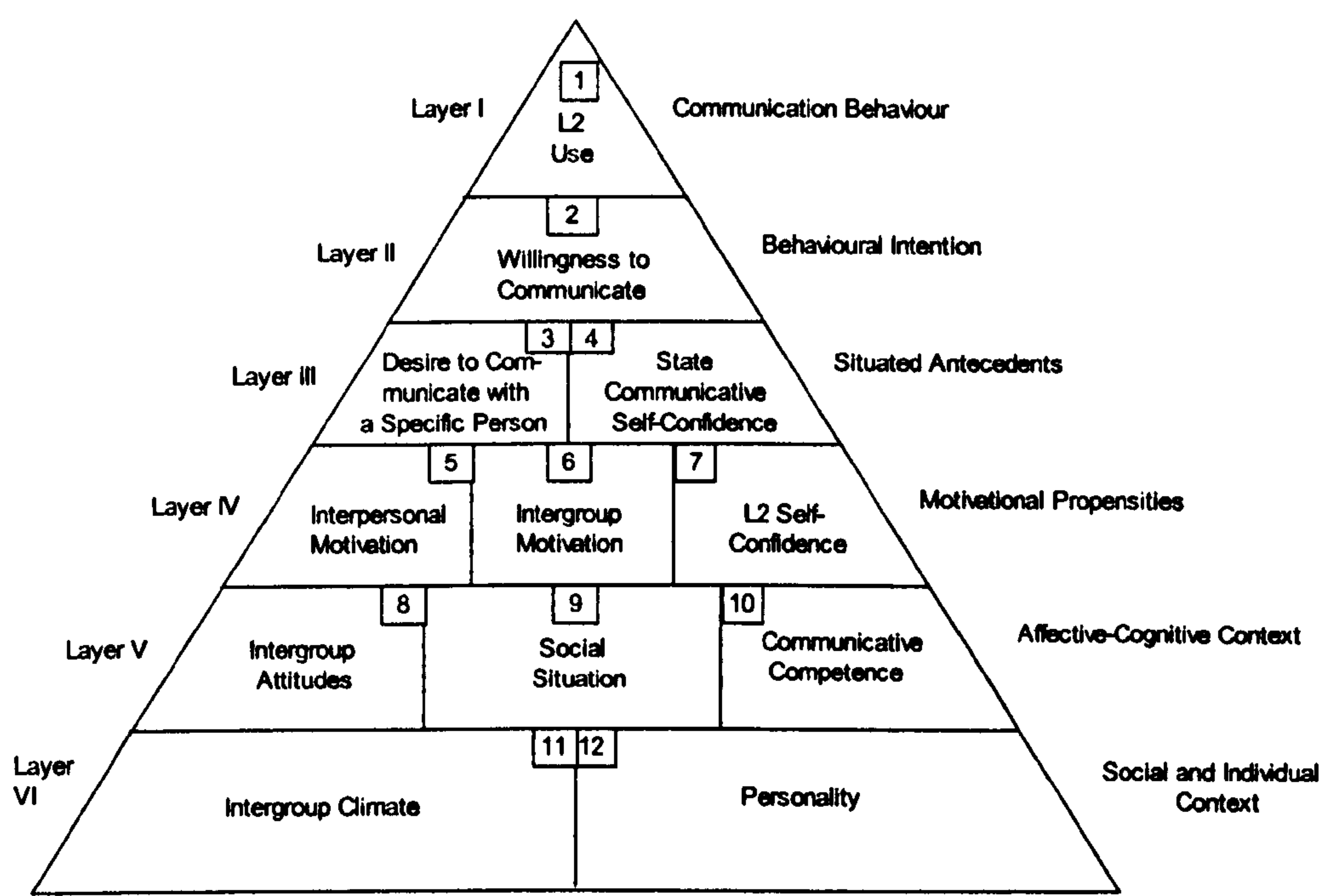


Figure 4 Willingness to communicate model as proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998, p. 547).

With regards to this model, Dörnyei (2005) claims that whilst it shows a comprehensive representation of the variables supplying the behavioural intention behind WTC, it does not show what the weighting of the variables is and how they are related to each other. The results of several studies which have attempted to do so have concluded that WTC is related closely to anxiety.

The WTC model was compared to Gardner’s integrativeness construct in his socio-educational model. As integrativeness refers to a desire to interact with

the target language group it was, therefore, assumed that the higher the integrativeness of learners and the higher their L2 motivation the more they are willing to interact with the target language speakers using the L2. However, MacIntyre et al. (2002) explain that although integrativeness is a factor in L2 WTC, the link is indirect, and motivation is more likely to take the shape of the perceived competence and anxiety components.

As we have seen L2 motivation contributes to WTC while, in turn, the actual interaction, which results from WTC, enhances the students' L2 motivation. This cyclical model was proposed by Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004).

Task motivation

A learning task is “a complex of various goal-oriented mental and behavioural operations that students perform during the period between the teacher's initial task instructions and the completion of the final task outcome” (Dörnyei, 2002, p. 139). Motivation directed toward such a task distinguishes between state and trait motivation, according to Tremblay, Goldberg and Gardner (1995). State motivation refers to fixed and lasting dispositions, whereas trait motivation refers to unstable and temporary dispositions. This distinction is important when talking about task motivation since various language learning tasks evoke a variety of reactions from learners. This is evidenced by the fact that students convey differing degrees of interest and commitment toward diverse learning tasks (Dörnyei, 2001a). Julkunen (2001) insisted that students' reactions to tasks are a result of a combination of state and trait motivation. As he argued, students are affected both by the stable and

general motivation which they bring with them to the classroom, and the new dispositions or attitudes that are evoked by the task itself.

Dörnyei (2003) goes beyond this state and trait dichotomy, and proposes a system whereby task motivation is described through a process. This system consists of task execution, appraisal and action control. These three mechanisms do not follow each other but rather happen concurrently. Task execution refers to the actual execution of the task; appraisal refers to the student's processing of the stimuli emanating from the environment together with the progress made to achieve the end result. The latter also involves evaluating and comparing the particular actions of the task to others that could have taken place. Action control takes place when the learners use self-regulatory mechanisms that improve, support and sustain their learning process.

Task motivation revolves round the task itself and therefore has to do with task design (Julkunen, 2001). The tasks given must lead to success, and students need to feel that this is so in order to truly pursue the task. Students' perspectives will differ from one student to another (Oxford, 1996), and each student will evaluate the task according to interest, relevance, expectancy and outcomes (Keller, 1983, 1994).

It is necessary for tasks to be challenging and provocative in order to promote motivation. However if the tasks are too difficult, in that they go beyond the students' skills, then there is the danger of arousing anxiety (Schmidt, 1996). This may alienate the students from the task, and perhaps future tasks related to the subject. In this respect, Husman and Lens (1999) claim that satisfaction from a task has to be immediate and not consequential, as it is essential for learners to view learning and achieving in the classroom as an end in itself. This is what being

intrinsically motivated is all about. Dörnyei (2005) connects task satisfaction to the experience of ‘flow’ that was introduced by Csikszentmihalyi (1997). Flow is “characterized above all by a deep, spontaneous involvement with the task at hand. In flow one is carried away by what one is doing and feels so immersed in the activity that the distinction between “I” and “i” becomes irrelevant” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997, p. 82). Therefore it is important that the teacher is able to create tasks which come close to this, as, once the learner enjoys the task at hand and sees it as an end in itself then the learner has become an intrinsically motivated learner.

Research could not get more situated than when analysing how language learning tasks affect motivation (Dörnyei, 2002), and the ways in which these enhance or diminish enthusiasm for any future language learning. At the same time, Kormos and Dörnyei (2004) and Dörnyei (2002) insist that the motivational process that takes place during a task should be looked at more dynamically. This is what the process-oriented approach (described next) requires.

2.2.3 The process-oriented period

Temporal considerations become important when a situated perspective of motivation is reached. Motivation changes over time, thus the process-oriented period emerged. This process-oriented approach was given special importance because learning an L2 takes time, months and even years, therefore the ways in which motivation alters over time is a major issue. Such changes also occur on a day-to-day basis, “with the level of effort invested in the pursuit of a particular goal

oscillating between regular ups and downs” (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 45). Consequently, motivation is constantly fluctuating (Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005).

The process-oriented approach, therefore, highlights the fact that L2 motivation is a concept in progress and is not static. More specifically, it puts motivation onto a timeline, where the wishes become goals, then intentions which are realised so that the goal is accomplished. The whole process is then evaluated (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002).

The process-oriented approach is a useful way to organise motivational components, bringing all trends together in an organised manner, making them easy to interpret. Time, therefore, offers a ‘natural’ way of ordering and making sense of motivation (Dörnyei, 2000b). A drawback to this approach is that motivation is a process which cannot be observed directly, but rather it has to be detected from such behaviours as choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and verbalizations for example ‘I really want to work on this’ (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

All process-oriented models insist that while motivation is goal-directed and so goal formation is essential, the motivational processes are of great importance to sustain the action to attain this goal (Pintrich & Schunk 2002). It is necessary to bear in mind that there is a difference between the reasons why one wants and needs to do something; its execution and its successful achievement (Heckhausen, 1991). This results in the distinction between choice motivation and executive motivation. The former refers to the actual decision taken to embark onto something and the intention behind it, while executive motivation refers to the actual implementation of this intention.

The process-oriented period is marked by the works of Williams and Burden (1997), Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Ushioda (1998). This period has led to a future time perspective which will also be discussed here.

Williams and Burden's model

Williams and Burden's (1997) social constructivist model of motivation is an educational model with a focus on the time element. The model is social constructivist in that it focuses on the view that each individual is motivated differently and is influenced by the context and the social situation. The individual is subject to both internal and external factors. The internal factors include the intrinsic interest and perceived value of an activity, a sense of agency, mastery, self-concept, attitudes and gender. These elements interact dynamically and are influenced by external factors. External factors include parents, teachers and peers, and the type of interaction with these people, plus the immediate learning, and the broader, context (Williams and Burden, 1997).

The temporal aspect of Williams and Burden's motivational model is seen as a process that goes through three successive stages. The first two stages, which can be taken as initiating motivation, are *Reasons for doing something* and *Deciding to do something*. The last stage is concerned with maintaining motivation by *Sustaining the effort, or persisting* (Dörnyei, 2005). Williams and Burden (1997) place emphasis on the distinction between initiating and sustaining motivation because they fear that, for a teacher, very often, "Motivation is seen as simply sparking an initial interest, for example, presenting an interesting language

activity. However, motivating learners entails far more than this” (p. 22). Sustaining interest and effort are essential to achieve goals.

Dörnyei and Ottó's model

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model incorporates important concepts of motivation and the effect of time on motivation. This process-oriented model of L2 motivation consists of two main dimensions: the Action Sequence and Motivational Influences. In the Action Sequence dimension, initial inclinations become goals and then intentions. These will lead to action directed at attaining the goals followed by evaluation. The Action Sequence in the model was further divided into three main phases:

1. Preactional stage: equivalent to 'choice motivation' which refers to behaviour which precedes action. This, therefore, consists of goal setting which will lead to the formation of an intention, then initiating work on this intention.
2. Actional stage: equivalent to 'executive motivation'; it incorporates the factors concerned in the implementation of action.
3. Postactional stage: critical evaluation of accomplished action and considerations for the future.

The Motivational Influences dimension comprises the instigators and motivational forces that lead to the behaviour. Motivational influences complement and energise the action sequence at each stage. Such influences can facilitate or hamper the action. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) included all the motivational factors that influenced commitment to learning in their model. The motivational influences

are split into five clusters (as seen in Figure 5) each corresponding to the five actional phases.

Dörnyei (2005) criticises this model in that the actional process, in reality, is not that clear-cut since “the task-specific behavior characterizing a concrete learning activity is not entirely independent of the actional character of the whole course, and this behavioral domain is further embedded in the complex tapestry of other activities in the particular school” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 86). Furthermore, according to Dörnyei, the actional process is also influenced by the other activities which the learner might be engaged in at that moment.

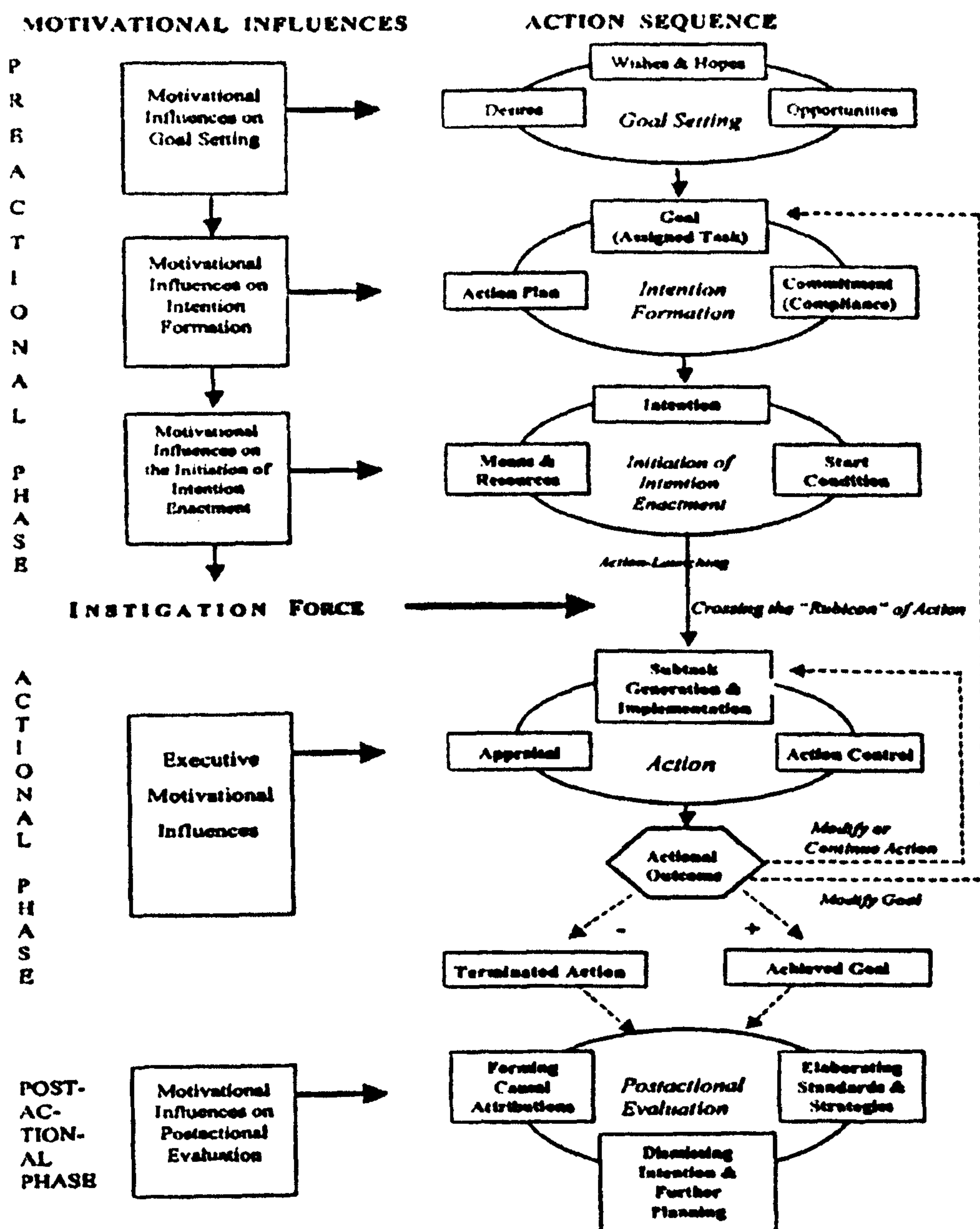


Figure 5 Dörnyei and Otto's model (1998, p. 48).

Ushioda's model

Ushioda (2001) bases her model on interviews conducted among university students. She produces a timeline in which a learner's motivational behaviour evolves. The learners, at first, are chiefly influenced by their experience with learning the language and very little by their goals. As time goes by, the learners

become more goal-oriented and less affected by the language learning experience. This occurs as personal goals develop, and become more significant for the learner (Ushioda, 2001). This model therefore views language learning motivation as a goal-directed phenomenon. Ushioda (2001), therefore, concludes that motivation is an “ongoing progress of how the learner thinks about and interprets events in relevant L2-learning and L2-related experience and how such cognitions and beliefs then shape subsequent involvement in learning” (p. 122).

Consequently, researching motivation over time lends itself to qualitative research since, as Pintrich and Schunk (2002) point out, this approach is based on individuals’ thoughts and beliefs. Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) maintain that biographical or autobiographical research is a good method. Ushioda (2001) reflects upon the importance of qualitative research as a means to unravel the intricacies of changes in motivation.

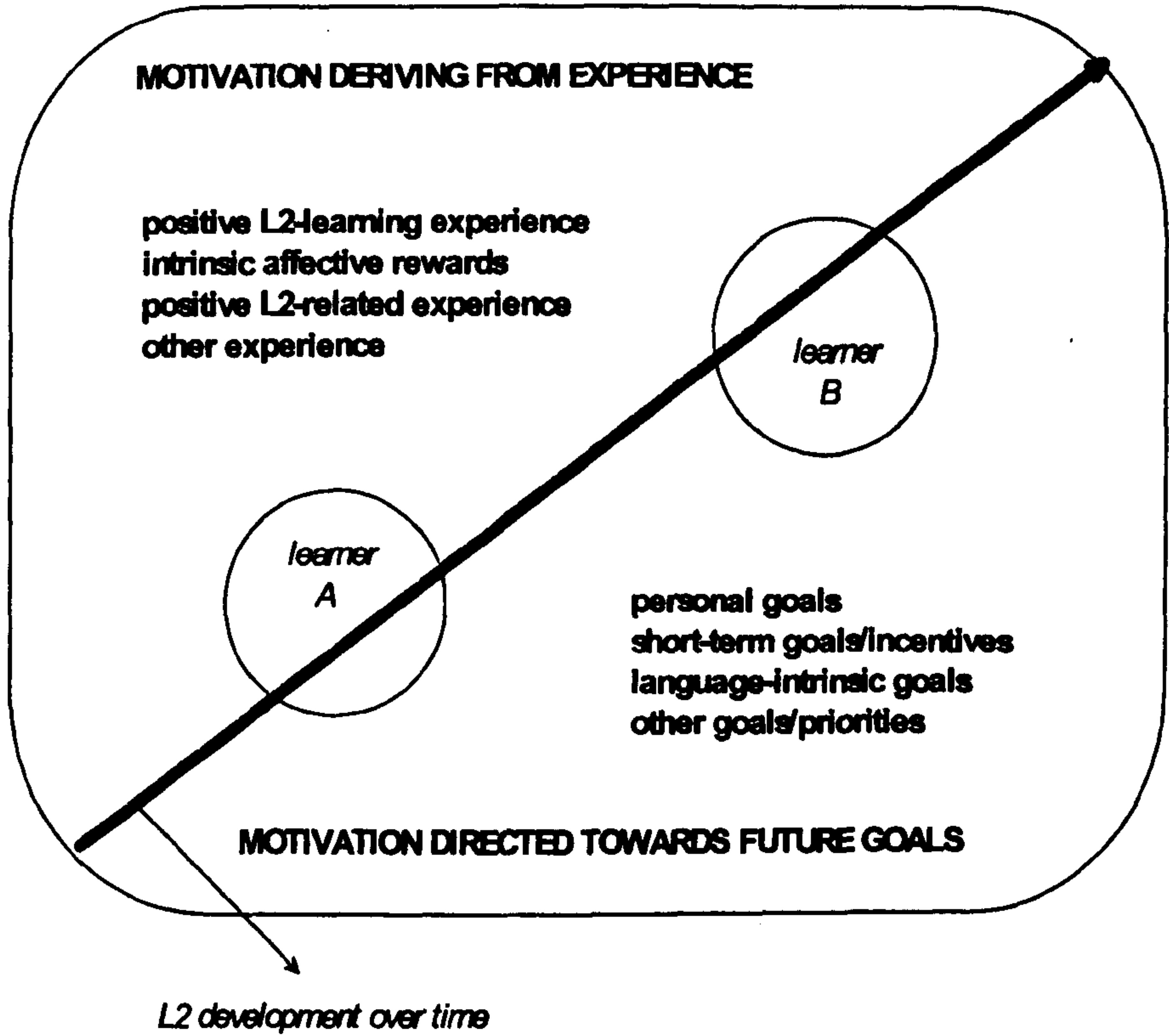


Figure 6 Ushioda’s model (2001, p. 118).

Future motivation or FTP (future time perspective)

The notion of perceiving motivation as a temporal concept led to a future time perspective (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974). The future orientation which energises this FTP has a very important role in motivation, after all language learning is concerned with how learners manage their future oriented actions (Ryan, 2005).

FTP is “the impact on motivation for some present activity of perceiving its instrumental relationship, as a step in a longer path, to more distant future goals, and threatening consequences” (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974, p. 5). This means that instrumentality is at the basis of future motivation. In order to explain FTP more clearly, it will be discussed in a Maltese context. In Malta, the majority of employment requires a pass in the ordinary level English language examination, the exceptions being manual occupations, such as factory work. If one’s ambition is to become a salesperson or a university professor, a pass in English is necessary. Seen from this perspective, it could be expected that almost all Maltese students would be, at least, instrumentally motivated to learn English. However, as Husman and Lens (1999) point out, such instrumentality only boosts the motivation of those students who are positive about their future. Those students who perceive their future doubtfully are easily demotivated.

Students in Malta tend to begin their secondary school years with a short-term FTP, as their main goal is immediate, that is to pass their half yearly and yearly exams in English. During their last years at secondary school, their FTP is both short-term, as it concerns what they will be doing in a few months time (sitting for their ‘Ordinary’ levels examinations), and long-term, as it may relate to what they will be doing for quite a few years in the future (career). This means that

their extrinsic motivation is heightened, while their intrinsic motivation decreases since their main preoccupation is the examination at the end of their compulsory years of schooling. Husman and Lens (1999) refer to this as ‘present goal striving’. In such situations, individual differences also play an important role in FTP, since the long-term goals are specific to each individual.

A difference between short-term FTP and long-term FTP has been established, in that learners who possess long term FTP are more satisfied with their goal-orientedness and persevere more in achieving that goal (Zaleski 1987, Zaleski, Cycon & Kurc, 2001). These students tend to be more intrinsically motivated, as they concentrate and enjoy the task at hand. In this sense, Husman and Lens (1999) show how intrinsic goals are combined with instrumentality.

2.3 Recent conceptions of L2 motivation

Recent approaches to L2 motivation have revolved around the notions of the possible self, motivation conceptualised at the group level, motivational self-regulation and teacher-controlled motivational strategies.

The possible self

In Dörnyei and Csizér (2002)’s longitudinal study, integrativeness turned out to be a very significant factor even if there was no direct contact with the L2 group. Therefore, the integrative orientation cannot be the same as that identified by Gardner in the socio-educational model of 1985 and later in 2001. This led Dörnyei and Csizér to believe that what underlies motivation is not any actual integration

with L2 speakers, but rather an identification of a self-concept that the learner possessed.

As English becomes more global, the impact of the culture or cultures associated with the English language diminish. Rather than identifying with any particular culture, one identifies with a 'future' self which will be proficient in English (Ryan 2005). This resulted in the notion of 'possible self', first introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986). "Possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, and what they are afraid of becoming, thus providing a conceptual link between cognition and motivation" (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954). The possible self is, therefore, the vision one has of oneself in the future. It can take three forms, the 'ideal self'; what one wishes to become, the 'ought self'; what one should become and the 'unidealised self' or 'feared self' (Markus & Nurius, 1986); what one would not wish to become. The ideal self can be a motivating factor as one strives to become that ideal, or a demotivating factor as one sees the ideal as unreachable and impossible to obtain. It must be borne in mind that not everyone possesses this future self-image or, at least, a fully developed one. This may explain why some people are less motivated in what they are doing than others (Dörnyei, 2005).

Possible self, integrativeness and instrumentality

Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) claim that within the notion of the possible self, integrativeness and instrumentality could be linked to the different self domains. Motivation revolves around how one is to get to this possible self and eliminate any discrepancy that might exist between the actual and ideal self. Dörnyei (2005)

specifies that if a learner's ideal self is proficient in the L2, then that the learner is integratively motivated. Dörnyei goes on to explain that the integrativeness concept here is parallel to its original meaning, that of favourable attitudes towards members of the L2 community, since our ideal self is seen to resemble members of the L2 community, as much as possible.

If the L2 community is not seen as an attractive part of society, then this would lead to the projection of an 'unidealised self'. This can only occur where it is compulsory to learn the L2, either out of necessity or because it is imposed by the educational system of the country. In such a situation, where language learning is compulsory, this projection of self could be a serious demotivator. However, according to Oyserman and Markus (1990), the best type of L2 students would be the ones who project themselves as 'balanced possible selves', which is a combination of the ideal self and the 'unideal self' or 'feared self'. Individuals who aim at a balanced possible self are better learners than those who possess only a positive *or* a negative possible self (Oyserman & Markus, 1990).

Ryan (2005) proposed the idea of an imagined community where the learner only imagines possible interactions with the target language community. This is the result of globalisation, which, he claims, has taken us beyond integrativeness.

These images (*of self*) do not occur in a vacuum; the myriad orientations that constitute an individual's ideal self are very much a product of the individual as a social being and interactions with other members of a given community. In this case, the community and the social interaction occurs in the imagination of learners, therefore even in contexts where no immediate contact with the target language community is available, it is possible for the motivation of learners to be

shaped by their membership and participation in imagined communities (p. 25).

We might see our idealized self as professionally successful, so instrumentality does have a part in this. In this regard Dörnyei (2005) believes that wanting to be professionally successful is an obvious result of an ideal L2 self which is a “cognitive representation of all the incentives associated with L2 mastery” (p. 103). This involvement can take place on two levels. First, there are those who want to achieve an ideal L2 self for promotional reasons, that is to move ahead in their profession. This concerns the ideal self. The second level is that of learning an L2 for preventive reasons; that is to prevent any failure such as failing a test. The latter concerns the ought-to self. This instrumental motivational force is described as not having any long-term effects, and has no real commitment to learning the L2 (Dörnyei, 2005).

Dörnyei's L2 motivational self-system

Noels (2003) correlated integrative orientation with extrinsic and intrinsic orientations to learn a language. She found that although integrative orientation correlated strongly with intrinsic reasons, these were distinctly separate constructs.

Consequently Noels (2003) motivational construct contains the following:

1. Intrinsic orientation
2. Extrinsic orientation
3. Integrative orientation

Dörnyei (2005) relates Noel's (2003) three-dimensional construct to Ushioda's (2001) findings in her qualitative research, which he clusters into three:

1. Actual learning process
2. External pressures/incentives
3. Integrative dimension

Building on this combination, Dörnyei creates a motivational self-system which comprises three dimensions:

- (a) *Ideal L2 self*: If this ideal L2 self is proficient in the L2 then this image is a strong motivator as the learner strives to become that proficient L2 self. The Ideal L2 self would correlate with the integrative reasons for learning a language. The ideal L2 self-concept is integrative in its approach, as the learner tries to be as close as possible and eventually one with this ideal self. This is also pointed out by Ryan (2005), where the ideal L2 self belongs to an imagined community. The ideal self is in line with Noels' integrative orientation and Ushioda's integrative dimension.
- (b) *Ought-to L2 self*: The ought-to self is seen as a future self that should possess certain duties and responsibilities. The learners here do their best to avoid negative outcomes, and so motivation seems to be driven by avoidance, as stress is placed on what to avoid to attain this ought-to self. This may not be related to what the learner desires, but more with what has to be done. The ought-to self is more concerned with duties and obligations, which, more often than not, are imposed by the learner's situation in life or

society in general. This appears to be in line with extrinsic pressures which the learner has to face. The ought-to self, therefore, can be said to correlate to Noels' extrinsic orientation and Ushioda's external pressures/incentives.

- (c) *L2 learning experience*: This concerns the role of motivation in the immediate learning environment and experience. The L2 learning situation correlates with Noels' intrinsic reasons to learn since in her study "intrinsic orientation turned out to be a better predictor of more immediate variables" (p. 98), and with Ushioda's actual learning process.

Dörnyei's motivational L2 system is backed up by Ushioda's study (2001) where it resulted that students' motivation depended on past and present learning experiences or on their future goals, that is, where they envisaged themselves to be with the language they were learning. These seem to incorporate the dimensions mentioned in Dörnyei's motivational self-system. Dörnyei (2005) recognises that further research needs to be undertaken to fortify this motivational self-system. He states that,

Although the *L2 Learning Experience* dimension is undoubtedly related to executive motives associated with the actional stage of motivated behavior, and the *Ideal* and *Ought-to L2 Selves* are by definition involved in pre-actional deliberation, it needs to be specified how the latter two components relate to motivational processing occurring during the actional and post-actional phases (p. 107).

Motivation conceptualised at the group level

Group dynamics are undoubtedly significant in the language learning context as most learning around the world happens in groups. Clément et al. (1994) found group cohesion in the foreign language classroom to be a significant component in L2 motivation. This is supported by Ushioda (2003), Dörnyei, (1997, 2006) and Dörnyei and Malderez (1997).

The group has a significant effect on the individual motivation in that it can enhance or diminish it. An individual's L2 motivation might be dampened if the majority of the group lacks enthusiasm to learn the L2 and so hinders any learning that might take place. On the other hand, if the group is motivated then the individual is free to take part in, and enjoy, the learning activities. Teachers' knowledge of what creates a cohesive group will assist them in creating learning environments where learning becomes efficient and more rewarding (Dörnyei, 1997a).

The 'group' influence is not to be restricted to the classroom, but the whole school needs to be taken into consideration. Dörnyei (2005) refers to this when he talks about the significance of group norms:

'Group norms' refer to the overt and covert rules and routines that help to prevent chaos in the group and allow everybody to go about their business as effectively as possible. They range from explicitly imposed school regulations to spontaneously and unconsciously evolved routines as a result of copying certain behaviors of some influential member or the leader, which are then solidified into unofficial but very powerful norms of classroom existence. (p. 89)

Dörnyei (2006) argues that if you look at the group level equivalent of motivation then it is, more or less, a question of group norms. Group norms are what shape and drive a whole group and such norms need to be internalised by the group (Dörnyei & Malderez, 1997). Consequently norms, like institutional norms, that might be imposed on the group, will also need to be accepted by the group in order to have any effect at all. Dörnyei and Malderez (1997), therefore, suggest that it would be valuable to incorporate 'explicit norm building procedures' initially as groups are formed. This means that the norms are discussed and accepted by the group. In this way, the group itself will be able to handle any deviation from the group norms as these have been clearly defined and accepted by all. Therefore, it can be concluded that the best way to achieve goals is also a matter of discussion within the group, since this gives the group direction and further cohesiveness.

Motivational self-regulation

Ushioda (2003) believes that students have to be in control of their own motivation and learning. Teachers need to create the right environment in the classroom so that this can occur. Dörnyei (2005) confirms that those learners who persevere in maintaining their motivation are better learners than those whose motivation fluctuates.

Self-management of learning positively affects the self-management of motivation. This was demonstrated by the use of 'self-access' learning where students were able to manage and decide on what they learnt and how they went about doing the task they had chosen. Lamb (2001) cautions that, in order for this

to work, the teacher has to teach the students certain skills, such as self-management, decision-making and negotiation. Ushioda (2003) also stresses that students need to be trained in such a way that they perceive their motivation as their own creation. They are in control of their motivation and, as a result, their own learning (Dörnyei, 2005).

The teacher, in addition to promoting self-access learning, needs to promote self-motivating strategies whereby learners become responsible for their own motivation. According to Ushioda (2001), teachers should not be overly concerned with what motivates students, but rather with what constitutes the right setting for the students to motivate themselves and be in control of their motivation.

Dörnyei (2005) has proposed five self-motivating strategies that could be promoted in the classroom, namely:

1. Commitment control strategies: ‘Commit’ the students to persevere with their intended goal so that this can be reached.
2. Metacognitive control strategies: Promote concentration whilst eliminating procrastination as much as possible.
3. Satiation control strategies: Promote interest and make the tasks more appealing to the learners, hopefully eliminating boredom.
4. Emotion control strategies: Help to control emotions and moods.
5. Environmental control strategies: Help to create the right environment by eliminating negative influences.

Dörnyei’s self-motivating strategies are concerned with the elimination of all that demotivates the learner and promoting any approach that enhances motivation. This can be achieved by making the students aware that they are in control of their motivation (Ushioda, 2003). Ushioda (2008) insists that “Failure to

recognise the self as agent in controlling thought and thus motivation can lead learners to become trapped in negative patterns of thinking and self-perceptions, with detrimental consequences for their motivation” (p. 65). This does not mean that the students will automatically acknowledge this control, and will need help in doing so. Help must come primarily from the teacher in formal class settings.

Teacher-controlled motivational strategies

Teachers, whose main obligation is to teach the curriculum, are not expressly responsible for motivating their learners. However, it is undeniable that this obligation can only be executed if students are willing to learn. A recent study by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) found that there is a positive correlation between teacher-controlled motivational strategies and students’ motivation, in that the former augment students’ motivation. This is an important result as no previous research has actually tried to measure the effectiveness of teacher-controlled strategies.

Teachers, therefore, must invest in motivating their students if they want to do their job (Dörnyei, 2001b). Teacher-controlled strategies are quite varied and numerous since “human behaviour can be modified in so many different ways, ranging from the manner we present and administer tasks to teaching the learners how to motivate themselves” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 71). Such strategies follow a process which Dörnyei organises into four components forming a cyclical framework (see Figure 7). These are:

- a. Creating the basic motivational conditions
- b. Generating initial motivation

- c. Maintaining and protecting motivation
- d. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

The teacher has to first create the right classroom setting so that it is conducive to motivated behaviour. This is characterised by a safe and cohesive atmosphere where a good student-teacher relationship can thrive (Dörnyei, 2006; Kubanyiova, 2006). The teacher can then proceed to the task of getting students motivated by generating positive attitudes toward L2 learning. This can be achieved by instilling an expectancy of success, an interest in the subject matter and by presenting clear goals and realistic beliefs. The motivation generated has to be maintained and protected. Dörnyei (2001b, 2006) recognises that all of this might be a difficult task as, most often than not, teachers are faced with students who are less than eager to learn. This, added to an undesirable syllabus content, makes it quite a daunting task, but not an impossible one.

Since past L2 learning experiences influence L2 motivation (see Attribution theory in this chapter) it is crucial that teachers encourage students to view their performance positively as much as possible by making sure that students take merit for their successes and view failures as learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2006; Ushioda, 2001). Feedback given should aim at boosting student satisfaction and self-confidence apart from urging students to reflect on areas of improvement and increase the effectiveness of learning.

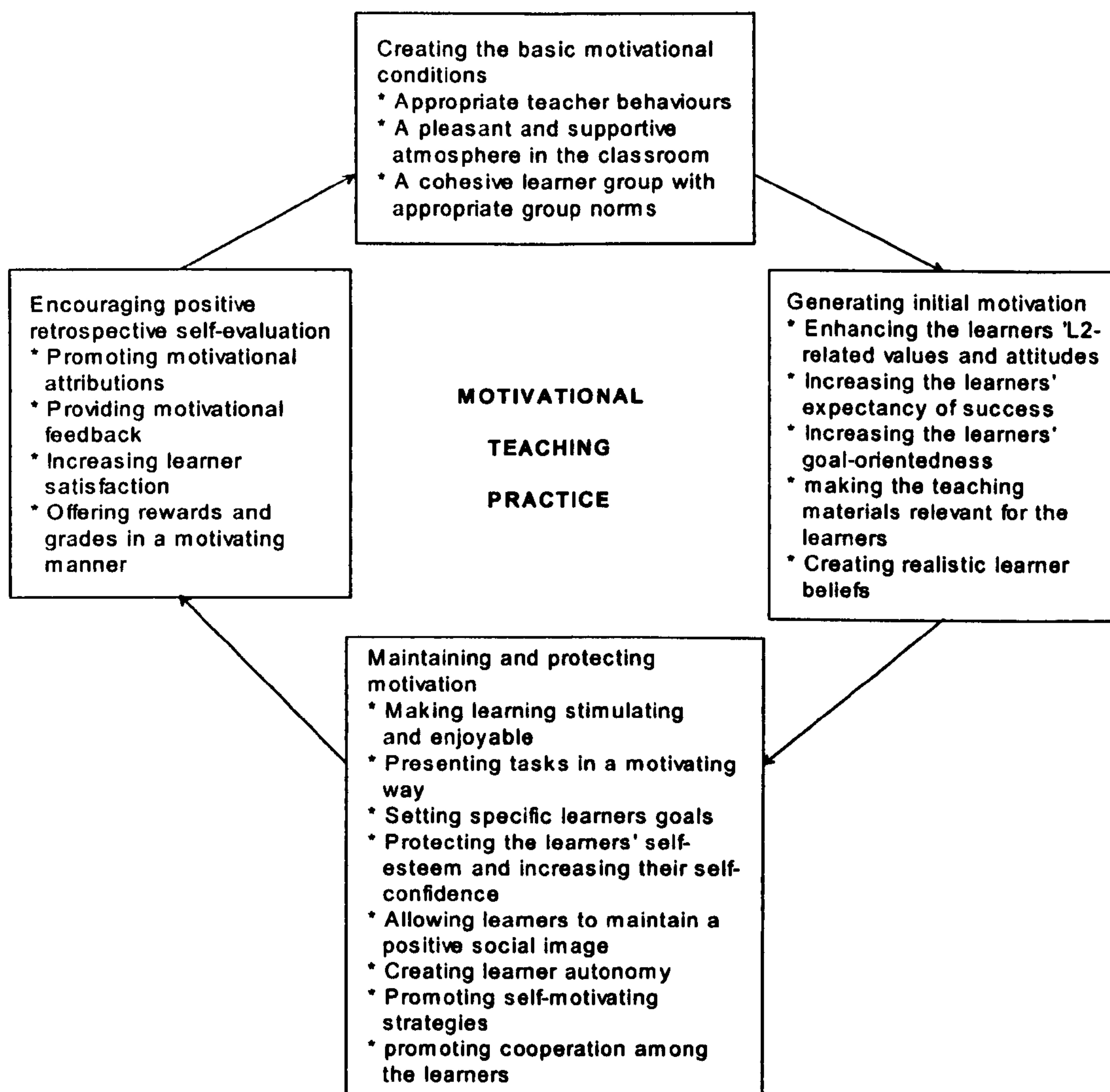


Figure 7 Teacher L2 motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 112).

All of this will be taken up and explored further in Chapter 4 where the effect of the teacher's own motivation to teach on students' motivation to learn will be discussed.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the various definitions and conceptualisations of motivation. It is clearly evident that an all-encompassing

definition of such a complex concept is very difficult, if not impossible, to arrive at. The main developments in student motivation which are conveyed in three chronological periods are reviewed. Gardner's Integrative model marks the social psychological period and includes Clément's social context model and Tremblay and Gardner's model. The latter, for the first time, deviated from the concept of integrative motivation and put emphasis on the learners' goals, valence and self-efficacy.

The cognitive/situated period focuses on the cognitive aspects of motivation and the immediate learning situation of the learners such as the classroom situation. The self-determination and the attribution theories are discussed. The models which feature during this period, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels' Model, Dörnyei's motivational framework, willingness to communicate and task motivation are reviewed. The third period, the process-oriented period looks at the time perspective, how motivation alters over time. This period is denoted by William and Burden's model, Dörnyei and Otto's model and Ushioda's model. All the periods were crucial in feeding into more recent conceptions of motivation where the image of the self is a prominent motivational goal. This is conveyed in the concept of the possible self which is the basis of Dörnyei's L2 motivational self-system. The focus is also extended to the fundamental role of the teacher as a motivation instigator. This brings us to the next chapter, which will deal with the teachers' own motivation to teach as this is taken to influence their students' motivation to learn.

CHAPTER 3 Teacher Motivation

This chapter will focus on the literature related to teacher motivation following on the review of literature on student motivation. The chapter which follows will be a review of the literature that connects the two together; the relationship between teacher and student motivation.

In this chapter the importance of teacher motivation and the characteristics of a motivated teacher are discussed. Two main dimensions that are crucial for teacher motivation to thrive; teacher satisfaction and efficacy are identified. In the literature which deals with these two dimensions it is evident that the constructs which affect teacher motivation are teacher autonomy and feedback. These are discussed here. This is followed by a section on the negative aspects of teaching; teacher dissatisfaction, stress and burnout. Finally this chapter presents and discusses some recommendations for the enhancement of teacher motivation. This section will be based mostly on Shoiab's (2004) strategies which were split up into three levels.

Teacher motivation and the motivated teacher

Teacher motivation has received little attention in both the education psychology literature and the second language acquisition literature. The topic itself was highlighted in a chapter by Dörnyei (2001a) where the components which make up teacher motivation are described. There is a dearth of literature on the motivation of language teachers. In the last two decades the main studies on the motivation of

language teachers are those conducted by Pennington (1995), Kim and Doyle (1998, 1999), Gheralis-Roussos (2003) and Shoiab (2004).

In 1995, Pennington conducted a series of studies which focused on the work satisfaction and motivation of teachers of English as a second language. She then went on to place the findings within a broader theoretical framework. In later years Kim and Doyle conducted two research projects which dealt with factors that influence the motivation of language teachers (Kim & Doyle, 1998; Doyle & Kim, 1999). More recently two research studies which focused on the motivation of teachers of English were conducted as part of the doctoral degree programme at the University of Nottingham. Both studies deal with the motivational influences affecting the motivation of teachers of English, one in Greece (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003) and the other one in Saudi Arabia (Shoaib, 2004). Recommendations about how to improve the motivation of English language teachers are made by both studies.

Many researchers make the assumption that teacher motivation has a direct influence on student motivation and achievement (Atkinson, 2000; Czubaj, 1996; Dörnyei, 2003, 2005; Guilloteaux, 2007; Kassabgy, Boraie & Schmidt, 2001; Klassen, Chong, Huan, Wong, Kates & Hannok, 2008; Pennington, 1995; Vaughan, 2005; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). The premise upon which the assumption rests is that motivation is infectious and that the transmission of enthusiasm from the teacher is necessary for student motivation to be sustained and increased. In turn, student motivation is necessary for learning to take place. In spite of this widely-held belief, there is very little empirical evidence to support this (Dörnyei, 2001).

The converse is also true in that teacher motivation is boosted by student motivation and achievement (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy, 1990; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). The impact of teacher motivation on student motivation and vice versa is dealt with in the following chapter.

As already noted in the previous chapter, the process of becoming motivated involves an initial impetus and a driving force to sustain the action to achieve a particular goal (Dörnyei, 1997b). This behaviour has to be accompanied by effort, perseverance and satisfaction. The motivated individual learns from experience and uses strategies to achieve set goals (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). The surrounding environment in which the individual exists is of great influence as it either reinforces the motivated behaviour or deters its course of action (Porter, Bigley & Steers, 2003). In Chapter 2 it was also observed that there is no consensus on a final all-encompassing definition of motivation. The same seems to apply to work motivation. There are various approaches and interpretations which can be applied to work motivation (Evans, 1998a; Porter et al., 2003). Evans (1998a) defines motivation, which she applies to her research on teacher motivation, as “a condition, or the creation of a condition, that encompasses all those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity” (p. 34). Earlier Pennington (1995) proposed a formula that would be ideal for such motivational behaviour to exist in the realm of teaching:

The achievement of an adequate balance between satisfaction of psychological needs – e.g., for creative outlets, for connectedness to others, and for self-perceived efficacy in work performance - and the satisfaction of concrete work requirements – e.g., for monetary compensation and for a safe

and secure working environment – would seem to be the necessary precondition for individual teachers, educational programs, and the larger field of education to be able to thrive (Pennington, 1995, p. 4).

Motivated teachers are enthusiastic teachers who go out of their way to do their job well and who evidently love what they are doing (Atkinson, 2000; Walker & Symons, 1997). Dörnyei (2001a) describes teacher motivation as the teacher's level of commitment and enthusiasm. According to Bess (1997), motivated teachers are hard to come by as being one would require a continual assessment of oneself as a professional and a combination of being an expert in one's field, in teaching methods and having an understanding of society. Apart from this, the teachers themselves come to school with "differing world views and draw on different discourses" (Doyle & Kim, 1999, p. 2). This baggage that the teachers bring with them, affects teaching and teacher motivation. The teaching environment and conditions are therefore of great importance.

From the above, it seems reasonable to suggest that teachers are motivated when they are happy and satisfied with what they are doing and when they feel self-efficacious. These main dimensions of the teacher motivation construct are discussed below.

3.1 Teacher satisfaction and teacher motivation

Teacher satisfaction and how this compares and contrasts with teacher motivation are discussed in this section. The concept of teacher satisfaction is expanded upon and its significance to teaching is analysed. The process of how

teacher satisfaction and motivation are enhanced or diminished by intrinsic and extrinsic factors is then explored. Such factors are identified and presented as a two-dimensional model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This model arises mainly from the works of Maslow and Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman which will also be discussed here. The model, which was termed the two-domain model, was criticised for certain inconsistencies. This eventually led to a third dimension which is made up of factors which fall between intrinsic and extrinsic factors and have to do with the school environment.

Teacher *motivation* is, most of the time, referred to in association with teacher *satisfaction* as the two complement each other. Motivation is usually taken to signify a type of stimulus for behaviour while satisfaction is taken to be the product of behaviour. However one can say that both are linked and influence one another (Dinham and Scott, 1998). Teachers need to be satisfied with their job to be motivated in their job, while they would have to be motivated in order to do something which will hopefully satisfy them. It is also true that teacher dissatisfaction and a low morale results in diminished motivation.

Michaelowa (2002) points out that though teacher job satisfaction and motivation are highly related yet they are not to be used interchangeably. “While job satisfaction gives an indication of teachers' well-being induced by the job, motivation is defined as their willingness, drive or desire to engage in good teaching” (Michaelowa, 2002, p.5). Dinham and Scott (1998) claim that teacher satisfaction and motivation influence each other and one cannot be studied and improved without the other. In fact, according to Evans (1998a), what motivates the worker is a desire for satisfaction, “individuals are motivated to participate in activities that appear to them to be oriented towards job satisfaction” (p. 40).

Teacher satisfaction

A person is said to be satisfied when something is achieved or when something good happens to the person. Evans (1998a) defines job satisfaction as “a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be met” (p. 12).

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) maintains that one is satisfied and happy when one is completely engrossed in an activity and is therefore in a state of ‘flow’ as was described in the previous chapter. When one experiences flow one is enjoying oneself to the extent that one is deeply involved in a task which is within one’s ability. All else is irrelevant so there is no room for other thoughts that might distract the activity, especially negative ones. Sense of time and worries about any consequences cease to exist. When teachers do not enjoy what they are doing then teaching is divested of its main value for both the teacher and the students (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

According to Dinham (1997), teacher job satisfaction depends on how the teachers feel about their job, which, in turn, will depend on certain factors which influence this satisfaction. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) specify that teacher job satisfaction is based on the affective relation teachers have with their teaching role, what teachers want from teaching and what they perceive teaching to be offering them. However some authors claim that there is no agreed definition of teacher satisfaction and what it constitutes (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Rhodes, Nevill & Allan, 2004).

The role of teacher satisfaction

How much one is satisfied with one's job will affect one's performance and degree of commitment. This is why teacher satisfaction is a very important issue and should be researched further, especially as it also affects student achievement (Bishay, 1996, Czubaj, 1996, Pennington, 1995; Wright and Custer, 1998). However, it seems that teacher satisfaction is being muted and restrained "...through custom, norms, and formal role expectations, and, to some extent, because of an innate insensitivity (or lack of sensitivity training of faculty) to the classroom and other cues that give pleasure in teaching" (Bess, 1997, p. xi). Michaelowa (2002) and Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006a) sustain that influencing job satisfaction can change the quality of education. In fact, Latham (1998) claims that teacher job satisfaction not only encourages students to become teachers and persuades teachers to stay on in their job but also improves the quality of teaching.

Gardner & Oswald (1999), in a survey on job satisfaction in Britain, discovered that teaching is one of the least satisfying professions. According to Wilhelm, Dewhurst-Savellis and Parker (2000), teaching is viewed as a stressful job and teachers usually leave their job within the first five years of teaching. When teachers are satisfied and happy at their job then they are less stressed, are more productive and tend to stay on in teaching. These facts, and also because lack of on-the-job satisfaction is linked to a decrease in productivity, have heightened the importance of teacher satisfaction research (Tshannen-Moran et al., 1998). The negative aspects of teacher satisfaction are discussed further below.

3.1.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Teachers, according to Pennington (1995) as quoted earlier, need to satisfy their psychological needs and be satisfied with the external work conditions. This means that internal and external needs have to be met for teachers to be satisfied and motivated. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) also sustain this when they say that:

Perrenial factors, such as student achievement, helping students, positive relationships with colleagues and self growth have been associated with teacher job satisfaction, while other factors such as perceived low status, low pay, lack of professional autonomy and deprofessionalisation have been linked to teacher dissatisfaction (p. 229).

It seems that the conditions which define teachers' experience and shape their perceptions about their jobs are, to a certain extent, created by the intrinsic and extrinsic factors within the job (Rhodes et al., 2004).

Intrinsic factors revolve around teaching itself, that is around student achievement and the teachers' professional efficacy and development (Scott, Dinham & Brooks, 2003). Intrinsic factors contribute to an intrinsic type of motivation. Intrinsic motivation is concerned with the immediate enjoyment of the actual task at hand; it does not look at the goal as a means of pleasure but the actual experience of attaining it is a means of satisfaction (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Enjoyment and interest are sought within the task itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000, Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Extrinsic factors have to do with the results obtained after an activity has been completed (McKeachie, 1997). They are not linked directly with the teaching of students but are external to the job itself such as the salary, relations with

colleagues, school policies, administration, status, job security, etc (Shoaib, 2004). The latter have to do with work conditions and fall within the responsibility of the educational system in general, the government and society. Extrinsic factors contribute to an extrinsic type of motivation.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) splits the factors which contribute to intrinsic motivation into two categories. The first group of factors have to do with the actual teaching process itself and so are based on the teacher's actions and how these can enhance student performance. The intrinsic factors, which belong to the second group, are derived from the subject matter itself and how the teacher keeps professionally up-to-date with it. With regard to this Csikszentmihalyi says that

teachers who do not find their subject matter worthwhile in and of itself but teach it only for extrinsic reasons – pay or prestige – waste their own time and convey the message to students that learning lacks intrinsic value and is only a means to other ends (p. 82).

The division between internal and external needs has been the focus of much of the literature concerning teacher motivation. Most theories of motivation include either type of need but in many cases there is a combination of both. This division evolved from Maslow and Herzberg et al.'s (1959) work.

Maslow and Herzberg et al.: The two-domain model

We can say that teacher satisfaction satiates the higher-order needs of teachers. Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of human needs maintains that once humans meet and satisfy their basic needs they will move on to satisfy their 'higher needs'. Basic

needs have to do with physiological needs whilst higher-order needs are psychological needs. Job satisfaction has to do with the latter type of human needs and the desire to satisfy these needs successfully. In the teacher's profession, basic needs are equivalent to salary, esteem, school status and so forth, while higher-order needs include the teaching itself, interaction with students, classroom experience and student achievement. Basic needs can be said to be the equivalent of extrinsic factors to teaching while higher-order needs are the intrinsic factors of teaching. Teachers are mostly satisfied with the accomplishment of higher-order needs than with their basic needs (Bishay, 1996; Sylvia & Hutchinson, 1985). Contemporaries of Maslow (1943), Herzberg et al. (1959), proposed a two-domain model which is based on similar principles.

In 1959, Herzberg et al. conducted a study of job motivation and satisfaction among people working in industry. This was a very influential study and it gave rise to a two-domain model of factors affecting workers' attitudes toward their job. This research was further improved and confirmed by Sergiovanni (1967) who used the same research model as Herzberg et al. with teachers as respondents. The model splits factors that influence job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic factors. As stated earlier, intrinsic factors are inherent to the job itself while extrinsic factors are not important to the main purpose of the job but rather 'surround' the job. Intrinsic factors, which are also termed as 'motivators' by Herzberg et al., enhance satisfaction while extrinsic factors, which Herzberg et al. term as 'hygiene factors', when poor, can cause dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors were termed as such because hygiene in life prevents diseases but is not a cure to any ailment. It is therefore important to realise that improving hygiene/extrinsic factors will help prevent any impediments to positive job attitudes (Herzberg et al.,

1959). However, minimising inadequate extrinsic factors does not result in increasing teacher job satisfaction (Dinham, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001; Doyle & Kim, 1999; Kim, 1998; Kim & Doyle, 1998; Pennington, 1995; Sylvia & Hutchinson, 1985). We must also keep in mind that while extrinsic factors contribute to teacher dissatisfaction (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Evans, 2001; Pelletier, Sequin-Levesque & Legault, 2002), they do not necessarily diminish intrinsic motivation (Doyle & Kim, 1999). In fact they could enhance intrinsic motivation or else leave it unaltered (Deci, Kasser & Ryan, 1997). This means that factors which satisfy or dissatisfy teachers on their job cannot be plotted on the same continuum (Dinham and Scott, 1998).

Ultimately teacher satisfaction and motivation are the products of ‘motivators’ which are inherent to the job itself (Fraser, Draper & Taylor, 1998; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), they are not ‘given’ but are attained when one does the job itself (Sergiovanni, 1967). We can say that within the teaching profession intrinsic factors seem to be the main contributors to motivation and job satisfaction (eg. Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Evans, 1998a; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1999; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). This is so because teaching is, more often than not, seen as a vocation since it has to do with an inherent desire to help people learn (Deci et al., 1997; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001; Doyle & Kim, 1999; Kim, 1998; Kim & Doyle, 1998; Pennington, 1995; Pennington & Ho, 1995).

Criticism of the two-domain model

Within the field of teacher satisfaction, Herzberg et al.’s work was mainly criticised because it was based on people who worked in industry and was too easily applied

to teachers (Gawel, 1997; Nias, 1981). Nias (1981) claims that teacher job satisfaction is more complex than that proposed by Herzberg. She sustains that the distinction between work itself and the contextual factors that Herzberg et al. make is not so distinct for the teacher, as teaching involves the context of the school as a social system comprising colleagues and pupils. Essentially, Nias presents a case whereby certain hygiene factors can affect satisfaction, in that a lack of them will increase satisfaction and not just decrease dissatisfaction as proposed by Herzberg (1966). Such factors include inefficient administration, uncongenial colleagues, lack of participation in the agreement of ends and means and poor communication. These factors are taken to belong to the hygiene group but Nias prefers to call them 'negative satisfiers' as they have to do with the achievement of satisfaction. Eventually, a third set of factors were identified to form a third domain model.

The third domain

A study conducted amongst 2000 teachers and school executives (Dinham & Scott, 1998) uncovered another type of factors which influence job satisfaction. This led Dinham and Scott to move away from the two-domain model (intrinsic and extrinsic) of factors affecting teacher motivation and propose a three-domain model. These factors fall somewhere between the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and are related to the school itself; the climate and reputation of the school, the decision-taking process and the building itself. Rhodes et al.'s (2004) study, for example, identified workload, initiative overload, pupil indiscipline and administration as main dissatisfiers in that they hinder actual teaching. Society's view of teachers was also found to be unsatisfactory (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006). In

another study, this time by Scott et al. (2003), it was found that teachers were generally more dissatisfied with factors which were extrinsic to the immediate teaching situation, like the communicative situation in the school and the status of teachers, namely, the 'third domain'. In some cases these extrinsic factors contributed to eroding the satisfaction felt with the actual teaching situation, what Scott et al. term as 'core business'. In their report, Perie and Baker (1997) found that there was a positive relationship between teacher satisfaction and student behaviour, support from administration or leadership, the atmosphere of the school and workplace conditions; while salary and benefits did not relate well with teacher satisfaction. Fraser et al. (1998) found that friendliness of staff, intellectual challenge and autonomy to be among the most satisfying factors, while workload, proportion of time spent on administration and society's view of teachers as the least satisfying.

This third domain was found to diminish teacher satisfaction gained from both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Rhodes et al., 2004). Change, therefore, especially to improve conditions of teaching and increase teacher satisfaction, is most possible within this third domain (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Ryan, Bayley, Douaud, Hemingway & O'Reilly-Scanlon 2003; Scott et al, 2003). This is so as, in the original study, Dinham and Scott (1998) found that these factors were the ones which varied most from one school to the other. This means that

an increase in pressure for educational change and societal criticism of teachers can see the outer third domain of teacher satisfaction/dissatisfaction grow in importance and influence, while the intrinsic and school based aspects of teachers' work recede in terms of career satisfaction generated (Scott et al, 2003, p. 85).

3.1.2 Teacher efficacy

A sense of competence or self-efficacy is a basic need for an intrinsic type of motivation and a reason why people seek challenging and stimulating tasks (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). This also holds true for the teaching profession, in fact much of the literature concerning teacher motivation deals with self-efficacy. Teachers need to feel they are meeting their full potential and feel efficacious both on a personal and a professional level.

Self-efficacy is the belief that one is able to do one's job and the perception that one is able to achieve set goals professionally (Bandura, 1997). Expectancies of outcomes are therefore influenced by these beliefs. This means that there has to be some record of previous success on which high self-efficacy can thrive (Walker & Symons, 1997). In the realm of teaching, self-efficacy refers to the teacher's belief that s/he can help students learn (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

Pajares (2002) considers self-efficacy to be the basis of motivation in that people need to believe that what they are doing will produce the desired outcome. Teachers need to believe in their abilities "to plan, organize, and carry out activities required to attain given educational goals" (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, p. 613). This is accompanied by persistence and effort which lead a person to try out new things and aim at more challenging goals (Walker & Symons, 1997). People with high self-efficacy exert more effort and their performance is much better, they are also more ready to analyse their performance and try to find ways to improve and change (Oxford & Shearin, 1996; Schafer, Hultgren, Hawley, Abrams, Seubert & Mazzoni, 1996; Schwarzer & Schmitz, 2005; Tscannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy, 2004). Such people

demonstrate fortitude when failure occurs and are able to face a challenge more easily. The effort they exert is not hampered but rather strengthened (Bandura, 1994). While self-efficacy is boosted when students achieve, it will not decrease if students fail as efficacious teachers see this as a challenge and just try out other teaching methods to remedy the situation (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). The lower the self-efficacy belief the less one is likely to persevere and exert any effort.

Self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997), bases itself on four sources of information:

- a. Enactive mastery experiences – Gauging and interpreting the effects of past actions. Successful outcomes raise self-efficacy while failure lowers it (Pajares, 1997). This source has the most direct influence on teaching competence as it is through actual teaching that teachers can gain the most information about their capabilities.
- b. Vicarious learning – Using others as models and comparing oneself to others. Observing another teacher teach successfully can boost one's self-efficacy as it makes the task seem to be more manageable. It increases the belief that they too will be capable to perform under the same circumstances (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).
- c. Verbal persuasion – Exposure to judgement by others through verbal interactions. If given in the right manner such feedback can affect teaching efficacy in a positive way. It can be a rich source of information about teachers' performance and provide support.
- d. Physiological and affective states – Influence by states of mind such as pleasure, anxiety, stress and mood. Positive feelings usually following a

successful task enhance self-efficacy while feelings of anxiety and stress usually diminish efficacy and result in failure (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007).

Self-efficacy has to do with one's perception of one's abilities. It depends on how teachers view their abilities and not on the actual abilities themselves (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, prediction of how people are going to behave is better based on people's beliefs of their capabilities rather than what they are actually capable of. As these beliefs help determine what the outcome will be then successful outcomes are expected by those who have high self-efficacy and are confident in what they are doing (Pajares, 2002). Bandura (1997) differentiates between self-beliefs and outcome expectations. Self beliefs are the beliefs one has of one's ability to perform a certain action while outcome expectations are what one perceives will be the consequences of this action. Although these two dimensions are assumed to make up teacher motivation they need to be fine-tuned as there is no distinction between beliefs about teachers/teaching in general and about a particular teacher. Teacher efficacy, according to Woolfolk et al (1990), therefore, would be better explained by describing it as consisting of general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy:

- *General teacher efficacy* is the belief that teaching, no matter what adverse external factors (such as abuse on students at home, slow learners, etc) might exist, is able to generate student achievement.
- *Personal teaching efficacy* is the belief that a particular teacher can make an impact.

If teachers possess high general teaching efficacy then the belief is that all students, no matter what level of ability or willingness to learn, can achieve. The power lies in teaching. Low general teaching efficacy puts the blame of low achievement on the students themselves and any external factors. In this case nothing can be done through teaching to help students achieve.

Teachers with a high sense of personal teaching efficacy believe that they can help weak students achieve and work together with the students to solve problems. Low personal teaching efficacy propagates stress and low self-esteem as the teachers blame their teaching ability for not being able to help students, especially weaker ones, to achieve (Shoaib, 2004). On the other hand, teachers who possess high personal teaching efficacy but low general teaching efficacy might also feel incapable of helping students as they have no control of their students learning since other factors, such as home and school environment are affecting their students' progress (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). This will eventually decrease a teacher's personal efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Self-efficacy relies strongly on the context (Bandura, 1997; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Woolfolk et al, 1990). In one situation a person might feel efficacious but not in another (Seashore Louis, 1998, Tschannen-Moran et al, 1998, Woolfolk et al, 1990). Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni & Steca (2003) claim that if a certain context propagates high self-efficacy then that context is associated with a sense of satisfaction and therefore with a more effective performance. Contexts are varied and:

Considerations include such factors as the students' abilities and motivation, appropriate instructional strategies, managerial issues, the availability and quality of instructional materials, access of technology, and the physical conditions of the

teaching space, to name only a few. Contextual factors include the leadership of the principal, the climate of the school and the supportiveness of other teachers (Tschannen-Moran et al, 1998, p. 20).

All three contextual factors affect teacher efficacy. Principal leadership affects teachers' efficacy positively when it provides a unified sense of direction, manages students' disruptions, allows flexibility and encourages teachers' involvement in decision taking. The climate of the school, when it comprises a positive atmosphere, a sense of community, collaboration with other teachers and high parent involvement, reinforces teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The support of other teachers or collective efficacy, that is the efficacy of the teachers as a group in a school, may be crucial to the efficacy of the individual teacher (Caprara et al., 2003). In the school environment it is essential that there is a sense of collective efficacy for the school to achieve academically (Bandura, 1993). A school with high academic achievements enhances collective efficacy which in turn augments the efficacy of individual teachers. This, however, may have the opposite effect as the standards of other efficacious colleagues might be perceived to be too high and individual teachers might feel they can never reach such standards. Teachers might be discouraged as collective efficacy might be perceived to be too high for a teacher (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Self-efficacious teachers are more effective and promote learning as they are able to overcome obstacles in the classroom, whether these have to do with discipline or the students' low ability (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Caprara et al., 2003; Schafer et al., 1996; Woolfolk et al., 1990). Classroom

management is in fact related to the teacher's sense of efficacy. Teachers with a high self-efficacy are able to manage their classes better than teachers who possess low self-efficacy. The latter are more nervous and tend to mistrust their students (Bandura, 1997; Woolfolk et al., 1990; Ross, 1994; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Woolfolk et al., 1990). A class that runs smoothly, in turn, boosts the efficacy of the teacher. This will promote student achievement as the teacher is bound to support student learning even more (Woolfolk et al., 1990).

Woolfolk et al. (1990), Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) and Woolfolk Hoy (2004) claim that teacher efficacy is linked to student achievement making it a very important variable for successful teaching. High teacher efficacy plus high expectations not only result in a higher commitment to general student learning but also in effort to help weaker students (Bandura, 1997; Kushman, 1992). Such teachers are also bound to have a good relationship with their colleagues (Caprara et al., 2003).

Teachers' self-efficacy influences job satisfaction and, as a result it affects teacher motivation (Bandura, 1997; Caprara et al., 2003). Teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more liable to be intrinsically motivated as they are more immersed in and enjoy what they are doing. High self-efficacy boosts the well-being of the teacher (Bandura, 1994). Motivation, therefore, is enhanced or hampered by different levels of self-efficacy. Teachers with high self-efficacy set high and challenging goals and if something goes wrong they will persist. Low self-efficacious teachers, on the other hand, might not even set goals at all as they see no point in doing so as they do not believe that they can achieve them anyway (Schwarzer & Schmitz, 2005).

Reduced levels of self-efficacy, in fact, can be an indicator of increased teacher stress levels and burnout (Bandura, 1997). When failure occurs, especially when this cannot be attributed to external factors or lack of effort, it depletes the efficacy of the teacher (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This is even more damaging when it occurs at the beginning of one's teaching career.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) highlight the cyclical nature of teacher efficacy in that good performance will lead to a mastery experience which provides input to greater self-efficacy in the future. This will, in turn, lead to a better performance. The same goes for poor self-efficacy. Poor self-efficacy produces poor teaching outcomes which diminish self-efficacy even more. The same authors in fact maintain that it is essential to find ways to increase and improve the self-efficacy of teachers.

To sum up, teacher efficacy is a very crucial component within teacher motivation. It takes on a very important role and as Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) assert that, "In these days of hard-nosed accountability, teachers' sense of efficacy is an idea that neither researchers nor practitioners can afford to ignore" (p. 803).

3.2 Aspects which affect teacher motivation: Autonomy and Feedback

Teacher autonomy and feedback provided to teachers are two essential aspects which affect teacher motivation considerably. Autonomy augments both teacher satisfaction and efficacy. A lack of it depletes teachers' motivation. Teacher

autonomy here is discussed within the framework of self-determination theory. Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991), the main exponents of self-determination theory, claim that teachers' intrinsic motivation is based upon experiences of autonomy.

Feedback, especially when it is given to a teacher who is working autonomously, is an important source of reflection and re-evaluation of one's actions. It regenerates goals and keeps teachers on their toes. Feedback given, if constructive, can motivate teachers to change and improve while if it is disparaging, motivation will be adversely affected. Lack of feedback also damages the motivation of teachers.

3.2.1 Teacher autonomy and self-determination

Pennington (1992) claims it is important that employers are aware that "the best performance derives from individual initiative and employees' realisation of their higher level needs for psychological satisfaction in their work" (p. 216). This is made possible through a combination of self-determination to achieve certain goals, the freedom to do so and the opportunities made available to the individual (Pennington, 1992). Autonomy is the key here. To be self-determined is to be autonomous (Deci et al., 1997; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon and Kaplan, 2007; Walker & Symons, 1997). When there is room for self-determined behaviour than workers are more motivated and performance is improved, which leads to increased work satisfaction (Deci et al., 1997; Vaughan, 2005). It is therefore important that schools allow autonomy and desist from controlling situations if they want more motivated teachers. After all, an

environment which promotes autonomy encourages intrinsic and self-determined motivation (Flowerday & Schraw, 2000; Pelletier et al., 2002; Roth et al., 2007).

Deci & Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, which is also referred to in Chapter 2, is concerned with the extent to which people reflect upon their behaviour and act autonomously. The theory assumes that humans instinctively want to develop and grow psychologically so as to master a better sense of self. Individuals will therefore choose tasks which are more challenging and stimulating. However, all of this is susceptible to and is affected by social contexts which can enhance this growth or hamper it.

When teachers are given the freedom to choose their tasks then the setting for intrinsic motivation is optimal. In fact, if extrinsic factors come into place in the shape of rewards or limitations, autonomy, in most instances, will be impaired and, as a consequence, weaken any motivation that is intrinsic (Deci et al., 1997). However the same authors claim that when extrinsic factors are internalised by the individual then it is possible for extrinsically motivated behaviour to be self-determined.

Through the self-determination theory, several types of motivation were identified (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). These were set on a continuum ranging from the most self-determined or autonomous type of motivation which is intrinsic motivation, to amotivation. What lies in between are various types of extrinsic motivation which depend on varied degrees of autonomy (as autonomy diminishes, extrinsic motivation increases). These are considered to be extrinsic factors as from then on no action is undertaken for its inherent satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, Fortier & Guay, 1997).

Intrinsic motivation is followed by:

- *integrated regulation*; where individuals engage in an activity because it supports their idea of self (Macintosh & Noels, 2004). Here the teachers analyse and evaluate the 'identified regulations' and later assimilate them with their own values and needs, their own self (Ryan & Deci, 2000).
- *identified regulation*; individuals choose to do this freely and the goal is personally valuable.
- *introjected regulation*; the individuals pressure themselves to achieve something so this kind of regulation is less determined than the others. The pressure could have come about from an external source but has been internalised.
- *external regulation* is totally controlled by external issues, so the individuals have no say in this.

The last stage, *amotivation*, occurs when there is complete lack of motivation; it is equal to learned helplessness. When people are amotivated they lack the purpose to do something or they just do not do it at all (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

As we have seen, especially within the self-determination theory, teacher autonomy is crucial to cultivate motivated teachers. It has to exist within any teaching job (Baker, 1998; Evans, 2001; Fraser, 1998; Pennington, 1992; Walker & Symons, 1997). On the macro level, in the school itself and all that influences it, teachers' autonomy is much less valued. As a proof of this, when change was channelled through school administration, it was unsuccessful (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Many factors hamper teachers' autonomy; syllabi, the curriculum,

set texts, the architecture of the school and the classes themselves (Pennington, 1992; Walker & Symons, 1997).

Firestone and Pennell (1993) claimed that teachers are generally autonomous on the micro level, that is, within their classrooms. Pelletier et al. (2002), however, demonstrated that self-determined teachers can also be affected negatively when they perceive that their students are themselves not self-determined. In fact the more teachers promoted autonomous learning among their students the more they were self-determined in their own teaching. Change, therefore, has to come from the teachers themselves.

Autonomous teachers can take credit for success in learning as they are the ones solely responsible for their own teaching (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Kushman (1992) recognises that teachers are more likely to be efficacious in their teaching and will be diligent in their efforts to identify their students' learning difficulties when they perceive themselves to be in charge of the learning process. This will lead to success in the classroom and greater satisfaction with teaching (Perie & Baker, 1997; Wright & Custer, 1998; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Therefore we can say that autonomy is central to intrinsic motivation as there is a link between autonomy and self-fulfilment. This is so because teachers, as stated earlier, can assign credit for success in the classroom to themselves (Deci & Ryan, 1985). However, the same has to be said for failure but this will hopefully motivate teachers to reflect and change what they were doing since they can do this as they control the situation.

3.2.2 Feedback

Both motivation and change in performance require the creation of a gap between what is perceived and what is desired in performance, that is, between the teacher's real and ideal performance. Feedback is essential for creating such a gap between perception and conception of teaching (Pennington, 1992, p. 211).

As was discussed in the previous section one source of self-efficacy can be obtained from verbal persuasion that is verbal feedback about one's teaching. Feedback is crucial when setting and revising goals (Pennington, 1992). No activity can be valid unless one obtains some response as a kind of evaluation of the activity. This evaluation or feedback is only significant if the teacher feels responsible for the execution of the activity. We can therefore say that feedback makes sense if the teacher is autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

“Feedback is the amount of direct, clear information received directly from one's work about one's performance and effectiveness” (Firestone & Pennell, 1993, p. 503). Scheeler, Ruhl and MacAfee (2004), after reviewing various studies concerning feedback, maintain that immediacy is crucial for feedback to be effective. The more feedback is given immediately after the teaching activity the more teachers are able to absorb targeted teaching behaviour efficiently.

Feedback can either confirm success or make one reflect on what went wrong and how this can be changed (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). As a result the motivation to work increases, which is important (Bess, 1997) as this nurtures intrinsic motivation and commitment, both to teaching and the school itself (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). In fact, constant feedback is invaluable (Dörnyei,

2001). Lack of feedback can be detrimental and is definitely not the recipe for change and improvement. Evans (1998a) notes that, many times, no feedback or unsatisfactory feedback, especially from the head of schools, leads to teacher dissatisfaction and demotivation. However, a badly designed system of evaluation, Ellis (1984) warns, can lead to feelings of resentment toward the school administration, mistrust and stress.

Feedback can be a force that challenges teachers to move in the right direction but it can also be a source that erodes the efficacy of a teacher if it takes the form of negative criticism and demoralising comments. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argue that teachers may respond to criticism by engaging in 'self-protective strategies' whereby they would not attempt certain goals as they see them to be unattainable and the risk of failure is high. However, according to Pennington (1992) negative feedback is no worse than no feedback at all. Lack of feedback takes away the teacher's initiative and any incentive to improve (Pennington, 1992). In Evans's (1998b) study teachers who received no feedback or lacked positive feedback from the school leadership became demotivated.

A teacher's main source of feedback has to be the class itself (Woolfolk et al., 1990). The efficient and productive running of the class boosts the teacher's sense of efficacy. Firestone and Pennell (1993) assert that feedback received directly from the students is the most effective. Some teachers compensate for the lack of appropriate feedback from the administration by seeking to receive feedback from their students as was the case with some of the teachers in the Gheralis-Roussos (2003) study.

3.3 The negative side of teacher affect: Dissatisfaction, stress and burnout

If teacher satisfaction, efficacy, autonomy and feedback are in some way or other lacking, then teachers become dissatisfied with their job. The negative aspects of teacher motivation: dissatisfaction, stress and burnout are discussed here. Teacher dissatisfaction, in fact, is quite a diffused phenomenon. This is not surprising as many aspects of teaching are constantly being challenged, making it harder for the teacher to be satisfied and to cope with the challenges in the classroom. Eventually this state of affairs can lead to teacher stress and burnout.

Causes of teacher dissatisfaction and demotivation can range from the students themselves to far-reaching goals to an inherent unwillingness to seek actual satisfaction by the teachers themselves (Bess, 1997). Teachers suffer from the lowest job satisfaction (Pennington, 1995) and according to Dörnyei (2001) the reason for this is that “teaching is a profession whose pursuit is fuelled primarily by intrinsic motives and that there exist a number of detrimental factors that systematically undermine and erode the intrinsic character of teacher motivation” (p. 165). This is also sustained by Bezzina and Portelli (2006) in the Maltese context. As has been pointed out earlier on in this chapter, teachers are generally satisfied as a result of what happens within the classroom and teaching itself (intrinsic factors), while dissatisfaction stems more from the school itself and the system which upholds it (extrinsic factors), (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Scott et al., 1999; Scott et al., 2003; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). All in all, dissatisfiers are therefore mostly the result of factors which are not within the control of the teacher.

One of the main sources of this dissatisfaction seems to be the school administration (Evans, 1998a; Bezzina & Portelli, 2006), mostly because of the lack of feedback and respect proffered to teachers. This lack of respect is perceived by teachers to emanate from society at large and is reflected in the low salaries of teachers (Baker, 1998; Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Pennington, 1991; Pennington, 1992, Pennington & Ho, 1995; Scott et al., 1999).

Mule Stagno (2001), in a study conducted in Malta, highlight other aspects that dissatisfy teachers such as an inability to motivate students and specifically, changes in society which affect adolescents and therefore their behaviour in class. Dinham (1995) commented on this in a positive manner, in that being able to cope and deal successfully with students who showed no interest in learning and in changing their attitudes, is a major satisfier. This was also the result of the Maltese 'Teacher 2000 Project', where teachers were satisfied when they managed to improve their students' attitudes and behaviours, when their students were successful and when they worked with high-ability students (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006). A dissatisfier, when dealt with appropriately and is overcome can lead to satisfaction.

According to Pennington (1991) work dissatisfaction needs to be taken seriously as it might lead to illness; both psychological and physical, work ineffectiveness and a lack of productivity. Although most of the factors which dissatisfy teachers are present in a lot of other jobs, Dörnyei (2001) finds the situation to be unique in teaching as he recognises that nearly every teacher's motivational source is being challenged. This leads to teacher stress and eventually to burnout.

The relationship between dissatisfaction and stress is a direct one (Dinham & Scott, 1998). Dissatisfaction is the source of stress while stress brings about dissatisfaction; it is a vicious cycle. Both dissatisfaction and stress produce the same results, that of teacher ineffectiveness. Teachers become unproductive as they expend less time and energy to their work (Pennington, 1991; Balkin, White & Boday, 2002).

As documented by many researchers in the area (Balkin et al., 2002; Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Fraser et al., 1998; Jennett, Harris & Mesibov, 2003; Kottler & Zehm, 2000; Kyriacou, 2001; Oi-Ling, 1996; Reese, 2004; Seashore Louis, 1998; Wilhelm et al., 2000), teaching is a high-stress job. Bezzina and Portelli (2006) recognise that every teacher experiences some form of stress. Stress is “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher” (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 28). It is the result of dissatisfaction with one’s job (Dinham & Scott, 1997; Pennington, 1991) and in extreme cases no amount of intrinsic motivation will help (Pennington, 1995). When an individual does not cope with stress and when the stress is sustained over a period of time, it will lead to teacher burnout, where the consequences are far worse as this leads to “a state of emotional, physical and attitudinal exhaustion” (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 28). In fact burnout typically takes quite a number of years to show (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006). Teachers come to this stage when they give up trying to cope actively with stress and they give in to burnout which, according to Jennett et al. (2003), is a passive coping mechanism.

According to Kottler and Zehm (2000), Kyriacou (2001), and Bezzina and Portelli (2006), stress is triggered by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The main

sources of stress identified are classroom management and discipline, together with problematic behaviour from individual students, classes with a large number of students, especially if these are of mixed abilities, change that accompanies the job of teaching since it is linked with what goes on in society, inadequate remuneration, excessive paperwork and lack of respect from colleagues, administration and the community. These can all contribute towards teacher anxiety.

Stress erodes motivation and therefore has to be kept at a minimum (Czubaj, 1996). Goddard and Goddard (2006) suggest that teachers need to be trained to adopt stress management techniques and to learn how to deal with stress-provoking situations given that student achievement is heavily reliant upon teacher quality and standards. When the source is extrinsic then the ones inflicting the stress, such as the school administration or the government, need to ensure that job conditions improve. However, according to Pennington & Ho (1995) and Jennett et al. (2003), when burnout sets in, more often than not, nothing can improve the situation.

The effects of stress can lead to teachers leaving their job (Balkin et al., 2002; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Doyle & Kim, 1999; Larchick & Chance, 2002; Pennington, 1991; Ryan et al., 2003). The main reason for leaving the teaching profession was mostly linked to teachers' coping resources mechanisms (Wright & Custer, 1998). Goddard and Goddard (2006) found that there was a relationship between the phenomenon of teachers leaving their job at the beginning of their career and burnout. Many times the transition from student teacher to a professional teacher is too hard; they get what Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) term as a 'reality shock'.

Many stress management strategies have been proposed for teachers. Reese (2004) suggests that the best method to find effective ways to reduce stress is to observe teachers over a period of time, that is, using a process approach. In this way, methods for coping with stress can be noted and then recommended to other teachers. This ensures that coping methods are grounded in real teacher behaviour.

Gu and Day (2007) assert that teacher resilience, which is defined as the ability to persevere in the face of adversity and being able to 'bounce back', can be a way to combat stress and burnout and thus maintain motivation. Resilience, according to these authors can be strengthened and developed as it is not an innate personality trait but is influenced by the surrounding environment and context. A strong sense of self-efficacy is also an essential ingredient for resilience.

As was noted in the self-efficacy section low self-efficacy is linked to feelings of anxiety and depression (Schwarzer & Schmitz, 2004). Therefore increased and improved teachers' self-efficacy beliefs will certainly prevent stress and equip the teacher to deal with stressful situations more effectively (Bandura, 1994; Pajares, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2006). The reverse can also be the case in that teachers can work on eliminating negative states and emotions or else do their best to reduce instances which bring these about, especially if it is within their power to do so, in order to help increase their self-efficacy (Pajares, 2002). This and other recommendations will help them to deal with further stressful situations more effectively and might reduce stress and augment teacher satisfaction. Such factors will be considered at the end of this chapter.

Teachers depend on their relationship with their student for a satisfactory teaching career. If what they invest in this relationship is persistently not

reciprocated then this can try teachers' emotional resources to the point where teachers give in to stress and burnout. In this regard, Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2007) found that 'supervisor support, innovativeness, information, appreciation, and organizational climate' (p. 281) act as a 'buffer' to stress brought about by student misbehaviour. Such behaviour according to these authors is a major source of teacher burnout.

Ultimately, methods of enhancing teacher satisfaction and reducing dissatisfaction which in turn leads to stress and eventually burnout, must be implemented. As Latham (1998) points out, job satisfaction not only helps schools to retain teachers but also improves the quality of teaching. Job satisfaction in itself is a way of combating stress.

3.4 Enhancing teacher motivation

In this chapter intrinsic motivation, which is the main contributor to teacher satisfaction, and teacher self-efficacy are considered to be the main dimensions of teacher motivation. Therefore, it follows that in order to enhance teacher motivation, work has to be done to maintain and improve both of these dimensions. In this section the importance of and the possibilities for improving these aspects of motivation are discussed. Then, ways and suggestions for enhancing teacher motivation based mainly on the recommendations put forward by Shoaib (2004) are presented. The same levels developed by Shoaib to categorise these recommendation are used.

Intrinsic motivation and psychological needs

Teaching, according to Bess (1997), requires dedication and must be sustained by strong motivation. It seems that since the most important type of motivation for teachers is intrinsic, then the best way to boost teacher motivation is to enhance as much as possible the intrinsic factors within the job. This means that the psychological needs of teachers have to be satisfied as these are the key to intrinsic motivation. These needs, as we have seen earlier also contribute to job satisfaction which is a key element within teacher motivation. Psychological needs are to be tapped into and enriched. This is stressed in Hackman and Oldham (1976)'s 'Job Characteristic theory' and by Sylvia and Hutchinson (1985), Pennington (1992) and Dörnyei (2001a). Pennington (1992) listed some psychological needs as the need for "creative outlets; for connectedness to others; for a feeling of accomplishment and efficacy in work performance; and for a sense of direction, purpose, and professional growth in one's career" (p. 199). These, however, need to be accompanied by five other job enhancers: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. When these are taken care of, then intrinsic motivation and also job satisfaction, are intensified (Deci et al., 1997; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Pennington (1995) claims that to enhance teacher motivation there should be opportunities for teachers to develop and advance academically within their career. Employment action plans could make this possible. Doyle & Kim (1999) criticise this view as they point out that Pennington does not take into consideration issues which cause teacher dissatisfaction such as social, cultural and political factors.

Since working and helping students is at the heart of an intrinsically motivated teacher then student behaviour is a significant aspect of the equation. Unruly student behaviour can diminish such motivation. Rhodes et al. (2004), in fact, call for support for teachers as they seek to cope with student behaviour.

Self-efficacy

Teacher's self-efficacy is crucial for motivation. Factors which contribute positively to the efficacy of a teacher augment also their motivation. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) deem it important for teachers to be helped to develop their efficacy beliefs at the very beginning of their career, since at this stage efficacy is still malleable. For example, they propose that beginning teachers should be given smaller classes with capable students so that it is easier for their efficacy to thrive. Teachers, who feel self-efficacious after their first year of teaching, were more satisfied and less stressed with their jobs in the years that followed. Change in efficacy beliefs among experienced teachers is difficult as this usually means a change in what they believe to be good teaching. Such a change would therefore require support and feedback. Teachers can only cement their new beliefs when they see their students achieve further. In-service training, in general, also boosts teachers' self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Pintrich and Schunk (2002) call for teacher education that seeks to develop ways of raising their efficacy. These professional development courses should be designed so as to include Bandura's (1997) sources of efficacy; enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion and physiological and affective

states (these were described earlier on in this chapter). Extra care should be taken when dealing with experienced teachers as their efficacy tends to be lower since, as time goes by, they are more bound to attribute lower student achievement to factors outside their teaching. The same authors also note that student teachers' efficacy can be augmented by observing other experienced teachers' way of handling certain situations successfully in class as this makes them aware of the skills they themselves would require. This information is a vicarious source of efficacy (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). While Wolters and Daugherty (2007) also believe that new teachers should be exposed to such vicarious training, their study of experienced teachers, proved otherwise. In their study of over 1000 experienced teachers they found that experienced teachers actually possessed higher levels of self-efficacy. This they put down to the fact that over time such teachers become more confident since they become more resilient as they experience varied situations. Furthermore and more specifically to what we are discussing here, this may be a consequence of the fact that they were exposed to professional development education which may have encouraged them to be more efficacious and therefore more confident in their teaching.

3.4.1 Strategies to motivate teachers of English: Shoaib's recommendations

The situation in teacher motivation may be improved by the teachers themselves, the school administration and the wider education authorities. Shoaib's (2004) categorisation of recommendations into three levels; the teacher level, the managerial level and the ministerial/institutional level (see Figure 8) is followed here.

TEACHER LEVEL

1. Applying self-regulatory strategies
2. Attending formal/professional activities
3. Aiming for a further degree

MANAGERIAL LEVEL

1. Developing a system for collaboration and team work between EFL teachers
2. Providing appropriate specialised in-service training for EFL teachers
3. Recognizing and appreciating EFL teachers' efforts and hard work

MINISTERIAL/INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

1. Allocating more funds to the educational system
2. Restricting the regulative nature of the system
3. Allowing the participation of teachers in curriculum design

Figure 8 The most important strategies to motivate EFL teachers at three distinctive levels (Shoaib, 2004, p. 269) .

The teacher level

Teachers are responsible for their own motivation; they are their own main regulators. Teachers need to find ways to motivate themselves or to maintain their existing motivation. According to Shoaib (2004) teachers should keep their teaching activities interesting by keeping themselves au courant with what is happening in their field. They can do this by attending courses, conferences and pursuing further studies and degrees.

Shoaib (2004) points out that teachers need to be free to be able to enrich themselves and they are to be helped to do so. Pennington (1995) believes that employment action plans should be implemented to improve the career paths of

teachers by paying attention to teacher development, career and academic structures. Such plans would need to be implemented by the school administration and the department of education which are referred to in the next two levels.

Benson (2001), claims that teachers themselves have to be their own source of autonomy. Just as teachers promote autonomous learning among their students, they themselves should seek to become autonomous 'learners'. They must be in control of their own autonomy.

Genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous by having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching, the highest possible degree of affective and cognitive control of the teaching process, exercising continuous self-reflection, and exploiting the freedom that all of this confers (Little, 1995, p. 179).

One key issue that seems to underlie teacher autonomy is reflective action whereby teachers reflect on their pedagogy and thus practise reflective teaching (Benson, 2001; Lamb, 2000; Smith, 2003). After reflecting on what went on in the classroom, the teachers change what is not working by trying other methods and reinforce what works.

The managerial level

Most of the time, factors which affect teacher motivation are beyond the control of the teacher. The school environment is a crucial factor if teacher motivation is to grow and the administration needs to be very much aware of this. The school administration has a strong influence on the motivation of its teachers, it can 'make or break it' (Evans, 1998b; Rhodes et al., 2004). In fact the second level where

change is recommended, according to Shoaib (2004), is at the managerial level. Here the administration of the school needs to support collegiality among teachers, provide any necessary in-service training and be more appreciative of teachers' work. This level is what Dinham and Scott (1998) refer to as the third domain which was discussed earlier in this chapter. It is the domain where change seems to be the most possible. This level is significant and therefore it will be dealt with it in much more detail.

It is evident that teachers find support and an opportunity for reflection when discussing and sharing their teaching experiences with fellow teachers (Bezzina, 2004; Day, Hadfield & Kellow, 2002; Ellis, 1984; Fraser et al., 1998; Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Kottler & Zehm, 2000; Rhodes et al., 2004; Shoaib, 2004; Sylvia & Hutchinson, 1985; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This fact seems to raise teachers' commitment and motivation. Rhodes et al. (2004) point out that the intrinsic motivation of teachers is likely to be higher where schools promote collaboration, respect and consultation among their staff.

The teachers themselves need to contribute to create a kind of synergy so that collaboration exists; however, the school administration also plays an important role. The latter needs to support and encourage collegial rapport by giving space to teachers to do so, providing the finances, information and feedback needed (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003), and removing any obstacles. The schools need to create a positive work environment where teachers feel comfortable to share their concerns with colleagues and administration (Bezzina, 2004; Kyriacou, 2001; Vaughan, 2005). According to Shoaib (2004), by encouraging such collaboration the school management would benefit tremendously as it not only boosts teachers'

well-being, both personally and professionally, but it will also leads to higher student achievement. For this to work she recommends that,

managers should be part of the team; should appoint each team member with an appropriate role that would suit them best according to their knowledge, experience and enthusiasm; emphasize the importance of relying on and learning from the complementary skills of the other team members; emphasise the benefits of cooperation between the members; and should make the goals of the team its driving force (p. 271).

Bezzina (2004) calls for a learning community within schools where the members of staff learn from one another. In Bezzina's case-study, the teachers collaborated and drew upon their 'collective power' to improve teacher motivation. "Teacher-led change promotes reflection, promotes dialogue, encourages critical conversations about issues that are deemed important" (Bezzina, 2004, p. 452). This led to various outcomes such as a great sense of belonging by all (teachers, parents and pupils), increased teacher satisfaction, a better rapport with students and a stronger focus on teaching. As a result, teachers become more empowered and therefore feel more worthy within the school community

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) point out that teacher collaboration can also have a negative influence on teacher motivation as a result of collective inefficacy. Peers might discourage each other from trying out new methods. Another drawback could result from pressure put by colleagues to perform in certain expected ways in order to form part of the group of teachers (Pelletier et al., 2002).

The school administration must provide teachers in their school with Continuing Professional Development (CPD) opportunities and feedback which is supportive as it increases morale and motivation (Ellis, 1984). CPD, according to

Ellis, not only improves the professional aspect of teaching but also engenders teachers' communication as they share and discuss ideas. The effectiveness of CPD is supported by Seashore Louis (1998), who emphasises that the training has to draw on the abilities of members of the staff rather than provide the usual en masse training that is of no use to the individual teacher. Pennington (1992) highlights the importance of 'internally organised training' by claiming that while this generates collaboration and participation among teachers it is also a means of acknowledging teachers' work and achievements.

Recognition and appreciation of the work of teachers by the school administration is essential (Evans, 1998a). The school administration needs to be very much aware of this. In her research, Ellis (1984) like Shoiab (2004) also promotes 'participatory governance' where the managers are part of the teacher team and the teachers participate in the decision-making and taking of the school. Apart from acknowledging the work and professional status of the teachers, such participation plays a very essential role in making the teacher feel more autonomously motivated in their teaching (Roth et al., 2007). If teachers are part of the running of the school they feel responsible for what is going on in the school. This makes the teachers feel proud of their institution and so would want 'their' school to be a successful one. Such an environment will not only encourage teachers to persevere and work harder but it will also increase their self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). For this to be successful administrators must provide teachers with autonomy and feedback which is not controlling (Walker & Symons, 1997). In their study, in fact, Barnett and McCromick (2003) find that effective school leaders relate to the teachers individually and support and direct their staff according to individual needs. They also allow teachers to choose their

own style of applying their autonomous teaching in the classroom and to air their concerns and doubts they might face when applying this (Roth et al., 2007). Leaders can then channel the abilities, skills and efforts of individual teachers toward a common goal. Therefore, since leadership is so influential, it is essential that head teachers are able to provide support for their teachers (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003).

Recognition of teachers' work can also be shown by means of awards or titles that can be proffered to teachers (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003). Bezzina (2004) proposes the setting up of a professional programme which bestows academic awards to teachers in recognition of their work. Another type of reward could be a 'flexible pay system' which would be based on incentives devised by the particular school and teachers are rewarded for their work (Shoiab, 2004). Without doubt a better salary all round would also help but this is within the domain of the next level. Promotions and rewards usually enhance motivation and efficacy. However, according to Roth et al. (2007), such incentives compare teachers and their teaching as they are put alongside each other, increasing the pressure felt from above. The result of this is a depletion of the autonomy of the teacher and therefore of intrinsic motivation.

The ministerial/institutional level

This level concerns the education department and the officials who are in charge of the running of schools and the whole educational system. At this level financial support should be increased, the system should be less rigid and regulatory and the

teachers should be able to participate in the design of the curriculum (Shoaib, 2004).

Funds by the government should be allocated to four main areas identified by Shoiab (2004); educational management, institutional infrastructure, curriculum design and resources. School buildings and classes need to be kept in good working condition while resources, which are also an important factor of teachers' satisfaction, should be readily available. Fund allocation is also a form of acknowledging the fact that teaching is a prestigious profession and as valid as any other profession.

Although referring specifically to the Saudi Arabian context, Shoaib (2004) recommends that an educational system should limit the directives given. It should allow for more teacher autonomy by interfering less. Teachers should rather be seen as sources of information especially when it comes to curriculum design. They should be consulted on such matters as curriculum and syllabus design as they are the ones who have direct contact with students and their expertise would therefore be invaluable. This is something which has been implemented in Malta where teachers were consulted when a new National Minimum Curriculum was created and are still being consulted in any school development planning. Teachers, as a result, are empowered and given 'a sense of personal worth' (Bezzina, 2004).

At this level one has to comment on the huge amount of reforms and initiatives undertaken by various governments which generate continuous change and as a result disturb the stability of both teachers and students. This leads to more demands and pressures on the teachers who have to manage and work through such changes. This seems to be common practice in many countries (Gu & Day, 2007).

Gu and Day (2007) also claim that it is necessary for all those concerned with improving the standards and quality of education to be aware of what constitutes teacher motivation so as to be able to sustain and enhance it. They must also examine what keeps teachers going in the face of numerous challenges as it can give them an indication of what works. To do this, the different stakeholders within the community must come together to create an environment where “teachers, as educators, can grow to be themselves and give of their best so that we have creative learning communities for all” (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006, p. 70).

3.5 Summary

In the beginning of this chapter it was established that teacher motivation plays an essential role in the teachers’ lives as it influences students’ achievement. Following a description of the motivated teacher it was concluded that for teachers to be motivated they need to be satisfied with what they are doing and feel self-efficacious about their job. Teacher satisfaction was compared and contrasted to teacher motivation. Both are affected by intrinsic and extrinsic factors which fall into a two-domain model. This model was not seen to be exhaustive when it comes to the teachers’ profession and so a third domain was identified which comprises the factors that are generated by the school both as a system and as a building.

The importance of teacher efficacy was explained and factors which influence it were delved into. Two types of efficacy were described: general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy.

Two aspects which also play a substantial role in teacher motivation; teacher autonomy and feedback given were discussed. After this there was a focus

on the negative side of the teaching job where dissatisfaction leads to stress and stress leads to burnout.

Finally at the end of the chapter suggestions for enhancing teacher motivation based on the recommendations put forward by Shoaib (2004) were discussed. It is essential that effort is exerted to augment teacher motivation as this influences the motivation of students and therefore their achievement. This leads us to the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4 The Relationship between Teacher And Student Motivation

This chapter will deal with the relationship between teachers' motivation and the motivation of their students. This will be dealt with in two parts. Firstly I will survey the existing literature concerning the subject, and secondly I will provide an overview of the possible mediating channels whereby teacher motivation can affect student motivation. I will also discuss briefly the influence of student motivation on teacher motivation.

4.1 The relationship between teacher and student motivation:

An overview

The literature offers abundant evidence that teachers have the power to influence the lives of their students and the way they view themselves as language learners (e.g. Richardson and Watt, 2006; Williams & Burden, 1999), and without doubt there is a positive correlation between teaching and learning (Czubaj, 1996). In fact, if students perceive that their teacher genuinely cares about their learning then their effort to learn will increase (Seashore Louis, 1998). The role of the teacher is, therefore, of extreme importance in language learning as it can determine if a student will love or hate learning a language. This has been conveyed in studies by both Dörnyei (1996) and Chambers (1999); in the latter study, when asked if they liked learning a particular language, students based their replies mostly upon the

type of relationship they had with the teacher, everything else was of secondary importance. The teacher seems to hold the key. “Her approach to teaching, her personality, her power to motivate, make learning meaningful and provide something which the pupils refer to as ‘fun’, represent the real foundation upon which pupils’ judgement of the learning experience is based” (Chambers, 1999, p. 137).

Thus, teacher motivation is, clearly, an important factor in that it affects student achievement as it has an impact on the students’ motivation (Dörnyei, 2005; Kassabgy et al, 2001). According to Dörnyei (2001), a motivated teacher is bound to yield motivated students as “the teacher’s level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners’ motivation to learn” (p. 156). This is why Dörnyei (2005) epitomises the motivation of the teacher as he sees it as the key to student motivation and, therefore, to achievement in learning, a view that is also supported by Wong-Fillmore (1994, cited in Doyle & Kim, 1999) and Harter (1996).

In spite of the importance of teacher motivation, studies linking it to learners’ motivation are scarce: According to Firestone & Pennell (1993) there are only a few studies which directly relate teacher commitment to learners’ achievement. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) and Dörnyei (2001), for example, could not find any actual studies which provided an empirical link between teacher motivation and student motivation. Dörnyei (2005) also notes that research on such an important area within SLA is scant.

In the literature, therefore, it has often been implied that teacher motivation is central for student learning and yet, hardly any empirical studies to support this claim. In fact, I am aware of only three L2 studies which analyse the effectiveness

of motivational strategies used by the language teacher through the collection of empirical data. These are Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). The Guilloteaux and Dörnyei study is the first of its kind; it uses classroom observation and analyses the relationship between teachers' motivational teaching practice and the students' motivation to learn. The other two studies are based on teachers' self-reports. These three studies are outlined below.

4.1.1 Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998)

Dörnyei and Csizér's study reflects practising teachers' beliefs and perceptions in real classroom settings. The aim of this study was to shortlist the most important motivational macrostrategies for teachers to use in the language classroom. These were then grouped into 10 'commandments'.

In this study 200 Hungarian teachers of English were asked to rank 51 motivational strategies according to importance and how often they used them while teaching. The strategies are based on Dörnyei's (1994) motivational framework as explained in Chapter 2 which incorporates three levels of language learning motivation: the language level, the learner level and the learning situation level.

The authors claim that prior to investigating the ways to motivate students it is essential that there is a list of motives that need to be promoted so that one can then design strategies that enhance them. However, since motivation is a very complex concept, possible techniques tend to be numerous. For this reason one of

the authors, Dörnyei, had previously compiled a set of ten macrostrategies which he termed the 'Ten commandments for motivating language learners' (Dörnyei, 1996). These were broad recommendations based not so much on any systematic research as on the author's experience and a semi-formal survey among a group of teachers. The study by Dörnyei and Csizér revisits this list by asking teachers to indicate the relevance of these strategies in their classroom.

Dörnyei's (1996) recommendations are taken and tested for their relevance and value in the classroom by a large number of teachers in the form of two questionnaires in which they ranked the importance of the strategies according to frequency of use. The two questionnaires were given to separate sets of teachers since it was thought that if teachers rated certain strategies as important then they might find it difficult to admit that they do not use them that often after all. Consequently the set of ten motivational strategies was modified according to the results of this study and a final version of the ten commandments was proposed (See Table 3).

It transpired that teacher modelling is the most effective strategy, which can also mean that a teacher who conveys a motivational attitude is a good role model to students especially when shaping their own motivation. The strategy least used was that of goal-setting and goal-orientedness. The authors were surprised that no strategy related to the building of learner groups qualified for the top ten list, indicating the need that teachers should be made aware of the importance of group dynamics in the language classroom. They also concluded that the teachers' role as a model was not used maximally to motivate students.

1	Set a personal example with your own behaviour
2	Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom
3	Present the tasks properly
4	Develop a good relationship with the learner
5	Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence
6	Make the language classes interesting
7	Promote learner autonomy
8	Personalize the learning process
9	Increase the learners' goal-orientedness
10	Familiarize learners with the target language culture

Table 3 Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) final version of the ten commandments for motivating language learners.

Interestingly, Dörnyei and Csizér suggest that the proposed commandments cannot be universal and are not easily transferable to other contexts. The reason for this is twofold: first, learning contexts will forever be 'dynamically changing' and will depend on the personality of the teacher and the learners; second, these strategies are culturally-bound in that the study took place in a European language learning environment. The authors conclude by calling for the actual testing of the effectiveness of these commandments in the actual classroom.

4.1.2 The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL Teaching in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007)

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) stress that the list of strategies that they found to be effective in classes appertain to a western culture. This, therefore, means that such strategies would not automatically work well within other cultures as noted above. Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study examines this claim as it replicates Dörnyei and Csizér's study within an Asian context, that of Taiwan. The instrument used in the Cheng and Dörnyei study is based on Dörnyei's (2001b) motivational strategies in the language classroom, which was a more methodical and comprehensive list of strategies than the list used by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998).

The list of motivational strategies was given to 387 Taiwanese teachers of English, who were asked to rate them in order of importance and according to how often they used them. The strategies were then clustered into ten macrostrategies. This list was compared to the 'Ten commandments' as compiled by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) – see Table 4.

Appropriate teacher behaviour, that is, the teacher as a role model, was seen as the most important microstrategy, as was the case in the Dörnyei and Csizér study. In the Taiwanese context the role of the teachers as leaders and the way teachers projected their enthusiasm for the subject matter and teaching were an important influence on student motivation. 'Making tasks stimulating' was the most under-utilised strategy while 'promoting learner autonomy' was virtually unused.

Taiwanese Survey	Hungarian Survey
1. Set a personal example with your own behavior	1,4
2. Recognise students' effort and celebrate their success	-
3. Promote learners' self-Confidence	5
4. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom	2
5. Present tasks properly	3
6. Increase the learners' goal-Orientedness	9
7. Make the learning tasks Stimulating	6
8. Familiarise learners with L2- related values	10
9. Promote group cohesiveness and set group Norms	-
10. Promote learner autonomy	7

Table 4 Comparison of the rank order of the macrostrategies obtained in Taiwan and in Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study as in Cheng and Dörnyei (2007).

There was a consistent pattern between the Taiwanese and Hungarian studies when it came to some of the most important motivational strategies, which suggests that they go over and above culture and context. This implies that such strategies are seen as fundamental in teaching and learning and can be treated as 'central tenets for any sound teaching practice' (p.169). These were 'Displaying motivating teacher behaviour', 'Promoting learners' self-confidence', 'Creating a pleasant classroom climate' and 'Presenting tasks properly'

Some other strategies, however, may be more culture-bound. “Recognising students’ effort and hard work’ was considered to be very important by Taiwanese teachers while ‘Promoting learner autonomy’ was not, when compared to Hungarian teachers’ replies. In the light of such incongruity the authors discuss three aspects of their findings in more detail. First, the fact that the Taiwanese teachers do not consider learner autonomy as important might be due to the broad conceptualisation of learner autonomy that the researchers focussed upon. It might have been perceived as a threat to the current roles of teachers and learners in Taiwan. This has to be seen in light of the traditional role of the Chinese teacher who is more of a controller and a source of knowledge rather than a facilitator. Learner autonomy is, therefore, seen as undermining this role. The learners themselves expect such a role from their teacher and are not willing to be autonomous. Here the authors claim that further research is needed to establish the type of ‘autonomous learning’ they would implement which would be more appropriate for such a context. In the authors’ view, the difference between Taiwanese and Hungarian teachers of English is due to the fact that the former support a more ‘reactive’ type of autonomy rather than an ‘active’ role of autonomy as supported by the west.

Secondly, with regards to creating interesting classes, the authors claim that Taiwanese teachers tend to teach traditionally rather than communicatively, even if the latter approach has been heavily promoted. Due to the exam-oriented system and the belief that success can only be achieved through difficult and demanding work, tasks which are seen to be fun are not given much weight and are not perceived to be beneficial.

Thirdly, recognition of students' effort and hard work was highly endorsed by Taiwanese teachers but not by Hungarian teachers. This goes with the tradition that Asian students tend to believe that success is the result of hard work and the more effort you exert the better chances you have of achieving further. This view is related to the Chinese belief that achievement is not necessarily linked to innate ability but rather to effort, and that perseverance and diligence are essential ingredients for success.

4.1.3 Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)'s study is one of its kind as it is the first to investigate the relationship between motivational teaching strategies and student motivation to learn a language through classroom observation. It involves 40 classrooms which include 27 language teachers and more than 1300 students in South Korea.

Prior to this study, the general trend with research analysing the effectiveness of motivational strategies was to rely on teacher self-report questionnaires, as is the case with Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). The fact that Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study relies on both a self-report questionnaire and classroom observation makes it unique. The classroom observation was accomplished through the development of the MOLT (Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching) observation scheme.

The MOLT is based on the COLT (Communication Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme which was developed by Spada and Frölich (1995), but observes strategies taken from Dörnyei's (2001b) model of motivational teaching practice. The MOLT scheme is used to assess the overall quality of the teachers' motivational teaching practice and the level of the students' motivational behaviour. The latter includes the students' attention paid in class, their participation and volunteering in tasks. The relationship between the students' self-reported motivation (via questionnaires), their actual classroom behaviour and the teachers' class practice is also assessed.

The authors present a case whereby the students' motivated behaviour was based on and varied according to their teacher's motivational practice. The results show that there is a link between teachers' motivational strategies and students' motivation.

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei claim that although their study confirms that there is a positive correlation between teacher motivation and student motivation, this does not necessarily mean that there is a causal relationship. It, therefore, cannot be automatically concluded teachers' motivational practice increases students' motivation. For example, the correlation can be related to the school itself: if the students of a particular school are generally motivated, then this will enhance teachers' motivation; while, if the students are demotivated then the teachers also become demotivated in their teaching. Such cases would result in high correlations between students' motivation and teacher's motivational teaching practice.

From their study the authors propose four research directions which could be taken in future studies. These are to establish,

1. The optimal conditions in which the link between the use of motivational

strategies by the teacher and the motivation of the students can take place.

2. The extent to which motivational strategies are influenced by culture and if these strategies can be used within diverse cultures.
3. The possibility of specifically teaching motivational strategies.
4. The relationship between the use of motivational strategies and good teaching, that is, which instructional qualities enhance or hinder the positive effects of motivational strategies. The other way round also should be examined, that is which motivational strategies make up for any poor instruction on the part of the teacher.

This study is important because, firstly, it confirms that teachers' motivational practice has a bearing on students' motivation. Secondly, the authors claim that their study is a first step in promoting motivational issues in the teacher education agenda. They do, however, make it clear that their study does not provide any information about how and if motivational strategies can be taught. Thirdly, this study is useful in that the MOLT instrument was created and can be used in other studies.

4.2 Teacher motivation and student motivation: The processes

Involved

Part two of this chapter deals with possible mediating channels whereby teacher motivation affects student motivation. The channels are the motivating strategies used by the teacher, teacher expectations, teacher enthusiasm and the role of a motivated teacher

4.2.1 Motivational strategies

According to Dörnyei (2001b), “Motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect” (p.28). Teachers who are effective in motivating will seek to make use of such strategies by presenting engaging and relevant material to their students. In their study Pressley, Yokoi, Rankin, Wharton-McDonald and Mistretta-Hampston (1997) observed that teachers were perceived to be outstanding because they used a variety of motivating strategies. It transpired that such strategies were mostly practised by experienced teachers.

Brophy (2004), Dörnyei (2007a) and Atkinson (2000) claim that ‘the motivational character’ of a class depends on the teacher’s motivational practice and therefore, the teacher controls the students’ motivation in class. Need-achievement theory, in fact, posits that teachers should provide students with tasks in the belief that these will lead to success and the students themselves should be aware of this and believe it themselves (Oxford, 1996). Further, Okada, Oxford & Abo (1996) claims that it is beneficial to both teacher and student if learning strategies are discussed and chosen by both parties. It would be unrealistic to assume that teacher and student preferences will match each time, however ‘an understanding of what both sides need and expect would be a significant first step towards success’ (Jacques, 2001, p.205).

As noted earlier in Chapter 2, Dörnyei (2001b) states that teachers need to use strategies which provide the right conditions for motivation to flourish, that is, which ignite it in the students, maintain it and then encourage positive self-

evaluation. Dörnyei (2005) structures this into a cyclical framework (see Figure 7). Stipek (2002) also maintains this cyclical format whereby teachers' 'best practices' enhance student motivation, which enhances learning. This, in turn, feeds into teachers' initiative to increase the use of tasks which maximise learning, as does in Dörnyei's model.

Before teachers can start using motivational strategies it is essential for them to create the right learning environment where these practices can flourish (Kubanyiova, 2006). According to Dörnyei (2007a), the class has to be characterized by a 'safe climate, cohesiveness and a good relationship' (p.726). This kind of atmosphere in class would reduce learners' anxiety (Dörnyei, 2001b), which is a deterrent to achievement in the classroom as it restricts motivation (Dörnyei, 2001b; Stipek, 2002). Among the factors which are seen as contributing to a class conducive to language learning, Hussin, Maarof, and D'Cruz (2001) include a supportive and encouraging atmosphere where students feel at ease and are not afraid to make mistakes.

To motivate their students, teachers need to choose the right tasks. This is done "by identifying and supporting students' interests and by supporting their internalization of the school's values and agenda. This style is relatively autonomy supportive, because the teacher's goal is to support students' interest in and valuing of education" (Reeve, Bolt & Cai, 1999, p.537).

When students perceive that the teacher is truly concerned about them and their learning they will work harder (Seashore Louis, 1998). In fact when teachers believe in their students by promoting *autonomous learning*, the students will assume greater responsibility for their learning. This, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), Pelletier et al. (2002), Reeve et al. (1999) and Vallerand et al. (1997),

heightens the students' intrinsic motivation. Some studies (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner & Kauffman, 1982; Flink, Boggiano & Barrett, 1990; Pelletier et al., 2002) reveal that the more teachers feel responsible for their students' performance, the less they promote autonomous learning. When teachers are under pressure or are rewarded for their work they become more controlling in class (Pelletier et al, 2002, p.187). Wild, Enzle, Nix and Deci's (1997) study confirmed this as students who were taught by intrinsically motivated teachers were more motivated to learn and experienced more fun when working on a task than did the ones who were taught by an extrinsically motivated teacher. Consequently, it is essential for the teachers themselves to feel autonomous in their work and for the authorities to create an educational setting where teachers can work in such a manner; an environment which supports 'choice and informative feedback' (Walker & Symons, 1997).

Teachers who encourage autonomous learning among their students help their students to become motivated and therefore achieve (Sweet, Guthrie, & Ng, 1998). To do this teachers usually make use of various motivational strategies. These strategies would encourage students to "engage in learning because they value this activity or find it interesting, for example, by explaining the relevance of the learned subject to students' lives and future goals or by providing choice" (Roth et al., 2007, p.764). Such teachers foster students' 'inner motivational resources' and build upon them (Reeve & Jang, 2006). They also promote positive student outcomes which include positive feelings toward what is going on in the classroom (Roth et al., 2007).

Another strategy that seems to improve student motivation is when decisions about learning are discussed and taken with learners. This motivates students as

they are more liable to perform better when they can decide for themselves how they can attain certain goals (Floweray & Schraw, 2000). As stated earlier, however, for teachers to be able to choose and discuss the best type of strategies and tasks that will motivate their students they need to feel motivated to do so themselves. They have to be given autonomy and appropriate feedback by educational authorities (Walker & Symons, 1997). When teachers are satisfied and feel trusted in what they do then they are motivated further in their work.

Teaching self motivation

One essential motivational strategy that can be used by the teacher is that of teaching the students how to motivate themselves. Ushioda (2001, 2003) believes that students have to be in control of their own motivation and learning. Gross Davis (2009), Lamb (2001) and Chambers (2001) also believe that teachers need to move away from motivating learners but rather should help learners to motivate themselves. In fact Deci (1996, cited in Ushioda, 2001) recognises that the teachers' main concern should be to create conditions where students are able to and are encouraged to motivate themselves. This, according to Dörnyei (2005), will lead to motivational self-regulation where it is assumed that students who are able to regulate their own motivational levels are better learners than those who are not skilled at regulating their motivation.

Ushioda (2003) believes that 'a further function of motivational self-regulation is to help learners to 'step outside' certain maladaptive motivational belief systems and engage in constructive and effective thinking to regulate their motivation' (p.91). The learners must be brought to realise that motivation comes

from with themselves and they must see themselves as the ‘agents’ of their own motivation and learning. This, according to Lamb (2001), can be achieved by devising strategies whereby students move away from depending upon the teacher towards becoming autonomous learners and so to begin managing their own learning.

According to Gross Davis (2009), for teachers to promote ‘self-motivated independent learners’ they should boost their student beliefs of themselves as learners by giving frequent positive feedback, assigning work that is challenging, help them find meaning in the material presented, create an open environment and make students feel like they belong.

Some teachers intentionally let the students choose tasks in order to increase their students’ intrinsic motivation. Such practice, and any similar practice, is based on the teachers’ perceptions of their students’ motivation (Sweet et al, 1998). This brings us to the next mediating channel between teacher motivation and student motivation, that of what the teachers expect from their students.

4.2.2 Teacher expectations

Teachers’ expectations of their students’ learning and performance influence students’ motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). “It has been shown by a convincing amount of research that it is not enough to be merely committed to the students’ academic progress, you also need to have sufficiently high expectations for what the students can achieve” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 35). However such expectations can also be negative as some teachers do not have high expectations for certain students.

The self-fulfilling prophecy

At the outset teachers form impressions of their students' abilities and mentally 'label' them accordingly. Teachers then 'expect' their students to perform accordingly. This gives rise to the self-fulfilling prophecy. The teachers treat the students according to their expectations in such a way that it helps these to become true and are, therefore, fulfilled.

The self-fulfilling prophecy or the Pygmalion effect (so named after Bernard Shaw's play 'Pygmalion') was first confirmed empirically by the classic study of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968). These researchers administered an intelligence test to a number of students at the beginning of the scholastic year. They then told the teachers who they would expect to fare well in school throughout the year. The teachers, however, were given false results of certain students and teacher expectations were formed accordingly. It turned out that students lived up to their teachers' expectations rather than to their measured intelligence at the start of the year. If the teacher expected them to do well then they did so and if they were expected to fail they did just that. The teachers' expectations, therefore, became self-fulfilling prophecies.

According to Tauber (1998), teachers usually manage to have their expectations of their students fulfilled. Such teacher expectations can serve as a useful motivational tool. Unfortunately, few know how to use this tool whereby teachers can convey positive expectations rather than negative ones. Teachers can have positive expectations for students who are not faring well and act accordingly as this might convince such students that they can actually succeed. Teachers can help students to become their own Pygmalions (Brophy, 2004; Tauber, 1998).

Interestingly, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) also maintain that students tend to mirror their teachers' behaviours and expectations. Therefore, whatever expectations teachers convey, the students will 'complement and reinforce' these expectations.

On the other hand, Chambers (1999) and Gross Davis (2009) caution that expectations should not be too high as these might lead to frustration as students realise that the set goals are unachievable. Expectations should be high but realistic (Gross Davis, 2009). Another possible setback is that teachers might not be aware that they are conveying such expectations – when this happens, the gap between the high-achievers and the low-achievers will keep on growing (Chambers, 1999).

Sweet et al. (1998) note that even if research indicates that teacher expectations may be an important influence on student performance, the effects on student motivation have not been examined in detail (Sweet et al, 1998). Gardner and Lambert (1972) linked teachers' perceptions with student motivation. They concluded that teachers' views of students' progress and success, when shared and congruent with their students' own views, led to increased student motivation to learn. If, on the other hand, such perceptions differed, then the students become demotivated. Motivation is not likely to be enhanced if the students are unaware of what the teachers' perceptions of them are (Chambers, 1999).

In sum, expectations affect real life and prophecies are self-fulfilled. Teachers should not lower their expectations or otherwise it may be possible that students do not progress as expected with their achievement (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Dörnyei (2001a) notes the importance of the Pygmalion effect on education, especially where streaming is the policy of a school. Once put within a particular ability group a student is unlikely to move on to another ability group.

4.2.3 Teacher enthusiasm

Teacher enthusiasm is a main ingredient in motivating students (Gross Davis, 2009; Halawah, 2006; Patrick, Hisley & Kempler, 2000). Dörnyei (2001c) identifies the enthusiastic teachers as the ones who are passionate in what they are doing. This passion is infectious (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001b; Walker & Symons, 1997) as students themselves become passionate and, therefore, enthusiastic about learning in these teachers' classes, which means that they become intrinsically motivated learners. Scholars such as Patrick et al. (2000) and Csikszentmihalyi (1997) also highlight that the way teachers view learning is crucial: If teachers are, themselves, intrinsically motivated learners then there is a higher probability that their students will also become intrinsically motivated to learn; if, on the other hand, teachers become boring or apathetic then the students will feel the same (Gross Davis, 2009). Patrick et al. (2000) have identified 13 important teacher behaviours, of which teacher enthusiasm was found to be the best predictor of student intrinsic motivation and vitality. In other words, enthusiastic teachers had the intrinsically motivated students who were more energised and involved in the learning tasks.

Enthusiasm can be projected primarily through the process of modeling, which is a way of teaching something by setting an example (Dörnyei 2001c). According to Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), modeling is the most effective motivational strategy. Enthusiastic teachers, however, often use varied teaching strategies which allow for learner involvement even in the selection of the activities themselves (Cothran & Ennis, 2000).

Enthusiasm is mainly conveyed by the teachers sharing their reasons why they are so positive about what they do and the subject that they teach. It is important to note, however, that Dörnyei (2001c) advises that enthusiasm is tempered and teachers should not display over the top eagerness for their subject and teaching as this might be perceived as superficial and fake and, therefore, have an adverse effect.

When teachers' enthusiasm is waning, Gross Davis's (2009) advice for the teachers is to go back to what had attracted them to the subject and transmit those aspects to their students. They should also challenge themselves to devise tasks that are more exciting even if the subject, at that stage, appears dull even to themselves.

Finally, students are crucial for the teachers' enthusiasm (Stenlund, 1995). "As individuals, teachers look to student achievement for confirming or disconfirming evidence of their effectiveness, and this information shapes their enthusiasm and commitment" (Kushman, 1992, p.36). This point is also emphasised by Wright and Custer (1998). The whole process is seen as an interplay between teachers' work and students' interest. Teachers can enthuse their students with their own enthusiasm and teachers are enthused by their students' enthusiasm regardless of where this enthusiasm originates from (Kushman, 1992). This cycle of enthusiasm is also referred to by Deci, Kasser and Ryan (1997) as a 'positive learning cycle'.

4.2.4 The motivated teacher

As discussed in Chapter 3, the two main ingredients of a motivated teacher is

teacher satisfaction and teacher self-efficacy. Here they will be discussed briefly in relation to the effect that they might have on student motivation.

The satisfied teacher

For Deci and Ryan (2000), motivation is consequential as it instigates production. In fact motivated teachers, as a consequence of their motivation, tend to ‘produce’ motivated students who want to learn and be successful. The end product, according to Csikszentmihalyi (1997), is an intrinsically motivated student, a student who enjoys learning. As argued above, this, however, is likely to be achieved by an intrinsically motivated teacher. Intrinsically motivated teachers are teachers who enjoy teaching and are satisfied by it.

Teachers feel satisfied when they enjoy what they are doing and feel enthusiastic about it. According to Csikszentmihalyi (1997), a teacher to be intrinsically motivated (see Chapter 3) has to love the actual teaching and also love the subject matter. It is only in this way that teachers can convey the message to their students of loving what they are learning and so enjoy doing it.

The efficacious teacher

As has been discussed in Chapter 3, a motivated teacher is an efficacious teacher (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Teachers with high self-efficacy affect student motivation positively as they usually dedicate more time to planning and interaction with students, and they also tend to persevere with student problems. Teachers with low self-efficacy, on the other hand, do not exert any

particular effort in their planning or teaching and do not persevere when faced with students who have problems. This obviously affects students' motivation negatively. Teacher's self-efficacy, therefore, affects student motivation which, in turn, affects student achievement (Goddard, Goddard & Tschannen-Moran, 2007; Klassen et al., 2008; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). What results then feeds again into the self-efficacy of the teacher, that is, when students achieve, the self-efficacy of teachers is boosted and when students do not achieve then the self-efficacy of the teacher is lowered. However, in the latter case, teachers with high self-efficacy might perceive student underachievement as a challenge and they would be willing to try out other teaching methods (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

Ultimately, motivated teachers are better teachers because they would want to improve. They would seek further professional development and experiment with different ways to face new challenges that might arise in their classrooms.

4.3 The influence of students on teacher motivation

Students' motivation also influences teacher motivation. Galloway, Rogers, Armstrong and Leo (1998) point out that when teachers feel that their work is not being appreciated by their students their motivation to motivate their students will diminish as they adopt a 'what's the point attitude'. This clearly indicates that there is a relationship between the motivation of students and that of their teachers. In fact, Walker and Symons (1997) situate the classroom scenario within behaviourist theories whereby the environment conditions the behaviour. This implies that teacher behaviour is conditioned by that of students (Walker & Symons, 1997).

According to Atkinson (2000) there is a positive correlation between teacher and student motivation. The factors affecting student motivation affect also teacher motivation whether these are external, such as ability and luck or internal such as helplessness.

In a qualitative study conducted by Kushman (1992), when asked if they were the source of their students' motivation or vice versa, teachers' replies varied. Some teachers were motivated by high achievers, others by low achievers and some others were motivated by students who made an effort to learn, whether they were good or weak students. However, all agreed that when it comes to 'disadvantaged and at-risk' students, these were the ones who would have to be motivated by the teachers. Kushman (1992) concludes that "What keeps things moving forward at the individual teacher-student level...are successful interplays between teacher work effort, successful learning episodes, and student interest and success" (p. 35).

Firestone and Pennell (1993) recognise that while committed teachers contribute toward student achievement, they, in turn, are also influenced by this achievement. In fact when there is no positive feedback from students, teachers are disenchanted. Stenlund (1995) maintains that student demotivation is the main contributor to teacher dissatisfaction. Students who do show interest and are motivated, on the other hand, can be the reason why some teachers persist with their teaching even when other aspects, such as poor facilities and resources, are discouraging (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003).

4.4 Summary

This chapter examined the relationship between teacher motivation and student motivation. It looked at the three main studies that have dealt with such a relationship and then at possible factors that might act as mediators. The influence that student motivation has on teacher motivation was also discussed.

It is evident that teacher motivation plays an essential role in increasing and maintaining student motivation and, since the latter is the key to language learning achievement and it also boosts teacher motivation, teachers should become aware of their role as instigators of motivation (Pelletier, 2002) and be trained in motivational strategies (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008).

CHAPTER 5 Research Methodology

This chapter describes the research methodology used to investigate the research questions posed by this study. A mixed methods research paradigm was adopted. Such a paradigm involves both quantitative and qualitative research strategies. The rationale for using such an approach and its strengths and weaknesses are discussed. Then I will provide a comprehensive account of the research design including the selection of participants, development of research instruments and the procedure adopted for the collection of the data. Finally, I will discuss ethical considerations and reliability and validity issues, as they pertain to both the survey and the interview studies.

5.1 The research questions

The main research question of this study is the following:

- ***Does a relationship exist between teachers' motivation to teach and their students' motivation to learn English?***

Furthermore in the literature review it is clear that a number of factors may influence this relationship. Therefore other subsidiary questions have to be asked in order to present a more detailed picture of the nature of the relationship that there may be between teacher and student motivation. In this section I list these questions and discuss how they emerged from the literature review presented in the previous chapters.

The Maltese context

1. Does school type affect the relationship there may be between teacher and student motivation?

Junior Lyceum students tend to come from families with a higher socio-economic status where there is more exposure to the English language, than would be the case for students from area secondary schools. Entry into the Junior Lyceums is regulated by an entrance examination so their students are deemed to be more academically competent than their area secondary school counterparts.

2. Do students' attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English affect the relationship there may be between teacher and student motivation?

As was noted in Chapter 1 some Maltese people may harbour negative attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English as they perceive them to be snobs. In the current study these attitudes are analysed to see whether they affect the relationship there may be between teacher and student motivation as some students may perceive also their teacher of English to be a snob. Some students may come to associate the English language with snobbery and therefore not want to have anything to do with it.

3. Does the language used by students affect the relationship there may be between teacher and student motivation?

Following questions 1 and 2 it would be interesting to know if students who use English as their everyday language generally have more favourable attitudes toward English language learning than those who use Maltese. This study will also

seek to find out whether these attitudes affect the relationship there may be between teacher and student motivation.

Teacher motivation

Since this study ultimately will seek to recommend ways for the improvement of the relationship between teacher and student motivation (if this is established) through the improvement of teacher motivation, it is deemed essential to delve deeper into the motivation of the teachers involved in this study. The following questions were therefore also investigated:

4. *What are the reasons for becoming a teacher of English? Do the reasons for becoming a teacher have a bearing on the motivation of the teachers in this study?*

The motives for someone to pursue a teaching career give a better understanding of what it is that motivates, satisfies and commits teachers to their jobs once they are in it.

5. *Are the teachers of English in this study satisfied with their job? What are the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction?*

In the literature review it is evident that for teachers to be motivated they need to be satisfied with what they are doing. By getting to know what are the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in teaching then one can have a clearer picture of what can be improved upon or eliminated.

6. *Do teachers feel efficacious in their job?*

Besides job satisfaction, the other main component of teacher motivation is teaching efficacy, both personal and general. It is therefore important to see whether the teachers in this study feel efficacious in their teaching and what are the factors that affect their teaching efficacy.

7. *Are teachers intrinsically or extrinsically motivated?*

A distinction is made between being intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the literature review. A third domain is also identified which refers to factors outside the immediate teaching situation. This leads to the next two questions;

8. *Do micro-contextual factors (the school environment, both human and physical aspects) affect teacher motivation?*

Do macro-contextual factors such as career structure, salary, societal views of teachers of English, leaving/remaining in the teaching profession affect teacher motivation?

9. *Do the teachers in this study feel autonomous and self-determined in their job?*

Teacher autonomy is an essential aspect of teacher motivation. Therefore it is crucial to find out whether the teachers in this study feel autonomous especially in the way they administer the syllabus.

10. *Do teachers perceive feedback to be essential in their professional development? Do they receive any feedback and if so from whom?*

Feedback is important for change and self-improvement, it also contributes to teacher motivation. This study seeks to find out how teachers feel about the feedback they receive.

11. Are teachers dissatisfied or stressed by their jobs?

As mentioned earlier teacher satisfaction is a major component in teacher motivation. Lack of teacher satisfaction may therefore lead to stress and burnout as indicated in the literature review. This in turn would lead to teacher demotivation so ways of eliminating sources of job dissatisfaction and stress can be implemented if these are identified.

The relationship between teacher and student motivation

Since the main question of this study deals with the relationship that there may be between the motivation of the teachers of English in this study and the motivation of their students to learn, the following questions deal with this relationship.

12. How can student motivation be improved? What strategies can be used in class to enhance student motivation?

If a link exists between teacher and student motivation, then it would be beneficial to know about how to improve student motivation. This is because motivated students would usually make for a motivated teacher. Investing in students' motivation reaps benefits for teacher motivation.

13. Do teachers feel affected by the level of motivation of their motivated and demotivated students? If so, in what way? What makes for a motivated student and a demotivated student?

It is important to directly ask the teachers if they feel affected by the motivation of their students and what they perceive to constitute this motivation.

It was decided that the best way to seek to answer these questions was by using a mixed methods approach, namely a survey and an interview study as they complement each other. The survey part of the study measured levels of both teacher and student motivation and investigated the links between them. Some of the teachers who had taken part in the survey were then interviewed about their motivation to teach and their perceptions of the links between their motivation to teach and their students' motivation to learn.

It was not possible to interview students because of the word count limitations imposed on this project and time constraints. Introducing student interviews would have rendered the study much larger. Furthermore the main concern of this study is teacher motivation and how this can be enhanced so interviewing the teachers was deemed to be essential to find out what the teachers themselves thought about this.

5.2 A mixed methods approach to research

A mixed methods approach to research implements both quantitative and qualitative techniques during the data collection and/or analysis phases of a research study (Armitage, 2007; Bazeley, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Rocco et al., 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The data is collected simultaneously or sequentially,

whatever the researcher thinks is best to address the research question. The use of a mixed methods approach, in fact, is seen as a fitting way of decreasing weaknesses pertaining to both quantitative and qualitative research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

5.2.1 Quantitative and qualitative methods in practice

Quantitative research is sometimes criticised for being decontextualised and failing to connect meaning to the participants' lives and situations. Its results can be general and overly simplistic (Brannen, 2005). Qualitative research, on the other hand, tends 'to sacrifice scope for detail' as it focuses on the participants' understanding and interactions (Silverman, 2005, p. 9). These arguments are also sustained by Rocco et al. (2003) when they say that "Purely quantitative research tends to be less helpful through its oversimplification of causal relationships; purely qualitative research tends to be less helpful through its selectivity in reporting" (p. 23).

Questionnaires, whether written or orally conducted, offer a restricted choice of responses (Sale et al., 2002). This means that responses are not free but contained, though the sample size is much larger. If adopting qualitative research methods the sample is likely to be smaller, but one could argue that the responses can be more meaningful as they are more likely to be guided by the respondent.

On the other hand, according to Sale et al. (2002), one major advantage of quantitative research is that it allows the researcher to investigate a phenomenon without having any influence on it or being influenced by it. It is 'value-free', unlike qualitative research where the researcher plays a more active role and is

therefore value-laden. In fact there is the risk that the researchers might put forward their personal opinion at the expense of truly reflecting on the actual response of the participants (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). For this reason results might be seen to be deemed to be unwarranted. Qualitative research is also sometimes criticised for being too context specific and the small numbers of participants are seen to be unrepresentative (Brannen, 2005).

5.2.2 A case for a mixed methods approach to research

The notion of a 'mixed methods approach' was created by Campbell and Fiske (1959, cited in Rocco et al., 2003) when they proposed mixing quantitative and qualitative methods so that psychological traits could be measured more precisely. They wanted to ensure that the focus was on the trait itself rather than on the method used. Such mixing of methods was later labelled as 'triangulation' by Denzin (1978). Employing both methods serves as a test of consistency and not as a way of getting to the same result by using two different approaches. This is important as the researcher might discover various degrees of responses to the same research question. It leads the researcher to pursue further insights both into the relationships between the methods used and the phenomena being studied (Patton, 2002).

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) claim that a mixed methods approach is better than a single method in three ways. Firstly, such an approach can answer confirmatory and exploratory questions which single approaches cannot. Secondly, a mixed research methodology provides a wider and deeper answer to the research question. Thirdly, varying viewpoints are possible from divergent findings

(Armitage, 2007). Motivated by these reasons, researchers are increasingly making use of a mixed method research methodology to strengthen their studies and findings (Rocco et al., 2003).

5.2.3 A mixed methods approach in the present study

On the basis of the above considerations, the present study made use of a mixed methods approach. Firstly, a survey of teacher and student motivation was conducted. Then interviews were held with teachers about their motivation and perceived links with the motivation of their students. Some of the same issues were investigated in the interview study as in the survey since the interview results were intended to complement and augment the findings of the survey.

Quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study are used both for triangulation and complementarity purposes (Bazeley, 2004; Greene, 2007). Triangulation provides a way of checking and boosting the results if the same results are obtained from both approaches while for complementarity purposes results are used to complement rather than just check and verify each other. In this way not only overlapping phenomena are identified but also any phenomenon which is different from the rest of the data (Rocco, 2003). 'Together, the data analyses from the two methods are juxtaposed and generate complementary insights that together create a bigger picture' (Brannen, 2005).

5.3 The survey

A survey of teacher and student motivation was conducted in a number of Maltese secondary schools.

5.3.1. The sample

The survey was conducted in twelve state secondary schools in Malta. Six of these schools were Area Secondary Schools and the other six were Junior Lyceum schools. Only state schools were included in the study for the following reasons. The first reason concerns the number of students for the study. The inclusion of the private church and private independent schools would have rendered the number of students too extensive. This would have shifted the focus of the study too much on to the quantitative survey, not allowing enough time for the qualitative component. Secondly the state system, at the time of the study, provided the researcher with the opportunity to differentiate between high-achieving students (those attending Junior Lyceums) and low-achieving students (those attending Area State Secondary schools). Church and Independent schools do not offer such a clear distinction. Thirdly, a varied school ethos is attributed to Church and Independent schools (Sultana, 1991) making it impossible to group such schools. Therefore, the fact that only state schools were chosen ensured more homogeneity. Furthermore, as was pointed out in Chapter 1, Church and Independent schools tend to use English as a language of instruction and for general communication much more than State schools (Caruana, 2007).

The present study dealt with Form 4 students (14 to 15 year-olds) and their teachers of English. The intention was to study the oldest students in the schools. However, since Form 5 students were engaged in the preparation for final examinations and school-leaving activities it was not possible to work with them.

A major consideration of this study was the differences between the two types of state schools, Area Secondary schools and Junior Lyceums. The schools were equally divided between girls' and boys' schools. These types of schools in Malta are single-sex, therefore three girls' and three boys' schools were involved from each type of school. The schools were chosen to ensure a representative sample from the different geographical regions of Malta. Table 5 demonstrates this.

<u>School</u>	<u>Catchment area</u>
Girls' Area State Secondary 1	Northern
Girls' Area State Secondary 2	Outer Harbour
Girls' Area State Secondary 3	South Eastern
Girls' Junior Lyceum 1	Outer Harbour
Girls' Junior Lyceum 2	Inner Harbour
Girls' Junior Lyceum 3	South Eastern
Boys' Area State Secondary 1	Outer Harbour
Boys' Area State Secondary 2	Inner Harbour
Boys' Area State Secondary 3	Western
Boys' Junior Lyceum 1	Inner Harbour
Boys' Junior Lyceum 2	Western
Boys' Junior Lyceum 3	Outer Harbour

Table 5 Geographical regions of the catchment areas of the schools involved in the study.

All the Form 4 classes of the participating schools took part in the survey. Table 6 presents the distribution of the students who completed the questionnaire according to school type and gender.

SCHOOL TYPE	Girls	Boys
State Secondary	76	68
Junior Lyceum	208	260
Total	284	328

Table 6 Distribution of students who took part in the survey according to school type and gender.

The teacher survey involved also all the teachers of English of the Form 4 classes which took part in the study. Table 7 presents the number of teachers who participated in the survey according to type of school and gender.

SCHOOL TYPE	Female Teachers	Male Teachers
Junior Lyceum Boys’	10	4
Junior Lyceum Girls	6	4
Area Secondary Boys	3	2
Area Secondary Girls	4	4
Total:	23	14

Table 7 Distribution of teachers who took part in the survey according to school type and gender.

5.3.2 The Student Motivation Questionnaire

The Student Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ; see Appendix 1), was adapted from the Attitude/Motivation test battery (AMTB) first devised by Gardner (1958) and

then extended further by Gardner and Lambert in 1972. The questionnaire used in this study was adapted to the Maltese socio-economic context to reflect equivalent Maltese educational qualifications. The following questionnaire categories: Attitudes toward learning English, Integrative orientation, Knowledge and Instrumental orientation, Desire to learn English, English use anxiety and Anxiety in the English classroom and Influence of parents were adapted from the AMTB. The category Attitudes toward the target language speakers in the AMTB was split into two categories: Attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English and Attitudes toward English and American people as there are mainly two types of target language communities in Malta.

The categories, Travel orientation and Friendship orientation were added here as these were deemed to be two of the main reasons for learning English in Malta. One cannot travel abroad or strike up friendships with English-speaking people from other countries with exclusive knowledge of the Maltese language.

Also in this day and age, the media and technology continue to be highly influential in people's lives. In Malta such media is mostly in English. Students would want to watch films and programmes on TV, listen to the radio and make extensive use of technology, especially the internet. This is perceived to be as providing huge motivation for the learning of English and therefore the category, Media in English was added to the questionnaire.

The final version of the student questionnaire used in the study covered the following aspects:

- *Attitudes toward learning English:* The students' attitudes toward the learning of English in general. These attitudes are seen to be influential in

English language learning motivation and are a main component in Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model.

- *Integrative Orientation:* The wish of the students to integrate with speakers of English. Such an orientation came to the fore with Gardner and Lambert's (1972) work where a willingness to emulate and be part of the target language community is perceived to be a source of motivation for the language learner.
- *Knowledge Orientation and Instrumental Orientation:* The students' wish to know English, to be knowledgeable and educated and in order to attain practical and concrete goals. Knowledge was added to Gardner's (1985) original instrumental orientation as this was considered to also form part of the utilitarian need for knowing the language.
- *Travel Orientation:* The need to know English for the sake of travelling. This is especially so in the case of Malta where English is seen to be the key to communicating with the international world. Malta is also a small country, so travelling to other countries is quite popular.
- *Friendship Orientation:* The knowledge of English in order to make foreign friends. The ever expanding world of social networking on the internet, travel and the fact that Malta is a popular tourist destination provide many opportunities for meeting new people and making friends from other countries. This motivates Maltese students to learn English.
- *Media in English:* The students' wish to learn English to understand what goes on in the media in English. Media and technology have become essential influencing factors when it comes to learning a language, especially English. The wider use of technology has brought about more

widespread use of English as, and this has made knowledge of the English language indispensable.

- *Desire to learn English:* An innate wish to know English. When this wish is present, students go out of their way to learn and improve their knowledge of the target language even beyond the classroom situation. This is a main component of Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model.
- *English Use Anxiety and Anxiety in the English Classroom:* The anxiety felt by students when using English and in the classroom during English lessons. This is a negative aspect which when present in high levels undermines language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a).
- *Influence of Parents:* Parents' influence on the students' learning of English. Parents, according to Gardner (1985), influence the motivation of students to learn English as they are perceived to be an intermediary between the cultural setting and the student. Parental influence and encouragement are therefore deemed to be important factors in the motivation paradigm.
- *Attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English:* The attitudes of the students toward other Maltese people who use English as their everyday mode of communication. Studies in the Maltese context have shown the prevalence of certain attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English and these are usually unfavourable ones (Micheli, 2001; Caruana, 2007). These were deemed to affect the motivation of Maltese students to learn English (Mifsud, 1998).
- *Attitudes toward English and American people:* The attitudes of students toward English and American people. Such attitudes toward native speakers

of English are deemed important as the perception students have of them might influence their motivation to learn English. Positive attitudes toward the target language groups are important (MacIntyre, 2002).

A Maltese-language version of the questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was also made available to the students. In this way the understanding of the questionnaire by the respondents was facilitated as they could respond in the language in which they felt the most comfortable.

The SMQ consisted of 62 items. Students had to indicate their responses from within a 6-point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree to 6 – strongly agree). The questionnaire included a question about the respondents' general use of language. This allowed categorization of the students according to their language use.

5.3.3 The Teacher Motivation Questionnaire

The Teacher Motivation Questionnaire (TMQ; see Appendix 3) was created specifically for this study following a thorough review of the teacher motivation literature. The same 6-point Likert scale used for the responses of the students was used for the teachers. The TMQ consisted of 59 items and covered the following:

- *Attitudes toward teaching:* How teachers perceive their job and their attitudes toward it. The attitudes of employees toward their job are crucial when studying job motivation. This is also the case for teachers and their attitudes toward teaching (Sergiovanni, 1967; Pennington, 1995; Bezzina & Portelli, 2006).

- *Teacher efficacy*: The teachers' sense of competence and their perception of their influence on their students. Teacher efficacy is one of the main components of teacher motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a; Pajares, 2002; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).
- *Attitudes toward school and staff*: The teachers' relationship with colleagues and school staff in general. Recognition by colleagues for their work influences teachers and motivates them in their job (Nias, 1981; McKeachie, 1997). Collegiality is an influential factor which can make or break teacher motivation (Evans, 1997; Osterman, 2000). The general climate of the school and the physical environment also affect teacher motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a).
- *Interaction/Rapport with students*: The teachers' perception of their relationship with their students. Since the students are the main protagonists in a teacher's job then communicating well and having a good relationship with them is important for teachers to be satisfied on their job (Kottler & Zehm, 2000; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

5.3.4 Procedures

All surveys were conducted by the researcher in person. Previously, I obtained permission from the Directorate of Education to conduct the research in the schools. Each school was visited in order to obtain the necessary permission from the respective head teacher. During this visit the researcher met also with the teachers that were to be involved in the study and a number of appointments were

arranged for the administration of the questionnaires with both the teachers and their classes.

When the researcher visited the schools for the actual administration of the survey the rationale of the questionnaire was explained to the students in each class. Consent was gained and the students were given a choice of filling in the questionnaire in either English or Maltese. An explanation of how they were to fill in the boxes and what the numbers meant ensued. The SMQ took about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. During this time the researcher was available for the students to provide any clarification that was required. In the meantime the TMQ was given to the teachers following an explanation of what it entailed and how it was to be completed. The goals of the study were also explained. No student or teacher refused to participate.

5.3.5 The pilot study

The SMQ was piloted in one boys' and one girls' Form 4 class from each school type (i.e. Area Secondary and Junior Lyceum), in schools which were not to participate in the actual survey. The students were given detailed instructions as to how the questionnaires had to be filled in and were also encouraged to comment on any problematic issues. The time it took students to fill in the questionnaire was noted down. In all 44 questionnaires were completed.

The main problem encountered was the length of the questionnaire whose typeset originally had a bigger font size and so covered 5 pages. This discouraged students immediately, even before starting. The font size was therefore reduced and the final questionnaire covered 2.5 pages. The items which originally asked about

Attitudes toward American people confused some students as they said that they had never encountered or known any Americans. Originally this item was meant to ask about the students' perceptions of American people as seen on TV. This was changed to include English people.

5.3.6 Ethical considerations

The written permission of the Directorate of Education which oversees state schools in Malta was obtained to conduct the survey in the secondary schools. The questionnaires were approved also by the respective heads of schools. The following safeguards were employed to protect the rights of the respondents:

- (a) Permission was obtained from the respondents before the questionnaires were distributed;
- (b) The research objectives were articulated verbally to the students and teachers so that they would be able to understand them fully;
- (c) The respondents were provided with an extensive description of how the data would be used and what the hopes for the study would be, and
- (d) Assurance of confidentiality was given to the respondents in the form of anonymity.

5.3.7 Reliability and validity

The reliability of a study refers to the 'extent to which our measurement instruments and procedures produce consistent results in a given population in

different circumstances' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 50). The SMQ was adapted from a widely-used tool in the field of motivation, that is, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, and the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaires was tested through SPSS by computing Cronbach Alpha coefficients. For the results see Chapter 6.

Golafshani (2003) describes validity as determining “whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are” (p.1). Validity necessitates that the results accurately reflect the phenomenon studied. The major source of validity for the quantitative research was the triangulation provided by the mixed methods approach used in this study.

5.4 The interview study

Interviews were conducted with a number of Form 4 English teachers from the schools which participated in the study. In order to make the study more reliable the analysis content analysis was conducted in this part of the study. Consequently this section will be split into two. I will first describe the sample, the instruments used, procedure used, ethical considerations, reliability and validity. Then I will provide a brief overview of content analysis and how it was applied to this study.

5.4.1 The sample

The interviews were intended to complement and to provide in-depth elaboration of the findings of the survey. Therefore, 12 English teachers of Form 4 classes were selected randomly from the schools which participated in the survey, 3 from each

type of school, that is, Area Secondary Girls’ and Boys’ and Junior Lyceum Girls’ and Boys’. All the teachers were Maltese and their first language was Maltese. Table 8 presents the demographic information of the interviewees.

All the teachers were eager to participate in the interview and to discuss their motivation and that of their students with regard to the teaching and learning of English. They seemed to consider the interview as an opportunity to reflect upon and talk about their professional practice in the English classroom.

Doc No.	Age	Male/ Female	Educational background	School type	Job experience	Teacher training
1	37	Female	BA/PGCE	Boys’ Area Secondary	2	Yes
2	36	Female	BEd (Hons)	Girls’ Junior Lyceum	6	Yes
3	40	Female	BA/PGCE	Girls’ Area Secondary	3	Yes
4	36	Male	BEd (Hons)	Girls’ Junior Lyceum	12	Yes
5	22	Male	BEd (Hons)	Girls’ Junior Lyceum	17	Yes
6	28	Female	BEd (Hons)	Boys’ Junior Lyceum	7	Yes
7	37	Female	BA/PGCE	Boys’ Junior Lyceum	15	Yes
8	52	Female	BA/PGCE	Boys’ Junior Lyceum	9	Yes
9	36	Female	BEd (Hons)	Girls’ Area Secondary	14	Yes
10	28	Female	BEd (Hons)	Girls’ Area Secondary	7	Yes
11	30	Female	BA/Pedagogy course	Boys’ Area Secondary	10	No
12	31	Male	BA/PGCE	Boys’ Area Secondary	13	Yes

Table 8 Descriptive information of interviewees.

5.4.2 The interviews

Interviews enable the researcher to pursue in-depth information about the topic. Kvale (1996) states that there are two types of purposes for interviews: exploratory and hypothesis testing. The interviews in this study were used for both exploratory and hypothesis testing purposes. The interview responses were analysed to explore the views of the teachers in terms of both their motivation and that of their students, and whether the teachers perceived any links between the two. They were also intended to examine the extent to which the interview findings substantiated, complemented and augmented the findings from the survey.

The semi-structured interview involves “a set of prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is opened-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 238). Because this interview type fitted the purpose of the qualitative phase of my research, a semi-structured interview was designed for this study. The interview schedule consists of 26 guiding questions about the respondents’ motivation and that of their students (see Appendix 4).

Procedure adopted

The interviews were conducted at the respective schools in May 2006. Appointments were made by telephone with the teachers involved. Once at the school, the rationale of the study was explained to the participants and how their replies were expected to contribute to it. They were informed that they will be recorded and that afterwards their replies would be transcribed for analysis. It was

also explained to them that they were to take their time to reflect on the questions and did not need to reply straight away. Replies did not have to be short and they were to provide examples from their everyday lives as teachers. The interviews took on average twenty to thirty minutes each. The interviews were later transcribed.

Piloting of interviews

The interview schedule was piloted with three English teachers of Form 4 classes who did not teach at the schools which participated in the survey. Very minor changes, such as the rephrasing of some of the items to render them clearer, were made to the interview schedule items as a result of the pilot study.

Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations in qualitative research are discussed by a number of authors (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2000). Researchers are obliged to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the interviewees especially since sensitive information is frequently revealed. The interviewees were assured confidentiality and informed that they could terminate their participation in the study at any stage. Following each interview the interviewee was shown a transcript of their responses and asked to confirm this or otherwise.

Permission was obtained from the Directorate of Education and from the head of each school to conduct the interviews. As in the previous section, the following safeguards were employed to protect the rights of the respondents:

- (a) Permission was obtained from the teachers before the interviews were conducted;
- (b) The research objectives were articulated verbally to the teachers;
- (c) The teachers were provided with an extensive description of how the data would be used and what the hopes for the study would be; and
- (d) Assurance of confidentiality was given to the teachers in the form of anonymity.

Reliability

Two measures of reliability were implemented; ‘inter-coder reliability’ check and ‘intra-coder reliability’ check. The inter-coder reliability check refers to the extent to which two individuals agree on the coding of the data (Bryman, 2004, Dörnyei, 2007b, Patton, 2002) whereas intra-coder reliability check refers to the consistency of coding over time (Bryman, 2004).

Following Dörnyei’s (2007) guidelines, inter-coder reliability was checked for by requesting a research colleague to code separately some of the interview data. According to Patton (2002) a ‘competent judge’ should be able to confirm that the data fit the categories which have been created and that the categories, in turn, make sense of the data available. The assistance of a fellow academic colleague from the University of Malta, with experience in qualitative research,

was recruited. I coded the transcripts of two interviews. My colleague coded separately the same transcripts. A comparison of the two sets of codes then took place. The Perreault and Leigh (1989) reliability index was used to calculate inter-coder reliability between coders. This reliability index accounts for differences in reliabilities when there are a number of categories and focuses the issue of reliability on the whole coding process while being sensitive to coding weaknesses. The inter-coder reliability was 0.89 which is quite high and therefore acceptable (Gremler, 2004). The minor differences detected were in the wording of categories.

The intra-coder reliability check was conducted following two months from the initial coding of the interview data. The coding was redrawn and checked for level of consistency with the initial coding. The Perreault and Leigh (1989) reliability index was 0.91 indicating that the data was consistently sorted into the same or very similar categories. As there were no major inconsistencies the original categories were retained.

Validity

Validity in qualitative research is when an interpretation or description of the data is agreed upon (Sale et al., 2002). According to Tashaakori and Teddlie (1998), peer debriefing 'contributes to the credibility of an inquiry by exposing the researcher to searching questions from the peer aimed at probing biases and clarifying interpretations. This is clearly relevant to the quality of researchers' inferences/conclusions following the data analysis' (p.91). When more than one person compares and discusses the same data and codes it, then varying insights

can emerge (Patton, 2002). This makes the interpretation richer and gives it greater validity.

Peer debriefing for the interview data was conducted by the same academic colleague who had participated in the inter-coder reliability check. The interpretation of the data was discussed with him and clarifications were implemented where required. This essentially involved the rewording of some of the code descriptions to render them clearer.

Another validity check entailed having two of the participants giving comments on the report of their own interviews. Involving the participants themselves in commenting on the conclusions obtained from the data boosts the validity of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). The reports of their own interviews were made available to two of the participants via email. They were asked to provide feedback and relevant comments. They confirmed that the reports reflected their motivational experiences.

5.4.3 Analysis of the data using content analysis

Content analysis was first developed by Lindesmith in 1931 but became popular after Glaser's article published in 1964-65 where it is referred to as "the constant comparative method of qualitative analysis." Later on Glaser and Strauss (1967) adapted the method and it became known as "Grounded Theory."

Content analysis was originally meant to be a quantitative method to analyse texts emanating from qualitative studies. It calculated the number of instances that words, phrases and certain grammatical structures occurred in the text. However this type of analysis was later altered as to make it less reliant on numbers and

more on the text itself. Such an analysis determines which themes emerge from a text and how these themes relate to each other. The qualitative categories are therefore not predetermined but are derived inductively from the text itself. Dörnyei (2007b) refers to this as 'latent level analysis' which is "a second-level, interpretive analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data" (p.246). The present qualitative study follows this latent level analysis and the phases presented by Dörnyei (1997). The phases are (a) transcribing the data, (b) pre-coding and coding, (c) growing ideas, and (d) interpreting the data and drawing conclusions.

(a) Transcribing the data

The data was transcribed by the researcher as soon as all the interviews were conducted. Lengthy pauses and emphasis made by the interviewees were noted down to make the transcription as authentic as possible.

(b) Pre-coding and coding

As part of the pre-coding process, the transcripts were read over and over again so that first impressions could be formed and noted. As Dörnyei (2007) notes these initial impressions and reflections have an influence on the way we think about our data and how it will eventually be coded. Through becoming increasingly familiar with the data connections between the different strands emanating from the interviews started to take shape.

Following reflective reading of the transcripts, the data was sifted through line by line. This is when the actual coding started which was the first step towards

conceptualizing the raw data as the relevant categories were identified. In Example 1, an excerpt of how the interview responses were coded by identifying key concepts is provided. The relevant text was highlighted and the margins of the transcript were used to code the various pieces of text accordingly. This resulted in a vast amount of codes which were linked to various concepts in the fields of teacher motivation and its relationship to student motivation. The codes were sifted through and categorised. Categories were then modified and at times renamed to reduce the number of codes.

<p>I : Do you think the syllabus challenges you in any way?</p> <p>It challenges me (challenge) because some students do not have the ability to learn some things (lower ability stds) and you have to teach them just the same (teach low and high ability stds – both) because they are going to sit for the exam anyway (exams for all the same) and you have to teach them the same things (no streaming – a challenge). It becomes difficult to teach them something they can't learn (difficult, low teaching efficacy).</p>
<p>I : Does this affect your motivation to teach in any way?</p> <p>Yes (delivery of syllabus affects teacher motivation positively) obviously, because if it was for me I'd teach them things that they can understand (change syllabus: teach stds things they understand) and that they can use in their future (change syllabus: teach for future, be more practical). It is no use teaching them the passive when they don't understand whatever it is but the passive is what is going to come out in the exam (have to teach for exams). And two students out of 20 understand what you are saying (majority of stds do not get what is on syllabus), the others don't, so obviously it becomes demotivating for me (teacher demotivation: students are not able to get what is on syllabus).</p>

Example 1 Open coding in brackets.

The codes were highlighted in different colours which were matched to categories. The categories were refined, developed and also linked to subcategories. The original data was constantly referred to and other categories were created around a core phenomenon. At this stage of the analysis quantification was made with regards to how many teachers were affected by a certain factor.

The creation and refinement of categories during this part of the coding procedure required further work as some themes overlapped. This was due to the fact that themes which were in fact similar were coded differently. This involved further rearrangement, refinement and development of categories after engaging in further reading on the topics of teacher and student motivation. For example the category 'positive personal teacher efficacy' featured in many of the teachers' responses and was refined repeatedly.

After reaching a point of saturation, it was decided to include a practical side to the analysis. Therefore at this stage a set of practical strategies used by the teachers interviewed to enhance students' motivation to learn was included. The development of this list was a straightforward categorisation of the different practicalities and suggestions made by these interviewees under appropriate headings. It was important to include these suggestions in the analysis chapter as they were considered to be part of the dataset and, therefore, were regarded as part of the analysis.

Propositions and hypotheses, which connected the categories into a 'story' or theory, were developed in the final stage of coding. This theory should contribute to the main aim of the study (Creswell, 2006). During this process the researcher was constantly checking how the data fits within the research framework of this study.

(c) Growing ideas : Memoing

For ideas to grow, coding needs to be accompanied by other analytical tools so that these can develop into final themes. The main tool which was used in this analysis was that of writing memos. Memos are notes the researcher takes throughout the research process, that is, during and after the data collection in order to elaborate upon ideas about the data, the coded categories (Creswell, 2002), and the relationships between categories. They are a way of recording the impressions of the researcher and describing the situation. Memos are not just ideas but also a way of formulating and revising theory during the research process (Pandit, 1996).

MEMO: The teacher seems to believe that it is not her fault that students to do not get what is on the syllabus. She does not question her own delivery of the syllabus contents but rather the fact that the contents are beyond student capabilities. It is interesting to note that at first this teacher finds the syllabus to be challenging implying positive teacher efficacy. Yet by the end of her comment on the delivery of the syllabus she says that she is demotivated suggesting that, after all, her efficacy is diminished and the challenge behind the syllabus ceases.

Example 2 Memo.

Memos were used during the data collection and the whole coding process (see Example 2). Notes were taken of the ideas the researcher had about each category and particularly about relationships between categories.

(d) Interpreting the data and drawing of conclusions

Following the coding process and reflection on ideas emanating from the data, meaning and interpretations were drawn from the interview responses in order to produce a set of descriptions that captured the teachers' interpretations and their connections with the social world. This enabled the referring back to the quantitative findings to see whether any new insights into teacher motivation and links with student motivation were offered by the qualitative findings.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have provided a brief review of the methodology employed in this study, which is based on a mixed-methods approach to research. This was done in the hope that the various phases and ways in which the data was dealt with and conclusions reached are made clear.

The chapter started off with presenting the research question of this study. The method employed was described and how this falls within the framework of a mixed methods approach. Then I discussed the mixed methods approach, including the merits and shortcomings of quantitative and qualitative research, offering a rationale for the use of a mixed methods approach for this study. The present study consisted of a survey and an interview phase, and I described the participants, the instruments and the procedure separately for each case. I also summarised the ethical consideration as well as various reliability and validity issues as they pertained to both the survey and the interview phases.

CHAPTER 6 Quantitative Analysis

This chapter presents the analysis and results of the quantitative research component of this study. The main research question was whether a link exists between teacher and student motivation in the English language classroom. This is examined empirically through the data provided by the teacher and student questionnaires.

6.1 Overview of the analysis

The first step of the quantitative analysis was to check the reliability of the questionnaires by grouping the related items into broader conceptual categories. This resulted in eleven variables for the student items and four variables for the teacher items. The student variables were further reduced by means of factor analysis. Two factors: General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation emerged.

The resulting factor measures were then used in the data analysis. It was deemed important to compare the student factors across the school types to check whether school type had any effect on student motivation. This was followed by correlating student motivation with teacher motivation. First the teacher motivation variables were correlated with the two second-order student motivation factors. The results were not sufficiently strong so it was decided to correlate the teacher variables with all the 11 student variables. Again the results were not as strong as hoped for so further fine-tuning was implemented through t-testing by selecting only the most and least motivated teachers for the analysis. This resulted in

significant differences in scores for most of the teacher variables and the student variables, especially the students' situated motivation.

Furthermore, it was thought that the particular language situation in Malta whereby the use of Maltese or English is associated with certain attitudes might influence English language learning motivation. Therefore, in the final analysis of the data, this variable was also taken into consideration by computing partial correlations and analyses of covariance (ANCOVA).

6.2 Reliability of items

The items of the questionnaires were grouped together to reduce the number of broad conceptual categories to render them more manageable for analysis. Each item of both questionnaires was checked for consistency within its variable group to ensure that the items correlated with each other and with the total scale score. The internal consistency reliability for both student and teacher was measured using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient.

6.2.1 Reliability of student items

From the student items, the 11 the conceptual categories described in 5.3.2 were confirmed. A brief description of each category follows:

- 1. Attitudes toward Learning English:* A high score here represents a positive attitude toward the learning and studying of English.

2. *Integrative Orientation*: This measure assesses the degree to which students learn English for integrative reasons.
3. *Knowledge Orientation and Instrumental Orientation*: This scale measures the extent to which students learn English for the knowledge of the language and instrumental reasons.
4. *Travel Orientation*: This measure assesses the extent to which students learn English for travel purposes.
5. *Friendship Orientation*: This measure assesses the degree to which students learn English to make new, or keep in touch with, foreign friends.
6. *Media in English*: A high score represents a wish to learn English so that media in English is utilized.
7. *Desire to Learn English*: A high score indicates a desire to learn English.
8. *English Use and English Class Anxiety*: A high score denotes a lack of apprehension in the English classroom and when using English.
9. *Influence of Parents*: A high score indicates support from parents to learn English.
10. *Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English*: The higher the score the more positive the attitudes toward Maltese people who use English as their everyday language.
11. *Attitudes toward English and American People*: A high score indicates positive attitudes toward English and American people.

In the variable Friendship Orientation, Item 4 of the questionnaire ('My friends think that learning English is important') was left out in order to improve the reliability of that category.

Table 9 presents the student questionnaire items, grouped under the categories, and their Cronbach Alpha coefficient. This coefficient serves as an internal consistency reliability indicator denoting how the different scores from the various items hang together. Generally the alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1. Some statisticians insist a reliability score should be 0.70 or higher, however this rule needs to be applied with caution (Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Choudhury, 2010). Gliem and Gliem (2003) consider that a lower alpha score could mean that the test is measuring several latent attributes rather than one. Thus, if the data is multi-dimensional data, Cronbach's alpha will generally be deflated for all items. In fact, according to Dörnyei (2007b), since L2 research is complex and typically researchers want to measure many issues, then lower Cronbach alpha coefficients are normal, especially with regard to short scales of four to five items as is the case with some of the scales in this study. Dörnyei (2007b) therefore says that we should be wary of coefficient results if these, at least, do not reach 0.60. This has been the case in this study as the threshold for the Cronbach alpha coefficient has been set to be higher than 0.60.

For the majority of the scales in the student questionnaire the reliability reaches 0.70, with the lowest reliability being of 0.64, resulting in a mean reliability coefficient of 0.71. This indicates that the questionnaire has acceptable overall reliability.

Item no.		Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α)
<u>ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING ENGLISH</u>		$\alpha = 0.73$
54	I really enjoy learning English	
47	English is an important subject at school	
8	I find the study of English very boring	
11	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	
<i>(Items 8 and 11 were reversed)</i>		
<u>INTEGRATIVE ORIENTATION</u>		$\alpha = 0.66$
55	Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with other speakers of English	
48	It is important for me to know English in order to better understand the English nations' behaviour and problems	
52	It is important for me to know English in order to be similar to the British/Americans	
59	Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people	
<u>KNOWLEDGE ORIENTATION + INSTRUMENTAL ORIENTATION</u>		$\alpha = 0.77$
62	English proficiency is indispensable for a Maltese person to be able to live a valuable and colourful life	
44	Studying English is important because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English	
32	Studying English is important to me because it can broaden my outlook	
57	Knowing English would help me to become a more knowledgeable person	
25	Studying English is important because I would like to learn as many foreign languages as possible	
15	Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job	
35	Studying English is important for me because it will increase my ability to influence others	

-
- | | |
|----|--|
| 51 | English proficiency would have financial benefits for me |
| 22 | Studying English is important to me because it is expected of me |

TRAVEL ORIENTATION

$\alpha = 0.68$

- | | |
|----|---|
| 28 | Studying English is important to me because it will help me when travelling |
| 9 | Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot |
| 20 | The more I know English, the more I will be able to go abroad |

FRIENDSHIP ORIENTATION

$\alpha = 0.73$

- | | |
|----|--|
| 46 | Studying English is important so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances |
| 50 | Studying English is important to me because I would like to make friends with foreigners |
| 49 | In order to have friends from different countries, I need to know English |

MEDIA IN ENGLISH

$\alpha = 0.64$

- | | |
|----|---|
| 18 | Studying English is important so that I can understand films, videos, TV or radio |
| 41 | Studying English is important so that I can understand the lyrics in songs |
| 3 | Studying English is important so that I can read books and magazines in English |
| 13 | Studying English is important so that I can use the computer (e.g. Internet) |

DESIRE TO LEARN ENGLISH

$\alpha = 0.69$

- | | |
|----|---|
| 43 | Knowing English is really an important goal in my life |
| 56 | I would like to pass my English 'O' level |
| 6 | Passing my English 'O' level is important for my future |
| 29 | I am determined that I will learn English well enough to be able to communicate in it |
| 27 | I plan to learn as much English as possible |
| 17 | I wish I were fluent in English |
-

ENGLISH USE AND ENGLISH CLASS ANXIETY $\alpha = 0.70$

- 12 It doesn't bother me at all to speak English
23 I would feel comfortable speaking English in an informal gathering where both Maltese and English speaking persons were present
5 I feel anxious if someone asks me something in English
30 I feel confident when asked to participate in my English class
39 I think learning English is more difficult for me than for the other learners in my class
36 I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do
21 I think most of my classmates find it easier to learn English than I do
37 I don't have a very good language aptitude
14 I feel successful in English if I do better than most of the other students

(Items 5, 39, 36, 21 and 37 were reversed)

INFLUENCE OF PARENTS $\alpha = 0.73$

- 60 My parents feel that I should learn English
My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible
40
34 My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school

ATTITUDES TOWARD MALTESE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH $\alpha = 0.77$

- 53 Maltese speakers of English belong to a better social class than those who use Maltese
58 Maltese speakers of English are very friendly and easy to get along with
31 It is important for me to know English in order to be similar to Maltese speakers of English
38 Studying English is important because it will allow me to gain good friends more easily among Maltese speakers of English
7 I would like to get to know more Maltese speakers of English
45 Maltese speakers of English are snobs and think that they are better than others

19	The more I learn about Maltese speakers of English, the more I like them
16	My parents think that Maltese speakers of English are snobs
26	My friends think that Maltese speakers of English are snobs
<i>(Items 45, 16 and 26 were reversed)</i>	
<u>ATTITUDES TOWARD ENGLISH AND AMERICAN PEOPLE</u> $\alpha = 0.70$	
2	I like American and English people
42	I have always admired the English
1	The English are very hospitable and friendly
33	The Americans and English people are cheerful, agreeable and good-humoured
24	The Americans and English are very kind and generous people
10	For the most part, the English are sincere and honest
61	Most of my favourite artists (eg. actors, musicians) are either British or American

Table 9 Students’ multi-item scales and reliability.

6.2.2 Reliability of teacher items

From the teacher items four conceptual categories were identified. A brief description of each category follows.

1. *Attitudes toward Teaching*: The higher the scale the more positive the attitudes of the teachers toward their teaching.
2. *Teacher Efficacy*: A high score indicates a high teacher efficacy.
3. *Attitudes toward School and Staff*: A high score represents positive attitudes toward school and staff.

4. *Interaction/Rapport with Students*: A high score indicates a good relationship with the students.

Table 10 presents the teacher questionnaire items grouped under the categories and their Cronbach Alpha coefficient. Again, three out of the four scales display a reliability of over 0.70, and the lowest reliability is only 0.64, resulting in a mean reliability coefficient of 0.74.

Teachers' item pool

Item no.		Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α)
<u>ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHING</u>		$\alpha = 0.81$
4	The amount of challenge in my job is very satisfying	
20	I enjoy teaching	
28	I look forward in coming to work each day.	
32	When the class ends, I often wish that we would continue	
37	Teaching requires me to use many high-level skills	
42	Teaching these classes is a challenge that I enjoy	
43	I will still be teaching in this school in five years' time	
36	I am satisfied with the job security that I have	
59	I am not asked to do excessive work	
18	I have a manageable workload	
24	I am satisfied with my job	
55	I often think of quitting this job	
31	Teaching English is a prestigious profession	
46	I think that teaching English in this school is fun	
<i>(Item 55 was reversed)</i>		
<u>TEACHER EFFICACY</u>		$\alpha = 0.74$
15	Teachers have a rather weak influence on student achievement when all factors are considered	
14	I know that I am really helping my students to learn English	
19	I feel I should personally take credit or blame for how well my students learn	

56	I feel that I can really help my students to learn English
21	When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his/her home environment
27	A good teacher can really shape his/her students' development
33	It is very difficult to be a teacher nowadays because students do not respect you
38	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I can handle him/her
45	If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students
<i>(Items 15, 21 and 33 were reversed)</i>	
 <u>ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL/STAFF</u>	
$\alpha = 0.76$	
9	In my school there is a good working relationship between management and staff in general
11	There are things about working here (people, policies, or conditions) that encourage me to work hard
30	I think the morale of my colleagues is high
3	I am satisfied with the degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from this school
6	If I were the head teacher I would change some things in the school
12	I would be happier teaching in another school
<i>(Items 6 and 12 were reversed)</i>	
 <u>INTERACTION/RAPPORT WITH STUDENTS</u>	
$\alpha = 0.64$	
29	I have a good rapport with my students
10	It is important that I have a friendly relationship with my students' parents
58	I offer to meet students individually to explain things
45	If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students
8	I do my best to instil a desire to learn in my students
35	I have high expectations for my students
16	I organise extracurricular activities and outings because I like spending more time with my students
23	I encourage extra work and offer assistance with these

Table 10 Teachers' multi-item scales and reliability.

6.3 Factor analysis of variables

In order to uncover any covert structure that underlies the dataset of the 612 students, the 11 composite student variables were submitted to a factor analysis. Factor analysis is a good way of reducing variables to factors, as the emerging factors still represent as meaningful information as the original variables. A factor analysis could not be conducted for the teacher variables because of the small sample size of 34 teachers – according to Comrey and Lee (1992), for factor analysis the sample should not be lower than 200.

6.3.1 Factor Analysis of student variables

The student responses were analysed using factor analysis. Factor analysis is a way of reducing a large number of variables to a smaller number of components and a means of examining which variables have the strongest link with a given factor (DiStefano, Zhu & Mîndrilă, 2009). It explains these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions or factors. This reduction of items into a smaller set of factors is achieved with a minimum loss of information (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2005). Therefore in order to reduce the number of student variables into a set of factors and analyse the underlying factor structure of the overall student responses (612 participants, 11 variables) factor analysis was carried out.

Factor analysis follows a two-step procedure. The first step is factor extraction, where – as the name indicates – factors are extracted; and the second

step is factor rotation where mathematical techniques are employed so as to make the factors easier to interpret (Dörnyei, 2007b).

Two factors, which accounted for 45.9% of the variance, were extracted. As suggested by Dörnyei (2007b), the oblique rotation method was employed to compare item loadings and degree of correlations between factors. The oblique rotation revealed that the two factors were negatively correlated ($r=-.467$), suggesting that the two factors represent negatively related, but relatively independent, constructs. Factor 1 accounted for 39.6% of the total variance and Factor 2 accounted for 6.4% of the total variance. There were no remaining factors.

As shown in Table 11, Factor 1 consisted of all the variables except for English Use and English Class Anxiety and Attitudes toward learning English. These two variables made up Factor 2. Thus, Factor 1 comprised variables that are associated with the students' general motivation, that is, the motivation the students already possessed before they formed part of this class and which they brought with them to the class. These were Integrative Motivation, Knowledge Orientation and Instrumental Orientation, Friendship Orientation, Travel Orientation, Desire to Learn, Media in English, Influence of Parents, Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English, and Attitudes toward English and American People. Factor 2 comprised variables which are situated in the classroom context: English Use and English Class Anxiety and Attitudes toward Learning English. Accordingly, the two motivational dimensions will be referred to as 'General Student Motivation' and 'Situated Student Motivation'.

	Factor 1 General Student Motivation	Factor 2 Situating Student Motivation
Integrative Motivation	.735	
Knowledge + Instrumental Motivation	.728	
Friendship Orientation	.736	
Travel Orientation	.698	
Desire to Learn	.553	
Media in English	.732	
Influence of Parents	.447	
Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English	.314	
Attitudes toward English and American People	.413	
English Use and English Class Anxiety		.757
Attitudes toward Learning English		-.582

Table 11 Factor analysis results for student variables.

6.4 The effect of school type on student motivation

In this study, data was collected from two types of schools; Area Secondary Schools and Junior Lyceums. It is assumed that Junior Lyceum students are high-achieving as they would have had to pass an entrance examination (not unlike former British ‘grammar schools’). Area Secondary Schools students are assumed to be low-achieving as they are automatically transferred there from primary school (similar to British ‘comprehensive schools’). In this regard student motivation to learn English was checked for variations according to school type.

In this section it was examined whether student motivation varied as a function of school type. Following this the relationship between teacher and student motivation was examined in order to identify any emerging patterns from the data.

6.4.1 Student motivation and school type

The first important task here was to examine whether student motivation varies as a function of school type. The two types of schools, Junior Lyceums and Area Secondary Schools, were selected specifically in this study as it was believed that the motivation of their students toward learning English differed. For this purpose, an independent samples t-test was conducted to test the null hypothesis of no difference in student motivation by school type (see Table 12).

	M	SD	T	Effect size ^a
General Student Motivation			-2.65*	.18
Junior Lyceum	-.08	.28		
State School	.21	.34		
Student Situated Motivation			1.05	.03
Junior Lyceum	.04	.34		
State School	-.09	.37		

*p<.05

^a effect size = eta squared

Table 12 Independent t-test of student motivation (General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation) and school type.

The independent-samples t-test revealed that there was a significant effect of school type on General Student Motivation. The magnitude of the difference in the means was quite considerable (eta squared = .18) with school type explaining 18 % of the variance. Another independent samples t-test revealed that there was no difference in the Situated Student Motivation by school type.

The result of the analysis indicates that the two school types differ in the level of general motivation of their students but not in their students' situated

motivation. This significant difference in the level of General Student Motivation from one type of school to the other was to be expected as it was assumed that students who attend Junior Lyceums are more motivated since they would have had to sit for a selective 11-plus exam to enter such a school. The fact that there is no statistical difference in the Situated Student Motivation between school types, however, was not expected. Although there are other factors that affect students' motivation this finding seems to indicate that Junior Lyceums teachers could be doing more to motivate their students who are considered to enter school already more motivated to learn English than students in Area Secondary Schools. However this is not fully supported by the data.

In sum, the results obtained through the independent samples t-tests showed that, for this study, the variable of school type was an important one.

6.5 The link between teacher and student motivation

The link between teacher motivation and student motivation was examined in order to identify any patterns that emerge from the data.

6.5.1 Correlation between teacher motivation variables and student motivation factors

The main research objective of this study was to examine whether there is a link between the motivation of teachers and that of their students. To this effect a correlational analysis was carried out between the four teacher variables and the two student factors (General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation).

The factor scores of the student variables were used rather than factor analysis because the scores represent more composite variables in that each variable is weighed proportionally to its involvement in the pattern. Hair et al. (2005) and DiStefano et al. (2009) recommend using such factor scores as these scores represent each individual's placement on the factor identified from the factor analysis. In this study it was deemed important to use these scores as the two factors extracted overlapped and these two factors scores gathered information from both sets of variables. All the information supplied by the variables relates to student motivation and therefore overlaps and is interrelated.

The relationship between the four teacher variables and the two student factors (General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation) was determined by means of the Pearson product-moment correlation (r). The results obtained are shown in Table 13.

A significant positive correlation was established between Interaction/Rapport with Students and General Student Motivation. There was however a significant negative correlation between Teacher Efficacy and Situated Student Motivation. This correlation was expected as the students' situated motivation revolves around the anxiety that could exist in the classroom and is therefore a negative component. Therefore the more efficacious and competent a teacher is the less anxious the students are. Interaction/Rapport with Students did not correlate with the Situated Student Motivation. This was a negative correlation which shows a tendency for teachers' rapport with students to reduce anxiety. The correlations between Attitudes toward Teaching and Attitudes toward Staff/School and the student motivation factors were found to be statistically nonsignificant.

	General Student Motivation	Situated Student Motivation
Attitudes toward Teaching	.002	-.124
Teacher Efficacy	.166	-.369*
Attitudes toward School/Staff	-.154	.044
Interaction/Rapport with Students	.368*	-.298

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 13 Pearson correlation between the four teacher variables and the two student factors (N=34).

The correlation between student and teacher motivation was not strong or unambiguous. Therefore it was deemed fit to draw up a more elaborate version of the correlation table in which all the separate student motivation variables were correlated and not only the two student motivation factors. Furthermore the motivation of the most and least motivated teachers was correlated with the student motivation factors. By considering only these two groups of teachers it was possible to identify which characteristics of these two groups were linked with student motivation factors. This made also more explicit the differences which exist between these two groups with regard to student motivation.

6.5.2 Correlation between the teacher motivation variables and student motivation variables

A Pearson product-moment correlation (r) was computed to determine the correlation between the four teacher variables and the eleven student variables.

Table 14 exhibits the detailed correlation matrix.

	Attitudes toward teaching	Teacher efficacy	Attitudes toward school/staff	Interaction/Rapport with Students
Attitudes toward learning English	.079	.327	-.014	.208
Integrative orientation	-.032	.079	-.191	.305
Knowledge/Instrumental Orientation	.000	.069	-.230	.151
Travel orientation	.125	.284	.146	.367*
Friendship orientation	-.032	.212	-.110	.463*
Media in English	.115	.105	-.116	.334
Desire to learn English	.106	.340*	.052	.292
English use and English class anxiety	-.196	-.410*	-.022	-.306
Influence of parents	-.023	.187	.025	.264
Attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English	-.063	-.077	-.197	-.015
Attitudes toward English and American people	-.066	.171	-.096	.346*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 14 Pearson correlation between the four teacher variables and the eleven student variables (N= 34).

Interaction/Rapport with Students’ has a significant correlation with several student variables while Efficacy correlated significantly with English Use and Anxiety and Desire to Learn. Attitudes toward School/Staff and Attitudes toward Teaching did not have any significant correlations with any of the student variables. This was expected to be the case with regards to Attitudes toward School/Staff as this variable might not influence the students themselves in any way. It was surprising, however, that Attitudes toward Teaching, did not correlate significantly

with any of the student variables. An analysis of the correlations that resulted between Interaction/Rapport with Students and Teacher Efficacy with the student motivation variables is presented in the following section.

Interaction/Rapport with Students

Interaction/Rapport with Students correlated positively with Travel orientation, Friendship Orientation and Attitudes toward English and American people.

These results suggest that teachers who have a good rapport with their students encourage the students to want to integrate with others who use English and follow what is going on around them in this same language. Students who like their teacher tend to like also the subject being taught by that teacher. In such cases the teacher is accessible and is involved personally in the students' learning. This seems to make the students more well-disposed towards the English-speaking world and want to participate in it.

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher Efficacy correlated positively with Desire to Learn English and negatively with English Use and English Class Anxiety. Teacher efficacy heightens students' desire to learn and it lowers anxiety among the students in the class. This seems to imply that the belief by the teachers that they are capable of doing a good job and the fact that they have positive expectations for their students' behaviour and achievement are transmitted to the students themselves.

Summary

The results obtained through this analysis confirm what was established earlier in Section 6.5.1, namely that Interaction/Rapport with Students and Teacher Efficacy are the two variables of teacher motivation which have the most effect on student motivation.

6.5.3 Comparison between the motivation of the most and least motivated teachers and student motivation factors

In spite of the significant correlations reported above, the correlation between the teacher motivation variables and the student motivation variables was not sufficiently strong in general. One possible reason for this could be that the teacher variables might not be accurate enough due to the somewhat questionable nature of self-report measures. Self-report measures may not provide an accurate description of the range of the teachers' motivation either, particularly because of the social desirability bias. It is therefore not unreasonable to assume that these instruments did a better job at examining clear-cut cases rather than examining the 'grey' areas, that is, cases that displayed mixed attitudes or gave inconsistent or less-than-honest answers. Therefore, it was thought that if only the extreme cases, that is, the motivation of the most and the least motivated teachers, are looked at, these two poles would be better reflected in the students' motivation. In other words, the student data from the classes of the most motivated teachers would be different from the data obtained in the classes of the least motivated teachers.

Rank order of the most and least motivated teachers

A two-step procedure was undertaken to identify who were the most and least motivated teachers. The teachers were rank ordered according to the variables of: Teacher Efficacy, Interaction/Rapport with Students, Attitudes toward Teaching and Attitudes toward School/Staff (i.e., resulting in four somewhat different rank orders). Following a common practice for excluding in-between cases, those performing one standard deviation above the mean in each scale were classified as the most motivated teachers whereas those performing at one standard deviation below the mean were classified as the least motivated teachers.

Results

An independent-samples t-test was computed to compare the student's motivation in the classes of the most and least motivated teachers according to the four teacher motivation aspects. The results in Table 15 show that there was a statistically significant difference in the scores for Situated Student Motivation when teachers were rank ordered according to Teacher Efficacy, and the magnitude of the difference in the means was quite large ($\eta^2 = .23$). There was also a significant difference in scores for Situated Student Motivation when teachers were ranked according to Attitudes toward Teaching, but this time the magnitude of the difference was quite small ($\eta^2 = .02$).

It was also found that the ranking according to Interaction/Rapport with Students variable showed a significant difference in scores for both the General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation. However,

the ranking of the teachers according to the Attitudes toward School/Staff did not produce any significant results.

Criterion measure	Basis for rank-ordering	M diff.	SD	df	t	Effect size ^a
General Student Motivation	Attitudes toward Teaching	.03	.81	181	-.25	.00
	Teacher Efficacy	-.08	.96	196	-1.43	.01
	Attitudes toward School/Staff	.02	.09	185	-.35	.00
	Interaction/Rapport with Students	-.24	.94	195	-2.49*	.03
Situated Student Motivation	Attitudes toward Teaching	.08	.8	181	2.04*	.02
	Teacher Efficacy	.2	.86	196	2.19*	.23
	Attitudes toward School/Staff	.005	.08	185	1.19	.01
	Interaction/Rapport with Students	.18	.84	195	2.37*	.03

*p <.05
effect size = eta squared

Table 15 T-test for extreme cases (1 SD above and below average) in student motivation.

In the present study Situated Student Motivation is more important than General Student Motivation because it depends on the classroom practice of the teacher. It was therefore reassuring to observe that all the three classroom-specific teacher motivation measures (Attitudes toward Teaching, Teacher Efficacy, Interaction/Rapport with students) were associated with significant differences in the Situated Student Motivation. Interestingly, Interaction/Rapport with Students was also associated with a significant difference in General Student Motivation. It is not possible to know from this dataset whether Interaction/Rapport with students caused this difference or whether the teachers’ interaction with students was a consequence of this difference; that is, teachers interacted better with students because they were already motivated or, teachers’ friendliness resulted in good

modelling of general motives. Qualitative data is required in order to be able address this particular issue.

6.6 Language attitudes

Given the bilingual situation in Malta, where both Maltese and English are used widely, it was reckoned that the use of one of these languages rather than the other one by the students involved in this study would evoke different attitudes toward their learning of English. In order to investigate this further a questionnaire item was introduced where the students were asked to indicate their use of Maltese and/or English as ‘Maltese Only’, ‘English Only’, ‘Maltese and English equally’, ‘Maltese with some English’ or ‘English with some Maltese’. A frequency analysis of this item (see Table 16) was carried out.

	Frequency	Valid Percent
1. Maltese Only	251	41.8
2. English Only	3	.5
3. Maltese and English Equally	66	11
4. Maltese with some English	263	43.8
5. English with some Maltese	18	3
Missing	11	
Total	612	100

Table 16 Frequency of Language Use.

Following this the English Only and English with some Maltese descriptors were collapsed into one category because of the small number of respondents involved. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the motivational variables was computed using four language varieties; Maltese Only, Maltese with some English, Maltese and English Equally and English Only/English with some Maltese. Since it resulted that the three varieties; Maltese and English equally,

Maltese with some English, and English with some Maltese were not significantly different from each other with respect to General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation, it was decided to collapse them into one category which was renamed, Mixed Maltese English. Accordingly, another ANOVA was computed to investigate whether the means for General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation varied for those respondents who spoke Maltese Only, English Only or Mixed Maltese English (see Table 17).

	<i>M(SD)</i>			F (2,598)	Effect size ³
	1.Maltese Only (n = 251)	2. English Only (n = 263)	3. Mixed Maltese English (n = 87)		
General Student Motivation	-.32(.97)	.15(.84)	.45(.9)	29.9**	.09
Situated Student Motivation	.42(.81)	-.15(.7)	-.74(.78)	84.58**	.22

*p <.01. **p <.001.

Table 17 Analysis of variance computed for Student Motivation and Language Use.

This analysis indicated that there is a significant difference in the motivation of students who use Maltese Only, English Only and Mixed Maltese English which affected their general and situated motivation. The effect size for the General Student Motivation was moderate while that for the Situated Student Motivation was large. Moreover the LSD post hoc tests (see Table 18) showed that the General Student Motivation of students using English Only and Mixed Maltese English is higher than that of the students who use Maltese Only. The indication is that with regard to the Situated Student Motivation the reverse almost happens.

General Student Motivation	(I) Language Use	(J) Language Use	Mean (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Maltese Only	English Only	-.462*	.008	.000	-.619	-.306
		Mixed Maltese English	-.770*	.112	.000	-.990	-.550
	English Only	Maltese Only	.462*	.008	.000	.306	.619
		Mixed Maltese English	-.307*	.112	.006	-.527	-.089
	Mixed Maltese English	Maltese Only	.770*	.112	.000	.550	.990
		English Only	.307*	.112	.006	.089	.527
Situated Student Motivation							
	Maltese Only	English Only	.570*	.067	.000	.439	.702
		Mixed Maltese English	1.16*	.094	.000	.970	1.341
	English Only	Maltese Only	-.570*	.067	.000	-.701	-.439
		Mixed Maltese English	.585*	.094	.000	.401	.769
	Mixed Maltese English	Maltese Only	-	.094	.000	-1.341	-.970
		English Only	1.155*	.094	.000	-.769	-.401
			-.585*				

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 18 LSD Post hoc results for Student Motivation and Language Use.

Those students who use Maltese Only and Mixed Maltese English are now motivated to learn English whilst those who use English only are less so. The latter results could indicate that the teacher influenced the motivation of the students in a way that made the students either motivated to learn English even if initially they were not, or conversely their motivation to learn English was diminished when initially they were more motivated to do so.

These results indicate that the students who use Maltese are less generally motivated to learn English when they first come to the English classroom. Students who use English only or a mix of English and Maltese are more positively disposed to learn English at the start. It seems there still exists some sort of prejudice among speakers of Maltese toward the English language as suggested in Chapter 1. In this chapter it was explained that Maltese speakers of English might evoke certain attitudes which are hostile as their language use might be perceived to be an indication of snobbery. In order to establish whether this was also the case for the students participating in this study, a further one-way ANOVA was carried out, this time comparing the language use of the students and their Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English (see Table 19). The same three varieties for language use as before: Maltese Only, English Only and Mixed Maltese English were indicated.

	<i>M(SD)</i>				
	1. Maltese Only (n = 251)	2. English Only (n = 263)	3. Mixed Maltese and English (n = 87)	F (2,598)	Effect size ³
Attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English	2.51(.83)	3.86(.82)	3.6(.94)	67.14**	.18

*p <.01. **p <.001.

Table 19 Analysis of variance computed for students’ attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English and Language Use.

A significant difference was obtained between students’ Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English and students who use Maltese Only, English Only and Mixed Maltese English. The effect size was large. The LSD post hoc tests (see Table 20) showed that students who use Maltese Only held negative attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English while students who used English Only held

positive attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English. This means that students' attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English do indeed depend on language use.

Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English	(I) Language Use	(J) Language Use	Mean (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Maltese Only	English Only	-.650*	.075	.000	-.796	-.503
		Mixed Maltese English	-1.084*	.105	.000	-1.290	-.877
	English Only	Maltese Only	.650*	.075	.000	.503	.796
		Mixed Maltese English	-.434*	.104	.000	-.640	-.229
	Mixed Maltese English	Maltese Only	1.084*	.105	.000	.877	1.29
		English Only	.434*	.104	.000	.229	.640

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 20 LSD Post hoc results for students' attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English and Language Use.

6.6.1 Student attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English

From the previous analysis of the effect of language use it was evident that the students' Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English are a determining factor in student motivation. Consequently measures were taken to check if this has any effect on the link between teacher motivation and student motivation. This was achieved in two ways. Firstly, a partial correlation was computed to check the effect of the variable Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English on the link between teacher and student motivation. Secondly, an analysis of covariance was

computed to check the effect of this variable on the comparisons of the classes of the most and least motivated teachers.

6.6.2 Partial correlation between teacher motivation and student motivation

A partial correlation was computed where teacher motivation was correlated with student motivation and controlled by a third variable, Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English (see Table 21).

The result of the partial correlation showed that when taking into consideration the students' variable: Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English, once again only the teacher variable Interaction/Rapport with students correlated with the General Student Motivation. This means that the rapport that the students have with their teacher influences the attitudes the students' harbour towards Maltese speakers of English which form part of their general student motivation. One possible scenario is that when the students have a good rapport with their teacher of English, who is a Maltese speaker of English, then their attitudes toward such speakers become positive. On the other hand if a bad rapport with the teacher of English develops then the attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English become more negative. Either way such attitudes which formed part of the students' general motivation are affected.

		General Student Motivation	Situated Student Motivation
Attitudes toward Teaching	Pearson Correlation	.00	-.12
	Partial Correlation	.06	-.18
Teacher Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.17	-.37*
	Partial Correlation	.29	-.48**
Attitudes toward School/Staff	Pearson Correlation	-.15	.04
	Partial Correlation	-.03	-.07
Interaction/Rapport with Students	Pearson Correlation	.37*	-.30
	Partial Correlation	.51**	-.36*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 21 Partial correlation between the four teacher variables and student motivation factors controlling for Student attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English. The Pearson correlation is also given.

When the variable Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was considered, Teacher Efficacy correlated negatively with Situated Student Motivation as it had done before. In this case, Interaction/Rapport with Students, has correlated significantly with the situated motivation of students. Previously, when Attitudes toward Speakers of Maltese had not been considered, the correlation between these two variables was not that well-defined. This means that at this stage, the students' Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English are influenced by the rapport they have with their teachers in class. This is an

indication that Attitudes toward Speakers of English is an important variable in the relationship between teacher and student motivation.

6.6.3 Analysis of covariance for Attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English

In order to investigate further the apparent influence that students' Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English have on the link between teacher and student motivation this variable was eliminated from the ensuing analysis in order to establish whether different results occur. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) made it possible to compare the motivation of the two groups of students (the students of the most and least motivated teachers) with that of their teachers and to exclude the variable of Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English. The results according to the aspect of teacher motivation that was used were as follows:

Attitudes toward Teaching

The ANCOVA with regards to the teacher variable Attitudes toward Teaching (see Table 22) indicated that there was only a significant difference between English Use and English Class Anxiety. The effect size is very small. This means that when the variable Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is excluded then English Use and English Class Anxiety are influenced by Attitudes toward Teaching. When Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was included as a student variable, then teachers' Attitudes toward teaching had no influence.

		Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Effect size eta
Attitudes toward Teaching	Integrative Motivation	.001	.001	.001	.000
	Knowledge and Instrumental Orientation	.019	.019	.035	.000
	Friendship Orientation	.344	.344	.354	.000
	Travel Orientation	1.284	1.284	1.400	.000
	Desire to Learn	.274	.274	.729	.000
	Media in English	.004	.004	.007	.000
	Influence of Parents	.011	.011	.011	.000
	Attitudes toward English and American People	.044	.044	.078	.000
	English Use and English Class Anxiety	8.326	8.326	11.196*	.004
	Attitudes toward Learning English	.125	.125	.153	.000
	General Student Motivation	.001	.001	.001	.000
	Situated Student Motivation	2.184	2.184	4.457	.017

*p < .01. **p < .001.

Table 22 ANCOVA computed for Attitudes toward Teaching and student motivational variables. Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is the covariant.

Teacher Efficacy

The ANCOVA computed for Teacher Efficacy (see Table 23) indicated that there was only a significant difference in Attitudes toward Learning English. The effect size is very small. This means that when Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is excluded, then Attitudes toward Learning English are influenced by

Teacher Efficacy. Previously, when Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was included, Teacher Efficacy influenced the students’ Desire to learn English and their English Use and English Class Anxiety.

		Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta
Teacher Efficacy	Integrative Motivation	.317	.317	.443	.506	.000
	Knowledge and Instrumental Orientation	.704	.704	1.264	.262	.000
	Friendship Orientation	4.123	4.123	4.267	.040	.001
	Travel Orientation	4.885	4.885	5.562	.019	.001
	Desire to Learn	2.689	2.689	6.354	.013	.001
	Media in English	1.308	1.308	2.203	.139	.000
	Influence of Parents	1.241	1.241	1.472	.227	.000
	Attitudes toward English and American People	.040	.040	.063	.802	.000
	English Use and English Class Anxiety	3.811	3.811	4.895	.028	.002
	Attitudes toward Learning English	11.389	11.389	13.133**	.000	.003
	General Student Motivation	3.270	3.27	4.816	.029	.018
	Situated Student Motivation	5.395	5.395	9.400	.002	.035

*p <.01. **p <.001.

Table 23 ANCOVA computed for Teacher Efficacy and student motivational variables. Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is the covariant.

Attitudes toward School/Staff

No significant differences were obtained from the ANCOVA conducted with the teacher variable Attitudes toward School/Staff and the students’ motivational variables (see Table 24). This showed that when the variable Attitudes toward

Maltese Speakers of English is excluded, then the attitudes of teachers toward school and staff do not influence student motivation. When student Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was factored in, this teacher variable did not have any influence on any of the student variables.

		Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta
Attitudes toward school/staff	Integrative motivation	.001	.001	.001	.974	.000
	Knowledge and instrumental orientation	.428	.428	.789	.376	.000
	Friendship orientation	.003	.003	.003	.955	.000
	Travel orientation	4.642	4.642	5.069	.026	.001
	Desire to learn	.114	.114	.226	.635	.000
	Media in English	.019	.019	.029	.865	.000
	Influence of parents	.253	.253	.298	.586	.000
	Attitudes toward English and American people	.003	.003	.005	.946	.000
	English use and English class anxiety	1.183	1.183	1.563	.213	.001
	Attitudes toward learning English	1.900	1.900	2.172	.142	.000
	General Student Motivation	.075	.075	.119	.730	.001
	Situated Student Motivation	.873	.873	1.673	.197	.007

*p <.01. **p <.001.

Table 24 ANCOVA computed for Attitudes toward School/Staff and student motivational variables. Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is the covariant.

Interaction/Rapport with Students

In the ANCOVA computed for Interaction/Rapport with Students (see Table 25) there was only a significant difference with Friendship Orientation. The effect size is very small. This showed that when Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is excluded, then the Friendship Orientation is influenced by the Interaction/Rapport with Students.

		Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta
Interaction/ Rapport with Students	Integrative Motivation	2.113	2.113	3.304	.071	.001
	Knowledge and Instrumental Orientation	.229	.229	.463	.497	.000
	Friendship Orientation	7.929	7.929	6.764*	.010	.002
	Travel Orientation	1.743	1.743	2.036	.155	.000
	Desire to Learn	.995	.995	2.437	.120	.000
	Media in English	1.581	1.581	2.724	.100	.000
	Influence of parents	1.305	1.305	1.551	.214	.000
	Attitudes toward English and American People	3.523	3.523	5.570	.019	.001
	English Use and English Class Anxiety	3.366	3.366	5.232	.023	.002
	Attitudes toward Learning English	1.363	1.363	1.808	.180	.000
	General Student Motivation	3.505	3.505	5.669	.018	.022
	Situated Student Motivation	2.572	2.572	5.246	.023	.018

*p <.01. **p <.001.

Table 25 ANCOVA computed for Interaction/Rapport with Students and student motivational variables. Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is the covariant.

When Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was factored in, then the teachers' Interaction/Rapport with Students influenced the students' Friendship Orientation and also a number of other student variables (Integrative Orientation, Travel Orientation, Media in English and Attitudes toward English and American people).

Summary of ANCOVA results

From the analysis it transpired that a smaller number of student variables was affected by teacher variables when the variable Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was statistically removed. Before this variable had been excluded, the students' Desire to Learn English was affected by Teacher Efficacy. Furthermore, the student variables Integrative Orientation, Travel Orientation, Media in English, Attitudes toward English and American People and English Use and English Class Anxiety were affected by Interaction/Rapport with Students. The only student variable which was affected, irrespective of whether Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is included or not, is that of Friendship Orientation which was affected by Interaction/Rapport with Students. When student Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English was excluded the teacher variable Attitudes toward teaching had an influence on English Use and English Class Anxiety when previously it had none. Teacher Efficacy influenced the student Attitudes toward Learning and the teacher variable Attitudes toward School/Staff remained unaffected.

A lower number of student variables are affected by teacher motivation when Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English is excluded. However it is

significant to note that two of the variables which are affected, namely Attitudes toward learning English and English Use and English Class Anxiety are classroom based. This means that when the student attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English do not have an impact on their learning, then the teacher motivation plays a larger role on the situated motivation of the students, which is the motivation of the students in the classroom. When attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English prevail in the classroom, the teacher exerts less influence on students' motivation. It is important to note that there is no indication whether the influence of teacher motivation on student motivation is a positive or a negative one. What is certain is that these student attitudes have an effect on the relationship that exists between teacher and student motivation. The general motivation of the students, however, is affected more when student Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English variable is a factor between teacher and student motivation.

The variable Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English, is a determining factor in the link between teacher and student motivation. This confirms that student motivation is affected by the students' attitudes toward those Maltese who use English. This in turn affects the level of motivation of the teacher.

6.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the quantitative data was analysed. Four main results were obtained from this analysis:

- 1) A significant difference resulted between General Student Motivation and school type. However the relationship between*

the Situated Student Motivation and school type was not significant.

In the first instance the effect of school type on student motivation was analysed. The students' general motivation of Junior Lyceum students was found to be different from that of Area Secondary Schools students. This is consistent with the assumption that Junior Lyceum students are more motivated to learn English than Area Secondary School students as the former are required to sit for and pass an entrance examination. However there were no differences in the situated motivation of Area State Secondary school students and Junior Lyceums students. This means that type of school does not affect the motivation of students to learn English in the classroom situation. This implies that Junior Lyceum teachers are not maintaining or enhancing the motivation of their students as this is not different from that of Area Secondary School students.

2) Interaction/Rapport with Students, Teacher Efficacy and Attitudes toward Teaching affect student motivation

Both Interaction/Rapport with Students and Teacher Efficacy correlate negatively with the Situated Student Motivation. The situated motivation of students relies on the anxiety factor in the classroom. This result, therefore, implies that teachers who have a good rapport with their students and who are efficacious make their students feel less anxious and at ease in class. This in turn increases the level of motivation to learn of the students.

Further correlational analyses of the teacher variables with all of the student variables indicated also that the students of those teachers who have a good rapport with their students are more willing to integrate with speakers of English and be part of the English-speaking world. Thus, teachers who are efficacious, seem to rub off their belief in themselves and their high expectations onto their students.

When analysing only the most and least motivated teachers, the variable Attitudes toward Teaching, was also found to be significantly different from the Situated Student Motivation. This means that all classroom-specific teacher motivation variables (Interaction/Rapport with Students, Teacher Efficacy and Attitudes toward Teaching) affect Situated Student Motivation. This demonstrates that teacher motivation is a strong influence on the situated motivation of their students. Further investigation of the issues involved here will be carried out in the qualitative aspect of this research.

Interaction/Rapport with Students was also correlated with General Student Motivation. The implications are twofold. Either General Student Motivation was enhanced because of the good rapport the students had with the teacher, or students had a good rapport with the teacher because they came to the class already motivated to learn English. This issue will be investigated in the qualitative component of this research study.

3) Language use of students affects their motivation

There was a statistically significant difference between language use and both General Student Motivation and Situated Student Motivation. Students who used mostly Maltese were less motivated to learn English while students who use mostly

English are more motivated to learn English. This implies that language use plays a role in student motivation and therefore affects the link between teacher motivation and student motivation.

4) *Attitudes toward Maltese Speakers of English affect the relationship between teacher motivation and student motivation.*

Students' attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English affect the students' motivation to learn English. The results of a partial correlation and the analyses of covariance showed that when we statistically remove this factor from the equation the link between teacher and student motivation varies.

CHAPTER 7 Qualitative Analysis

This chapter presents an analysis of the qualitative data in this study. The data was analysed on two levels. Firstly, the main conceptual dimensions were identified in an exploratory manner, that is, dimensions which constitute teacher motivation, and any other relevant factors on the micro and macro contextual level which affect it. Secondly, in line with the main question of this research, the data was analysed to identify links that teachers make between their own motivation and that of their students.

7.1 Teacher motivation

In order to fully understand the complexity of the phenomenon of teacher motivation, the main motivational issues were analysed from a conceptual perspective which considered the key concepts of teacher motivation and the teachers' opinions of such concepts. These concepts - teacher satisfaction and motivation, teacher autonomy, teacher efficacy, negative aspects of teacher affect (teacher demotivation and stress) and feedback - are analysed in the same order as they were expounded on in Chapter 3. This section, however, is introduced with data relating to the teachers' reasons for entering the profession since it may assist in providing a baseline for their later motivation.

In the following section I have adopted a more traditional 'educational-structural' approach to the analysis whereby discrete aspects of the educational context are listed and commented upon. Such an approach makes it possible to

identify some of the basic factors that were found to affect teachers' motivation at the micro- and macro-contextual levels. The aim of this is to provide an overview of these motivational factors based on a straightforward structural classification by taking significant components of motivation and looking at their individual impact on teachers. In this section, I also explore how the school environment (both human and physical), career structure of the job, the salary and the societal views of teachers of English affect teacher motivation. Finally, I investigate teachers' intentions to remain in or leave teaching as this is another indication of whether teachers are satisfied with their work.

7.1.1 Teachers' reasons for entering the profession

Most of the teachers who were interviewed had intrinsic reasons for entering the profession. Of 12, only 3 teachers provided extrinsic reasons, a finding which corresponds with previous Maltese research (Brincat & Kelly, 1997; Farrugia, 1986). The teachers' reasons were various; some of the teachers (3) said they had always wanted to become a teacher, for two of them a role model had contributed to this desire to become a teacher, such as the following:

I have always wanted to be a teacher, I had no doubt about that. I remember when I was at secondary school there was probably some kind of role model who inspired me and I wanted to follow suit. (no.4) ²

² The number in brackets following each quotation indicates the interview document as presented in Chapter 3, Table 3.

Six teachers referred to how they enjoyed working with children and how they found the progress of their students to be rewarding. One teacher in particular mentioned how he considered teaching to be a challenge:

I think it was job which offered a challenge, it is not boring, so to speak, job like an office job which is always the same, every year I meet new students and I am dealing with people who I think teach me too at the end of the day. (no.12)

Love for the subject they teach, the English language, had compelled four of the respondents to become teachers of English.

Cause I love the language, I love literature (no.6)

Three of the reasons teachers gave for becoming a teacher of English were extrinsic. One teacher said that it was the easiest course at the university, another that teaching was her second choice of career and another because teaching hours fitted in well with family commitments as in the following example:

*Because of the flexibility it provides to be with family commitments.
(no.3)*

Section summary

The teachers who took part in this survey have intrinsic reasons for becoming teachers of English. The most common reason given is that they enjoy working with students and derive satisfaction from their students' progress.

7.1.2 Teacher satisfaction and motivation

All teachers except one claimed that they were happy in their chosen career. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors which contribute to the teachers' motivation were investigated.

- **Intrinsic motivation**

As already identified in Chapter 3, there are two types of intrinsic teacher motivation. The first type is based on factors which are concerned with the actual teaching process and the teachers' actions and how these improve students' performance. The second type is based on factors which are concerned with the subject matter and how the teacher remains informed about the latest developments in the field. Both types were identified in the qualitative dataset, with only one teacher falling into the second category.

Contact with students and student progress (10 teachers)

Most of the respondents deemed their interaction and relationship with the students to be the main motivating force in their job. Six teachers emphasised the fact that they are motivated by their students' progress and results. Almost all teachers in this group liked to see their students improve as learners, even if their improvement was slight. Some of them referred to the good grades that their students obtained. Here a direct link between teacher motivation and student academic achievement was made as observed in the following comment:

...student interaction and the fact that students then do well in the subject you're teaching motivates you to work harder at your teaching job. (no.3)

Students' lack of effort can be demotivating as portrayed in the ensuing two comments:

You never know how things are going to turn out so that motivates me to try new things sometimes. I mean sometimes it can be demotivating as well because obviously if they do not work out then it falls flat but... (no.1)

Of course the result the students get in exams, of course if they get high results that would be motivating...to be honest having these types of students you do not have a challenge so...I can't think of anything motivating at the moment. (no.10)

This issue of students who lack motivation or present challenging behaviour is a recurring theme throughout this chapter.

Subject (1 teacher)

Only one teacher considers the subject matter that she teaches to be the motivating factor in her teaching. This implies that this teacher likes the language she teaches and keeps herself updated with what is happening in the English language:

The subject I teach basically (no.2)

- **Extrinsic motivation**

Only two teachers gave extrinsic reasons which motivated them in their job. One teacher found the fact that he teaches in a Junior Lyceum to be motivating, as opposed to working in an area secondary school (Junior Lyceum students are supposed to be academically better than Area Secondary students as they had to pass certain basic exams to enter such school). This corresponds with the results in the quantitative part of this research where type of school is considered to be a major influence upon teacher motivation. This teacher claimed:

I also find motivating the fact that you get results here as well so the fact that it is a Junior Lyceum, it helps. If I were to do the same things in an area secondary I don't think that it will be so stimulating. (no.4)

Another teacher gave the working hours and lack of routine as reasons for her motivation.

The times of the job. The fact that it is not the same, there are a lot of activities going on, not like office work. (no.9)

Section summary

All the teachers are happy with their job and are intrinsically motivated. The teachers deem their interaction and relationship with their students as a main source of motivation. Teachers feel motivated when students make progress which indicates that there is a link between teacher motivation and student achievement.

7.1.3 Teacher autonomy

In this section teachers were asked how autonomous they felt in implementing the syllabus in their class. The majority (8 teachers) felt that they were autonomous in the way they implemented the syllabus. They believed they were at liberty to adopt different teaching approaches and resources in order to meet the needs of their students, for example:

The curriculum is set but the way you teach it and the contents you use...yes there is flexibility as regards that. Apart from that you do not only stick to your own textbooks but you are free to use any other resources that you want. (no.3)

The other teachers (5 teachers) felt that they were not autonomous as they were compelled to teach the contents of the syllabus, notwithstanding the fact that this was too difficult for their students. This is exemplified by the following comment:

...if it was for me I'd teach things that they can understand and that they can use in the future. It is no use teaching them the passive when they don't understand whatever it is, but the passive is what is going to come out in the exam. And two students out of 20 understand what you are saying, the others don't, so obviously it becomes de-motivating for me. (no.11)

In the former case the teachers perceived the fact that they were free to adopt different teaching approaches in implementing the syllabus as rendering them

more autonomous. In the latter case the teachers felt that their autonomy was diminished by the fact that they were tied down by the syllabus.

Section summary

Most teachers feel they are autonomous in the administration of the syllabus. Some teachers, however, think they feel constrained in that they have to teach the contents of the syllabus even if it is too difficult for their students.

7.1.4 Teacher efficacy and challenging tasks

Self-efficacy is a basic need for intrinsic motivation and compels teachers to seek challenging and stimulating tasks (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). The element of challenge within a teacher's job is seen to be a valuable factor (Fraser et al., 1998) and efficacious teachers are those who are willing to take on a challenge (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). When the 12 teachers were asked if they found their job to be challenging or not, only two replied that they no longer found it challenging. The majority replied that their greatest challenge was to motivate their students while some replied that they found the content of the subject challenging to teach.

Motivating students (10 teachers)

Most teachers claimed that motivating their students was their major challenge in teaching. Some did their utmost to find interesting material which would help the students become more interested in the subject-matter and also make it easier for

them to convey the content of the lesson to their students (5 teachers out of 10). Several teachers (6 teachers out of 10) found motivating ‘weak’, ‘struggling’ and ‘unmanageable’ students and helping them to achieve as their biggest challenge. One teacher described how she maintained her motivation when teaching such students:

What keeps me is, I say, imagine that one of those kids had to be my son with all his problems, then I would still be teaching him. (no.12)

Subject (4 teachers)

Some teachers found it challenging to teach a new literature text every two years and also when they had to teach students who are not ‘intelligent’ enough to cope with the curriculum.

And even the syllabus makes it challenging because you have to teach new things and you do not have enough time and the students aren't intelligent enough to understand and so on. (no.11)

It is interesting to note that one teacher considered limited resources for the teaching of English a challenge rather than a drawback. This might instigate this teacher to plan and design his own resources which are suited specifically for the needs of the students of that particular class.

Personal and general teacher efficacy

The two constructs of teacher efficacy studies - personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy – were identified in my dataset and found to have a significant impact on the teachers' motivation.

Personal teacher efficacy

Personal teacher efficacy was found to be situation-bound since it was affected by the specific circumstances in which the teachers were working. Virtually all teachers were faced with various challenges throughout the day; they taught students with different academic abilities and diverse behavioural problems, students who were demotivated and not interested in what was happening in class, lack of resources and a poor school environment. These circumstances posed different challenges to the teachers and, as a result, teachers' efficacy beliefs varied across these different scenarios. This meant that teachers possessed their own distribution of personal teaching efficacy. This section presents factors which affected both positive and negative personal teaching efficacy states of the teachers.

- **Positive personal teaching efficacy**

The teachers interviewed in this study claimed that three factors affected their personal teaching efficacy. These were, their ability to teach, their level of experience, and the students themselves.

Ability to teach (9 teachers)

When asked about whether they felt satisfied with their ability to teach, most of the teachers claimed to be satisfied and perceived themselves to be effective teachers. Many of them also added that they believed that there was always room for improvement as is the case with the following:

I feel confident. Yes I know there is always room for improvement, I am just confident, I can walk in and have a good communicative activity in English. (no.8)

Level of experience (1 teacher)

For one teacher the fact that she had already been teaching for quite a number of years made her feel efficacious.

Yes I have been teaching for 13 years, I know things by heart. (no.9)

Students (8 teachers)

Students were reported to have a positive effect on the personal teaching efficacy of the teachers in this study. This corresponded with previous findings in the section concerned with intrinsic motivation. The teachers reported high levels of personal teaching efficacy when they felt that they had managed to sustain the interest of their students, motivate them, help them to believe in themselves and to achieve in English. Here are examples of each:

- Student interest

Yes, I am (satisfied with my teaching abilities), because every time I have an idea which I think will work with the students I do my best and make sure I try out with them, and then I see from their response if it worked out or not. (no.6)

- Student motivation

To an extent yes I don't, I mean I am very wary of saying look these kids are unmotivated so whatever I do...I do not believe that, because I think it really is what we do in class which is going to make the difference. I mean if you give them a task which interests them or which they find...if it's like a game, it's fun to do, it's competitive...I work on their competitive nature obviously I am going to reach maybe a good number of the students but there will be those students who are not competitive so I will not reach them during that lesson ...Yes, I will take a personal approach, for example, if I see unmotivated students who are very good at drawing, I will pick on that. I'll pick on their strong points. If they see that you are interested in them and in what they know how to do they at least they try, or at least they will not be that disruptive or as sullen. (no. 1)

Students believing in themselves

I believe that my attitude should instil in them a belief in themselves. (no.4)

- Student achievement

...the fact that students then do well in the subject you're teaching

motivates you to work even harder at your teaching job. (no.3)

Since I teach the higher forms, part of my job is to prepare these students to take them up to 'O' levels. Now my greatest satisfaction over the years has been seeing students faltering let's say at senior 4, coming back to me, overjoyed that they made the grade and got their 'O' level, that is the highest level of motivation when I meet them in Summer and they come to me and say miss I got my English...that really makes it worthwhile. (no.8)

Our lessons are carried out completely in English and as weeks go by they actually start, faltering at first...to my satisfaction there were these students from Valletta, at the end of the two years they speak English fluently. (no.8)

In some cases, the personal teaching efficacy of the teachers in this study changed from one teaching situation to another. Some teachers claimed that they experienced both high and low efficacy fluctuations within a single day depending on the students they taught. When their students were motivated the teachers' personal teaching efficacy beliefs increased, but when these students were demotivated or reluctant to learn the teachers' personal teaching efficacy beliefs decreased. An example that illustrates the effect the two contrasting groups of students had on one of our teacher's personal teaching efficacy ensues:

High personal teaching efficacy

...the fact that students then do well in the subject you're teaching motivates you to work even harder at your teaching job. (no.12)

Low personal teaching efficacy

But it is limited, I can take a horse to wateras they say, but when I've tried any means and student X has got behavioural problems...I just give up. (no.12)

Some teachers, however, perceived problematic students as a challenge which heightened their level of personal teaching efficacy. The following are two examples:

I get great pleasure, I am so pleased, even when they get problems I know that they want to learn so I say I can do my job, I am not afraid of problems.(no.11)

Yes I take them in my stride and try to overcome it. (no.2)

▪ **Negative personal teaching efficacy**

The teachers referred to two factors that negatively affected their personal teaching efficacy: students (8 teachers) and ability to teach (10 teachers).

Students (8)

As stated above, students can have a negative effect on teachers and threaten their sense of competence. My dataset revealed that students' lack of motivation and behavioural problems were perceived by the teachers to be the main causes of a low level of personal teaching efficacy. Demotivated students made some teachers experience a lack of confidence in their abilities. One teacher felt weak and frustrated that she could not reach out to such students

You feel helpless, very sad and sort of angry at the same time because you want to pass on something to them but they are just a block, nothing goes inside them. (no.10)

The teachers blamed their students for their lack of motivation and attributed the poor performance of students to either their unwillingness to work or to their outright lack of ability. A characteristic of teachers with low personal teaching efficacy was attributing classroom problems not to their own failings but to the shortcomings of their students. Some teachers had given up completely on such students as is the case with one teacher who stated:

I try to find ways of how to capture their interest but if they don't want to be at school, they want to go and work, for instance, I can't do anything, I just let them be then. (no.6)

The situation becomes worse when student demotivation is accompanied by a classroom management problem which is most often the case. Farber (1991) reported that teachers feel that discipline problems restrict their teaching effectiveness, at least to some extent. Some of the teachers in this study experienced frustration brought about by disrespectful students which seems to have affected their teaching effectiveness, as illustrated in the following example:

Arrogant students who answer back and sometimes when you find yourself helpless, there is a student you wish to help either maybe because he hasn't got the ability to improve or advance or a student who is simply reluctant, he doesn't want to learn, he builds a barrier, no matter how many ways you try to break that barrier you do not manage. That can be extremely frustrating and demotivating in my opinion. (no.11)

Ability to teach (10 teachers)

Despite generally feeling competent in their teaching all the teachers in this group admitted to requiring some sort of professional support in one or two areas of their professional practice. Three teachers felt that they were not trained at all in certain aspects. One teacher felt that she needed some training in English pronunciation as she could observe the difference when she compared her own English to that of the native speakers on the tapes that she played in class. Another teacher felt she required support with helping her students with their basic English needs:

On the whole again yes a bit sometimes I wish I had some training to teach some basic English because I am trained to teach at secondary level and some of our kids are still stuck in primary. Basically when it comes to English they really need to be taught the basic skills and sometimes I feel incompetent at that because I tend to go to the higher level. (no.1)

One teacher said that he was never trained to deal with special needs students and he felt that the school was not equipped to help him in this matter:

Yes and no and I will say why. We were not trained to deal with very problematic students, we were not trained to deal with students with very special needs. We received no particular training for that sort even if I used to be a trade school teacher, I have a slightly wider experience as far as certain areas as ESP come in but still, I was not trained, I was not given the means to deal with students with serious behavioural disorders or with special needs. I would like to include students with special needs in my class as far as I can but there is another issue, you do not have the resources and that really worries me

actually because I would really like these kids to get the best they can get. (no.12)

General teacher efficacy

General teaching efficacy was defined previously (Chapter 3) as teachers' beliefs that they are able to bring about student learning even when faced with the most difficult circumstances. It refers to the belief that quality teaching is possible and effective in a particular educational sector. Within my dataset general teaching efficacy, similar to personal teaching efficacy, was also situation-dependent because it was affected by the specific environment the teachers worked in. As in the previous section, the analysis identified both positive and negative general teaching efficacy experiences.

- **Positive general teaching efficacy**

The positive comments made by teachers with regards to their general teaching efficacy, was directly related to the students whom they taught. Each teacher referred to managing to overcome problems emanating from students' misbehaviour, lack of student interest and low student achievement. For example, a teacher said that it is the responsibility of the teacher to find ways of helping low ability students.

...but I still think the teacher plays a very important role, even with low ability students, if you manage to reach them and show them that you care you end up motivating them in some way or another. (no.12)

- **Negative general teaching efficacy**

Students also seemed to have a negative effect upon the teachers' general teaching efficacy. Only in one case was the physical environment deemed to be a negative factor.

Students (5 teachers)

Low ability students seemed to be the main contributors to their teacher's low general teaching efficacy. Some teachers were quite distraught and had lost hope when it came to certain students, as in the following two examples:

...you have students that you have to stretch beyond their capabilities. I mean whatever everybody says, even high up, even at university this is being said that everybody can reach a standard, I don't really believe that this is true. There are some students because of various reasons, and these are a few, I am not saying a majority, but they can't really make the grade academically like everybody else. (no.7)

Nothing..Bil-malti x'tghid?...Iggib l-ilma jizfen? (In Maltese, what do you say?...You make water dance?). (no.10)

The social background of the students also seemed to lower teachers' general efficacy as teachers found it difficult to deal with the lack of interest of these students. One such teacher felt very strongly about this:

I hate teaching them I really really hate teaching them, because nothing you do seems to interest them. I mean whatever they say, things that we

were told at university, like if students are not interested it is your fault because you did not prepare an interesting lesson, this is not true, this is a lie. I have seen this after 15 years of teaching, whatever you do including media, technology in your lesson, if the student is demotivated because of the serious reasons that there are today, students who drink, who have sex, who dabble with drugs, you find it in every class..are not going to be interested in the lesson. (no.7)

Certain student misbehaviour in class overwhelmed and demoralised some teachers. One of the teachers was dispirited by such behaviour but somehow managed to hang on for the sake of the other students in the class.

Kids bring their problems in class, they can't switch off their family problems that is very disrupting. It is not easy when you have to stay policing certain kids and I feel that encroaches on my work as a teacher. I am not a policeman. Some kids unfortunately have behavioural problems, serious behavioural problems and that is a problem so basically day in day out it saps the energy out of you and it is quite de-motivating actually sometimes I ask myself some really hard questions like why do I still keep on teaching when I see what is happening to certain classes but I say you know I can't stop teaching children because one kid does not want to know anything. (no.12)

One teacher felt that her students were not interested in the subject. When confronted with students with different abilities in one class she could not deal with the situation:

No matter what you do in class, no matter what resources you use in class, interest is zero because they do not see it as an important subject so that is another minus point and the fact is...and another thing which really disturbs me is the fact that you have mixed ability students

ranging from somebody who is really, really good so you can even pose really challenging questions but at the same time you have students who barely understand you talking in the same class. So what are you going to do, are you going to aim the lesson for the higher ability student, for the slow student or you going to put in the middle and just let the higher ability students do something on their own? So we do not have streaming either here. So it was what you have and you have to live with it. (no.6)

Physical environment (1 teacher)

The physical state of the classroom affected one of the teachers in such a way that she felt that there was nothing she could do to motivate her students:

It is very demotivating to go into a class which is falling apart and you have the students who get demotivated because of their surroundings. Some people tell you because you do not make the lessons interesting...we try and use for instance, we include DVDs, videos, they do their own presentations and they do their own power point presentation but at the end of the day you still have to go back to class...too shabby looking...' (no.6)

Section summary

The majority of the teachers find their job to be challenging especially that of motivating students to learn. Some of these teachers find helping weak and dealing with unmanageable students to be the biggest challenge. Both personal and general teaching efficacy are seen to have an impact on the motivation of the teachers in this survey. Both are situation-dependent as factors which emanate from the specific environment the teachers work in. Three factors affect the personal

efficacy of these teachers positively, namely the ability to teach, the teachers' level of experience and the students themselves. Ability to teach and students affect also the teachers' personal efficacy negatively. Students' misbehaviour, lack of interest and low achievement affect the teachers' general teaching efficacy both positively and negatively.

7.1.5 The negative side of teacher affect: Teacher demotivation

Teachers were asked about what demotivates them on their job. The replies were various, most teachers, however, replied that the main source of demotivation was their students' misbehaviour. A few complained also about their workload and other job conditions.

Students' misbehaviour (7 teachers)

Quite a few teachers were discouraged by students who were disruptive in class and lacked discipline and respect. Behavioural problems seemed to demotivate of some of these teachers as is the case with this teacher:

Some kids unfortunately have behavioural problem, serious behavioural problems and that is a problem so basically day in day out saps the energy out of you and it is quite de-motivating actually sometimes I ask myself some really hard questions like why do I still keep on teaching when I see what is happening to certain classes but I say you know I can't stop teaching children because one kid does not want to know anything. (no.12)

Some of these teachers were also demotivated by unmotivated and disinterested students (3 out of 7):

....and sometimes you find yourself helpless, there are students you wish to help either maybe because he hasn't the ability to improve or advance or a student who is simply reluctant, he doesn't want to learn, he builds up a barrier, no matter how many ways you try to break that barrier you do not manage. That can be extremely frustrating and demotivating in my opinion.' (no.12)

One teacher pointed out that her students were not interested in English literature and this demotivated her.

Workload (5 teachers)

Their excessive workload demotivated some of the teachers in this study especially when this consisted mainly of paperwork created by bureaucratic procedures (2 teachers out of 5). Two teachers were disheartened when their lessons were disrupted due to unforeseen circumstances.

All the paper work and red tape (no.5)

In my job basically as I said when you prepare something and it doesn't work out the way you wanted it to, you would have put a lot of work into it and then it falls flat. (no.1)

Others

Other demotivating factors that the teachers referred to were overcrowded staffrooms, students who were late for lessons and who submitted their assignments late, clashes with colleagues, lack of support from the school administration, uncooperative parents, lack of teaching resources and mixed ability classes. Some of these will be discussed in more detail at a later stage in this chapter in a section specifically dedicated to the themes of school environment, teaching colleagues and school administration.

Teacher stress

It has already been established that teaching is one of the most stressful jobs (see Chapter 3). Five of the teachers in this study, however, did not consider this to be the case. This corresponds with what Bezzina and Portelli (2006) found in their study amongst Maltese teachers; on the whole they were not ‘alarmingly stressed out.’ One teacher in this study recognises that although his job is tiring, it is not stressful. Another teacher emphasises the fact that he is not stressed by saying:

No I do not feel stressed. I feel that the workload is fair, I get my 23/24 lessons sometimes I go up to 26 with the extra lesson but that's ok, part and parcel of the job. (no.12)

Sources of stress vary for the teachers in this study. These were the students themselves, lesson preparation, a full workload of lessons, correction of students' work, large classes, long working hours, administration, examination pressure,

coverage of the syllabus, and personal and family commitments. These sources of stress are presented hereunder, some of them grouped, and examples of each are provided.

Students (9 teachers)

The students were the main source of strain and anxiety for this group of teachers. This was to be expected as disruptive and/or demotivated students are those who cause teachers the most stress, a finding also established by Kyriacou (2001). The fact that classes are large does not help. One teacher commented as follows:

The full load and full classes and you have 25 strapping young men in class and you are there and you are like a conductor, you have to motivate them every time you get into class and if you have 2 or 3 who are unmotivated you have had it, they can disrupt the class so...and I try to keep discipline and that can take a lot out of you, you get very stressed (no.8)

Teachers feel stressed by the fact that they have to be available constantly for their students. This drains some teachers as they feel that they cannot have a break. The following extract demonstrates this:

You have to be all there, to keep that human contact but if the students come looking for you what are you going to say? I can't make it? I am not available? I am busy? ...You can't do that so from 8.15 till 2.30, we are constantly on the move. (no.6)

Workload (6 teachers)

A teacher's workload includes lesson preparation (4 teachers), correction of students' work (4 teachers), a full load of lessons (3 teachers), examination pressure and coverage the syllabus (3 teachers). One of the interviewees referred to most of these:

First of all as regards to English, the work we have to correct, compositions, one every two weeks, if you have five classes that is about 100 essays every two weeks which is quite a lot. And the fact that you have to come early to work and the load of work you have to prepare, that is stressful too. Alright we finish at 2 which is quite early but when you go home you have to prepare your work, lessons, again correction. In fact I spend about one and half hours every day to prepare things and ...ok you tell me but you have things already prepared. Yes of course but correction, you have to give them the project for the next day, they have to be ready and I mean the work should be ready by two but here we do not have time to prepare our job so we have to do it at home and that is quite a lot of stress (no.10)

Administration (3 teachers)

Teachers found their work pressure and clashes with some members of the school administration to be sources of tension. One teacher considered the fact that some members of the administration do not support the teachers to be very daunting.

But a person who is influential does not support teachers, he prefers to support students first. For instance we had a serious case where various teachers were involved, they could have been physically

seriously hurt and the answer which I got when I went to report was what that the student did not mean it in that way and it is not true because we knew that they had done it on purpose. (no.6)

Family (2 teachers)

Two teachers claimed that they found it stressful that they had to cope with their own children at home before going to school.

Being on time in the morning sometime I find stressful because I have my own child and I have to get him to school first and I have to organise everyone out before I get myself out of the house and then there is traffic, you know things like that. (no.1)

Section summary

Students' misbehaviour is the main source of teacher demotivation. Some teachers also complain about the workload and other job conditions such as overcrowded staffrooms, work handed in late by students and lack of support from the school administration.

The main stress factors are disruptive and demotivated students, workload, lack of support from administration and the teachers own family needs. However, some teachers in this study do not consider teaching to be a stressful job.

7.1.6 Feedback

Provision of feedback is seen to be essential by most of the teachers in this study (11). Three teachers claimed that they did not receive any form of feedback. Other teachers received feedback from the Education Officers of the Ministry of Education (3 teachers), subject coordinators (2 teachers), heads of departments (4 teachers), school colleagues (1 teacher) and parents (1 teacher). Four teachers said that they received feedback from their students:

Throughout the year you get feedback from the students, you see them motivated, they say oh English today good, please miss...students themselves tell you point blank, we have enjoyed your lesson their reaction is feedback and then you get the occasional student who gives you a card saying thank you for all you've done for me. (no.8)

The teachers considered student feedback to be the best kind of feedback they could receive.

The interviewed teachers found feedback to be valuable as it provides them with an opportunity to reflect upon their teaching and to consider ways of improving their professional practice. One teacher preferred being told directly what was wrong with her teaching. Others felt appreciated if they were given positive feedback. One teacher seemed to welcome any kind of feedback:

Well I have never seen like negative feedback, to be honest, I am always happy to get some feedback because to be honest with you I do not get much of that so if anyone comes back with any kind of feedback I'd say at least somebody is noticing what I am doing. (no.12)

Two teachers considered only positive feedback to be of benefit. In their opinion negative feedback could be demotivating:

Well usually they just concentrate on the bad points so it is not really...it does not give you the motivation or it is demoralising. No praise. My feedback, I get it from the students, that is why I try and keep contact with them, because what they don't like I end up not liking either. If I don't like something I do not do it. (no.6)

Section summary

Almost all teachers deem professional feedback to be crucial. They think that the best sort of feedback comes from their students. Feedback is conducive to making teachers reflect on and improve their practice.

7.2 Micro-contextual factors

Micro-contextual factors are influences from within the actual school context. These refer to the school environment, both the human (students, colleagues and administration) and the physical aspects.

7.2.1 The school environment

It is important that teachers find the school environment to be a nurturing one (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006). In this study the teachers were asked about their school

environment. In the following section I will investigate how teachers feel they are treated at school by students, colleagues and the administration.

- **The school environment: students, colleagues and the Administration**

Students (12 teachers)

All the teachers in this study felt that on the whole they were respected by their students. They were, however, able to refer to instances when they were shown disrespect by their students. One teacher blamed this on the general decline in respect for authority. Another said that although some students were difficult they were not always malicious.

Respect from their students was attributed by some of the teachers to their own flexibility and understanding towards their students:

The relationship with the students here is very open, democratic. Even the kind of discipline that I use I wouldn't call it discipline, I'd call it mutual respect. It generally works unless you get a very low stream which are intent on disrupting the lesson at all costs. (no.4)

Only one teacher felt that her students completely disrespected her.

The students try to make fun of you, they just don't want to know so you're like...how can I say, they see us as an obstacle, they want to have fun in school so the fact that you are trying to teach them , instead of appreciating it they just show you they do not care. (no.11)

Colleagues (12 teachers)

Maintenance of good relations with colleagues affected the satisfaction, commitment and morale of teachers. All the teachers in the study felt respected and treated well by their colleagues, some to the extent that they considered their colleagues as the main reason for remaining in their present school. Some of them referred to occasional disagreements they had with colleagues which they deemed to be normal. The majority of the teachers (10) felt that their positive relationship with their colleagues was a motivating factor which made them feel good about their job:

We are humans and there are times when some of us are not feeling well or something, we help each other out a lot and that is extremely, I mean, I find it sort of very helpful, it is something that makes me look forward to coming meeting my friends. (no.6)

Administration

The school leadership and administration had a significant influence on the morale, job satisfaction and motivation of both school teachers' and academics (Evans, 2001). Seven teachers in this study claimed that they felt respected by their school administration. Six of these teachers considered their school administration and head to be supportive:

...then the head of the school because she is very supportive and she is always on the look out to motivate us to try out new things with the

students so you know you feel that whatever you propose usually you know she is going to back you up.(no.1)

The rest of the teachers had a negative experience with their school administration. Two of these teachers felt that although that there was good communication between them and the school administration, they did not feel valued, as in the following case.

Well...administration-wise in the sense that they are not breathing down your neck in a way that makes you feel that you are not professional or incapable of doing your job...in that case... I mean I would appreciate it more if we were appreciated more. It makes you work harder if you feel appreciated, we do not get that at all. (no.7)

Only one teacher considered the school administration to be a demotivating force.

▪ **The school environment: the physical surroundings**

Almost half of the teachers (7 teachers) made positive comments about the physical environment of their school. The rest thought that their school environment was a demoralising factor. Some of the positive comments made about the physical environment of the school were that the school environment was airy, welcoming and bright. One teacher claimed that he was proud of the school. Negative comments were made about the dirty and drab school environment. Two teachers pointed out that this was a demotivating factor for both them and their students:

It is very de-motivating to go into a class which is falling apart and you have the students who are very demotivated because they are not interested, some people tell ah because you do not make the lessons interesting...we try and use for instance, we include DVDs, videos, they do their own presentations and they do their own power point presentation but at the end of the day you still have to go back to class...too shabby looking... (no.6)

Section summary

The teachers in this study feel that on the whole they are respected by their students and colleagues. However, only some of the teachers feel they are respected and supported by the school administration. Some of the teachers feel demoralized by the poor state of their school physical environment.

The majority of the teachers are happy they have chosen teaching as their career and intend to remain in this profession.

7.3 Macro-contextial factors and other factors

Macro-contextual factors are influences from outside the immediate school environment but affect teacher nonetheless. These include career structure, salary scales and societal views of teachers of English.

7.3.1 Career structure

Teachers in this study were asked about how they perceived their career prospects and related opportunities for promotion.

All teachers in this study felt that there were no opportunities for furthering their career as long as they stayed on as classroom teachers. They could only aspire to be promoted if they were willing to move out of the classroom. The majority (9 teachers) did not feel demotivated by this fact as they claimed they wanted to stay on in the classroom anyway although they were aware that classroom teaching did not present them with opportunities for promotion. Three teachers found this to be demotivating especially as this meant that they could not receive any salary increases:

Yes especially when there is no increase of pay which would be an indirect way of saying hey you are doing well...so there is nothing.
(no.6)

7.3.2 Salary

The link between salary scales and levels of job satisfaction and motivation is well-established (Baker, 1998; Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Pennington, 1991; Pennington, 1992; Pennington & Ho, 1995). Only two of the teachers in the study were satisfied with their salary, especially in view of other favourable job conditions:

Yes we can't complain because let's face it we do have a generous amount of holidays, the working hours aren't that long. I personally do not feel I should complain. (no.1)

The rest of the teachers (11 teachers) were not satisfied with the remuneration they received. Six teachers felt that it did not reflect the amount of

responsibility that the job entailed. One teacher said that had it not been for the holidays, the salary would be extremely inadequate. Six teachers contended that their dissatisfaction with their salary did not affect their motivation to teach:

No, I think that teaching is a vocation, obviously everybody would like to get paid more but as such it does not affect my teaching. (no.11)

On the other hand five teachers felt that their salary had a negative impact upon their motivation to teach. Some said that the low salary gave them a low status in society which could only be increased if they received a higher salary. One teacher felt that the salary should compensate for ‘on-the-job stress’. Another teacher recognised that there should be salary benefits related to improved teacher performance:

Yes because maybe if we sort of...you will be paid more if you worked, sort of eh. I don't know like students will have better results...of course in that case you will be motivated to work. If there is a scheme or something, if your students do better or...you know...you do more work and the administration is aware of that and you are paid more, I would like that, it would be motivating in that sense. (no.11)

7.3.3 Societal views of teachers of English

The level of job satisfaction of teachers is related closely to how they perceive they are viewed by society (Bezzina & Portelli, 2006; Dinham & Scott, 1997; Fraser et al., 1998; Pennington, 1992; Pennington & Ho, 1995). When the teachers in this study were asked about their social standing in Maltese society they classified themselves as being ‘middle class’. However, when asked if this influenced their

motivation to teach, many of them (9 teachers) responded that this did not have any effect.

In general most of the English teachers in this study felt they were not perceived positively by the Maltese public. They felt that generally people consider teaching to be a comfortable job with short hours and many holidays (7 teachers). They believed that some people were even envious of their work conditions (3 teachers). This seemed to irritate these teachers as they reiterated that people do not seem to understand how stressful their jobs were and suggested that some people experienced sufficient difficulty in disciplining their own children and thus they were not in a position to judge teachers who worked with a whole class of students (4):

They have a very negative impression because of 3 months that we have holidays and because we do not do anything during the day, that is what they say. But, the fact is that most of the time when they do say something like that it is because they can't handle their own child let alone 25. But it is very negative in general. (no.6)

Four teachers said that, in the main, teachers were respected and one even went on to say that they were perceived as role models and so they had to act in a 'morally' appropriate manner when in public.

7.3.4 Leaving/Remaining in the teaching profession

Teachers were asked about whether they were happy with their decision to become teachers and whether they ever felt like leaving the profession. The data revealed that all teachers, except two, were glad to have chosen teaching English as a career.

Both teachers who were unhappy were disappointed with their salary. One of them felt that English teachers should be paid more than other teachers because of the increased work and pressure:

No, I mean at this stage now I am beginning to see that ...not because I do not like the subject because I really love English but now I realise that English as a subject entails a lot of work and pressure which other subjects do not have and still we have the same pay...we do not get anything extra. (no.7)

Most teachers (10) went on to say that they want to remain in the profession. One teacher felt like leaving when in a particular year students were especially disruptive and rude. Two teachers said that, given the opportunity, they would consider leaving. The reasons they gave were problems with students and the lack of respect from the authorities and from society at large:

Most of all this disrespect from society in general, even from people who are high up and they should know better. (no.7)

Section summary

The majority of the teachers do not feel that their motivation is affected by the lack of opportunities for promotion. Their salary, however, is a source of dissatisfaction for half of the teachers interviewed. Most teachers are not affected by how society views them. Most feel that, on the whole, Maltese people think they have a cushy job with long holidays.

7.4 The relationship between teacher and student motivation

In this section I investigate whether there is a link between teachers' motivation to teach and their students' motivation to learn. I first examine teachers' perceptions of their influence upon their students' attitudes and motivation, including a list of practical strategies that the teachers used in order to enhance their students' motivation. Secondly, I present findings which illustrate how the teachers feel their behaviour and motivation in class is influenced by their students.

7.4.1 Teacher perceptions of student motivation and its causes

The teachers in this study were asked about whether they felt their students were motivated or not and their feelings for these pupils according to their level of motivation. It resulted from this study that teachers felt that their own motivation was affected by both.

- **Reasons for students being motivated**

When asked about their students' motivation to learn, three teachers responded that usually their students were motivated to learn. Although as one teacher from a Junior Lyceum pointed out, students in this type of school are usually more motivated to learn, out of the six Junior Lyceum teachers only two thought that their students were generally motivated.

Four reasons were given by the teachers for their students' motivation: English as a subject, career-minded students, family background and innate motivation.

English as a subject (1 teacher)

One teacher believed that students were motivated in her class because they perceived the subject of English to be trendy and important:

I think they are. I mean it is a Junior Lyceum after all. English is a subject where they are (motivated) and again I teach the higher forms. They do see the importance of it and also I have noticed throughout the years I have been teaching that English has gone from something which has been imposed to something cool, something 'in', if you see what I mean. They are texting in English. When I started teaching, television was in Italian so now it's the MTV, it's chatting, it's mobile, internet...it's cool. (no.5)

Career-minded students (5 teachers)

A few teachers thought that motivated students are those who have high aspirations for their future. These are those students who want to make headway in their lives and to improve their status:

I think motivated students, in my opinion, have a purpose. I normally ask students who are really motivated...you know Mr. X what would you like to do in life? Ah yes sir I'd like to go here or there... so I got the picture...motivated learners have a purpose. (no.12)

Family background (5 teachers)

Some teachers attributed their students' motivation to their family background. They felt that students who are supported and encouraged at home are those who showed the most interest in class.

*Something I have noticed is that when you have motivated students very often you can trace or track it back to home, that they are encouraged, they are pushed. You get both cases, don't get me wrong...it could be that students who are followed are not motivated or students who are not followed are motivated too, but the general trend is that if they are followed at home they tend to have a better attitude toward learning.
(no.11)*

Innate motivation

One teacher thought that it was something within the students themselves that made them eager to learn, giving the impression that it could be an innate quality.

They have this something in them, it is intrinsic I think, they seem to be like...if you don't do enough work they do point it out actually, sometimes if you do not get your compositions on time they draw your attention and they embarrass you basically. (no.4)

▪ **Reasons for students being demotivated**

Ten teachers declared that not all of their students were motivated. The reasons given by teachers for their students being demotivated fell into four categories:

Feelings of being a failure, family background, peer pressure and amount of school work.

Feelings of being a failure

Four teachers believed that some students were demotivated because they perceived themselves to have limited academic abilities. Such students felt they could never succeed in school. This was attributed, in the main, to the system of streaming adopted in Maltese schools where poor students are placed in a low ability stream in the early years of primary schooling. Most of these students remain in this stream when they transfer to their local secondary school and they find it difficult to move to a higher ability stream:

I think it is the result of streaming from the very start...that they came in an area secondary, they already know that they are not good enough and they lose heart and then they rebel they say we are not good for here so... (no.9)

Family background (7 teachers)

The majority of the teachers thought that the family background of the students was a cause for student de-motivation. Students were affected adversely by parents who did not deem schooling and education to be important:

Others have parents who regard school as something...you just have to go there and that's it. You just stay there and wasting time, etc. I think it depends on family. (no.10)

Peer pressure (3 teachers)

Three teachers attributed their students' demotivation to the negative influences of their peers. Students who did not wish to learn or were 'nonchalant' in class might compel other students to do likewise. The students of one class were perceived to be especially afflicted by this:

Problems at home and their friends, peer group, many of them have friends out of school, friends who are older than them

I: How does this affect them?

They drink, smoke, have sex, some might even dabble in drugs

I: So this does not motivate them to learn?

No because if they are living a life which is beyond their age which for them is very exciting, they find lessons then something not interesting, whatever you do you're never going to reach that excitement which they are experiencing away from the classroom (no.7)

Amount of school work (1 teacher)

One teacher attributed her students' lack of motivation to the amount of material they had to cover in class; students were overloaded and consequently became unwilling to learn.

My students are overloaded, they have a lot to cover at senior 4. I am personally against that they do 13, 14 'O' levels...I would, if I were in any sort of authority, I would make them take up basic subjects, ok they would have a ground in everything because it is the whole person we have to educate but I think that the way they have to study so much puts such a load...

I: So this demotivates them?

I feel that they would like to do more but they feel so stressed out.

(no.8)

7.4.2 Teachers' influence on student attitudes and motivation

In this section the teachers were asked about whether they believed they had any influence on the attitudes and motivation of their students. All the teachers believed that it was within their power to change their students' attitudes except for one teacher:

When I started teaching I thought it was and I tried very hard, at this point in time I do not think I have any influence at all. (no.11)

The teachers were also asked about their classroom strategies for changing the attitudes of their students to increase their motivation. A number of practical strategies and tasks were referred to. These are presented here in 6 categories: matching of class material to the students' needs, autonomous learning, using teaching methods which appeal to students, group work, student involvement and positive feedback.

Practical strategies used in class to enhance students' motivation to learn

The teachers believed that their actions in class were the crucial factor in determining their students' motivation. Two teachers claimed that it was important to transmit their enthusiasm for the subject to their students. Another two teachers believed that if they came to their class with a positive attitude and shared their motivation to teach, this would have a positive impact on their students:

But I still think the teacher plays an important role, even with low ability students. If you manage to reach them and show them that you care you end up motivating them in some way or another. (no.3)

Most teachers felt that the content of their lessons should be adequate, motivating and interesting. They gave examples of various effective strategies that they used in the class. The strategies referred to were the following:

a. Matching of class material to the students' needs (7 teachers)

The teachers believed that the materials they presented to the students should meet their needs. It was important that teachers knew their students well and what is of interest to them. This could only be achieved if teachers had good relations with their students:

I try to connect anything which we are doing to their own lives because I feel that if they learn something in one context and they can apply it to another context then they have really learnt it. (no.1)

First, most important, is to establish a healthy relationship because if you do not win them over, I mean, that is it. (no.8)

b. Autonomous learning (5 teachers)

It is important to promote students as independent learners. Students should be encouraged not to rely solely on the teacher but to discover knowledge for themselves:

I like to think that I allow students to be themselves first of all and I try to give them the opportunity to find their own way which isn't always possible because we ourselves sometimes are restricted but I think that it is very important and it gives the students a sense of worth, that is very imp. Always try to be positive than negative. (no.5)

c. Using teaching methods which appeal to the students (6 teachers)

Some of the teachers in this study strove to use teaching methods which appealed to their students and to prepare suitable and varied lessons. They believed that the main aim of their lesson and its content was to motivate the learners:

I see what interests them, what are their abilities. I try different methods of teaching. I see which ones they prefer, which ones bother them, so we get to know each other better like that. Then I try to stick to the method and to the things that are of interest to them. I always try to vary the lessons eg. I never stick to one kind of activity in a lesson but I try to switch from one to another. (no.7)

I try to get my students to do hands on stuff, for eg. If I am doing a comprehension about whatever, seafaring or boat doing or diving, I get stuff at school and the kids get to see what for eg. Scuba diving apparatus is, it's what 50/60 kilos of stuff? But they love it. The lesson takes life. (no.12)

d. Group work (3 teachers)

Some of the teachers sought to encourage their students to engage in collaborative work in groups:

Yes, what I find helpful is when I group them up. I always do the groups myself because I put students in a group who are responsible and others who are not or have problems and I find that they learn a lot from each other rather than an adult, then I hand out duties or things they have to do not within the lesson but over time, say a whole week and then each one of them because then the responsible have to push, they say listen you have to do this for tomorrow because...and normally within a group they do their work because they do not want to let their friends down. (no.7)

e. Student involvement (2 teachers)

Student involvement and participation in class were seen as a means of increasing levels of motivation in class:

I try to keep them active as much as possible, my lessons are not exactly silent. They are quite noisy in a positive way and I like it that way because they are active. I involve them in a lot of activities like research eg: to do a presentation, they have to look up something, come back to class and show them how they can learn from each other...this kind of motivation. (no.8)

f. Positive feedback (1 teacher)

One teacher provided positive feedback as a means of increasing student motivation:

I give them feedback because I find that when a student is doing well his eyes light up. I give them a lot of positive feedback, if I see that

someone has tried I make sure that he gets my message that I have noticed and it is good. (no.8)

7.4.3 Student influence on teacher motivation and behaviour

The following section considers how students affect teacher motivation and behaviour.

Motivated students (12 teachers)

The feelings and reactions brought about in teachers by motivated students were mostly positive. All teachers declared that these students made them feel very happy, motivated, competent and satisfied in their job. They felt well disposed to support such students in class. The following comments by some of the teachers illustrate this:

They make my day, they make my year. (no.5)

I really enjoy teaching them, the lessons fly, even if they ask for more. I really do not mind working extra and correcting over and above. (no. 7)

Positive, like happiness, sense of worth. You feel you are competent, you are helping them, seeing their happiness so it reflects in you, they are all positive, you feel good. (no.8)

You love being with them. It is fun at the same time, they ask you questions, ehm, you will develop a better relationship with them and you do your best to help them because you want them to go far as regards the future. (no. 10)

There are feelings of satisfaction when you see that they are paying attention, they are understanding you, that they are doing their best and you want to help them to become better. (no.11)

One teacher, however, was also wary of such students:

Sometimes the feeling you get with motivated students is that they tend to use you and dump you, that's it. (no.4)

Demotivated students (4 teachers)

Demotivated students provoked varied reactions in teachers. Some teachers expressed themselves to be stimulated by such students as they presented them with a challenge. Their self-efficacy was increased by these students:

I do try to understand why they are demotivated and I do try to make them feel more enthusiastic about their learning in general

I: So you are not frustrated, they are a challenge then?

Yes I take them in my stride and I try to overcome it. (no.2)

One teacher had a better relationship with demotivated students:

The relationship with them is almost like personal, the relationship with them tends to be a bit better because they are more open with you, if they don't like what you are doing they tell you straight away or...even on a personal level it is easier to communicate with the lower streams. (no.4)

Other teachers felt discouraged by de-motivated students. Some teachers (6 teachers) did not enjoy working with such students as they brought about feelings of helplessness in them and at times they wanted to give up on them. The teachers felt de-motivated and their self-efficacy was decreased:

If there are students and you try and try to reach them and you never reach them then you end up being demotivated towards those students. (no.3)

I try to find ways to capture their interest but if they don't want to be at school, they want to go to work for instance you can't do anything, you just have to let them be (no.6)

...the others, they are de-motivated even if...like last year I would prepare to keep them quiet for a whole lesson, do interesting things but then if they don't work anyway I just give up. (no.9)

You feel helpless, very sad and sort of angry at the same time because you want to pass on something to them but they are just a block, nothing goes inside them. (no.10)

Demotivated students provoked also feelings of frustration, anger and disappointment in some of the teachers (6 teachers):

Obviously I get angry and shout a lot...eh they make me angry because they have the opportunity to learn and they are wasting it. (no.11)

It is like going for a battle, hope that the 45mins go by quickly, do whatever you can to survive. (no.9)

Not frustration ...disappointment. (no.3)

I hate teaching them. I really, really hate teaching them because nothing you do seems to interest them. I mean whatever they say, things that we were told at university like if students are not interested it is your fault because you did not prepare an interesting lesson, this is not true. This is a lie. (no.7)

They make me feel sorry why? These kids are missing out and that really hits me because I am trying to do my job the best way I can and sometimes they do not let me and I am frustrated, very frustrated. I mean I am not the best teacher in the world but that's my 45 minutes, it's not even an hour, time flies so if I lose 5 minutes in disciplining this kid or the other, it's gone. (no.12)

Section summary

The teachers in this study revealed they are affected by their students' motivation or lack of it. Four reasons for student motivation resulted from the teachers' replies. These were English as a subject, career-minded students, the family background of the student and the student's innate motivation. Four reasons were attributed by teachers for students' feelings of demotivation namely feelings of being a failure, family background, peer pressure and amount of school work.

All teachers thought they were a source of influence on their students' attitudes and level of motivation. When asked about what classroom strategies and tasks they use to enhance their students' motivation, teachers identified six categories: matching of class material to students' needs, autonomous learning, using teaching methods which appeal to the students, group work, student involvement and positive feedback.

When considering students' influence on teacher motivation, all teachers believed that motivated students affected them mostly in a positive way. Demotivated students provoked various reactions in teachers as some teachers perceived them to be a professional challenge while others felt discouraged and frustrated by them.

7.5 General summary of findings

With regard to the main research question of this study about the relationship between teacher and student motivation, it emerged from the interviews that the teachers believe there is a close link between their own level of motivation and that of their students. In fact the teachers in this study believe that the main source of their motivation is the relationship they have with their students. They are motivated by their students' achievement and consider their main challenge to be that of motivating students to learn. They recognise they are affected by their students' motivation to learn and while they believe that motivated students affect them positively, they consider themselves to be adversely affected by students' lack of motivation and misbehaviour. These teachers believe also that they are in a position to influence their students' attitudes and level of motivation.

From the interviews it emerged also that the teachers felt that their general teaching efficacy is affected by student behaviour and achievement, while their personal teaching efficacy is affected by their ability to teach, their teaching experience and also by the students' behaviour.

Furthermore the teachers provided intrinsic reasons for entering the profession and continue to be intrinsically motivated on their job. For them it is important that

they are respected by their students and colleagues and find feedback to be essential for self-improvement. They appreciate that they are autonomous in the administration of the syllabus and consider themselves to be happy in the career they have chosen, despite the lack of opportunities for promotion. These teachers put high value on how society views them. It is their intention to remain in the teaching profession.

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter analysed the qualitative data from this study. The first section dealt with teacher motivation and the second, with the link between teacher and student motivation.

The first section presented an analysis of the key conceptual factors of teacher motivation: teacher satisfaction, teacher autonomy, teacher efficacy and the negative aspects of teacher motivation such as demotivation and stress. Micro- and macro-contextual factors which influenced teachers were also analysed in this section. The micro-contextual factors of the school environment, both the physical and human aspects, were considered. The macro-contextual factors were career structure of a teacher's job, the salary and societal views of teachers of English.

In the second section, which dealt with the link between teacher and student motivation, the comments of teachers on their perceived causes of student motivation and on how teachers affected the motivation of their students were analysed. The practical strategies employed by teachers to increase student motivation were identified. The comments on how students affect the teachers' motivation to teach were analysed too.

The main findings of the qualitative section reveal that students have a considerable effect on most aspects of teacher motivation such as intrinsic motivation, teacher efficacy and teacher demotivation. Conversely, the majority of the teachers believe firmly they can influence the attitudes and motivation of their students. They make use of particular strategies to achieve this by for example providing adequate class material, promoting autonomous learning, making use of attractive teaching methods, group work and student involvement and giving positive feedback. These strategies are coupled with the teachers' enthusiasm and positive attitude to teach. These, according to the teachers, are contagious and are transmitted easily to the students.

CHAPTER 8 CONCLUSION

This study has examined whether a relationship exists between the motivation of teachers to teach English and the motivation of their students to learn English. The nature of this relationship was then investigated and suggestions for the improvement of teacher motivation were made. A mixed methods approach to research was implemented as a means of exploring the relationship between teacher's motivational levels and those of their students. Questionnaires were administered to both in order to measure motivational levels. The results were analysed to establish whether any correlation existed. As a follow-up to this some of the teachers were interviewed about their motivation to teach English and what they thought of the motivation of their students. These qualitative results were then analysed and compared with the quantitative findings.

This chapter is introduced by referring back to the relevant research studies (Chapter 4) which focus upon the relationship between teacher and student motivation. The reasons for using a mixed methods approach are also outlined. A summary of the findings obtained from both the quantitative research and the interview data are then presented. The findings section, is divided into two; the main and the secondary findings. The main findings focus upon factors that directly influence teacher motivation, whilst the secondary findings consider factors that indirectly affect their motivational levels.

The section on findings is followed by a discussion of recommendations and practicalities which promote both teacher and student motivation. The recommendations offered are based both on the dataset and the literature review.

Following this a number of recommendations which emerged from the comments and responses made by the teachers in the qualitative part of the research are discussed. Those recommendations which had emerged from the quantitative study, and reported on already, were excluded. It was deemed important to present these recommendations as lessons could be learnt from what the main protagonists of this research study, the teachers themselves, considered to be important. Finally the recommendations are categorised according to whether they refer to teacher level, the school level, the teacher professional development level and the policy level.

Following the recommendations section, proposals for further research are discussed. This chapter is concluded by a personal reflection on the effects the process and outcomes of this research study have had on my own professional outlook and practice. A brief general conclusion ensues.

It is to be noted that this research study has established that there exists a correlation between the motivation of teachers of English and that of their students. This means that if teacher motivation is improved, then student motivation improves also, and vice-versa. Therefore the main emphasis here is upon how to improve teacher motivation. Notwithstanding this, student motivation is discussed also as it is clearly evident from the relevant literature and the current study that student motivation in turn has an impact upon teacher motivation.

8.1 The current study : A background

In the motivation literature it has been established that teacher motivation is crucial to student learning. There is, however, a dearth of studies which provide an empirical basis for this link, both in the fields of Educational Psychology and

English Language Teaching. In fact, there are essentially only three studies which have analysed the effectiveness of motivational strategies in language teachers in the classroom situation. One of these studies made use of classroom observation and the other two made use of teachers' self-report in order to establish a link between teacher motivational practices and student motivation (see Chapter 4). The first of these three studies, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) was based on the teachers' perceptions of, and beliefs about, motivational strategies in the language classroom in a Hungarian context. The study concluded that the strategy perceived to be the most effective in boosting student motivation was teacher modelling. This is when teacher's motivational attitude sets a good example to the students who tend to replicate it. The second study (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) replicated the first one (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) in a different context, that of Taiwan. From this study it transpired that the motivational strategies (such as displaying motivating teacher behaviour, promoting learners' self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom climate and presenting tasks properly) found to be the most important and effective for the Hungarian teachers were also important for the Taiwanese teachers. This would suggest that such strategies are universally effective across different cultures and contexts. The third study was different from the previous two in that it also used classroom observation for the first time in a study of this kind, besides using teachers' self-reports. Like the first two studies referred to here, this study analysed the link between the teachers' motivational teaching practice and student motivation to learn. Besides confirming that there is a positive correlation between teacher and student motivation, it proposed that motivational strategies were to form part of teacher education. It was also an important study as the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT), the instrument used to assess the

teachers' motivational practice and the level of the students' motivational behaviour, was created for the first time.

A mixed methods approach to research was deemed to be the most appropriate for this study. Both questionnaires and interviews were employed as research instruments. In such an approach qualitative findings complement the quantitative findings and provide a deeper understanding of the human phenomena involved. In this way, traits of teacher motivation could be measured more precisely. The data analyses from the two methods provided material for insights which complement each other and which in turn contribute to providing a bigger picture. The study benefitted from the interviews since, besides strengthening the quantitative findings, they provided some fresh insights into what affects teacher motivation and in particular what enhances it. Some of these findings did not feature in the quantitative results. These further findings are discussed separately in this chapter. It is the first time that such a methodology has been employed to investigate the relationship between teacher and student motivation.

The reporting of the findings, however, was not deemed to be altogether straightforward. Notwithstanding the fact that the qualitative study followed the quantitative and some questions for the interviews were based on the questionnaires, it was not easy to integrate the results. In some cases as in, for example, how a good relationship with students enhances teacher motivation, the results from the quantitative and qualitative complemented each other perfectly. At times, however, this integration of results was not that obvious. In the case of teacher efficacy, the results of the quantitative study were confirmed by the qualitative results, and expanded upon. For example, an added dimension offered by the qualitative findings was that teachers blamed students for their low academic

performance and never themselves. This, of course, was the main reason why the interviews were conducted, to provide further insights to those offered by the findings from the questionnaires. Furthermore, certain issues emerged only from the quantitative study, such as the attitudes of students toward Maltese speakers of English and others only from the qualitative study such as teacher autonomy when using the English syllabus. In such cases the integration of results was not possible and such findings had to be reported separately.

8.2 Summary of the findings

The main and secondary findings of this research study are reported separately. The section on the main findings reports on which factors have a direct impact on teacher motivation; teacher interaction and rapport, teacher efficacy, the attitudes of the teacher toward teaching and toward staff and school are discussed here. The secondary findings are those factors that affect teacher motivation indirectly; type of school and the attitudes students harbour toward Maltese speakers of English.

8.2.1. The main findings: Factors which have a direct impact on teacher's motivation

The main teacher motivational components which correlated with student motivation were (i) the interaction and rapport teachers have with their students and, (ii) teacher self-efficacy. The influence of teacher attitudes toward teaching and toward other members of the teaching staff and school on student motivation was minimal. Each component is discussed separately.

A. Teacher interaction and rapport with students

Students are more motivated when they have a good rapport with their teacher. A good relationship with the teacher puts the students at ease and reduces their anxiety when learning and using English in the classroom. It was found that teachers who have a good rapport with their students encourage them to integrate with others who use English and to follow what is going on around them in English. In such cases the teacher was accessible and personally involved in the students' learning. Students who liked their teacher also tended to like the subject being taught by that teacher. The importance of student-teacher relationships was also confirmed by the qualitative findings of this study. Teachers claimed that the relationship they have with their students is the main motivating force for them to obtain increased satisfaction from their teaching and to seek ways of further encouraging their students. They said they enjoyed working with students and found student progress very rewarding.

Teacher rapport with students correlated also with the students' general motivation to learn English and not just the motivation of students in the classroom. It is however not clear from this study whether the good rapport between the teacher and students is brought about by the positive disposition that already motivated students bring with them to the classroom. It may be the case that the teachers' friendliness resulted in good modelling which contributed to students being generally motivated to learn English.

The teacher has the most significant role in all aspects of socialising in the classroom situation and is the main contributor to boosting the students' motivation. According to Kottler and Zehm (2000), teachers are required to

empathise with their students by doing their best to understand what the students are experiencing. They are also to be their students' advocates by supporting them and showing them they are on their side. Teachers need to establish clear boundaries for this teacher–student relationship in that it remains as such and nothing beyond that. It is essential that teachers are authentic and genuine as this stabilizes their relationship with their students. Dörnyei (2001a) believes that the teacher's role in achieving this stability in their rapport with students should be based on the teacher's personal characteristics, verbal and non-verbal behaviour, active motivational social behaviour and classroom management practices. These are areas of professional practice which teachers are to pay particular attention to in their efforts to strengthen their rapport with their students.

Dörnyei (2001a) and Kottler & Zehm (2000) note also that teachers are more effective in their relationships with students in class when they seek to improve their classroom interactions by evaluating their communication skills. Such skills are developed by the attitudes imparted to the students and the teachers' proficiency in communication skills. The attitudes communicated by the teachers should be those same attitudes as expected of a helper, that is someone who listens carefully and does not criticize or judge you. Communication skills should be based on the needs of the students who should feel that these are being met. In this way the teachers feel that they are being effective in their communication with students and are motivated further by the positive responses from their students.

B. Teacher self- efficacy

Teachers who are efficacious tend to share their belief in themselves and their high

expectations with their students. The more efficacious and competent the teacher is, the less anxious the students are. The results from this study reveal that an efficacious teacher heightens the students' desire to learn English. This implies that the fact that teachers believe that they are capable of doing a good job and that they have positive expectations for their students' behaviour and achievements is transmitted to the students themselves.

From the literature review it has been established clearly that factors like: the context in which they teach, classroom management and the feedback provided to the teacher by significant others affect the teacher's self-efficacy. From the qualitative component of this study it transpired that another factor: 'challenges offered by the job' affect also the level of teachers' self-efficacy. Efficacious teachers tend to seek out challenges in their job and relish them as they feel that they can benefit from them. Each of these factors is considered in the context of the results of this study and discussed below.

The teaching context

From the literature review it emerged clearly that teacher self-efficacy relies strongly on the context. The teaching context comprises such factors as the availability and quality of teaching materials, access to technology and the teaching space. It includes also the management style of the school principal, the climate of the school and the support of other teachers. Some of these factors were commented upon by the interviewees of this study. These included the state of repair of the schools, availability of resources and class size.

The majority of the teachers remarked on the state of their schools. The physical school environment was considered by the teachers to be a major contributor to their level of motivation. From the qualitative study it transpired that the physical condition of the school affected their general teacher efficacy rather than their personal teacher efficacy. Those teaching at a well-maintained school were proud of their school and felt good about teaching in such an environment. Teachers working in schools which were not maintained well and in some cases were practically run down felt demotivated by this. From the qualitative study it transpired that the physical condition of the school affected their general teacher efficacy rather than their personal teacher efficacy. An interesting comment that was quite common among teachers who worked at schools which were in a bad state was that they had chosen to stay on in that environment and had not asked to be transferred because of the support and friendship they had received from their colleagues.

Some of the teachers commented also on the lack of resources in their schools. They claimed there was a need for more modern textbooks and books for general reading in the school libraries.

The large numbers of students in each class were also perceived to be a problem by the teachers. They remarked on the advantages of having smaller classes which would allow them to work more effectively with individual student's issues.

Class management

Class management is also related to teacher's efficacy. Unruly student behaviour

can mar such efficacy. A well-managed class boosts teacher efficacy which, in turn, promotes students' learning since teachers are bound to support their students even more in such a situation (Woolfolk et al, 1990). Class management and discipline were also issues raised by some of the teachers interviewed in this study. Disruptive student behaviour exasperated the teachers and made them feel vulnerable. This hindered them from delivering the lesson and many asked for help from outside the class in such situations. Some teachers called for a structured disciplinary process in the school so that students are made aware of their behavioural boundaries and classroom disruptions are curtailed. Two of the teachers insisted that they should be supported by the parents in matters of discipline. Surprisingly, some of the teachers claimed in the interviews that they perceived problematic students to be a challenge. They considered this to be positive and something which heightened their teacher efficacy.

Feedback

Persuasion emanating from verbal feedback is an important source of teacher efficacy. It is essential that teachers know that what they are doing is right. During the interviews, the teachers claimed that feedback is provided to them by the Education Officers of the Ministry of Education, subject coordinators, the school management, parents and colleagues. The students, however, are the main source of feedback. They provide both verbal and non-verbal feedback as the productive and efficient running of the class is feedback in itself. This, according to the teachers, was the best kind of feedback.

Challenge on the job

The majority of the teachers interviewed found their job to be challenging and sought ways to make it so. They perceived that their biggest challenges were to motivate their unmotivated students and to maintain the level of motivation of those students who were already motivated. This induced the teachers to seek to maintain student interest, to help students to believe in themselves and to increase student achievement. The teachers perceived all of these actions as having a positive effect on their efficacy. Additional challenges perceived by the teachers as having an adverse effect on their level of efficacy were: students with varying academic abilities, student behavioural problems, lack of resources and a poorly maintained school environment. It is interesting to note that both motivated and demotivated students were a source of motivation for different teachers.

Some of the teachers did not feel that their teaching efficacy was affected at all by students' misbehaviour and lack of motivation. This was because they blamed their students for this lack of motivation as they were unwilling to work or lacked the academic ability to do so. The teachers, therefore, did not feel responsible for such students.

Additional comments on efficacy from the interviews

Two other aspects emerged from the interviews with regard to teacher self-efficacy. One was how teachers perceived their ability to teach. While the majority of teachers were confident about their professional practice, they acknowledged that there was always room for improvement and were willing to engage in further

professional development. All of the teachers interviewed recognised that they required some form of professional support in one or two areas of their practice.

Another aspect which the teachers considered to have an effect on their efficacy was teaching experience. Some of them claimed that their teaching experience made them feel more efficacious. This could certainly be the case since their experience made them more confident and competent in their professional practice as they would have learnt from their own mistakes and built on their successes in the classroom situation.

C. Attitudes toward teaching

Attitudes toward teaching involve the level of job satisfaction and related challenges. The quantitative study showed that the attitudes of the teachers toward teaching have a small effect on the students' motivation in the classroom. It was expected that this component of teacher motivation would have a more significant effect on student motivation. One would assume that teachers who enjoy teaching and are satisfied with their professional practice should have a positive influence on their students. This finding seems to imply that there is a distinction between the attitudes of the teachers toward their job and their actual professional practice in the classroom. Teachers who may have a negative attitude toward teaching seem to have hardly any effect on the motivation of their students. Similarly having positive attitudes toward teaching does not necessarily mean that those teachers who hold such attitudes are having a positive effect on the motivation of their students.

D. Attitudes toward staff and school

No link between teachers' attitudes toward staff and school and student motivation emerged from the quantitative study. These attitudes do not seem to impinge directly on the classroom situation. However, in the qualitative study the teachers referred to their good relationship with their colleagues as the reason for not asking to be transferred when they were dissatisfied with their school environment or with their present teaching experience. Having a good relationship with their colleagues seems to sustain the teachers. In a couple of cases, the teachers insisted that the time spent talking to their colleagues in the staffroom was the highlight of their day. One other teacher said that although she was not happy with the students and the decrepit state of her school, she looked forward to coming to school each day because of the good relationship she had with her colleagues.

8.2.2 The secondary findings

A. School type

The two types of schools studied here: Junior Lyceums and Area Secondary schools cater for students with different abilities. Students in Junior Lyceums are presumed to be more motivated to learn English as the entry into such schools is determined by success in competitive entrance examinations. This was confirmed by this study as it was discovered that the general motivation to learn English of the students in Junior Lyceums was higher than that students in the Area Secondary. However, the situated motivation of the students, that is, the motivation of the

students during their English class, showed there to be no difference between the motivation of students in the two types of schools. This implies that Junior Lyceum teachers of English are not maintaining or enhancing the motivation of their students in a way that the advantage in motivation that Junior Lyceum students had over the students in Area Secondary schools at entry seems to have been dissipated.

In the qualitative research one of the teachers referred to the type of school in which he was teaching as his main motivational factor. He felt that the fact that he taught at a Junior Lyceum was more motivating to him than if he were teaching at an Area Secondary school.

It is to be noted that Junior Lyceums and Area Secondary schools are being phased out. These are being replaced by Colleges which comprise of students of varying abilities. This study confirms the policy decision for this reform, at least with regard to English language teaching and motivation, in that Junior Lyceums were not having any special impact on their students' motivation to learn English. In turn this did nothing for the enhancement of teacher motivation.

B. Attitudes toward speakers of English

From the quantitative study it emerged that the attitudes toward Maltese speakers of English (AMSOE) of the students influenced their motivation to learn English. This finding confirmed the validity of the decision to include AMSOE as a variable that influences student motivation. As pointed out in Chapter 1, some Maltese have negative attitudes toward others who use English as their primary mode of communication. They deem these to be 'snobs' as they use English as a social marker. In view of the fact that student and teacher motivation are linked, AMSOE

is bound also to have an effect on this link. In fact when in the quantitative study the AMSOE factor was eliminated from the analysis of the correlation between student and teacher motivation it transpired that the link between teacher and student motivation was different. Teacher attitudes toward teaching influence English use and English class anxiety; and interaction and rapport with students influences the Friendship orientation of students (this resulted also when AMSOE was included).

This means that students' AMSOE is a determining factor in the relationship between student and teacher motivation as it affects student motivation which in turn influences teacher motivation. Interestingly enough, this issue of attitudes towards Maltese speakers was never referred to in the replies and comments made by the teachers in the interviews. For the teachers this does not seem to be an issue. This does not mean, however, that such attitudes do not exist and they do not hamper learning and the motivation of students and teachers as has resulted from the quantitative research.

8.3 Recommendations

The following are my recommendations based on the literature review and the dataset framed within the aims of this study, that of increasing teacher motivation which will increase student motivation. These recommendations are broken down into more specific suggestions and are listed in order of priority according to my evaluation of their importance for the enhancement of English language teacher motivation. In the first instance a general list of recommendations which emerged from both the quantitative and qualitative studies is provided. This is followed by

the recommendations made by the teachers in their interviews which were not featured previously in the general list. These recommendations, although made by individual teachers, provide further insight into the feelings of the teachers about the various issues raised and which are related to their motivation. In a number of instances the teachers themselves make their own recommendations about how their situation may be improved upon or remedied. As a conclusion to this section a summary of the strategies recommended for the improvement of teacher motivation is provided according to the four levels of the teacher, the school level, the teacher professional development level and the policy level.

8.3.1 General recommendations emanating from the study

The teachers themselves need to think of ways about how to motivate themselves or to keep themselves motivated. Therefore, in the first place, self-improvement strategies for the teacher to follow and suggestions as to what type of support and training could be given to the teachers in order to do so are proposed.

- Teachers need to acquire the characteristics that enhance the rapport between them and their students. These could include a heightened level of motivation, warmth, trustworthiness and empathy. Teachers are to become aware of these and to work on improving these qualities in themselves. In order to achieve this, teachers are also to be fully aware of the needs of their students. Students tend to be more receptive and willing to reciprocate in a relationship when they feel that their needs are being met. Students are to be encouraged by their

teacher to explore their needs and to share them. The teachers should then endeavour to meet these needs in the classroom.

- Teachers are to work on their communicative skills in order to improve on them. Communicative skills include both verbal and non-verbal behaviours. Some verbal behaviour includes being clear, non-judgmental, expressing support and providing positive feedback. Non-verbal behaviour includes paying attention to and maintaining eye contact with their students. Such behaviours modelled by the teacher would hopefully be emulated by the students. This improves the dynamics of relations in the classroom. Teachers can, therefore, work on their communicative skills by adding to their knowledge from the relevant literature and by seeking advice and discussing the relationship issues which they face in the classroom with their colleagues and other professionals. The Education Directorates at the Ministry of Education in Malta should provide guidance in this respect and also make sure that Continuing Professional Development courses serve to improve communication skills in the classroom. This guidance is essential as teachers are faced by students of different abilities and personalities each year and which may require a range of different communicative strategies and skills. Continuing Professional Development courses can heighten teachers' self-efficacy (Shoaib, 2005; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Here I have to reiterate what Pintrich and Schunk (2002) claim, that training which aims at developing the efficacy of teachers should be implemented. They propose that such courses should include Bandura's (1997) sources of efficacy (see Chapter 3).

▪ It is proposed that Continuing Professional Development courses for teachers in self-efficacy can take the format of workshops and seminars where teachers share and interpret past experiences of particular teaching situations. They are also to be given the facility of observing other teachers who portray good examples of efficacious teaching so that good practice is shared. Such workshops do not have to be a one-off experience in the teacher's career but support groups could be formed so that there is ongoing support where teachers can meet regularly to discuss feelings of stress and anxiety. These feelings may be the result of a lack of classroom management. Therefore, a discussion of how a teacher is to deal with certain students and classes with other teachers in the same predicament may be beneficial. These workshops/support groups may also be a source of feedback as the opinion of the other teachers and professionals in the field is required.

From a review of the relevant literature it may be concluded that the best way to help teachers to develop and increase their self-efficacy is for them to be given support at the beginning of their career (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). When teachers embark on their career feeling self-efficacious then it is more likely that they are satisfied and less stressed later on in their careers. This has already been noted in Chapter 4. Changing what experienced teachers believe is good teaching as a result of being self-efficacious is rather difficult. Also the efficacy of such teachers tends to decrease over the years as they blame factors external to their teaching for the low achievement of their students. This implies that a sound foundation for teacher self-efficacy must be established in the initial teacher education phase at the university. Initial teacher education university courses, particularly the practical component in schools, must

ensure that efficacy is instigated and extended. This should ensure that the teachers leave university and embark on their career with a sense of self-efficacy.

- Teachers should endeavour to obtain feedback from various sources. These could include feedback from their own students, the parents of their students, their teaching colleagues and other school-based professionals or education professionals such as Education Officers who visit schools on a regular basis. It is important that such feedback is structured, constructive and covers a wide variety of teaching situations. In this way this feedback might be translated into more effective and meaningful teaching practice by the teachers.

- Teachers must seek the co-operation of their students and stress the importance of learning English as a major communicative tool so as to overcome any personal prejudices that students may have. Some students may be reluctant to identify with the section of Maltese society who uses English as their everyday language in order to distinguish themselves from others. The teacher in the classroom can do this by pointing out that surviving in Malta requires one to know English since practically all jobs require competence in the English language, as does the use of technology and the internet. The teacher should stress also that English is invaluable for their personal and social life as they are bound to meet English-speaking people since Malta is a tourist attraction.

- Teachers are to establish and maintain rules in the classroom. Rules can be created and discussed with students although it is the teacher who ultimately must enforce them. A well-managed and efficient classroom boosts the students' general

well-being. Mismanagement is a serious source of stress for both teachers and students and is a big strain on all relations in the classroom.

- A centralized structure within the school which teachers can draw upon with regards to students with behavioural problems may be of benefit. This should ease the pressure from the teacher in the class when dealing with disruptive students. The school could also seek the support of parents in this where this is possible.

- The physical environment of the school is an essential factor in the teaching and learning process and may serve to motivate or to demotivate teachers as the case may be. Schools are to be refurbished where this is necessary. They are also to be kept clean and are to be re-decorated on a regular basis. If there is a need for new furniture then this has to be seen to. This does not apply only to classrooms and common areas but to staff rooms as well.

- Resources are to be provided and made readily available. Relevant and recent books on teaching methodology are to be made easily accessible to teachers. Text-books which are appealing and appropriate to students at secondary level should also be made available. These should include readers as textbooks and readers for general reading in English.

- Teachers should be supported to promote autonomous learning in a more efficient manner. There should be increased opportunities for teachers to provide more time for individual student attention, both in-class and where absolutely

necessary on a withdrawal basis. This would necessitate Continuing Professional Development in student-tutoring and mentoring.

- Teachers should be provided with opportunities for career improvement as an incentive for rendering their teaching more effective and efficient
- Teachers' in-class teaching hours should be reduced. This would enable them to offer their students more individual attention related to their subject, spend more time on preparation and on professional self-improvement by reading the relevant literature and participate in the Continuing Professional Development Education courses and support groups referred to above. Currently, in Malta, Continuing Professional Development courses usually take place over three days at the beginning or at the end of the scholastic year.

8.3.2 Other recommendations made by teachers during the interviews

The following is a list of recommendations made by the teachers during the interviews only but were not featured previously in the quantitative and qualitative studies or the literature related to the current study. It was considered to be worthwhile to present these as they are also strategies for the improvement of the motivation of teachers of English in Malta, and of teachers of other subjects in general.

- A reconsideration of the assessment procedures which at present are still based mainly on summative examinations. The focus should be more upon project

work and profiling, with an emphasis on ongoing assessment. A summative examination places too much pressure on teachers and students alike, besides emphasising the gap between students of different abilities. This can only lead to demotivate teachers who know that their students can never achieve the intended grade.

- The range of contents of the English Language syllabus for secondary schools should be reduced for teachers to be able to allow their students to work in an autonomous manner and to have enough time to practise better the relevant language skills. This together with more project work and less emphasis on examinations should remove the pressure from the teacher to cover an overloaded syllabus to prepare students for their final end-of-year examination.

- Teachers are to be trained and supported to teach and deal with students with special educational needs and those who have severe difficulties at home. It is important that teachers who have such students in their class are aware of these and offered professional advice and support to be able to deal with these students in their class.

- Harmony among staff is to be promoted as friction with colleagues tends to demoralise teachers. Having a good relationship with colleagues, on the other hand, puts the teacher in good spirits.

- Parents are to cooperate with the teachers and not seek to hinder them in their work. In this way teachers feel that they are appreciated and valued by the parents of their students. Teachers are to seek ways of involving parents in the learning of their students by establishing a good rapport with them. Wherever possible parents may also be asked to participate as additional resources for English Language learning.

8.4 The main strategies for motivating English Language teachers

– A Summary

The following is a summative list of all the recommendations which have emerged from this study grouped under four levels: the teacher level, the school level, the teacher professional development level and the policy level.

The Teacher level

Teachers are to:

1. seek to improve their personal characteristics such as their communicative skills in order to ameliorate their rapport with their students. Teachers may improve such skills by reading the relevant literature, seeking advice and discussing any relationship problems encountered in class with colleagues and other professionals. Continuing Professional Development courses focussing on improving such skills would also be of benefit.

2. become aware of their students' needs and to try to meet these needs.
Students need to be encouraged to explore their needs and to share them with their teacher so that the teacher can devise ways to meet these needs.
3. engage in classroom management by establishing and maintaining rules.
Teachers need to maintain an efficient classroom so as to ensure the smooth running of the class. Rules can be discussed with students but ultimately it is the teacher's responsibility to maintain them.
4. participate in Continuing Professional Development courses and support groups. Such courses not only provide teachers with opportunities to improve on the above mentioned skills but can also serve to enhance the self-efficacy of teachers. Besides courses, support groups can also be a suitable forum for teachers where they can share any anxieties with other teachers who have the same problems and with professionals who can offer advice and solutions.
5. emphasise to students the fact that English language learning is indispensable for them to be fully functional citizens of Malta and of the English-speaking world. This might prevail over any prejudices the students may have with regards to English as they may associate this language with those Maltese who use it to distinguish themselves from others. The teacher must stress the fact that English is necessary for the students' own personal lives as citizens of the world and also for practical reasons such as seeking employment.

The School level

1. Schools are to be kept in a good state of repair and are to be redecorated and

renovated when necessary.

2. A school ethos which supports teachers in their endeavour to maintain good classroom management and in dealing with disruptive students is to be established. A centralised structure may be set up in the school which could support teachers in their endeavours to maintain classroom management.
3. Support groups where teachers with low levels of self-efficacy can seek help by sharing experiences with colleagues are to be set up. Such groups can encourage the modelling of teachers with a higher level of self-efficacy. This can be achieved both through discussions in the group and through practical work and observation in the classroom situation.

The Teacher Professional Development level

1. Initial teacher education at University, particularly the teaching practice component in schools, should include training in and modelling of self-efficacy. Teachers who embark on their career already feeling self-efficacious are more likely to succeed in their career.
2. Continual Professional Development courses intended at enhancing teachers' communicative skills that may be used with various students from diverse backgrounds.
3. Professional development which aims to improve teachers' self-efficacy. This could be in the form of Continuing Professional Development courses, workshops and support groups.

The Policy level

1. Teachers could have a reduced teaching load in such a way as to allow them to follow courses, seminars and workshops which would run throughout the year. This would also enable teachers to dedicate more time for preparation and self-improvement by reading the relevant literature. In this way Continuing Professional Development courses could then take place throughout the year rather than just at the end and at the beginning of the scholastic year as is the current practice in Malta.
2. Increased teaching resources are to be made easily available in each school. This should reduce teacher stress and motivate teachers to use more varied resources.
3. The range of contents of the English Language syllabus is to be revised and reduced. This would allow teachers to focus on and to devote more time to a reduced list of curriculum items and to ensure better retention on the part of the students. This may afford the students with increased opportunities to work in a more autonomous manner and to practise the language skills they have learnt.
4. Provision of more modern and appealing textbooks and readers for students. There should be increased use of technology-enhanced learning. This is especially essential for students who have grown up in the digital age and for whom technology has such an appeal. This can serve also to increase levels of motivation.
5. A reconsideration of assessment procedures to reduce the reliance upon summative examinations. Ongoing assessment would ease the pressure on

both teachers and students. Project work and profiling are two different assessment modes which could be implemented to better effect in Maltese classrooms.

6. Improved employment conditions for teachers such as enhanced opportunities for career development and increased opportunities to engage in further professional development, ranging from short courses to degree courses, with relevant career rewards.

8.5 Proposals for further research

Some proposals for further research are:

- In this study the responses of teachers were analysed with regard to the relationship between teacher and student motivation. It was established that having a positive relationship with their students improved their level of motivation. Further research may be conducted to establish what Maltese students think about what constitutes a good relationship with their teacher. Alder and Moulton (1998 cited in Kottler and Zehm, 2000) conducted a study about what students consider to be important factors which contribute to a caring relationship with their teacher. The main factors were that teachers need to be in control of the class, treat all the students equally, be able to forgive students for their mistakes, take care not to embarrass their students in front of the whole class, be genuinely concerned about their students' work and personal lives and render their learning interesting by good quality teaching. It would be interesting to conduct a comparative study in Malta to see to what extent these are replicated or not in the Maltese context.

- The communication skills of teachers are to be attuned to the needs of the students. A needs analysis of the students in Maltese secondary classrooms is to be conducted so that these are made explicit. Kottler and Zehm (2000) discovered that students would most probably ask to have fun, laugh, play, be loved and be appreciated. The teacher should then seek to create an appropriate classroom environment to fulfil these needs.

- Further research on the self-efficacy of teachers of English in Malta is required as this is a determining factor in teacher motivation which in turn enhances student motivation. It is to be analysed if the same factors which are reported in the international literature - context, class management and feedback - affect also Maltese teachers and, if so, to what extent?

- A study which compares the personal and general teacher efficacy of newly qualified teachers and experienced teachers in Malta. In this study experienced teachers claimed that their teaching experience made them more efficacious. This needs to be verified and the factors that make a teacher more efficacious need to be identified.

- Although quite a few studies have researched the attitudes of Maltese people and students toward Maltese speakers of English, very few have investigated the effect these attitudes have on English language teaching and learning. It would be beneficial for these attitudes to be investigated further so that their negative impact on the teaching and learning of English is minimised or eliminated.

- It would be interesting if the present study is replicated in the new college system which is more inclusive as the schools within the colleges which are being set up cater for students with mixed abilities. This would be to investigate whether the student motivation in the classroom has increased or not in the new system. This would provide also a clear indication as to whether teacher motivation has been affected as it has been established clearly that teacher motivation is influenced highly by that of the students. This would show clearly what kind of impact the setting up of the college system has had on teacher and student motivation.

- More studies into teacher enthusiasm which is an important dimension of teacher motivation are required. The strategies used by teachers to transmit their enthusiasm to their students also merits investigation. The teachers of this study do not seem to have given much consideration to sharing their enthusiasm with their students.

- It is evident that collegiality among teachers is an important factor which increases teacher motivation. More studies are required into the impact of collegiality and ways of improving this and into the support which is required to promote it.

8.6 A Personal reflection

As already mentioned in the Introduction, my interest in language teaching and learning motivation arose from when, some years ago, I started teaching students with a poor level of English and low levels of motivation at an area secondary

school in Malta. I would struggle to keep my own level of motivation high as I believed that in doing so my level of motivation and enthusiasm would encourage my students to do the same.

In the beginning of my teaching career it was problematic as I used English exclusively as a medium of communication in the classroom. This presented my students with two challenges. Most of them understood only very basic English and they were highly prejudiced against Maltese speakers of English. I reflected on ways of motivating my students to want to learn English especially after they had already spent six years learning English in primary school and yet they could not understand simple English. At the time I was reading for my Master's degree, which dealt with students' motivation to learn English in Maltese secondary schools, and thus I had many opportunities to delve into the relevant literature. This had made me aware of the components that make up students' motivation such as attitudes, self-confidence and anxiety. I sought to work on these in order to heighten my students' motivation to learn. I soon realised that the more enthusiastic I was about my teaching, the more motivated they became to learn English. They mirrored my enthusiasm for the particular topic we were dealing with at the time. This made me look forward to my job, especially the time spent in class working with my students.

With hindsight, and in the light of the present study, I now realise that a major contributor to raising the level of motivation of my students was my own attitude in the class, the good relationship I had built with my students and the teaching strategies that I employed. My teaching approach and charisma in the classroom had served to motivate them and for them to look forward to their lessons of English with me. This acted as an incentive for me to put more effort

into the teaching of English and to seek ways of being more effective so as to motivate my students further. This fed into my sense of teacher efficacy as I felt good about my own professional practice. In other words it had turned into a cycle of the more able I was to motivate my students the more I was spurred to motivate them further.

Although I was their teacher of English, I was still considered by the students to be one of those 'snobbish' Maltese people who spoke English. Their opinion of me was confirmed when they discovered that I hailed from the Sliema area in Malta, renowned for people who use English as the main mode of communication. As in no way did they want to be identified with Maltese speakers of English, they initially resisted using English in the classroom. However, as time passed I could feel that as I gained their confidence, their prejudice and fear of being identified with Maltese speakers of English diminished. The good rapport I had established with my students had helped to eliminate any prejudice they had about me as a Maltese speaker of English. In effect I was fully aware that such prejudice existed among Maltese students learning English. This is why I felt I should include this component in this present study to see to what extent such attitudes were pervasive among Maltese students and their impact on the relationship between teacher and student motivation.

My own teaching experience had shown me that in order to counteract such negative attitudes in the classroom, the teacher should put emphasis on the importance of English for the young students to be able to advance in life. In this way the teacher can diminish such attitudes and their impact on student and hence teacher motivation. At the time I also believed the attitudes of my students towards English to be increasingly positive as an effect of their coming to recognise the

importance of English in their life because of new developments in Information and Communication Technologies, in particular the internet. Furthermore the students were of an age when they were thinking about their careers. They were coming to realise that most jobs they aspired to required proficiency in and qualifications in English. I had also made it a point to put emphasis on the need for knowing how to speak and understand English if they wished to advance in their studies and in their career both in Malta and beyond. I also made constant reference to the importance of English in their personal lives and for them to be able to pursue their diverse interests. As Malta is a bilingual country the use of English, besides Maltese, is widespread. All this instigated me to want to investigate to what extent my professional experiences in the English Language classroom were shared or not by other teachers of English in Malta and how this related to the international literature on teacher motivation.

With regard to the collection of the data in Maltese schools with teachers and students, this provided me with an opportunity to explore further the classroom realities of English Language teaching in Malta. The design of the research tools, namely the questionnaires and the interview schedule, offered a particular challenge, especially the teacher motivation questionnaire as this had never been done before and had to be devised from scratch. The most intriguing part for me, however, was when I conducted the interviews with the teachers. It was my first experience with a mixed methods approach which included interviews. This proved to be a valuable experience as the comments of the teachers made explicit their reflections on what influences student and teacher motivation. Having this face-to-face communication with the teachers provided them with an opportunity to share

their professional views in a way which could not be achieved through the questionnaires.

The results of this study have made me realise further how important it is for me as a teacher to seek ways of strengthening further the relationship with my students. At times this may not be straightforward as I believe that the teacher has to maintain some professional distance and not become too friendly as this may give rise to class management problems. I have always sought to have a professional relationship with my students. This does not mean that the relationship with my students was not a good one as the students soon came to realise that my main interest was for them to succeed in improving their level of English language proficiency and be successful in life. The moment they became aware of this, students were very cooperative in class.

I feel that in my other present role of teacher educator, I need to bear in mind the factors which affect both student and teacher motivation in the preparation of intending teachers. I feel that I am now in a better position to identify the factors which influence teacher motivation. I can support better the intending teachers I come in contact with to come to recognise the factors which impinge on their students' and their own motivation. In this way they may be positioned better to seek the necessary opportunities for professional development or support for them to revive or to sustain their level of motivation in the English classroom.

8.7 The heart of the matter

This study was significant on two levels, the theoretical and the practical. On the theoretical level, this is the first time an empirical link has been established between teacher and student motivation in English Language teaching and learning. A mixed methods research approach with teachers and students was employed. On the practical level, strategies for the improvement of teacher motivation have been identified. These may serve also to increase the levels of student motivation, in view of the relationship which exists between these two types of motivation.

Teachers need to be fully aware of the intimate relationship that exists between their own motivation and that of their students. They are to recognise that their students' lack of motivation may affect adversely their teaching, in the same way that their own attitudes and professional comportment may detract from the levels of enthusiasm and motivation of their students. It is a synergistic cycle for which teachers are largely responsible in view of their determinant role in the classroom situation. It is a responsibility which teachers cannot renounce even when faced with unenthusiastic students. They need to conceive this as an opportunity for them to renew their commitment to teaching and to their students and to revitalise their teaching persona.

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APPENDIX 1 – STUDENT MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

English Language Learning for me

Dear student,

I would like you to help me in my study. Please indicate your opinion by circling the number which best indicates this opinion.

Thank you.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

1	The English are very hospitable and friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I like American and English people	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Studying English is important so that I can read books and magazines in English	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	My friends think that learning English is important	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I feel anxious if someone asks me something in English	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Passing my English 'O' level is important for my future	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I would like to get to know more Maltese speakers of English	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I find the study of English very boring	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	For the most part, the English are sincere and honest	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	It doesn't bother me at all to speak English	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Studying English is important so that I can use the computer (e.g. internet)	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I feel successful in English if I do better than most of the other students	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My parents think that Maltese speakers of English are snobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I wish I were fluent in English	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Studying English is important so that I can understand films, videos, TV or radio	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	The more I learn about Maltese speakers of English, the more I like them	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	The more I know English, the more I will be able to	1	2	3	4	5	6

	go abroad						
21	Studying English is important to me because it will help me when travelling	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I think most of my classmates find it easier to learn English than I do	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Studying English is important to me because it is expected of me	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I would feel comfortable speaking English in an informal gathering where both Maltese and English speaking persons were present	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	The Americans and English are very kind and generous people	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Studying English is important because I would like to learn as many foreign languages as possible	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My friends think that Maltese speakers of English are snobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I plan to learn as much English as possible at school	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I am determined to learn English well enough to be able to communicate in it	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I feel confident when asked to participate in my English class	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	It is important for me to know English in order to be similar to Maltese speakers of English .	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Studying English is important to me because it can broaden my outlook	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	The Americans and English people are cheerful, agreeable and good-humoured	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Studying English is important for me because it will increase my ability to influence others	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I don't have a very good language aptitude	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Studying English is important because it will allow me to gain good friends more easily among Maltese speakers of English	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I think learning English is more difficult for me than for the other learners in my class	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	Studying English is important so that I can understand the lyrics in songs	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I have always admired the English	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	Knowing English is really an important goal in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	Studying English is important because an educated	1	2	3	4	5	6

	person is supposed to be able to speak English						
45	Maltese speakers of English are snobs and think that they are better than others	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	Studying English is important so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	English is an important subject at school	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	It is important for me to know English in order to better understand the English nations' behaviour and problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	In order to have friends from different countries, I need to know English	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	Studying English is important to me because I would like to make friends with foreigners	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	English proficiency would have financial benefits for me	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	It is important for me to know English in order to be similar to the British/Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
53	Maltese speakers of English belong to a better social class than those who use Maltese	1	2	3	4	5	6
54	I really enjoy learning English	1	2	3	4	5	6
55	Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with other speakers of English	1	2	3	4	5	6
56	I would like to pass my English 'O' level	1	2	3	4	5	6
57	Knowing English would help me to become a more knowledgeable person	1	2	3	4	5	6
58	Maltese speakers of English are very friendly and easy to get along with	1	2	3	4	5	6
59	Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people	1	2	3	4	5	6
60	My parents feel that I should learn English	1	2	3	4	5	6
61	Most of my favourite artists (eg. actors, musicians) are either British or American	1	2	3	4	5	6
62	English proficiency is indispensable for a Maltese person to be able to live a valuable and colourful life	1	2	3	4	5	6

In general I use:
(put an X near one of these)

Maltese only

English only

Maltese and English equally

Mostly Maltese with some English

Mostly English with some Maltese

Many thanks for all your help.

APPENDIX 2 – STUDENT MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE (Maltese version)

It-Taghlim ta’ L-Ingliz Ghalija

Ghaziz/a student/a,
Nixtieqek tghinni f’ dan l-istudju li qed naghmel. Jekk joghgbok indika l-opinjoni tieghek
billi taghmel cirku madwar in-numru li l-aktar jaqbel ma din l-opinjoni.
Grazzi!

Ma naqbilx hafna	Ma naqbilx	Ma naqbilx ftit	Naqbel ftit	Naqbel	Naqbel hafna
1	2	3	4	5	6

1	L-Inglizi huma minn taghna u dhulin hafna	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Joghgbuni n-nies Amerikani u Inglizi	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	L-istudju ta’ l-Ingliz hu mportanti ghax bih inkun nista’ naqra l-kotba u l-magazines bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Shabi jahsbu li t-taghlim ta’ l-Ingliz hu importanti	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Niddejjaq meta xi hadd jistaqsini xi haga bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Li nghaddi mill-‘O’ Level ta’ l-Ingliz hu	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Nixtieq inkun naf aktar Maltin li jtkellmu bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Insib l-istudju ta’ l-Ingliz tad-dwejjaq	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	L-istudju ta’ l-Ingliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax minghajr l-Ingliz ma tantx nkun nista nivjagga	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	L-bicca kbira ta’ l-Inglizi huma sinciera u onesti	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Nippreferi kieku nqatta’ l-hin tieghi fuq suggetti ohra milli fuq l-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Xejn ma niddejjaq nitkellem bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	L-istudju ta’ l-Ingliz hu mportanti sabiex inkun nista nuza l-computer (ez. L-Internet)	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Inhossni mexxejt fl-Ingliz jekk immur ahjar minn shabi	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Li nistudja bl-Ingliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax nahseb li xi darba ghad ikolli bzonn biex insib impieg tajjeb	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Il-genituri tieghi jahsbu li l-Maltin li jtkellmu bl-Ingliz huma snobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Nixtieq li kont naf nitkellem bl-Ingliz sew	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	L-istudju ta’ l-Ingliz hu mportant sabiex inkun nista nifhem il-films, il-videos, t-televizzjoni u r-radju	1	2	3	4	5	6

19	Aktar ma nsir naf dwar il-Maltin li jirkellmu bl-Ingiliz, aktar joghgbuni	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Aktar ma nkun naf bl-Ingiliz, aktar inkun nista'nsiefer	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Nahseb li hafna minn shabi fil-klassi jsibuha aktar facli minni biex jirkhallmu l-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	L-istudju ta' l-Ingiliz hu importanti ghalija ghax hekk hu mistenni minni	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Inhossni komda nitkellem bl-Ingiliz f'laqgħa bejn il hbieb fejn ikun hemm nies li jirkellmu kemm bil-Malti u kemm bl-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	L-Amerikani u l-Ingilizi huma nies dhulin u generuzi hafna	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	L-istudju ta' l-Ingiliz hu mportanti ghax nixtieq nitghallem kemm jista jkun lingwi barranin	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Shabi jahsbu li l-Maltin li jirkellmu bl-Ingiliz huma snobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Qed nippjana li nitghallem kemm niflah l-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	L-istudju ta' l-Ingiliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax il-quddiem jghinni meta nkun qed nivjagga	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Iddeterminat/a illi nitghallem l-Ingiliz tajjeb bizzejjed biex inkun nista'nikkomunika bl-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Inhossni kunfidenti meta jsaqsuni biex nippartecipa fil-lezzjoni ta' l-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Hu importanti ghalija li naf bl-Ingiliz biex inkun bhal dawk il-Maltin li jirkellmu bil-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	L-istudju ta' l-Ingiliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax b'hekk inkun nista'niftah mohhi	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	L-Amerikani u l-Ingilizi huma nies cajtiera, dhulin u simpatici	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Il-genituri tieghi dejjem insistewli dwar l-importanza li l-Ingiliz ser ikollu wara li ntemm l-iskola	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	L-istudju ta' l-Ingiliz hu importanti ghalija ghax jghinni ninflenza aktar lil haddiehor	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Dejjem hassejt li l-bqija ta' l-istudenti kapaci jithaddtu bl-Ingiliz aktar minni	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Ma tantx inhossni maqtugh/ha għal lingwi	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Li nistudja l-Ingiliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax b'hekk nkun nista naghmel aktar hbieb ma Maltin li jirkellmu bl-Ingiliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Nahseb li t-tagħlim ta' l-Ingiliz huwa aktar diffiċli ghalija milli hu għat-tfal l-oħra tal-klassi tieghi	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Il-genituri tieghi jinkoragguni sabiex nipprattika l-Ingiliz kemm jista jkun	1	2	3	4	5	6

41	L-istudju ta' l-Ingliz hu mportanti sabiex inkun nista' nifhem il-kliem tal-kanzunetti	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	Minn dejjem ammirajt l-Inglizi	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	Li nkun naf l-Ingliz huwa importanti f'hajti	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	L-istudju ta' L-Ingliz hu mportanti ghax persuna edukata suppost tkun taf titkellem bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	Maltin li jitekllmu bl-Ingliz huma snobs u jahsbu li huma ahjar minn haddiehor	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	L-istudju ta' l-Ingliz hu mportanti sabiex inkun nista' nibqa f'kuntatt ma' hbieb u nies li naf barranin	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	L-Ingliz huwa suggett important fl-iskola	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	Hu importanti ghalija li nkun naf l-Ingliz biex inkun nista nifhem ahjar l-imgieba u l-problemi ta' popli li jitekllmu bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	Biex ikolli hbieb minn pajjizi differenti ghandi bzonn inkun naf l-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	Li nistudja l-Ingliz hu mportanti ghalija ghax nixtieq naghmel hbieb ma barranin	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	Ikolli beneficcji finanzjari jekk inkun naf sew bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	Hu importanti ghalija li nkun naf bl-Ingliz biex inkun bhall-Inglizi jew l-Amerikani	1	2	3	4	5	6
53	Maltin li jitekllmu bl-Ingliz huma ta' klassi socjali ahjar minn dawk li jitekllmu bil-Malti	1	2	3	4	5	6
54	Niehu pjacir nitghallem l-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
55	L-istudju ta' l-Ingliz jista jkun importanti ghalija ghax jghinni nhossni komda/u meta nkun fil-kumpanija ta' nies li jitekllmu bl-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
56	Nixtieq nghaddi mill-ezami ta' l-'O' level ta'l-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
57	Li nkun naf l-Ingliz jghinni biex nsir persuna aktar gharfa/gharef	1	2	3	4	5	6
58	Maltin li jitekllmu bl-Ingliz huma dhulin u ta' kumpanija tajba	1	2	3	4	5	6
59	L-istudju ta' l-Ingliz jista' jkun importanti ghalija ghax jghinni niltaqa' u nithaddet ma bosta persuni	1	2	3	4	5	6
60	Il-genituri tieghi jemmnu li hemm bzonn li nitghallem l-Ingliz	1	2	3	4	5	6
61	Bosta mill-artisti favoriti tieghi (ez. atturi, muzicisti) huma jew Inglizi jew Amerikani	1	2	3	4	5	6
62	Li tkun taf bl-Ingliz sew huwa ta' importanza kbira ghal persuna Maltija biex din tkun tista'tghix hajja mimlija u kif inhi xierqa	1	2	3	4	5	6

Fil-hajja ta' kuljum jien nitkellem:
(Ghamel X hdejn wahda minn dawn)

- a. Bil-Malti biss
- b. Bl-Ingliz biss
- c. Bil-Malti u bl-Ingliz indaqs
- d. Bil-Malti bi ftit Ingliz
- e. Bl-Ingliz bi ftit Malti

Grazzi hafna ta' l-ghajnuna tieghek.

APPENDIX 3 – TEACHER MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

English Language Teaching

Kindly indicate your opinion about each statement by circling what best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with the statement. I am interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you for your help.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

1	In this job I have an opportunity to develop my own special abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I have enough training to deal with almost any learning problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am satisfied with the degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from this school	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The amount of challenge in my job is very satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I like my job because I have long holidays	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	If I were the head teacher I would change some things in the school	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	This is a job where I can learn new things, learn new skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I do my best to instil a desire to learn in my students	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	In my school there is a good working relationship between management and staff in general	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	It is important that I have a good relationship with my students' parents	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	There are things about working here (people, policies, or conditions) that encourage me to work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I would be happier teaching at another school	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Teaching at this level is important to my career development	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I know that I am really helping my students to learn English	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Teachers have a rather weak influence on student achievement when all factors are considered	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I organise extracurricular activities and outings	1	2	3	4	5	6

	because I like spending more time with my students						
17	I am satisfied with my chances of getting ahead in this organization in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I have a manageable workload	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel I should personally take credit or blame for how well my students learn	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I enjoy teaching	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his/her home environment	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I always wanted to become a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I encourage extra work and offer assistance with these	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I am satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	There are adequate opportunities for advancement in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Generally speaking, I think I am a competent language teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	A good teacher can really shape his/her students' development.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I look forward in coming to work each day.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I have a good rapport with my students	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I think the morale of my colleagues is high	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Teaching English is a prestigious profession	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	When the class ends, I often wish that we would continue	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	It is very difficult to be a teacher nowadays because students don't respect you.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I like planning for my lessons	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I have high expectations for my students	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I am satisfied with the job security that I have	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Teaching requires me to use many high-level skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I can usually handle him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	In my school teaching accomplishments are recognised	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	Teaching these classes is a challenge that I enjoy	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I will still be teaching at this school in five years' time	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	It is most important for me to do my best when teaching these classes	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	I think that teaching English in this school is fun	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	I share my own personal interest in English with	1	2	3	4	5	6

	my students						
47	I like my job because of the status it has in society	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	I need to get out of teaching	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	My job provides sufficient variety of tasks/types of activity	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	In my school creativity is emphasised and rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	It is important that I have a friendly relationship with my students	1	2	3	4	5	6
53	Considering my skills and the effort I put into the work, I am satisfied with my pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54	I am desperate to leave	1	2	3	4	5	6
55	I often think of quitting this job	1	2	3	4	5	6
56	I feel that I can really help my students to learn English	1	2	3	4	5	6
57	I work for a reputable educational organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6
58	I offer to meet students individually to explain things	1	2	3	4	5	6
59	I am not asked to do excessive work	1	2	3	4	5	6

In order to help me better interpret and classify your answers, kindly fill in the following information. The contents of this form are absolutely confidential. Information identifying the respondent will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

Age:

Number of years teaching English:

Qualifications in the teaching of English:

APPENDIX 4 – THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The Opening phase:

1. Please state – your age / type of teacher training you had / the number of years you have been teaching.
2. Why did you choose this career originally?

The main body of questions (focusing on more specific topics):

3. What aspects of your job do you find motivating?
4. What are some of the motivating factors in your teaching environment?
5. What aspects of your job do you find demotivating?
6. Do you find your job stimulating and challenging? What aspects of your job do you find challenging?
7. Do you find your job stressful? What aspects make it stressful? (the head, colleagues, students, school administration, school environment, classroom environment, overload of work, etc...)?
8. Are you satisfied with your teaching abilities? Are you satisfied with your subject matter knowledge?
9. Do you think you receive enough feedback from your head, subject coordinator, Education Officer (EO)? In your opinion is feedback good or bad?
10. Do you think teachers have enough autonomy with what they can do with the syllabus they are teaching?
11. Do you think the syllabus challenges you in any way? Does this affect your motivation to teach in any way?
12. How are you treated in the school? (By the administration? Colleagues? Students?)
13. Do you think teaching as an occupation has an adequate career structure in terms of titles, ranks? Or is one stuck in the same position, like that of a classroom teacher? Does this affect your motivation to teach?

14. Do you think teachers receive an adequate salary? Does this affect your motivation to teach in any way?

15. How do you think people view teachers in society in general, here in Malta?

Where do you think you are in the social hierarchy? Do you think this affects

your motivation to teach in any way?

16. Are you glad you chose teaching English as a career? Do you ever feel like getting out of it?

17. Do you think that only you are responsible for the students' learning process?

18. If students are responsible for their learning, in what ways can you help them to learn?

19. Do you think that your students are motivated to learn? What is the cause of this? What feelings do you experience vis-à-vis motivated students? And unmotivated students?

20. Do you think it is within your power to change your students' attitudes toward

learning English? If yes, what do you do to change their attitudes?

21. In the morning when you go to work what are the things you most look forward to?

22. What would happen in a day that you would not look forward to?

23. What kind of things would make your life easier as a teacher?

24. If you had the power what measures would you take to improve the educational situation in Malta?

25. Are you happy with teaching as a career in general?

The closing phase:

26. Is there anything else you would like to add?