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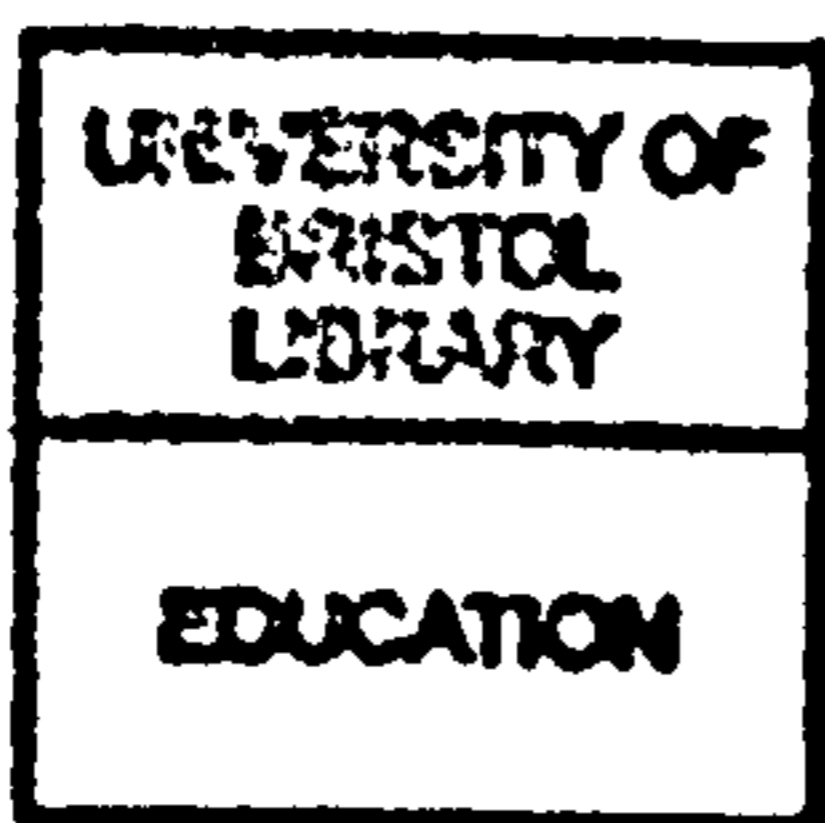
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**AN INTERPRETIVE STUDY OF THE
MOTIVATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN A
JAPANESE UNIVERSITY**

by Timothy John Knowles

A dissertation submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Education in the Faculty of Social Sciences and Law, Graduate School of Education

September 2008



Abstract

This dissertation investigates teacher motivation in a language-teaching department of a Japanese university. The main objective is to contribute to the overall understanding of the nature of teacher motivation. It is hoped that this understanding will be enhanced by two further objectives: firstly, to show how teacher motivation can be dependent on the teaching context, and secondly, to relate teacher motivation to the *work/market/status* categorisation proposed by David Lockwood (1989). As a background to the study, there is a review of occupational motivation theory and research into such issues as job satisfaction and commitment, from which an understanding of teacher motivation can be built.

In order to discover how they perceive their job, motivation in general and their motivation in this specific context, twenty-one teachers of English, and three of German were interviewed, ten of whom also took part in two focus groups. Four teachers were Japanese, and the others were native speakers of the language they taught.

An interpretation according to the *work/market/status* categorisation proved to be illuminating. The teachers' motivation is mainly related to the work situation, which includes both intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors related to the organisation. The market situation (e.g. salary) and status situation (prestige in the society at large) appear to be less important. The data suggested that a further category, related to human relationships both within and without the workplace should be added.

The findings are written so as to facilitate understanding. The importance of context is evident throughout, as teachers usually talked of their motivation with relation to the context. In particular, they enjoy an autonomy that allows them to pursue goals they set with methods they choose. Other discovered themes include the significance of enjoyment, factors providing job comfort (e.g. vacations), and a difference between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers. It is argued that it might be useful to consider motivation in terms of energy which is passed from teacher to student, and management should aim to waste as little of that energy as possible.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife Odile, my son Colin, and my mother, Laurie.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank all those teachers who took time to tell me about their work and motivation. I would also like to thank my advisors: Professors Pauline Rea-Dickins and Roger Dale. Last but certainly not least, I would like to thank my son Colin for allowing me to use his room for the first six years of his life.

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original, except where indicated by special reference in the text, and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any other academic award. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author

Signed: *T. J. Knowles*

October 1st, 2008

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Teacher motivation: a definition.....	1
1.3 The importance of teacher motivation.....	1
1.4 Research objectives.	2
1.5 Overview of the Research Design	3
1.6 The setting	4
<i>1.6.1 The university.....</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>1.6.2 The Centre for the Teaching of Foreign Languages</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>1.6.3 Functions of the Centre</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>1.6.4 The English language curriculum</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>1.6.5 The German language curriculum.....</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>1.6.6 The teachers</i>	<i>6</i>
1.7 Overview of the dissertation and summary of chapters	7
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Early theory: instinct and drive.....	10
2.3 Needs hierarchies: Maslow and Alderfer	11
2.4 Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy	11
2.5 Goal-setting theory	13
2.6 Intrinsic motivation: self-determination theory (SDT) and flow theory	14
2.7 Job satisfaction: theory	15
<i>2.7.1 Motivator-hygiene theory.....</i>	<i>15</i>
2.8 Job satisfaction: research.....	17
<i>2.8.1 Working contexts.....</i>	<i>17</i>
<i>2.8.2 Market and status factors</i>	<i>19</i>
2.9 The motivation to become a teacher.....	19
<i>2.9.1 The market situation</i>	<i>20</i>
<i>2.9.2 The status situation</i>	<i>21</i>
<i>2.9.3 The work situation</i>	<i>21</i>
2.10 Commitment.....	22
2.11 Leaving the job and burnout	23
2.12 The market situation: the effects of salary	24
2.13 The work situation: organisation and leadership	25
2.14 Research into motivation of English language teachers.....	26
2.15 Summary of relevant insights and gaps in knowledge.	28
2.16 Summary	29

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	31
3.1 Introduction	31
3.2 Choice of method.....	32
3.3 Research: Schedule.....	34
3.4 Research: Initial procedures	34
3 <i>iloting</i>	34
3.4.2 <i>Choosing the 'Sample'</i>	35
3.4.3 <i>Communications with participants and Ethical considerations</i>	37
3.5 Research: Fieldwork Procedures.....	38
3.5.1 <i>Focus Group Procedure</i>	38
3.5.2 <i>Individual Interview Procedure</i>	40
3.6 Transcriptions.....	43
3.7 Validity of the data	44
3.8 Data processing, analysis and interpretation	46
3.8.1 <i>Data processing</i>	46
3.8.2 <i>Analysis and interpretation of the data</i>	48
3.8.3 <i>Reliability of the analysis</i>	49
3.9 Summary.....	50
 CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS – PERCEPTIONS OF THE JOB SETTING	51
4.1 Introduction	51
4.1.1 <i>Explanation of source referencing</i>	51
4.2 Teachers' feelings about the job	52
4.3 Teachers' perceptions of the students.....	53
4.4 TEFL in Japan: Japanese teachers and non-Japanese teachers	54
4.5 Autonomy and isolation	56
4.6 Interpretation of teachers' views of the context.....	57
4.7 Summary.....	58
 CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS – TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MOTIVATION	61
5.1 Introduction	61
5.2 Liking it and enjoying it	61
5.3 Being professional: Commitment, doing your best, and accepting a challenge	63
5.4: In practice: Energy and relationships	64
5.5 Interpretation of teachers' perceptions of motivation.....	65
5.6 Summary.....	66

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS –THE WORK SITUATION.....	67
6.1 Introduction	67
6.2 Teachers’ grading criteria and linguistic achievement goals.	68
6.3 Goals related to students’ attitude to the language and learning: generating confidence	72
6.4 Providing a chance to communicate	73
6.5 Lighting the fire	74
6.6 Dealing with and changing students’ learning styles	76
6.7 Summary.....	77
CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS –EFFECTS OF THE WORK SITUATION ON MOTIVATION.....	79
7.1 Introduction	79
7.2 Training and professional development	79
7.3 Working environment and materials	80
7.4 The students’ ability and motivation.	82
7.5 Success: Response and feedback	83
7.5.1 <i>Feedback</i>	85
7.6 Interaction with other teachers	85
7.7 Enjoying the work.....	86
7.8 Summary.....	87
CHAPTER 8: FINDINGS – THE MARKET SITUATION	89
8.1 Introduction	89
8.2 Career.....	89
8.3 Contractual rewards: Salary and vacations	90
8.4 Summary.....	93
CHAPTER 9: FINDINGS –STATUS AND RELATIONSHIPS.....	95
9.1 Introduction	95
9.2 The status situation	95
9.3 Human relationships	96
9.4 Goals related to the students’ personal development	97
9.5 Teacher-class relationships	98
9.5.1 <i>Respect</i>	99
9.6 Speaking only the target language (or not)	100
9.7 Motivational effects of the relationship with the students	101
9.8 Motivational effects of relationships with former teachers.....	102
9.9 Motivational effects of the relationship with the university	104
9.10 Summary	105

CHAPTER 10: DISCUSSION	107
10.1 Introduction	107
10.2 Work, market and status	107
10.3 Context	108
10.4 The nature of teacher motivation	109
10.4.1 Energy	110
10.5 Reflections on the study	112

BIBLIOGRAPHY	115
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APPENDICES:

1: Glossary of Japanese terms	127
2: Information to participants.....	129
3: Letter of consent for teachers.....	131
4: Revised letter of consent	133
5: Letter to participants after interviews and transcriptions.....	135
6: Guideline questions	137
7: Section of a transcribed interview	139
8: Section of transcribed focus group two.....	141
9: Coded data in HyperRESEARCH	143
10: Codes and themes	145
11: A HyperRESEARCH report	151

Tables

TABLE 2.1: Summary of research related to the motivation for being or becoming a teacher.....	between pages 20 and 21
TABLE 3.1: Participating teachers.....	36
TABLE 6.1: Language goals and grading criteria.....	69

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a working definition of motivation. It then goes on, in section 1.3, to explain why teacher motivation is important, and why those involved in the administration and management of an educational situation may be interested in this dissertation. In section 1.4, the research objectives are stated and explained. This is followed by an overview of the research design and, in section 1.6, a description of the research setting. The chapter concludes with an overview of the dissertation and a very brief review of each chapter.

1.2 Teacher motivation: a definition

Motivation is a broad concept. Porter et al (2003) identify three general categories of concern. Firstly, there is the question of what “energizes” human behaviour: how individuals are driven to behave in certain ways, and what environmental forces might trigger those drives. Secondly is the question of the direction of this behaviour: the notion of goal orientation. And thirdly is the consideration of the direction and channelling of this behaviour once it has started: what it is in individuals and environments that reinforces or discourages that behaviour. Evans (1998b, p.34) combines these ideas and defines motivation simply as “a condition, or the creation of a condition, that encompasses all of those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity.” This dissertation will take a teacher-centred approach. Both the activities related to teaching, and the inclination towards engagement in those activities will be defined in terms of the perceptions and descriptions of the teachers involved.

1.3 The importance of teacher motivation

According to Dörnyei (2001), little attention has been paid to the “important issue” of teacher motivation (p. 157). It is important because there is a substantial body of theory and empirical research suggesting that the teacher has an important effect on learner motivation. Pintrich and Schunk (1996), for example, stress the importance of teacher-student interactions, such as teacher feedback, praise and criticism, and establishment of a motivating classroom climate. Clark and Trafford (1995) found that both teachers and pupils consider the teacher-pupil relationship as the most significant determinant of pupils’ attitudes towards language learning. Also, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), in a study of Hungarian English teachers, and Chambers (1999), of British secondary school German learners, both found evidence that the teacher was the top motivational factor. For Noels et al. (1999), the main motivating factor is the extent to which the teacher provides feedback to the learner.

However, although it seems clear that teachers, and many aspects of teachers' behaviour and attitudes have an important effect on learning, there are only a few studies which have focussed the effect of teacher motivation in particular. Csikszentmihalyi (1997b), suggests that students will put more effort into their learning if they observe that their teacher has a commitment to the subject, and likes the activity of teaching. Similarly, Deci et al. (1997, p. 68) point out that it is part of the job of the teacher to "facilitate a positive rather than a negative cycle" by being enthused and involved. These ideas are supported empirically by Wild et al. (1992), who found that students reported greater enjoyment and motivation when they believed the teacher was intrinsically motivated (a volunteer) rather than being paid.

Not only Dörnyei, but also Csikszentmihalyi (1997b) has observed that there was very little empirical work being done, in particular on the intrinsic motivation of teachers (see section 2.6). Perhaps, however, this is due to the difficulty of identifying such a broad concept. In fact, as will be seen in chapter 2, there has been a substantial amount of research, spread over various disciplines, into topics which, put together, can begin to build an understanding of teacher motivation. The thesis of this dissertation is that teacher motivation can only be understood by taking a very broad view, and the most valuable view is that of the teachers themselves.

The findings of this dissertation are aimed at those involved in the administration and management of an educational situation. They would naturally be aiming at the promotion of an efficient and secure learning environment, with clients satisfied with quality, rate and cost of learning. Despite the lack of evidence that teacher motivation can directly affect these things, the indications that motivated teachers mean motivated learners make one very good reason for taking an interest in teacher motivation. Another reason is the breadth of the concept of teacher motivation, as defined in the first two paragraphs. The *nature* of teacher motivation is just as important as anything that indicates strength, effect or causation. Certainly, a manager would have goals for the institution and possibly there are processes in place for achieving them. It might be considered beneficial if the teachers shared those goals. However, an understanding of the teachers' motivations would, to paraphrase Porter (op. cit.), mean understanding not only what the teachers' goals are but also how they are energised, how they would go about achieving those goals, and what would affect their efforts in those activities. The management of the enterprise can then take this understanding into account.

1.4 Research objectives.

The main initial objective of this study is to contribute to the overall understanding of the nature of teacher motivation. This will be achieved by discovering the views of teachers themselves regarding their work and motivation. These views will be contained in accounts of interviews with, and focus groups involving a specific group of teachers. These accounts, which are written as far as possible so that readers can make their own interpretations, are in themselves

an important part of the research. My own interpretations will be largely expressed in the organisation of the accounts, which will be related to the second and third objectives.

A second objective is to show how the nature of teacher motivation can be dependent on the teaching context. Care was taken to describe the context of the study. (see section 1.6 below; also, in the words of the teachers: chapter 4). The original purpose of this was to enable readers to spot similarities or differences with the context with which they are concerned. That is still important. However, after a first reading of the data it became apparent that context had a vital influence on teacher motivation and that it was necessary to show this.

A third objective is to relate teacher motivation to the *work/market/status* categorisation proposed by David Lockwood (1989). Namely:

- Market situation:* The economic position narrowly conceived, consisting of source and size of income, degree of job-security, and opportunity for upward occupational mobility.
- Work situation:* The set of social relationships in which the individual is involved at work by virtue of his position in the division of labour.
- Status situation:* The position of the individual in the hierarchy of prestige in the society at large.

(Lockwood, 1989, p. 15)

This objective became defined during the process of research. As will be seen in chapter 2, much of the literature concerned with teacher motivation is in the field of psychology and, as will be explained in chapter 3, much of the processing and analysis of the data in this study was done in terms of psychological variables. However, it was decided to complement this with an examination of data from Lockwood's more sociological point of view. There were three reasons for this. Firstly, the data seemed to indicate an importance of the work situation and interesting interpretations related to market and status factors. Secondly, the psychological approach tends to generalise across contexts. However, this rather runs counter to the second objective above: to show that context *is* important. Lockwood's framework allows context to be considered. Thirdly, Lockwood's categorisation has a more direct relationship with the workplace, and therefore might allow for an interpretation that may be more related to working practice.

1.5 Overview of the Research Design

Full rationale for the design and details of procedure are detailed in chapter 3. I have taken an interpretive approach as my central research interest is "human meaning in social life and in its elucidation and exposition" (Erickson, 1986, p. 119). This approach was considered appropriate because I had no preconceived hypothesis and was interested in the *nature* of motivation with an initial focus on the interpretations and priorities of the teachers themselves. I required a method that would allow for a sensitive description of participant perspectives, which could then lead to identification of systematic patterns.

I chose to carry out an instrumental case study (Stake, 1995, 2000, 2003). That is, I hoped to obtain insight into teacher motivation by investigating a particular case. The case is the set of teachers working in the ‘Centre’, as described in section 1.6 below. As the teachers are working within a functioning program, this case could be said to have a system, and it is a bounded system, in that it can be discussed as a separate entity within boundaries. This boundedness would allow the reader to identify what is special about the case and therefore judge the relevance to another context.

Data was collected by means of individual semi-structured interviews. These were supplemented by focus groups, which allowed the participants to express themselves in a communicative environment (Fern, 1982; Morgan et al., 1993; Morgan, 1997). Altogether, I conducted 23 individual interviews and 2 focus groups, each with five teachers. The study spanned a period of seven and a half years (due to work commitments, about 60 days every year). A full schedule of the research is in section 3.3.

1.6 The setting

The case being studied is the set of German and English language teachers in a centre for teaching languages as a non-specialty subject in a Japanese university. The English language teachers are almost completely autonomous. Within very broad limits, they can create their own curricula, and choose their own methodologies, materials and evaluation criteria. There is little formal coordination. The German language teachers are slightly less autonomous, as they are expected to use the same materials and curriculum.

1.6.1 The university

The university is a private, medium-sized (12,000 students) institution in the top tier of Japanese universities, with some reputation for the number and standard of foreign language courses offered. 20 percent of the teaching staff, and 4% of the students are non-Japanese. It has a good reputation, and has few problems in attracting students. According to the current prospectus, the university encompasses “a total education and research system in which the entire university acts as a single entity in supporting the studies of its students.” It is one of the few universities that have continued the provision of General Education (*ippankyoiku*) since it ceased to be required by the Ministry of Education in 1990. This means that students are required to study subjects, including languages, in addition to their specialisations.

1.6.2 The Centre for the Teaching of Foreign Languages

The language portion of the General Education courses is provided by the Centre for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in General Education (*ippangaikokugo sentaa*, generally referred to by the

teachers as *ippan*, but referred to in this dissertation as the Centre). It is the teachers in this Centre who form the Case to be studied. The Centre has departmental status, but it is not part of any faculty, so none of the teachers are *sennin* (have tenure). However, the director of the Centre, and chairpersons of any committees, are always *sennin* from a faculty.

1.6.3 Functions of the Centre

The Centre is responsible for about 7,000 students, aged mainly between 18 and 20 in over 500 classes. It offers a choice of about ten languages, and each student must choose two, taking two 90-minute classes a week for each language for two years. English, the most popular language is studied by 6,000 students. German is studied about 700 students. The average size of an English class is 33 students, although many have the maximum number of 40. German classes tend to be much smaller.

According to the teachers' guide, the goal of the Centre is "to provide students with a diverse language education necessary to comfortably and productively function in an increasingly globalised, multicultural world." According to the director of the Centre, the higher the level, the less is the emphasis on the language form itself, and the greater the emphasis on being able to communicate in an academically oriented context. (Q:34).

1.6.4 The English language curriculum

Most of the teachers were involved in the planning and implementation of the curriculum, which was established in 1999. All students are tested and placed into levels, in which they can choose a class. Levels are from basic (all skills) to advanced (academic skills). At the intermediate level, there is the option to take a writing or reading class. There are brief entry criteria for each level, but no set description, syllabus or goal. According to the teachers' guide, teachers are "asked to write individual course descriptions with the entry criteria in mind." Teachers choose their own class goals, texts and methods, and work with almost complete autonomy.

Grades are given at the end of the course: between A and D, then Fail, and count towards a Grade Point Average. There are no general criteria for grading, except for minimum 85% attendance. Teachers devise their own criteria and evaluation procedures independently of the department and each other.

1.6.5 The German language curriculum

There is no formal placement test. First-year students are usually total beginners, and students who pass in their first-year classes proceed to intermediate courses in the second year. Each class meets twice a week, and is shared by two teachers.

There is a set German textbook that all teachers must use. This was chosen after consultation with teachers (but some teachers in this study arrived after the choice was made). The grading system is the same as for English, except that the two teachers are expected to communicate and discuss their grading. However, they are free to apply their own grading criteria.

1.6.6 The teachers

At the time of this study there were fourteen English and four German teachers employed on a *shokutaku* basis. This means they are full time, but on an annual contract, without full academic tenure. Eleven of the *shokutaku* English teachers were so-called 'native speakers', from the U.K., the U.S.A., Canada, or Australia, and the other three were Japanese nationals. Three of the *shokutaku* German language teachers were German or Austrian, with one Japanese national. The general academic requirement for all these positions is a Masters in Applied Linguistics or a similar field such as TEFL.

There are two groups of *shokutaku* teacher. One group of *shokutaku* teachers have had their contract renewed more than five years and therefore have legal grounds for considering that they are permanent employees under Japanese law. The university has acknowledged that their employment may only be discontinued under certain conditions, similar to those of the tenured staff (none of these conditions has any connection with standard of teaching). A second group of teachers, who joined after 2000 may only renew an annual contract twice, and then must leave.

All *shokutaku* teachers must teach at least six *koma* (90 minute classes), but most teach about ten, for which they are paid extra. The annual salary for *shokutaku* is above the national wage average, although it is low compared to other universities. Salary varies by age, as well as date of employment. Teachers are obliged to pay for health insurance, and both the university and the teacher must pay pension instalments, although there is a twenty-five-year minimum payment before any pension can be received. Each teacher also receives a substantial research allowance, which is often used by the teachers for class materials. Each teacher also has an office, which is shared with another teacher.

There are also 42 *hijokin* (part-time) English teachers and 19 *hijokin* German teachers. About two thirds of these are Japanese nationals. *Hijokin* are paid according to the number of *koma* that they teach, which is generally between two and six. Their total remuneration is much lower than the *shokutaku* (and also very low compared with other universities). Some are full-time elsewhere, and are supplementing their salaries. However, others need to teach many *koma* at many places in order to generate enough income to survive. They must arrange their own health insurance and pension from the national health system. They receive no travel or research allowance and must pay for their own class materials. They have no offices or even a locker.

Apart from teaching, class preparation and grading, there are few responsibilities for either *shokutaku* or *hijokin*. They do not belong to a faculty, so there are no faculty meetings. Each *shokutaku* teacher joins a committee in the Centre, but they meet only once or twice a term. There is no obligation to remain on campus when classes are not in session, and many teachers do not come to campus from the end of January to the beginning of April, and from the end of July to the beginning of October. There is no formal evaluation, or even any informal evaluation, of either *shokutaku* or *hijokin* teachers.

1.7 Overview of the dissertation and summary of chapters

Chapter Two reviews the main areas of theory and research related to occupational motivation, with emphasis on teacher motivation. Where possible, it will show the importance of context, and connections with the work, market and status perspectives.

Chapter Three details the methodology of this research, and the philosophy behind the methodology. It describes the procedures taken in the context, and the reasons for those procedures.

Chapter Four, Five, Six, Seven and Eight contain the findings. These chapters contain an analysed description of the data, and my own interpretations of that data. The organisation of the chapters according to work, market and status situations is my interpretation. (Full transcripts of data are contained in the CD accompanying this thesis).

Chapter Four describes the context from the perspective of the teachers: their perceptions of it, and attitudes to their working environment.

Chapter Five examines the teachers' conceptions of *motivation*.

Chapter Six begins the examination of the work situation by focussing on the teachers' work goals and the work process.

Chapter Seven focuses on the aspects of the work situation that appear to motivate the teachers.

Chapter Eight examines the motivation of the teachers in terms of the market situation.

Chapter Nine first examines the motivation of the teachers in terms of the status situation as defined by Lockwood. It then explains the reasons why it might be valuable to take another perspective and proceeds to examine motivation in terms of human relationships with students and university.

Chapter Ten contains a discussion regarding teacher motivation and the objectives of the dissertation.

The Bibliography contains complete references for all the chapters

The Appendices, One to Ten contain documents relevant to the research as referenced in the chapters.

(Appendix One contains a glossary of Japanese terms that are used in the dissertation. These are used either because there is no equivalent term in English or because they are in common usage by the participants.)

The attached CD contains full transcripts of interviews and focus groups (not attached to loose bound copy)

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

There has been a substantial amount of both theoretical and empirical research in the literatures of psychology, education, management and administration into a variety of issues that can build up an understanding of teacher motivation. This review will begin by discussing theory that is more psychologically based, and which is generally context-free. This introduces a number of concepts that are necessary for a fuller, general, understanding of motivation. It will then move on to discuss research that is more focussed on specific teacher-related issues and contexts.

Where appropriate, the research will be discussed with relation to the categories of *market*, *status* and *work*, as introduced by Lockwood (1989) (see section 1.4 above). To restate, the *market* situation involves such questions as income, security and upward occupational mobility. The *work* situation involves the position with regards to work. And the *status* situation involves the hierarchy of prestige in the society at large. This categorisation is certainly clearer in the latter, more contextual research, but it is also useful (where possible) in the more psychological, context-free theoretical research. In their review of this very wide body of theory, Mitchell and Daniels (2003) conclude: “researchers test or extend an existing theory and very little integrative or cross-fertilization takes place” (p. 39). Considering it in terms of Lockwood’s categories might enable a better integration between theories and a clearer understanding of the connection between theory, context, and, hopefully, practice.

The review will begin with an account of early theory in the field, introducing the concepts of *instinct*, *goals* and *drive*. This will be followed by a discussion of theories that see motivation in terms of hierarchies of *needs*. Thirdly, Section 2.4 will introduce the concepts of *self-efficacy* and *social cognitive theory*, followed in section 2.5 by a brief discussion of what Mitchell and Daniels (2003, p. 29) describe as “the 800-pound gorilla in the work motivation literature”: *goal-setting*.

The concepts of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation will be defined and introduced along with *self-determination theory* in section 2.6. The next section will discuss ideas revolving around concepts of *job satisfaction*, including the *motivator-hygiene theory*, and will continue by reviewing research into teachers’ job satisfaction. With the introduction of more contextual considerations, the relative levels of significance of work, market and status factors begin to become clearer. Section 2.9 will then examine the large amount of worldwide research into reasons for entering the profession. This will be followed by reviews of research into commitment, burnout, salary, and, in section 2.13, organisation and leadership. Finally, there will be an account of the little research that has been done in the EFL world.

2.2 Early theory: instinct and drive

The earliest theories, dating back to Greek philosophy, and re-emerging in the 18th and 19th centuries in the philosophies of Locke, Bentham, Mill and Helvetius, were based on the principle of *hedonism*. People were assumed to consider rationally the alternatives open to them then to act to maximise positive results and minimise negative results. The variables of *instinct* and *unconscious motivation* were introduced at the beginning of the twentieth century, with McDougall (1908) defining instinct as a *goal directed* “inherited or innate psychophysical disposition”. Freud (1915) argued that individuals might not consciously determine what behaviour is in their best interests.

Drive was defined by Woodworth (1918) as being that reservoir of energy within an organism that impels certain behaviour. The concept was later modified to refer to *energisers*, such as hunger thirst and sex toward certain *goals*. Cannon (1939) theorised that the goal to which an individual is driven would be the *normal* state, and anything else would be a state of disequilibrium (*homeostasis*) that the individual is motivated by internal drives to correct. He describes a dynamic environment, in which certain drives are satisfied first, and are then replaced by others: a concept later seen in the theories of Maslow (see section 2.3).

Hull (1943) saw *Drive* as an energiser that increased in strength along with the level of *deprivation*. He then posited that *Effort* (the impetus to respond, or take action) = *Drive* × *Habit* × *Incentive*, where *Habit* was the strength of the relationship with past experience and *Incentive* is the anticipatory reaction to future goals. Thus, for example, motivation for teachers to write their own materials might be a multiplicative function of the deprivation felt of not having those materials, the success they’d had with their own materials in the past, and the perceived reward that those materials would bring them.

These theories appear to be inadequate for explaining the complex tasks that are the options of a teacher. As has become clear in the growing literature on teacher decision-making and cognition (reviewed by Borg, 2003), a teacher’s decision to undertake a certain task cannot be adequately explained by a simple equation. As one example, drive theory appears to ignore the possible importance of improving performance by learning to do the task.

They also ignore context, and do not help to distinguish between the market, status and work related aspects of motivation. For example, the concept of the goal as a normal state of equilibrium tells us nothing about whether that is a personal, professional, social or any other state. However, the introduction of concepts such as deprivation does acknowledge an importance of social, rather than purely psychological aspects: low pay, low status in the workplace, or a lack of work satisfaction. Despite their limitations, these early theories introduce and define terms which are commonly used in discussions of motivation, and do provide a basis for further understanding.

2.3 Needs hierarchies: Maslow and Alderfer

The hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow 1954, 1968), and the existence-relatedness-growth (ERG) theory (Alderfer, 1972) appear to lend themselves to categorisation. Maslow's theory posits that individuals are motivated by five general needs, and that these needs form a hierarchy, with lower-order needs having to be met before higher levels are activated:

- Lower order, *deficiency* needs:
 - i) physiological (to survive and be healthy)
 - ii) safety and security
 - iii) belongingness (to be accepted by others)
- Higher order, *growth* needs:
 - iv) esteem and ego (to be recognised and respected)
 - v) self-actualisation (to develop one's full potential)

Only when the deficiency needs are met can one develop and achieve one's potential by meeting the two growth needs. Alderfer later adapted the idea to be more relevant to organisational settings. His existence-relatedness-growth (ERG) Theory reduces the number of categories from five to three:

- i) *existence* (similar to Maslow's physiological and some safety needs),
- ii) *relatedness* (similar to belongingness, and some security and esteem/ego needs)
- iii) *growth* (similar to Maslow's self-esteem and self-actualisation needs).

The ERG Theory also posits that individuals tend to move through the needs as each is satisfied. However, it is more flexible in that it also suggests that more than one need may be operative at one time, and that frustration at one level might lead to regression to the one below. Apart from some support for the separation of deficiency needs from growth needs, there is little empirical support for Maslow (Review of findings in Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). And only a few studies (e.g. Schneider & Alderfer, 1973) show support for ERG theory.

In the case of teachers, for each of their many tasks, it cannot be known which category of needs is being satisfied, and it is doubtful whether it is practical to talk of discrete stages in a real working environment. With reference to Lockwood's categories, a simple interpretation might be that existence needs are met by market factors and the need for relatedness met more by status factors, but the growth needs are less clear. The need to be recognised and respected would certainly be related to status factors. However, self-actualisation needs may be met not just by work, but also by either of the other categories. Whether in fact they are met by work-related factors would surely depend on the context. Nevertheless, the introduction of the concept of needs being satisfied was an important one, and these theories are often referred to.

2.4 Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy

Expectancy/valence theories (e.g. Vroom, 1964) see motivational effort to perform an action as being a function of *expectancy* and *valence*, where *expectancy* is defined as the belief that that

particular action would lead to a particular outcome, and *valence* is defined as the value placed on that anticipated outcome (Lewin, 1938 and Tolman, 1959). Upon these ideas have been developed the more context specific concept of *self-efficacy*: “an individual’s belief (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003: p. 126). This explains behaviour in terms of the reciprocal causations among the person (e.g. ability), the environment (e.g. pay) and the behaviour itself (e.g. success or not).

Social cognitive theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1997) is based on the concept of self-efficacy. It identifies four categories of experience that might determine self-efficacy beliefs, which are formed on the basis of subjective perceptions of the experience, rather than ‘objective’ reality. The first is previous success on a task (*enactive mastery experience*), the perception of which might be based on factors related to the complexity and difficulty of the task, and conceptions of ability. Second is *vicarious learning* from competent colleagues, or by careful modelling, and third is *appropriate verbal persuasion*. Lastly, the individual’s *physiological or psychological state*, stress and fatigue while succeeding in a task, may serve to reduce self-efficacy.

Employees with low self-efficacy would stop trying prematurely and not succeed, while those with high self-efficacy would make efforts that, if well executed, would lead to a successful outcome. The motivation that led to the task being taken up in the first place is still important, and may be either intrinsic (reflecting desires) or extrinsic (reflecting the environment, such as pay).

Much of the research in support of the theory is detailed in the meta-analysis of Stajkovic & Luthans (1998), and there are few contradicting findings. Efficacy is also a focus of some educational research. Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2000), in reviewing measures of efficacy reflected that in order to improve support for novice teachers, we should take seriously the “potency of efficacy beliefs to impact teacher motivation and persistence” (p. 803). Ginns & Watters’ case study of novice science teachers (1996) showed that this self-efficacy could be developed by principals and school administrators. Lastly, Friedman & Kass (2002), based on self-report questionnaires from 555 teachers, proposed that conceptualisation of efficacy should be expanded to include school-organizational contexts.

From the management point of view, social cognitive theory suggests that the context can be changed so as to influence teachers’ beliefs in themselves. Steps might be taken to define tasks with the potential for high self-efficacy, and to ensure a cooperative environment where teachers might observe and model themselves on the success of others. Certainly, this would mainly involve factors in the work situation. However, care must be taken to ensure that unsatisfactory status and market factors do not lead to stress and fatigue.

2.5 Goal-setting theory

According to Mitchell & Daniels (2003, p. 29), “the single most dominant theory in the field” is goal-setting theory (Locke, 2003; Locke & Latham, 1990). This theory is in the form of a wide range of conclusions made after many years of observations. It was found that goals affect performance firstly by affecting the direction of action and the degrees of effort and persistence, and secondly by stimulating planning. The more specific and difficult a goal is, the higher is the performance, as long as commitment is sufficient.

This commitment requires a conviction that the goal is important, and that it is attainable. Such commitment can be enhanced by supportiveness, recognition, rewards, participation in setting the goals and strategies (Latham, Winters and Locke, 1994), self-set goals (Locke, 1966), and effective leadership (Locke et al, 1991). It is also influenced by self-efficacy, as defined in section 2.4. Feedback is also important: the effectiveness of goal setting can be increased by feedback if it is a clear indication of whether movement is fast enough and in the right direction. However, if there are no set goals, then feedback has no effect on behaviour.

Binswanger (1991) points out the merits of having workers set their own purposes and manage themselves. The choice of goal would be based both on their values (which would push to higher order goals) and on what they think they are capable of (hence lower goals, to avoid the stress of failure). According to Locke (2003, p. 121) the key principle is personal context: “life goals must be based on what one really wants out of life (not on what other people want one to want) and on one’s true capabilities.”

In a consideration of faculty motivation, Latham et al (1997) suggest that the key to effective teaching is “to address the question of why the curriculum exists, what its goals are, and what void would exist for the faculty member and student if the goal was not attained” (p. 139). They suggest a goal chain, in which one goal facilitates the attainment of the next:

*< organise material → communicate effectively → help students attain learning goals
→ achieve pride from helping students master the material → reward >*

When the goal is set, there is a sense of purpose, and if there is no goal, faculty do not know if they have performed well (or will overestimate their performance (Kernan & Lord, 1989)). Commitment to goals would be encouraged if deans emphasised the importance of teaching, and if teaching effectiveness were linked to promotion. Also, if the organisation has a *superordinate goal* or a vision that can inspire the faculty, then they will be more willing to participate in goal setting.

Goals in this context, then, are primarily work related, and while, according to Binswanger, teachers should be able to set their own goals, they should also be committed to whatever goals the institution might have. This would imply a necessity for the institution to ensure that there are no

conflicts. Also, it is not unlikely that the individual teacher would also have status or market-related goals (above all perhaps, related to security). It would surely also be necessary to ensure that commitment to those personal goals do not conflict with the work goals (either personal or institutional). The best path may be to make those personal status and market goals achievable, so as to allow concentration on work goals.

Despite Mitchell & Daniels' conviction of the importance of goal-setting theory, it has been only rarely referred to in educational research. One exception is in the investigations of co-operative pay-for-performance schemes, discussed in section 2.12.

2.6 Intrinsic motivation: self-determination theory (SDT) and flow theory

Deci and Ryan's *self-determination theory* (SDT) focuses on *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation. They define intrinsic motivation as "the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore and to learn". It refers to "doing the activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself." Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to "the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2003, pp. 51, 54).

Context is important: the assumption is that work should take place in conditions that elicit and sustain intrinsic motivation, and the concern should be to identify those conditions. The theory asserts that such conditions would be those that support competence and autonomy (i.e. people must be able to perceive their competence as self-determined), and relatedness (a sense of security and relatedness) (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; Ryan, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2003).

Any extrinsic rewards and a 'controlling' environment, with deadlines and imposed goals, lead to a reduced sense of autonomy, and therefore to lower intrinsic motivation (meta-analysis of research by Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 1999). However, Deci and Ryan do identify a very 'autonomous' form of extrinsic motivation, where the individual might identify with the rewards and regulations in such a way that the quality of motivation is as if it were intrinsic. (The position that extrinsic rewards can ever be detrimental is not without its critics: Eisenberger & Cameron (1996), for example, dismiss it as a myth).

Thus, the theory posits that motivation may come from a number of sources in that environment: certainly from the work situation, but also status, and even market, if there is a condition of autonomy such that the teacher identifies with the reward. SDT is important because of the clear distinctions it makes between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. It also acknowledges the importance of the teacher's environment, and in particular, conditions of autonomy. (The issue of autonomy will be returned to in the findings in section 4.5, and the conclusion of 6.2).

SDT theorists have investigated teachers, but only in connection with their relationship to learners. One conclusion is that it is part of the job of the teacher to “facilitate a positive rather than a negative cycle” by being enthused and involved (Deci, 1997, pp. 68-69). Teachers who have not been pressurised themselves have been found to be more likely to allow their students more autonomy, and the resulting student enthusiasm may in turn affect that of the teacher (Deci et al., 1982).

This mutual motivation is also stressed by Csikszentmihalyi (1975, 1979, 1997a, 1997b), who argues that intrinsic motivation should actually be a goal of education and “the real task of a professor is to enable the learner to enjoy learning” (1997b, p. 76). He conceives that this would happen in a state of *flow* “felt when opportunities for action are in balance with the actor’s skills” (1979, p. 261). In this state, subjects report feeling “more active, alert, concentrated, happy, satisfied and creative” (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre (1989, p. 816 referring to Nakamura, 1988, and Wells, 1988). The teacher’s intrinsic reward is provided by the educational process itself, the classroom and the organisational structure: in other words, entirely by work factors, and certainly not status or market. The task of teaching could become autotelic: worth doing for its own sake. These ideas are based on observations and interviews with individuals in many different fields, many of which are documented in Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988. Csikszentmihalyi wrote, however, that there were “virtually no studies of intrinsic motivation in teaching” (1997b, p. 87) and little empirical information as to how teaching can be an enjoyable experience. One such study is Tardy & Snyder (2004) (see section 2.14).

2.7 Job satisfaction: theory

Job satisfaction, according to Evans (1998b, p. 40) influences motivation through its effect on *morale*: “A state of mind encompassing all the feelings determined by the individual’s anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which s/he perceives as significantly affecting his/her work situation.” If morale is high, due to high expectations of satisfaction, then individuals are motivated towards goal-focused activity that would in turn sustain and increase job satisfaction. According to Garrett (1999), the terms *motivation* and *job satisfaction* are often used interchangeably (although motivation is the more complex concept). Dinham & Scott (1998a, p.362) see the two concepts as being “somewhat confused”. They define motivation as generally a “stimulus for behaviour and action”, and satisfaction as “a product of behaviour and action”, with both linked through their influence on each other.

2.7.1 Motivator-hygiene theory

Motivator-hygiene theory, developed by Herzberg and colleagues (Herzberg et al., 1959 and Herzberg, 1966) was one of the first theories to consider job satisfaction in the contexts of work organisations. In education, Owens (1995, p. 57), after reviewing two decades of literature,

concluded that Herzberg's research "must be accepted as representing the state of the art". The theory has formed the basis of much research, much of which is reviewed in Thompson et al (1997), and Spear et al (2000).

Herzberg argued that the manipulation of *extrinsic* factors, such as salary and company policies, would not increase satisfaction, but only lead to a neutral state at best, and possibly dissatisfaction. He called these extrinsic factors the *hygiene* factors. On the other hand, satisfaction might occur as a result of factors *intrinsic* to the content of the job. He identifies five specific factors: achievement, recognition of that achievement, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself. These are the *motivators*.

In terms of Lockwood's categories, then, the motivator-hygiene theory suggests that market factors, which would include salary, and what Herzberg refers to as *context* factors such as fringe benefits, might not increase satisfaction. It is only status and work factors that can be motivators (as defined by Herzberg). However, while Lockwood sees status as being in the society at large, Herzberg also appears to be referring to status factors within the work environment. Similarly, factors within the work situation are not necessarily motivators. The work itself is clearly intrinsic, but factors such as supervision are not, according to Herzberg. In other words, there is not necessarily a clear correspondence between Lockwood's categories and Herzberg's distinctions of intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Evans (1998b) points out that there is a difference between things being *satisfactory* (e.g. customer satisfaction) and things being *satisfying* (e.g. the satisfaction of climbing a mountain). What Herzberg has done is list one group of factors (the hygiene factors), which would generally determine how satisfactory a job is, and another group of factors (the intrinsic motivators) that would relate to how satisfying it is. Teachers would be satisfied (or not satisfied) *with* the hygiene factors, but *by* the more intrinsic factors of the job.

Evans' position is that both intrinsic and extrinsic domains involve satisfaction, but she suggests new definitions, to clarify the ambiguities. *Job comfort* would be "The extent to which the individual is satisfied with, but not by, the conditions and circumstances of his job." *Job fulfilment* would be "A state of mind encompassing all the feelings determined by the extent of the sense of personal achievement which the individual attributes to his/her performance of this/her job which s/he values." And *job satisfaction* would then be a combination of job comfort and job fulfilment: "A state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his/her job-related needs to be met" (op. cit., p. 11). Thus market, work, or status factors can all contribute to job satisfaction, either through job comfort or job fulfilment.

2.8 Job satisfaction: research

2.8.1 Working contexts

The bulk of research into work satisfaction concludes that work-related factors are most important. However, these factors can be divided into the work itself (that is, what the teachers do in the classroom) and the institutional organisation of that work. A further distinction can be made between those institutional factors that increase job satisfaction (as a combination of comfort and fulfilment) and those that do not. Not all contexts are the same, and Nias (1981, 1989) suggested that research based on Herzberg's theories should be expanded to take consideration of specific working contexts. Her studies of primary school teachers found that some factors related to work with pupils caused dissatisfaction. Evans (op. cit.), who argued that this dissatisfaction should in fact be seen as (un)satisfactory job comfort, also concluded that "job satisfaction, morale and motivation are predominantly contextually determined" (p. 138). She stresses the importance of compatibility between "teachers and the contexts in which they work" (p. 139).

There are a number of studies that find that teacher satisfaction is primarily connected with intrinsic factors: related to the actual work that they do. This was, for example, the main conclusion of the research into British primary schools by Evans (1998b), Pollard et al. (1994), and Osborn et al. (2000). In a review of English-based research, Spear et al. (2000) found that teachers were satisfied by working with children and the intellectual challenge. Similar conclusions have been made in the few studies that have focused on job satisfaction in developing countries (for example, Rodgers-Jenkinson & Chapman (1990) in Jamaica, and Hean & Garrett (2001) in Chile).

In Cyprus, Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), carried out a qualitative interview study and concluded that "Cypriot teachers' perceptions of their satisfaction were intimately connected to the joy gained from working with children, the growth and wellbeing of their students and their contribution to the society" (p. 243). Also, in the field of EFL, Pennington (1995) reviewed the research literature into job satisfaction, and concluded that a generally high level of work satisfaction was brought about by intrinsic job factors.

Many studies (including some of those mentioned above) also discovered the importance of work-related institutional factors. Dinham & Scott (1998a) concluded, based on a study of Australian schoolteachers, that specific school based factors, such as school leadership, infrastructure and reputation were important. He referred to these factors as the *third domain*. This would come between motivating intrinsic factors such as self-growth, and extrinsic dissatisfiers, such as educational change, poor status and administrative workloads. It is in this third domain that Dinham and Scott saw the greatest potential for change in schools.

Dinham & Scott's ideas were supported by the findings of The International Teacher 2000 Project (Dinham & Scott, 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 2000a, 2000b; Scott & Dinham, 1999, 2003; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1998; Scott, Dinham & Brooks, 1999). This project attempted to look at differences between five countries: Australia (892 responding teachers), England (609), New Zealand (565), the USA (668) and Malta (612). They were interested in the 'motivation to teach', and the study focused on levels of occupational satisfaction. One of the conclusions was that context is all-important:

Our research also suggests one measure of 'success' in the profession- occupational satisfaction- is better predicted by contextual factors. While teachers may want or not want to teach, this preference appears to more attributable to aspects of the context in which they teach, rather than intra psychic factors such as motivation.

Scott et al. (2001) <http://www.aare.edu.au/02pap/sco02418/conc.htm>

A number of other researchers have concluded that institutional organisational factors have important influences on job satisfaction. Gismondi Haser & Nasser (2003) spent six months interviewing and observing educators in a Virginia primary school that had just changed from a regular school year to a year-round schedule. They found that the best way to maintain satisfaction was to have innovative supportive administrators, flexible work opportunities, and periodic breaks. Also, Bogler (2002) investigated 745 teachers in Northern Israel, and found that degrees of teachers' job satisfaction were most related to their principals' leadership styles. (see section 2.13 for a discussion of leadership). Lastly, Spear et al. (op. cit.), who had stressed the importance of intrinsic factors (see above), also found that teachers were dissatisfied by work overload imposed by institutional decisions.

Spear et al. (op. cit.) also found that teachers were satisfied by independence, which should therefore be encouraged by the organisation. Other studies also highlighted the importance of work-related organisational factors in shaping the relationship of teachers to their work, particularly with regard to autonomy. Wright & Custer (1998), for example, found that a large sample of 'outstanding' U.S.A. technology teachers was satisfied mainly by "the excitement and stimulation of learning and working with new technologies" (p. 73). However, these outstanding teachers were all fairly autonomous in developing and implementing curriculum. On the occasions that support and understanding of administrators was lacking, they felt frustrated, as they felt their administrations did not know enough about technology education.

On the basis of her investigations of primary school teachers, Evans (1998b) concluded that it was important for teachers to feel a sense of achievement. Certainly, this can be gained from intrinsic work-related factors. However, some also gain a sense of achievement by contributing to the success of school policy. The extent to which this is the case depends on *professionalism* orientations (the degree to which they feel involved with concepts that are wider than the classroom itself, such as policy, pedagogy, and collegiality (Hoyle & John, 1995)). Not all teachers would have the same degree of professionalism, and in order to manage a multiplicity of

orientations within the same working environment, Evans suggested that the vital element was *leadership* (see section 2.13).

2.8.2 Market and status factors

Both market and status factors have been found to affect job satisfaction (most likely, to use Evans' definitions, through their effect on job comfort). Spear et al. (op. cit.) found that teachers were dissatisfied by poor pay: obviously a market factor, and perceptions of society's view of teachers, which would be a status factor. Pennington (op. cit.), who above stressed the importance of intrinsic factors in EFL job satisfaction, suggested that a clearer long-term career structure was necessary. Also, work should be organised so that teachers are able not only to "realise their full potential", but also to "satisfy their needs for self-esteem and recognition by others" (p. 141). The need for self-esteem was echoed by Bogler (2002), who found that teachers' job satisfaction was related not only to principals' leadership styles (see above), but also to their own perceptions of their occupation.

Three further studies show the various ways in which both status and market factors can be important. Firstly, in a questionnaire study of 107 experienced EFL/ESL teachers in Egypt and Hawaii, Kassabgy et al (2001) found that the variable *respect* was important. If they were treated with respect (for example, asked for advice and taken seriously) they were satisfied. A lack of respect brought dissatisfaction. Secondly, in Israel, Fresko et al. (1997) observed 175 teachers over ten years, and concluded that satisfaction was caused equally by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. They suggest that this was because of the career environment in Israel. It attracts more from "lower status ethnic groups" (p.436), and government marketing strategies have increased expectations of rewards. Finally, In Cyprus, Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), whose findings regarding the importance of factors intrinsic to the job are detailed in section 2.8.1 above, also found that satisfaction was generated by the belief that they were responsible for an important contribution to their country's development. (Motives such as this have been defined as *altruistic* (see Bastick (2000), discussed in section 2.9.1)).

2.9 The motivation to become a teacher

There is a large body of research addressing the motivation to become a teacher. Spear et al (2000) reviewed relevant UK based research up to 1997 in order to discover what attracts people into teaching and what influences them to stay. Their conclusion was: "prospective teachers are principally attracted to the profession by the rewarding nature of the work involved, as opposed to the pay or conditions on offer" (p. iii). The main reward was satisfaction of working with children. Table 3.1 lists recent international research into the issue, and UK research that has been conducted since Spear's review.

For convenience of reference, table 3.1 lists research in alphabetical order of researcher's name. It describes briefly the context of research, the particular question being asked and the method used. Only the more salient or important findings are documented. There is a wide variety of both contexts and methods, with large sample quantitative investigations tending to focus on specific influences and causations, and qualitative methods (mainly interviews) providing a wider picture. There are many different international settings, including both developed and developing countries.

Most of this research is focused on trainee teachers: why they chose the career, and why they might have switched careers. There are also, however, a number of investigations into practising teachers, reflecting on career choices made in the past, in the light of subsequent experience (e.g. Andrews & Hatch, 2002; Lacy, 2003; McKelvey & Andrews, 1998; Miech & Elder, 1996; Pole, 1999; and Pugano et al, 1997).

There is research into different *levels*, or, in the case of trainees, proposed levels: secondary schools (Kyriacou et al., 1999), further education (McKelvey & Andrews, 1998), preschool (Moran et al., 2001; Phillips & Hatch, 1999) and primary schools (Thornton et al., 2002). There has also been research into motivation to teach *specific subjects*. These include English in Slovenia (Kyriacou & Kobori 1998), science (Eick, 2002), maths (Andrews & Hatch, 2002; Hodgen, 2004), and massage therapy (Finch, 2004). While all of the various conclusions differ to a certain extent, there is no clear evidence of differences being contingent on any particular level or subject.

2.9.1 The market situation

There were no studies that concluded that pay, security, promotion prospects and similar extrinsic rewards were *not* important. However, many did say that they were not as important as more intrinsic, work-related factors, for example: Thornton et al. (2002), Moran et al. (2001) and Priyadharshini & Robinson-Pant (2003), all of which research was conducted in the USA. McKelvey & Andrews (1998) found that trainee further education teachers in London were motivated despite a pessimistic assessment of their remunerations.

There were two exceptions to this trend. The first was in developing countries. Bastick (2000) found that Jamaican teacher trainees were most strongly motivated by extrinsic factors. Similarly, Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2004) found that teachers in Cyprus (which they define as a developing country) had entered the profession because of expectations of salary and holidays. (This was on the basis of a quantitative questionnaire study. They later carried out a more qualitative study and modified their conclusions (see section 2.8.1)). At the other end of the scale, Towse et al. (2002) found that poor pay (and low status) led to low motivation and commitment among Tanzanian trainees. In Tibet, Su et al. (2002), came to a similar conclusion.

Table 2.1: Summary of Research related to the motivation for being or becoming a teacher.

Reference	Setting & Participants	Research Question	Method	Answers And Findings.
Andrews & Hatch (2002)	England: 45 secondary maths teachers.	Why did they become teachers?	Interviews: life histories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experiences as learners. Desire to work with people Inevitability Serendipitous life event Desire to change career.
Bastick (2000)	Jamaica: 1433 teacher trainees (70% female)	Why will they take up teaching?	Likert questionnaire. Items from previous interview	Extrinsic factors most important, followed by altruistic (e.g.: save the nation). Intrinsic came last
Bastick (2002)	Jamaica: 821 novice trainees, 206 experienced trainees	Motivational differences between novices and experienced	Questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Higher all round motivation of experienced trainees. Novice trainees more extrinsically motivated than experienced (influence of 'materialism')
Bissaker (2001)	South Australia: 25 teachers in Grad. Cert. Program in area of Learning Difficulties.	Why did they apply for the course (and did they get what they wanted?)	Meetings with students as part of the course evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development of knowledge, skills and effective practices. Opportunity to develop networks with other participants. Upgrade qualifications and improve employment opportunities. (Yes, they got what they wanted.)
Carrington & Tomlin (2000)	England: 289 ethnic minority PGCE students.	What are their motives for entering teaching	Questionnaires (776 issued); 49 semi-structured interviews.	A very wide picture of a sensitive subject, with no focus on any one factor. Tendency to see teaching as a vocation, with mostly intrinsic attractions.
Eick, C. (2002)	19 secondary science education graduates.	What are the Intrinsic reasons for career choice	Essay writing ('biographical approach')	If they started college as science education majors, they teach to shape students' lives. If they started as science majors, they learn science while enhancing students' science literacy.
Finch (2004)	Toronto, Canada: 73 Massage Therapy students	What is their Motivation to enter massage therapy education.	Questionnaire.	Attraction of helping and working with people.
Hodgen (2004)	One primary teacher who decided to specialise in Maths (on of 6 in a team study)	How did she develop desire to be a maths teacher	Case study.	"...compelled to change through this powerful emotive and motivating force of desire" "richness, quality and affective nature of her experience" (p. 35)
Kyriacou & Kobori (1998)	Slovenia: 95 Student Teachers.	What is their motivation to become English teachers	Two questionnaires, rating reasons.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "I enjoy the subject." "English is important to me." "I want to help children succeed."
Kyriacou et al (1999)	York, England: 112 student teachers; Stavanger, Norway: 105 student teachers (older).	What is their motivation to become secondary school teachers?	Questionnaire, then 12 in each interviewed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both: enjoyed subject, liked working with children. Norwegians placed more value on long holidays, social hours. English more value on 'wanting to help children succeed.'

Reference	Setting & Participants	Research Question	Method	Answers And Findings.
Lacy (2003)	Victoria, Australia: 1344 teachers.	Aspirations of teachers to become principals, and what were the affects of these aspirations?	Questionnaire from all teachers, then focus groups.	A wide range of conclusions based on the hypothesis that work motivation, career and life planning, and values alignment are key factors. Evidence was often contradictory.
Lewis & Butcher (2002)	Sydney: grade 11/12 pupils?	Why are they considering (or not) becoming a teacher? (Particularly males)	'Oral enquiry': 10 Focus group sessions of 5-7 pupils.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal sense of efficacy important. • Factors for females: helping others, secure holidays. • Factors for males: status, salary, and promotion.
McKelvey & Andrews (1998)	London: 16 Trainee Further Education lecturers	Why do they teach?	Open structured interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most are not optimistic. • Want to do a socially useful job for realistic remuneration with reasonable resources, but realised that is optimistic.
Miech & Elder (1996)	USA: 3,783 who became teachers in 1962; 724 who became teachers between 1972 and 1986	Is there a connection between the reasons for entering, and the likelihood of leaving the profession?	Survey questionnaires over time	The more idealistic their reasons for teaching, the more likely they were to leave the profession.
Moran et al (2001)	Northern Ireland: 466 students	Why did they choose a teaching career?	Questionnaire.	Mainly for intrinsic reasons, but extrinsic factors were not unimportant.
Mulholland & Hansen (2003)	Australia: 16 new male graduates, aged 21-36.	What motivates young men to choose primary teaching?	Semi-structured group interviews.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working with Children • Desirable career and working conditions. • Support of parents. • They think they are less conscientious than females, but have "interests other than study which give them an edge in the classroom."
Nam & Oxford (1998)	One teacher with a language-related disability.	What is her motivation to become a teacher.	Case Study.	This is a wide-ranging portrait of the subject. Few discrete points, other than the indication that teaching gave her knowledge about herself.
Pagano et al (1997)	New Jersey: 21 Urban schoolteachers, all levels	How did their first two years of teaching affect motivation?	Questionnaires, group interview, telephone interviews.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four increased motivation (making a difference, and they knew what to expect) • Four decreased motivation (bad pupils, lack of support, etc)
Phillips & Hatch (1999)	64 Early childhood education students.	What are their reasons for wanting to teach?	Examined application forms	Deep commitment to making difference in lives of children and society in general.
Pole (1999)	England: 20 Black teachers	What were their motives for entering the profession	Life Histories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of Role Model • Status • Making a Difference • Escape (financial and cultural) • Racism integral to lives.

Reference	Setting & Participants	Research Question	Method	Answers And Findings.
Priyadharshini & Robinson-Pant (2003)	England: 34 teacher trainees.	Why did they change careers to become teachers?	"Loosely structured" interviews.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possibilities of 'self-actualisation'. • A morally satisfying and socially relevant job. • (A wide-ranging portrait)
Richardson & Watt (2002) Richardson et al (2001)	Melbourne: 74 Mature Grad. Teaching Dip. Students (predominantly female)	Why did they change careers to become teachers?	Attitudinal Questionnaire, open-ended questions and phone interviews (7 subjects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five factors relating to: social status, career fit, prior considerations, and financial reward, time for family. • Responses independent of previous qualifications, parenthood or gender. • Dissatisfaction with the previous job was not a factor.
Shaw (1996)	USA: 2 African-American teaching students (1 male, 1 female)	Examination of their feelings about becoming teachers	Narrative, life history, over one year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion based on Lortie's (1975) themes of service. Adds political and historical forces. • They decided not to become teachers: not empowering enough.
Su et al (2002)	Tibet: 105 graduating teacher candidates (part of larger China/USA study)	Reasons for entering teaching, and commitment as a lifelong career.	Questionnaire, 18 interviews, training observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic reasons most important • Low commitment, as low status and poor compensation.
Thornton et al (2002)	England: 1,611 newly recruited primary initial teacher education students (87% female)	Why did they decide to train as primary teachers?	Questionnaire (Likert), then 148 interviews based on responses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Pulled' towards teaching: positive, often altruistic reasons. • Most always wanted to teach. Felt would be high job satisfaction, good career, or challenge.
Towse et al (2002)	Tanzania: 132 non-graduate teaching cert. students. (71m, 61f)	Why did they want to become teachers?	Questionnaire with 'qualitative statements'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching last resort, low status, low paid. Most doing it as it is one of the last salaried openings left, and would do something else if they could. • Doubts about motivation, commitment and effectiveness.
Wang & Fwu (2002)	Hong Kong: 44 Pre-service graduate students.	Is their choice to be a teacher a 'backup' choice?	In-depth interviews.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five groups emerged: Devoted Educators, Responsible Teachers, Career Explorers, Pragmatists, and Uncommitted. • Most students chose teaching as primary career.
Watters & Ginns (2000)	Australia: 154 students in B.Ed. course. 85% female.	How did a student centred collaborative learning experience enhance the students' will to teach elementary science?	Qualitative/Quantitative: Survey instrument, classroom observations, focus groups, and journals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation in terms of expectancy, value, and affect were enhanced. • Perceptions of value and importance of science was improved. • Science teaching self-efficacy increased.
Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2004)	Cyprus: 461 K-12 teachers and administrators	Why did they choose the career? How do those motives influence their level of satisfaction?	Greek adapted version of "Teacher 2000 Project" questionnaire (see section 2.3.2a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They chose career because of the salary, hours and holidays. • The higher the teachers' extrinsic motivation, the more satisfied they are with their jobs. • More realistic expectations led to greater satisfaction.

The second exception was found in research focussing on male trainees in Australia. Lewis & Butcher (2002) found that while females were attracted by the opportunity to help others, males tended to be more interested in salary and promotion. Mulholland & Hansen (2003) found that males were at least as interested in career opportunities as in the opportunity to work with children, and his male subjects thought that, compared to females, their interests outside the classroom gave them the edge within it. However, evidence of gender-related differences is inconclusive. In a survey of female mature Australian students who were changing careers to become teachers, predominant factors were found to be related to financial reward, security and family-related convenience (Richardson & Watt, 2002).

2.9.2 *The status situation*

The participants in the above-mentioned Australian studies of Lewis & Butcher (op. cit.) and Richardson & Watt (op. cit.) were also attracted to a degree of social status. Trainees in Tibet and Tanzania, on the other hand, were found to have poor commitment due to the low status of their intended jobs (Su et al. (op. cit.) and Towse et al. (op. cit.)). The only other instances of weight given to status were in two studies of ethnic minorities. In England, a group of black teachers reflected that the search for status had been a factor in choosing the profession (Pole, 1999). In an USA case study, African-American trainees said the same thing, and eventually decided not to pursue the career, as it was not empowering enough (Shaw, 1996). However, a large study of ethnic minority trainees in England found that intrinsic considerations tended to be most important (Carrington & Tomlin, 2000).

2.9.3 *The work situation*

Nearly all the studies listed indicated the importance of work-related factors to some degree. Some, such as Moran et al. (2001), Philips & Hatch (1999), and Kyriacou & Kabori (1998), concluded that these factors are the most important. Others placed them in context with a list of other factors. In the Jamaican study of trainees, intrinsic work-related factors were actually the least important, behind extrinsic factors, and what were defined as *altruistic* factors, such as a desire to help the nation (Bastick, 2000).

Most of the participants in these studies are yet to start their career, and therefore are only estimating the value of work-related rewards. Some research, however, looks into how these perceptions can change with experience. After a wide study of USA teachers, Miech & Elder (1996) concluded that the more idealistic the reasons for entering the teaching profession, the more likely they were to leave it. Pagano et al (1997) interviewed U.S. urban teachers after two years on the job, to find out how motivation had changed. They found that four out of 21 had increased motivation, in terms of feeling they were making a difference, while four had decreased, due to

poor conditions. However, in Jamaica, Bastick (2001) found that if teacher trainees had already had work experience, they tended to be more intrinsically motivated than novice trainees.

In a comparative study, of English and Norwegian trainees Kyriacou et al. (1999) found that while the English placed more value on wanting to help the children, the Norwegians tended to be more interested in the long holidays and more sociable hours. However, this may have been due to the fact that the Norwegians were slightly older.

2.10 Commitment

Reyes (1990) defines commitment specifically as a preference for remaining in the job and a sense of identification in the organisation. However, researchers, including those cited here, vary in their conceptions of the term. Becker (1960), for example, defines *commitment* simply as investment in a career, while Lortie (1975) refers to the willingness to invest personal resources to the teaching task. In this dissertation, it will be defined as a preference for remaining in the job, and invest personal resources into it.

Past research focussing on 'commitment' (in whichever way the researcher defined it) has found that commitment has a wide range of sources, from intrinsic, organisational, and what might be seen as status factors. One source of commitment is simply job satisfaction, and therefore, many of the factors discussed in sections 2.7-8 are relevant here. For example, Baron (2000) interviewed tutors from two British tertiary institutions, to discover why commitment remained high despite low morale (i.e. 'gloom'). The answer, she concluded, reflected the two factors of Herzberg: the gloom was caused by extrinsic factors, which were unable to dispel the commitment that derived from the satisfaction with intrinsic elements of the job itself. Also, Fresko et al (1997), in their study of Israeli teachers, concluded that job satisfaction was the factor most likely to predict an unwillingness to change careers..

An inquiry group of seven Boston school teachers was gathered together by Nieto (2003) to discuss what it was that kept them going in difficult times. The enquiry group was organised according to the principles of Exploratory Practice (EP), a procedure that, according to Allwright (2003), aims to "develop our understandings of the quality of language classroom life" (p. 114). They found that excellent teachers are kept going not by prescribed pedagogy but by love, hope, anger, the intellectual work, their social and political identities, and the ability to shape the future. In fact, the very process of Exploratory Practice itself has been found to increase commitment (Lyra et al, 2003).

Some studies indicate that commitment is enhanced if schools are organised so that teachers are able to develop their potential. In India, Raju & Srivastava (1994) found from a psychological scale-based study of 454 Delhi secondary teachers that commitment increased with the desire to

increase their own skills. Similarly, in the U.S.A., Louis (1998) surveyed 528 and interviewed 180 Minnesota secondary school teachers. She discovered that teachers required stimulation to remain committed: they need the ability to develop and use skills. In Hong Kong, Tsui & Cheng (1999) conducted a questionnaire survey of 423 primary school teachers. They found that commitment was mainly influenced by the school's organizational health, through interactions with the personal characteristics of the teacher.

As for market factors, there is little research that concludes that they affect commitment, in the sense of investing personal resources. However, section 2.11 indicates that salary might affect willingness to remain in the job, and commitment might be seen as an element in some of the research focussing on pay, discussed in section 2.12. In a questionnaire survey Of 338 non-graduate teachers in Brunei, Yong (1999) did find that extrinsic rewards were important for the more than half of the teachers who said they would take up the same career again. However, intrinsic rewards, and in particular, self-actualisation, were more important.

2.11 Leaving the job and burnout

According to Spear et al., 2000, see section 2.9), reasons for leaving the profession are very under-researched. However, there has been some important work. Heafford & Jennison (1998) examined a cohort of 236 Cambridge PGCE 1978 graduates, with particular focus on the 20% who had left the profession by 1994. (200 graduates were located, and 165 questionnaires returned). They concluded that while efforts to improve salary, conditions of service and esteem would increase retention, many were just not happy teaching. In other words, market, status and organisational work factors were not positive enough to overcome a lack of intrinsic satisfaction. However, they continued: "we need to recognise that there is a certain 'loss to the profession', which we would not wish to prevent," (op. cit. p. 162). This raises the question of how far it is appropriate to use market factors to persuade teachers to remain.

Burnout does not necessarily lead to quitting, but research (e.g. Lens, 1999) indicates that approaching burnout can reduce teacher motivation to prepare and be involved, with adverse effects on students. It is generally defined as a negative psychological experience that is a reaction to job-related stress, and is conceptualised by researchers in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982; Huberman & Vandenberghe, 1999; Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Tang & Yeung (1999) surveyed Hong Kong High school teachers, and also found that burnout was caused by stress brought about by workload.

Research appears to suggest that burnout is caused not by a lack of potential intrinsic work satisfaction, but by organisational factors that either block it, or reduce its relevance to the teacher. For example, according to Nias (1999), burnout can happen if the job or the organizational setting makes it difficult to pursue one's values. Recent research includes Sari (2004), who used the

Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) to measure burnout among Turkish special school head teachers and teachers. It was found that the centralised nature of Turkish education caused the likelihood of burnout to increase with experience: work pressure builds up until it negates the attraction of teaching. These findings tend to support Evans' position that teacher-context compatibility is important (1998b, see section 2.8.1). Suggested strategies range from professional development (Miller, 1999; Lens & Jesus, 1999) to simply creating a healthier workplace (Friedman, 1999).

2.12 The market situation: the effects of salary

Salary may not be the only market factor, but it is certainly the most important. Research into its effects on teacher motivation tends to be context specific, and concentrated on the effects of performance related pay (PRP). A comprehensive review of the mainly USA-based literature can be found in Chamberlin et al (2002). They cite a number of difficulties in assessing the impact of salary in the educational context. Firstly, it is difficult to evaluate a teacher's work. Secondly, the teachers may be reluctant to admit that they were motivated by money, and thirdly, there are other external rewards which can operate in the same way, such as holidays.

After a review of the USA experience, Tomlinson (2000), concluded that the new salary model was "highly appropriate and aligned with current thinking" (p. 297). However, they admitted that it was widely perceived by teachers as being "antipathetic to their professionalism". Ramirez (2001) argued that American merit pay policies "misconstrue the sources of human motivation and devalue the work of educators" (p. 16).

In the U.K., research appears to indicate that pay does little to motivate teachers. Cutler & Waine (1999) surveyed the situation and expressed doubts about the effectiveness of PRP as a motivational mechanism. Richardson (1999a, 1999b) evaluated the government's PRP policy for the National Union of Teachers, and concluded that while it might motivate taxi drivers and sportsmen, the available evidence is that there is not a strong effect on any public sector workers, and if there were, it might be at the expense of non-evaluated activities.

Gray et al (2003) evaluated the effect of the Pay Initiative on Further Education Colleges in England, using data from interviews and group discussions. They found a mixed picture, with the impact influenced by staff perceptions of the payments. In Welsh schools, Farrell & Morris (2004) conducted a large-scale questionnaire survey of the introduction of PRP. They found that teachers were critical of the negative effect on morale: they felt it would not increase motivation, and would be harmful to collegiality. And Wragg et al (2001) found that British head teachers thought PRP had little impact on classroom activity.

There is some research from the USA, however, which is rather more hopeful, as long as certain conditions are met, particularly with regards to teacher participation in policy making. For example, Morice & Murray (2003) studied what they described as a successful teacher evaluation based salary program in a St. Louis school district. They found that extrinsic motivation is possible, as long as teachers themselves are involved in the development of performance criteria. Raham (2000) describes Co-operative Performance Plans, in which pay bonuses are given for specific school-wide objectives, and received by all in the school. Teachers were generally found to find these motivating.

If pay policies are to be an effective motivator, then, it appears that they should be accompanied by appropriate organisational measures. Kelley et al (2002) conducted qualitative research into the experience of two Kentucky schools and a North Carolina school district with school-based performance award programs. They found that success depended on the teachers' expectancy levels: their belief that their efforts would result in meeting the goals. This in turn depended on enabling conditions, such as principal support and professional development, a perception that the program was fair, and prior success. Among the few to apply the goal-setting model to an educational context, they suggested that designers should focus on setting realistic goals. (Research described in Kelley et al 1999 & 2000, Heneman III & Milanowski, 1999, and Heneman III, 1998)

2.13 The work situation: organisation and leadership

Much of the research reviewed shows that work-related organisational factors have an important effect on teacher motivation. One of these factors appears to be the existence of support. Based on a review of research, Feldman (1999) concluded that faculty motivation would increase if there were a *Supportive Teaching Culture*. Such a culture would include support from administration and department chairs, faculty involvement, collaboration, shared values and sense of ownership, and the connection of teacher evaluation to promotion decisions. Leveson (2004) interviewed Australian and New Zealand academics about influences on their teaching, and found that the presence of a formal support mechanism was a critical factor.

Another factor appears to be the way that the teachers are encouraged to identify with the organisation. Christ et al (2003) analysed questionnaires given to 447 German school teachers to discover why they would involve themselves in behaviours that would promote the effective functioning of the organisation, but are not forced by contracts, (that is, *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour* (OCB), (Organ, 1988 p. 4)) They concluded that greater OCB was due to higher levels of organisational identification, and therefore recommended that principals should implement corporate identity programmes.

One of the most important factors, however, appears to be leadership. In their review of the recent literature, Muijs & Harris (2002), referring to Fullan (2001) and Sergiovanni (1999), conclude that leadership matters in determining teachers' motivation. However, leadership should be related to both context and the teachers themselves. In her first analyses of motivation among primary schools (referred to in sections 2.7-8), Evans (1997b, 1998a & 1998b) concluded that "the greatest influences on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation are school leadership and management" (1999, p. 17). Later, however, reporting on a comparative analysis of her data, Evans stated that she felt less categorical about the importance of leadership. It was still important, but through its capacity for shaping context: "It is their work contexts - not their leaders - upon which people are essentially reliant" (Evans, 2001 p.304).

The focus has moved from individual leadership towards collective or *teacher leadership* (Smylie, 1995), dispersed among people in the school. This kind of leadership is "separated from person, role and status and is primarily concerned with the relationships and the connections among individuals within a school" (Muijs & Harris, op. cit. p.437). This is the basis of *distributed leadership theory*, which sees leadership as "fluid and emergent" (Gronn, 2000, p. 324), and something that everybody can demonstrate.

A similar concept is that of *transformational leadership*, first conceived of by Burns (1978). It aims to encourage action by building commitment to the mission of the organisation, rather than by extrinsic rewards. According to Andy Hargreaves (2002), if principals and managers showed such leadership, they would achieve what he describes as a *professional learning community*. Research has tended to confirm the value of such leadership. Ingram (1996) found that if teachers of disabled students perceived the leadership of their principals to be transformational, they tended to be more highly motivated. In a survey of Dutch and Canadian teachers, Geijsel et al (2002) found that transformational leadership had a positive effect on commitment and extra effort, particularly through the dimensions of vision building and intellectual stimulation. Barnet & McCormick (2002) concluded that among the Australian teachers that they studied, the most critical leadership behaviour was individual concern. And lastly, on the basis of research into the implementation of accountability policies, Leithwood et al (2002), concluded that damage to motivation caused by abrasive government strategies can be ameliorated by appropriate leadership, which should be aimed at raising commitment, rather than control-oriented.

2.14 Research into motivation of English language teachers

As Dörnyei (2001) observed, investigations into the motivation of teachers of English as a foreign language are scarce. However, there are some, in a variety of geographical and cultural contexts. On the whole, the conclusions are similar to studies of other teachers. Section 2.8.1 referred to the conclusions of Pennington (1995), based on research mainly based in Hong Kong (Pennington &

Riley, 1991a, 1991b; Wong & Pennington, 1993; McKnight, 1992; Pennington & Ho, 1995). She stressed the importance of intrinsic factors but also recommended a clearer long-term career structure, so that teachers can realise their full potential and satisfy their needs for self-esteem and recognition.

Two studies of innovation support the need for a supporting and inclusive work environment. Zhang (1997) found that the lack of motivation by English teachers to adopt a communicative approach to language instruction in Qinghai Province, China, was largely due to distrust of the ideas of the administrators. Also, on the basis of her observations of the introduction of a communicative language teaching approach in Greece, Karavas-Doukas (1998) concluded that teachers' capacities should be developed so that they seek to experiment and improve their teaching practices, to become "agents of change, rather than victims of it" (p.50).

In Mexico, Johnson (2000) reports on an open-ended questionnaire study into the motivation (and demotivation) of Mexican EFL teachers. She paints a wide-ranging picture of both organisational and classroom matters. (However, she fails to state whether they are native Mexicans or not). Doyle & Kim (1999) used interview data to compare native-speaking English teachers in San Francisco (which they call an *ESL* context) with Korean English teachers in Seoul, South Korea (which they define as an *EFL* context). However, their results showed few notable differences between the two settings. Subjects were found to be motivated by intrinsic factors, and dissatisfied by external factors, such as low pay, lack of career opportunity and imposition of tests and curricula (also Kim & Doyle, 1998).

In the Japanese EFL context, Da Silva (2003) conducted guided discussions with a number of mixed nationality teachers participating in a training retreat. He suggested that the data indicated that the three important needs posited by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), for autonomy, competence and relatedness, were relevant in this context also.

Section 2.6 defined *flow* as being a creative state felt when "opportunities for action are in balance with the actor's skills" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1979, p. 261). In one of the few studies to investigate flow in teachers, Tardy & Snyder (2004) examined the experiences of ten mixed nationality university EFL teachers in Turkey. They found that teachers *do* experience flow, especially when they felt learning was happening, and even the discussion of the flow experience was motivating.

However, the market situation is also important for English teachers. Based on their study of English language teachers in Egypt and Hawaii (see section 2.8), Kassabgy et al. were surprised to find that financial rewards were more important than values. They wrote:

English teachers are idealistic. However, just like anyone else, they will not be happy with a job or career that only fulfils their most idealistic needs. They also expect and demand respect, fairness, reasonable extrinsic rewards, and good management.

(Kassabgy et al., 2001, p. 228)

2.15 Summary of relevant insights and gaps in knowledge.

One of the main purposes of this literature review was to add to an understanding of teacher motivation. It provided an overview of the key concepts, and of the empirical research into a number of important issues. For myself, the process of discovering, reading, and organising literature from such a wide variety of sources and disciplines has broadened my understanding and I hope the same is true for the reader. Unfortunately, however, 'broadened' is the right word. The first sentence of this dissertation asserted that motivation was a broad concept, and this chapter serves to support that assertion. It has not produced many answers, but it has shown many possibilities. And the more research I read, the more it became apparent that an understanding of the context is important if we are to understand motivation.

The psychological literature provides us with the concepts, such as drive, needs, and expectancy with which to form a very general conception of motivation, but it does not provide many practical insights for educational management. Social cognitive theory provides no contextual clues for the real nature of the co-operative environment that it recommends. Even goal-setting theory provides little guidance as to which goals to choose, or how much one should consider the non-work related goals: in particular, those related to market and status (although Locke (2003) does acknowledge the importance of individual life goals).

Theories such as self-determination theory contextualise the intrinsic/extrinsic distinctions: most valuably by suggesting that a meaningful, autonomous working environment both increase intrinsic motivation, and validate extrinsic motivation, including non-work related. However, it appears to have been research and theory initiated by interest in the motivator-hygiene theory that has put teacher motivation into a more useful contextualised perspective.

The other main purpose of this review was to provide insights as to how to handle the interview and focus group data provided in this research. In fact, it appears to support the preconceived notion that a perspective in line with Lockwood's work, market and status situations will be very useful for providing practical insights. One reason for this is that it will provide the important contextualisation that the more general psychological categories lack. Another reason is that the work and market situations in particular have formed very useful perspectives for an appreciation of the existing body of empirical research.

Some of the issues which have been covered do, of course easily fall into one or other of the categories: salary into market; and leadership, essentially, into work. However, the others have results that require categorisation in order for them to make practical sense. The many studies, for example, into reasons for joining the profession (table 2.1) have results that vary from context to context, and the analysis in sections 2.9.1-3, brief as it was, served to put them into perspective. One point of interest is that very few of these studies were based on any particular theory: their

results generally described the situation in that particular context. Some researchers did not seem to believe their context was important, and made little attempt to describe it. Others, particularly those in developing countries, were explicit in their beliefs that context was important (and no two were necessarily the same).

It is the concepts and research related to job satisfaction in sections 2.7-8 that have provided the greatest insight and direction. The market situation is straightforward: it can be considered in terms of such extrinsic factors as salary, security and perhaps holidays. The work situation, although far more dominant, is less straightforward. Lockwood defined it simply as “the set of social relationships in which the individual is involved at work by virtue of his position in the division of labour.” However, the research indicates that there should be a distinction between the intrinsic factors related to the work itself, and the factors related to the working environment and organisation. As much of the research in sections 2.6 and 2.8 shows, these latter factors may be extrinsic, but they can affect the teacher as if they were intrinsic. Lastly, regarding the status situation, there were few instances of it in the literature, but those few indicated that the concept was nevertheless important, and will therefore be applied to the data in this research.

Finally, the question of gaps in knowledge can be answered very briefly, in view of my conclusions regarding the importance of context. Nobody has yet provided a study of the motivation of teachers in a Japanese university.

2.16 Summary

This chapter reviewed important theory of occupational motivation, and also empirical research into such issues as job satisfaction, reasons for entering and leaving the profession, commitment, burnout, leadership and salary. It also discussed some research into the motivation of EFL teachers. It concluded by formulating insights gained from past research, and concluded that Lockwood’s work/market/status categorisation was useful for this research.

The next chapter will describe, discuss, and explain the methodology used in this research.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The overall objectives of this research were described in section 1.4. In brief, these were:

- To contribute to the overall understanding of the nature of teacher motivation. This will be achieved by discovering the views of teachers themselves regarding their work and motivation.
- To show how the nature of teacher motivation can be dependent on the teaching context.
- To relate teacher motivation to the *work/market/status* categorisation proposed by David Lockwood (1989).

The setting for this research, a Japanese university language centre, was described in some detail in chapter 1. In this chapter, the methodology chosen for investigation in that setting will be described and justified. It begins in section 3.2 with a brief account of my philosophy regarding managerial research, and my reasons for choosing qualitative interviews and focus groups in order to gather data. Section 3.3 then provides an outline of the schedule and timing of the research.

The initial procedures of the research are described in section 3.4. These include piloting, the choice of a sample of teachers from those working in the setting, and the initial communications with those participants, particular with regard to reassurance on anonymity and other ethical concerns. There is a summary in section 3.4.3 of the ethical guidelines along which this research is conducted.

Section 3.5 provides an account of the procedures followed in the two focus groups and the twenty-three individual interviews. This includes a description of the physical environment and tools used, but is mainly concerned with the ways that the conversations were conducted. There is an explanation and justification of the choice of questions, if any, and strategy followed by the moderator (myself). This is followed by an account of the transcription procedures, and then, in section 3.7, the steps taken to ensure that this discovered data was a valid representation of the feelings and opinions of the participants. This includes a consideration of my own relationship with the setting.

The final section of the chapter, section 3.8, is devoted to a description and explanation of the way in which the data was processed, analysed and then interpreted (three stages which, according to Wolcott (1994) are distinct but overlapping. The stages of processing are explained, along with the meaning codes, themes and sub-themes that were discovered. I explain the strategy I have followed in the analysis, and then describe how, in the interpretation stage, I arrived at the categorisation of Work, Market and Status situations suggested by Lockwood. The chapter

concludes by addressing the issue of the validity of my processing of the data, and of the report produced by my analysis.

3.2 Choice of method

According to Kvale (1996), the past half century has seen the conception of knowledge as a mirror of reality replaced by a conception where the focus is on “the interpretation and negotiation of the meaning of the social world” (p.41). Within this postmodern paradigm, the most important question about a study tends to be pragmatic: whether it provides useful knowledge, with knowledge becoming “the ability to perform effective actions” (p.42). The effective actions I have in mind are related to effective management of teachers, and I am basing this research on what Porter et al (2003) refer to as the *Human Resources Model*, a conceptualisation that regards employees as “reservoirs of potential talent” (p. 20). It is assumed that the workforce is *premotivated* to perform, and that they are able to make “significant and rational decisions” about their work. Motivational patterns are complex, and differ from one individual to another, and it is management’s responsibility to appreciate these patterns, in order to determine how best to use the resources that the workforce is offering. The aim of this dissertation is to aid that appreciation, and I believe that that can best be done through *qualitative research*.

Holliday (2002) writes of progressive qualitative research in which people are portrayed as constructing the social world, and researchers are portrayed as “themselves constructing the social world through their interpretations of it” (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, p. 11). In this perspective, “methods can be sufficiently flexible to grow naturally from the research question, and in turn from the nature of the social setting in which the research is carried out” (Holliday, 2002, p. 21). He agrees with Janesick (1994, p. 215) in that we should not be preoccupied with methods “to the exclusion of the actual substance of the story being told.” After consideration, it became clear to me that the method most likely to allow for a useful and natural answer to my question, in the context that I have chosen would be *interviews*, in combination with *focus groups*.

I had considered a number of other methods and tools. Observation would be practically difficult, intrusive, and unlikely to reap sufficient relevant information as there is no clear way to judge motivation simply from the actions of a teacher. I am interested in their own interpretations of their performance (even if they are not doing what they think they are doing) rather than my evaluations of those performances. Diaries were also dismissed, as being too demanding of the participants. I seriously considered written questionnaires, with open-ended questions, but it seemed evident that a successful investigation would have to be more flexible and probing.

I had also considered investigating one or two teachers as individual cases, and studying them in depth over time, using a variety of methods. However, I felt that this would not provide an appropriate answer to my question, as one of my assumptions was that different teachers have

different stories, and so I really needed input from a sufficient number of teachers to make any conclusions valid. A combination of interviews and focus groups seemed to be the best way to obtain useful data with limited time and resources.

My reasons for deciding upon interviews coincide with those of Evans & Abbott (1998), in their study of tutors' and students' perceptions of their needs. They found that "it facilitated two-way exchange between researcher and research subjects which would allow us to probe, rather than simply accept responses...." (p.23). I decided on a semi-structured format, as described below, as it would give respondents as much space to talk as possible while at the same time keeping them within the framework of the issues.

I also wanted to follow the methods of Woods (1996), who obtained much of his data concerning teacher cognition in language teaching from what he referred to as 'ethnographic' interviews. He assumed that teachers would not have categorised and labelled their experiences, and therefore the interviewer should not use abstract terms, or explicitly elicit statements of belief. To do so would encourage statements tailored for the interview situation. Instead, "a belief articulated in the context of a 'story' about concrete events, behaviours and plans is more likely to be grounded in actual behaviour" (p.27). Therefore, rather than tackle the notion of 'motivation' directly, I deemed it wiser to try to construct an understanding from the participants' accounts of their experiences and their reactions to issues arising from the context.

There were four linked reasons for adding focus groups to the individual interviews.

- They are an efficient way to produce more data: five teachers are talking, rather than one, and given the stimulation of peers, participants might respond more than if isolated. Morgan (1997) also mentions that focus groups may be advantageous for identifying topics that might not have been thought out in detail.
- I felt that motivation might have a collaborative element. One person's perception of his or her own motivation might be contingent on the perceptions of colleagues, the relationship with them, and position among them. Therefore, the data from a group of colleagues might be usefully different from the data from an individual teacher. According to Morgan (1997, p.15), referring to observations in Morgan & Krueger (1993), "the comparisons that participants make among each other's experiences and opinions are a valuable source of insights into complex behaviors and motivations".
- I hoped they would aid in the creation of a list of guideline questions for the later individual interviews. (suggested by Fern, 1982).
- I thought that a diversification of methods would increase the validity of the findings.

In conclusion of this section, Holloway (2002) wrote that it is in the writing of the research that the suitability of the crafting of the research, and the rigour of the process is made clear, and I hope that chapters 4 to 9 achieve that.

3.3 Research: Schedule

The data was collected within a period of five months between 2002 and 2003. Transcribing the interviews and subsequent analysis took much longer: about two and a half years.

- Planning began in the summer of 2002, and in autumn of that year a number of piloting sessions were held in another setting. Teachers were first approached in November 2002.
- *Focus group* sessions were held one in December 2002 and another in January 2003. Each focus group had five participants, and lasted about 90 minutes. All except one of the focus group participants were also later interviewed.
- *Individual interviews* with teachers were held after the focus groups, between January 2003 and April 2003. There were 23 teacher interviews in all, each lasting between 60 and 70 minutes.
- Director of the Centre, and the President of the University were also interviewed, in January 2003, each for around 45 minutes. This was to provide contextual information.
- The data was transcribed between April 2003 and April 2004 (see section 3.6).
- The data was processed and analysed over a period between January 2004 and December 2005 (see section 3.8).

3.4 Research: Initial procedures

3.4.1 Piloting

In order to pilot procedures, I conducted short interviews with five volunteer subjects from a different institution during the autumn of 2002. This enabled me to decide on suitable techniques for interview, and was useful for learning how to establish rapport.. Up to this point, all the one-to-one interviewing that I had done was in a journalists' role, so these pilots were rather useful in, for example, revealing how important (and difficult) it was to avoid influencing the responses of the interviewee. However, as the volunteers were from a different context, it was not possible to clarify the content of possible interview questions. It was not possible to pilot the focus groups, but I had had some prior experience in focus group mediating.

As I was assuming that each of the participants would have their own story, it was not possible, or even desirable to be fully prepared, and the whole process, from first to last, was a learning experience (with respect to conducting interviews). The earlier interviews did help with the later

interviews, as my familiarity with the issues and experience as an interviewer increased (although it was necessary to take care that this familiarity did not colour the responses). As for the focus groups, the required skill was to be able to allow them to flow in unexpected directions, which often happened.

3.4.2 Choosing the 'Sample'

There were twenty-three *shokutaku* teachers and nearly a hundred *hijokin* teachers in the Centre, but I only had time and resources to conduct about twenty interviews, and three focus groups. In terms of Miles & Huberman's typology of sampling strategies (1994, p.28), I intended to take a 'maximum variation' approach (that is, aiming to document diverse variations and identify important common patterns), within the practical limitations. I needed a selection of people in varying situations, with different histories and approaches. I was confident that variety would be found in a random selection, but as there were important contextual issues with possible bearings on the question, I divided the population of the case into *hijokin* (part-time) and *shokutaku* (part-time) teachers, and made sure that there were sufficient numbers of each in the sample.

An interpreter was not within budget, and I did not feel that interview data would be valid if comprehension and communication were faulty. Therefore, the sample was originally limited to the teachers of English who were comfortable communicating in English, with a view to including other teachers as patterns and further questions emerged.

I had the resources for 'comprehensive sampling' of the 14 *shokutaku* English teachers (Goetz and Lecompte (1984, cited also in Miles & Luberman, op. cit.). I therefore approached all of these teachers, explained that I was interested in teacher motivation and asked if they would be willing to be interviewed or join a focus group. Ten accepted, the other four citing pressure of work. Unfortunately, those four included two of the three Japanese *shokutaku* English teachers.

For the focus groups, I did not want to mix *hijokin* and *shokutaku*, due to a concern that the discussion would focus on the employment status issue at the expense of others. For the *shokutaku* teachers, I was able to schedule two focus groups, each with five participants. Unfortunately, I was unable to schedule a focus group of *hijokin* as they were only on campus for their classes, and rarely at the same time. Therefore, there were two focus groups, with a total of ten *shokutaku* participants, all of whom except one non-Centre teacher, who became unavailable, were later interviewed.

Of the forty-two *hijokin* English teachers, 17 were native English speakers, five of whom were chosen at random. All were willing to take part. Of the 25 Japanese teachers, I approached only those whom I knew, or was told, were fluent in English. Of the six I approached, all were willing, but in the end only three could be scheduled.

As the interviews progressed, I felt I would like to obtain a perspective of teachers of a subject other than English for two reasons. First, they would be teaching absolute beginners, and second, they had less autonomy, as the courses generally had set textbooks. There were three *shokutaku* German teachers, all of whom could communicate in English, and all of whom agreed to take part. Also, to obtain a different perspective, I invited another non-Centre *shokutaku* teacher.

Thus, there was a limited “rolling” quality to the sampling (Miles & Huberman, op. cit.): although there was an original core sample, I made further choices as worked progressed. In the end, there were twenty-three interviews, and two focus groups, with a total of twenty-four participants. I felt that I had enough to make a valid analysis.

Table 3.1 - Participating teachers

	Name		Job Status	Native Lang.	Qualifications	Age	Experience ¹	
							Total	Here ²
FOCUS GP. 1	Agnes	F	Permanent	Eng	M.A. (App. Linguistics)	50	18	12
	Fiona	F	Permanent	Eng	Ph.D (Biochemistry)	63	30	24
	Irene	F	Permanent	Eng	M.Ed. (Lang. Educ)	42	20	4
	Kay	F	Permanent	Eng	M.A (Communication Studies)	50	30	13
	Phil	M	3-year	Eng	M.A.(Eng. Writing Teaching)	52	21	1
FOCUS GP. 2	Brian	M	Permanent	Eng	M.Ed. (App. Ling.); PGCE	54	28	22
	Chrissa	F	3-year	Eng	M.A. (TESOL)	28	6	1
	Greg	M	3-year	Eng	Ph.D (2 nd Lang. Acqu.)	49	17	2
	Tom ³	M	3-year	Eng	M.Ed. (TESOL)	43	18	1
	Yoko	F	3-year	Jap	M.A. (Linguistics)	37	14	2
INTERVIEW ONLY	Don	M	Part-time	Eng	M.B.A.; TEFL Cert.	37	13	2
	Eleanor	F	Part-time	Eng	M.A. (Theatre Arts)	40	15	5
	Harumi	F	Part-time	Jap	M.A. (Lang. Educ.)	50	23	1
	Jill	F	Permanent	Eng	Ph.D. ; M.A. (App. Ling.)	56	29	13
	Linda	F	Permanent	Germ	Ph.D; (Jap Studies); DaF ⁴	32	3	1
	Molly	F	Part-time	Eng	M.Sc. (TESOL)	35	13	6
	Naoko	F	Part-time	Jap	M.A. (Linguistics)	42	11	1
	Oliver	M	Part-time	Eng	M.Ed. (TESOL)	49	13	2
	Rachel	F	Permanent	Eng	M.A. (App. Ling.)	36	12	8
	Sayuri	F	Part-time	Jap	Ed.D; M.A. (TESL)	46	21	4
	Ursula	F	Permanent	Germ	Doct. +M.A. (Lit.); DaF ²	34	8	1
	Victor	M	3-year	Eng	M.A. (Mod. Lang.); PGCE	40	16	2
	William	M	Part-time	Eng	Ed.D; M.A. (TESOL)	43	16	9
Zara	F	Permanent	Germ	M.A. (Language)	38	8	1	

¹ Years² In this Centre³ Tom was the only participant in the focus groups who was not also interviewed.⁴ DaF is a qualification for teaching German language.

The final set of 24 participants is shown in Table 3.1. They have been given aliases that range from A (Agnes) to Z (Zara). Altogether there were:

- 16 *shokutaku*, comprised of:
 - 10 of the 14 full time English teachers (one Japanese speaker, nine English speakers)
 - 3 non-Centre English teachers (one of whom was not interviewed)
 - all of the 3 Centre German teachers
- 8 *hijokin*: all were English teachers (three Japanese speakers and five English speakers)

Each focus group contained 4 Centre English teachers and 1 non-Centre English teacher. One of the groups contained a Japanese native speaker, and all of the other participants were English native speakers.

Altogether, 4 participants were Japanese native speakers, 3 were German, and 17 English. There were 16 females and 8 males, which reflected the gender mix of the Centre as a whole. In the end, I was satisfied that I had achieved sufficient variety for the scale of this investigation. My only concern was whether I had enough Japanese teachers, but that was problematic due to potential language problems.

3.4.3 *Communications with participants and Ethical considerations*

Participants were given the following information (extracted from complete letter, see Appendix 2). I needed to tell them that I was interested in teacher motivation, and why their input was important to me, but I did not supply any definitions of the concept, so as not to influence their responses.

I am hoping to discover something about the nature of motivation, and in particular intrinsic motivation. Up to now, the bulk of research involving this topic has involved measurement by questionnaire, and comparatively few efforts have been made to speak at length those involved in the education process. Although I am also interested in learner motivation, I am particularly interested in the motivation of teachers, and the motivation of our students will be of interest only if it has a bearing on teacher motivation.

I want to assure you that I am not interested in ‘assessing’ your motivation. I am assuming that all the people I interview are ‘motivated’, which is why I chose to interview you. However, I also assume (or hope) that this sense of motivation is somewhat individual, shows up in many different ways, and has a variety of sources.

Research was conducted according to the ethical guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004). The letter in Appendix 1 also informed them that the information supplied by them might be used as data in a doctoral dissertation, which would be kept in the Bristol University Graduate School of Education library. It could be accessed by any researcher, who would have to work according to British copyright law, meaning that there can be no quoting or copying without permission from myself. The data might also be used in further publication, with the same caveats. (This copyright point was the greatest concern of many of the participants). The participants were assured that anonymity would be preserved as far as possible, and real names of individuals or institutions would never be used.

Participants were cautioned that while the sources of data would almost certainly be unrecognisable from outside the institution, it might be possible for them to be recognised by certain parties within the institution, and participants should bear that in mind. Also, participants might well be able to recognise each other in the publications. The Director and President in particular were advised that although the university would not be named, interested people could probably guess its identity. Participants were asked to sign a Consent Form (Appendices 3 & 4), which stated that they understood and agreed with the copyright and anonymity provisions, and consented to be recorded. They also undertook to preserve the anonymity of other participants, and treat what others say with confidentiality. Participants were assured that they would be shown a transcript of their interview, and that they could withdraw anything, or everything they said at any time. Ethical guidelines for the Bristol Graduate School of Education are at:

<<https://www.bris.ac.uk/education/programmes/doctoral/edd/current>>

All participants were assured that the group discussion would last at most ninety minutes, and the interviews would last no more than seventy minutes, and that after that there would be no further call on their time, apart from an invitation to read and comment upon their transcripts. All participants have been kept abreast of the progress of the research and will be informed if it is finally accepted, or perhaps published.

3.5 Research: Fieldwork Procedures

3.5.1 Focus Group Procedure

The focus groups were held in a small conference room. The five participants sat around a low table, together with myself as moderator. In front of me was a pad of paper with reminders, on which I occasionally wrote. All data was recorded onto Minidisk, with a small microphone on the table. Although I wanted the direction of the focus group to be dictated as much as possible by the participants, I had prepared a simple core list of issues/topics. This was: perceptions of motivation in general, and their own motivation; goals; pay; working conditions; autonomy; effects on and of students; learning histories; flow; materials; methodology; testing/grading and prestige. However, I rarely had to use this list, as conversation generally flowed easily from one topic to another. I did not formulate specific questions, in the assumption that I could adapt to the flow of the conversation.

Merton et al (1990) suggest four criteria for conducting focus groups:

- *A wide range of relevant topics should be covered, and should include unanticipated issues.*

I certainly hoped that the process would throw up unanticipated issues, but this might be at the expense of topics that beforehand I had thought to be relevant.

- *Data should be as specific as possible, with concrete, detailed accounts of participants' experiences.*

However, I did not intend to probe too intently, as that could be done in the interviews, and the strength of a focus group is that they could probe each other (and be as specific as they liked).

- *Interaction should explore feelings in some depth, rather than in vague generalities.*

Again, I found that the groups did go into depths, which were often unanticipated.

- *There should be consideration of the personal context: what leads a participant to think in that particular way?*

I hoped that this would be encouraged by the communication between peers. Considerations that are more private could be left for the interviews.

Participants were asked to speak freely, and told that I was mainly there to listen and help, but not to lead. Based on suggestions by Morgan (1997), each session began with the participants being asked to jot down brief responses to the *discussion-starter* question: "What do you think is meant when we talk about a *motivated* teacher?" This was to give participants quiet time to collect their thoughts, and to give everyone the chance to contribute with an opening statement. The question was chosen in order to allow participants themselves to begin the discussion from their perspectives, rather than wait to be channelled by myself. It also directly dealt with one main aspect of the research question: what teachers themselves might consider *motivation* to mean, and gave them the opportunity to dismiss the concept as irrelevant (none did).

The discussion began with input based on the starter question, and progressed quite smoothly from there. Topics and issues were usually brought up by the participants themselves, who were able and willing to develop the conversation. Moderator input was generally limited to asking questions, which were appropriate in the flow of the discussion, or to help clarify some points. Participants would often ask each other questions, and sometimes challenge assumptions or opinions. On the few occasions that the conversation stalled, a question based on the list of core issues was asked.

The following are the actual questions (or paraphrases of the questions) that I asked in the focus groups. (F1 refers to focus group 1, F2 to focus group 2.) They are listed in order to show my participation, and to give the reader an idea of how the groups progressed, although often participants changed topic with no questions asked at all. Questions a-p elaborated on, or responded to topics that the participants themselves introduced. Questions q-u were the only occasions upon which I had to move on the course of conversation by asking a fresh question.

- Questions a-e, below, are related to goals, one of my core topics, but the topic arose naturally in the course of the conversation in both groups, and led to the related questions:

- a) Is it possible to put motivation in terms of aims? If so, what are they? (F1+F2)
 - b) Do you have specific goals? (F1 + F2)
 - c) How would you feel if your goals were set externally? What if they were not achievable? (F2)
 - d) Do you have linguistic achievement criteria as a goal?
 - e) Is there sometimes a conflict in goals? (F1)
- Questions f-g, below relate to autonomy, which was also on my core list. In F1, I asked about the topic directly, but in F2, the flow of the conversation led me to ask a more indirect question:
 - f) How much do you value your autonomy? (F1)
 - g) Would being evaluated have an effect on your motivation? (F2)
- Versions of questions h-j were also related to my list, but these questions were only asked because they were natural extensions of the conversation:
 - h) Does the attitude of the students towards you affect your motivation? (F2)
 - i) What effect has the motivation of past teachers had on you? (F2)
 - j) Can you describe how you feel when you're feeling motivated? (F1)
- Questions k-p were all questions which arose solely out of the conversation itself:
 - k) What do you mean when we say you enjoy teaching? (F2)
 - l) Is there a conflict between professional commitment, and enjoyment? (F2)
 - m) Is it possible to increase motivation? Or is it just set? (F1)
 - n) What might decrease your motivation? (F1)
 - o) Does your motivation depend on the level? (F2)
 - p) Do difficulties tend to motivate you or demotivate you? (F2)
- Questions q-u are the few questions that introduced a new topic. Although they were in my core list each topic was related to a topic which had come up earlier in the conversation:
 - q) Does your motivation change from day to day? (F1)
 - r) What sort of effect do you think your motivation has on the students? (F1)
 - s) How much do you alter your methodology in order to motivate yourselves? (F1+F2)
 - t) How does testing affect your motivation? Does the need to grade decrease your motivation? (F1)
 - u) Does the pay affect the sort of work that you do? (F2)

A partial transcript of Focus Group One is in Appendix 6. Overall, I felt that the focus groups were very worthwhile, based on the rationale for using them, detailed in section 3.2. The participants collaborated well, and produced a great deal of diverse data. Specific issues and ideas that seemed to be important, and therefore carried over into the interview guideline questions were 'motivation as enjoyment', 'energising the students', and the challenges faced by Japanese teachers.

3.5.2 Individual Interview Procedure

The interviews were held wherever the participant wished: in my office, their own offices, their own workplaces, and once in a quiet coffee bar. The participants were asked to speak freely, and to feel free to pause for thought, or retract anything they say. I sat facing, jotting notes occasionally

so as to keep track of threads of the discussion. A microphone was placed to the side, and all data recorded to mini-disc.

The choice of first question is very important, as it sets the tone and attitude for the whole interview. At first, those who had not attended the focus group were asked the same question that I had asked the group: “What would you mean by saying a teacher is *motivated* ?” However, it seemed that such a question did not make it easy for the interviewees to move to a personal, more subjective context. I felt that they were trying to interpret the topic through the lens of theory known to them, or to search for a ‘right’ answer. (This had not been the case in the focus groups). Therefore, I soon changed the initial question for all to the self-critical question: “Do you consider yourself to be a motivated teacher, and if so, why?” This placed the focus clearly on the interviewees, their ideas, experiences, feelings and interpretations. They were free to interpret the words *motivate* and *motivated* in any way they liked, and the interview proceeded accordingly.

The interviews were semi-structured, and I had drawn up a list of guideline questions, (see appendix 6). These were drawn from issues in the setting, possibilities arising from the theory and research reviews, and points arising in the focus groups. Although there would be more guidance to topics than in the focus groups, I was just as beware of leading questions. I did not want to squeeze responses into any particular theoretical framework, and wanted such concepts as goals, needs, satisfaction, etc to be introduced by the interviewees (if they wished to). Therefore, I decided on a three-phase strategy:

- i. To follow through as much as possible on the concepts and ideas brought up by the respondent in response to the opening question. This phase generally took up between and third and a half of the interview time
- ii. To ask specifically about some of the contextual points covered in section 1.6 in the hope that the response would provide enlightenment on motivation (in whichever way it had been conceived of in answer to the opening question). There was also the opportunity to ask about issues introduced in the focus group, if they had not already been covered in the opening phase. (For example, both focus groups talked at length about energising the students and the students’ attitude to the teacher).
- iii. To ask specific questions from a short list which I wanted to ask all the participants, if it had not been asked or answered already (which they usually were). Sometimes, there was not enough time for all of these questions to be asked.

a) Do you have goals in your work? If so, what are they?

(In most instances, this question was unnecessary, as it was covered in the first part of the interview, but the fact that the idea of ‘goals’ was brought up so often implies that it is important.)

b) What are your grading criteria, and how do you arrive at them?

(I felt this was important, as it is related to one of the few goal-related tasks common to all the teachers. However, the topic rarely arose without prompting.)

c) Are there any linguistic benchmarks that you aim for in your teaching?

(This was to achieve some professional language teaching perspective.)

d) What do you think about when choosing materials?

e) How much do you worry about grades, and to what extent are you motivated to grade 'fairly'?

(These two questions involve some complex issues of responsibilities and attitude to the job. They are also decisions which all the teachers have to make, so it was an opportunity for some uniformity and inter-participant comparison.)

f) (To non-Japanese): How does the fact that you are working in a culture that is not your own affect your motivation?

g) (To Japanese): How is your motivation affected by the fact that you are teaching a language that is not your native language to students whose native language is the same as yours?

(The issue of non-native English speakers teaching English was brought up strongly in the focus groups, and I think it is an important contextual question.)

iv. At the end of the interview, I left time to ask the following question (or one like it, depending on the context):

o You have almost complete autonomy and you are not evaluated. What is it that makes you *go the extra mile*?

The question was generally put into a real context, such as spending time writing materials or marking homework. It was left until the end because I hoped that the ground covered in the interview would enable the respondent to provide a concise, considered, enlightened answer: a response which perhaps would not have been forthcoming before the conversation.

The interviewee was allowed to control the direction of the interview as much as was possible as long as the content remained relevant. I asked questions at places which naturally arose in the context. In most cases, the questions in the prepared list were answered without them having to be asked, and interviewees introduced relevant issues that had not previously been considered. Often these issues were specific to the particular context of the participant, but sometimes it was possible to carry them through to subsequent interviews.

There are two points to be made in conclusion of this section. Firstly, as an interviewer, I never stopped learning about the craft from beginning to end. The above strategy was something I followed at first almost by intuition, and it was not crystallised as a describable strategy until well

into the process. Secondly, although I tried at first to avoid leading questions, I became resigned to the fact that my questions were always going to have some influence on the respondent. In later reading, I found that Kvale (1996) elaborated on this view, which he says follows from a postmodern perspective on knowledge construction:

The interview is a conversation in which the data arise in an interpersonal relationship, co-authored and co-produced by interviewer and interviewee. The decisive issue is then not whether to lead or not to lead, but where the interview questions should lead, and whether they will lead in important directions, producing new, trustworthy and interesting knowledge.

[Kvale, 1996, p.159]

This is a view that I have come to accept, and I am glad that I found out by experience. I will return to the issue of my relationship with the participants in my discussion of validity in section 3.7.

3.6 Transcriptions.

All interviews and discussions were transcribed. There were substantial budget limitations. I did half myself, and the other half was transcribed initially by another person, then checked by myself. It took six months in all. The following choices were made:

- The entire conversation or interview was transcribed, as at that point it was not possible to decide which parts might be relevant
- All statements were described verbatim, including repetitions. There was no paraphrasing.
- Language was not corrected or changed into a style more normal in written form. The non-native speakers of English did have errors, but if there was any difficulty in comprehension, then that part was not used in analysis.
- Clear oral events, such as laughter, exclamations and long pauses were signalled in the transcript. Normal conventions, based on those developed by Jefferson in Sacks et al. (1978) were used. Smaller, or unclear oral events were ignored.
- Intonations and stresses were ignored, due to difficulties in interpretation. The original recordings were available to me, and I could listen to them while analysing, so if necessary I could point out intonation in the analysis. (This actually was never necessary).
- The paid transcriber worked according to my instructions, and informed me if she had any problems. The transcriptions were always checked and my decisions were primary. However, if either one of us had difficulty in hearing a segment, then that segment was discarded. (An exception was made when the paid transcriber, who lived in Britain, was unable to transcribe Japanese terms).

Each transcript was saved as plain text, with turn numbers. All of the data can be accessed in the CD accompanying this dissertation. There will be many excerpts in the following findings

chapters, and every reference to the data will be numbered so that it can be located in the main context of the data. There are also examples of the data in the Appendix: a small part of an interview in Appendix 7 and a part of a focus group in Appendix 8.

3.7 Validity of the data

There is, according to Stake (1995) an obligation to “minimise misrepresentation and misunderstanding” (p. 109). Any data critical to an assertion, as well as any key interpretations, would need extra effort toward confirmation, and the best way to gain this would be through triangulation, defined as “a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning” (p. 148). I used my own perceptions, the perceptions achieved by differing methods, and, most importantly, the perceptions of the participants.

The question of the validity of my analyses and interpretations will be approached in section 3.8.3. Here, I am concerned with whether the data, consisting of the words in the transcription are an accurate representation of what the participants really mean. (Whether what they mean is an accurate representation of motivation (if such a thing is even possible) is not the question, as it is the teachers’ perceptions of motivation that I am looking for).

One important concern was my relationship with the setting. McCracken (1988, p.38) advises that participants in research be “perfect strangers”, as otherwise, it would be difficult to remain detached and maintain the necessary distance. However, I was already somewhat familiar with the setting, and professionally, and sometimes socially, acquainted with a few of the 26 participants. In order that any assumptions stemming from this familiarity did not affect either the collection of data or the analysis of that data, it was important to “manufacture distance”: to “create a critical awareness” of familiar matters (McCracken, *op. cit.*, referring to Marcus and Fischer, 1986: 137-164).

I do not think my relationship with the setting was a problem in the collection of data via the focus groups. One of the advantages of this method was that the teachers were already comfortable with each other, and I did not interfere much. However, the interviews had to be handled with care, and I tried to create an atmosphere in which they were responding to me as if to a stranger (while retaining trust). In fact, as the interviews progressed, I realised that I had known little of my colleagues’ thoughts, and that discussion of personal motivation issues had never been more than superficial. Evans (1998) suggests that shared knowledge and concerns might lead the participants to withhold certain information that they assume is already known. This possibility was avoided as much as possible by careful interviewing, but it does remain a possibility, which is why, in section 3.8.2, I mention that I am reluctant to make conclusions based on the absence of data. However, on the positive side, knowledge of the context did allow me to follow certain avenues of enquiry that

a stranger would be unaware of. There was also the possibility that they could confide more in a fellow, seemingly empathetic teacher.

The process of checking is built into the procedure of interviewing. I often verified what was said by approaching the issue from another perspective, or sometimes simply repeating the question. In the focus group, also, the participants often questioned each other's contributions, which led to reflections and clarifications. One of the intentions regarding using both focus groups and interviews was that the use of two tools might validate the data. However this conflicted with the hope, referred to in section 3.2, that the focus group context would uncover different data: Morgan (1997), a proponent of focus groups, wonders whether the responses may be less valid than in a private interview, and Silverman (2000), points out that attempting to settle validity questions with a multiplicity of methods *is* problematic. However, as all (except one) of the group participants were later interviewed, I was able to confirm and elaborate on their responses, and I believe, as will be seen, that the dual perspectives strengthened my analysis.

Participants were also asked how they felt about the interview and focus groups: not only whether they thought there was sufficient opportunity to express their views, but also whether it was a useful or rewarding experience in itself. All comments were positive. For example:

- Agnes (verbal comment, about the focus group): "We hardly ever get together and talk like that. I think it was a really good thing, and we should do it more often."
- Rachel (written comment): "It is always useful and interesting to discuss one's teaching especially as the institution we work at takes a hands off approach to exactly what goes on in the classroom."
- Greg (written comment): "It (you) nicely picked up on poignant points and I thought of it more as a conversation than an "interview." I felt that you were asking about salient issues, at least I resonated with them a lot. I liked the idea of a focus group and interview format, actually. One important point: I felt I could openly express my thoughts and add anything I wanted to."

Thus, it seems that the participants thought that the process was relevant to their professional lives, and entered into the process in a constructive and co-operative spirit. These attitudes indicate that the data from the process are from a valid representation of the perceptions of the teachers, which is what I was looking for.

All participants were given transcripts of their interview. (The accompanying letter is in Appendix 5). They were asked to tell me if they felt there was an error, if they wanted to take back something they said, or if they would like to say it in a different way. One participant made some corrections, and another felt that there had been some errors in transcription. These latter errors were due to a fault in the recording, and the text in question was omitted from the final transcript. Two of the German participants felt that occasionally they had not said what they meant to say, and contributed some alternative text, which was accepted in the final data.

3.8 Data processing, analysis and interpretation

Some help in processing and analysis was forthcoming from Kvale (1996) and Miles & Huberman (1994). According to Kvale's account of *ad hoc meaning generation*, "no standard method is used for analyzing the whole of the interview material. There is instead a free interplay of techniques." With this in mind, I took some of the provided ideas and, together with a growing feeling for the material, forged a path towards a meaningful story.

Wolcott (1994) considers that data from interpretative enquiry can go through three stages. In the first, *processing* stage, the data is manipulated and organised so that it can be more easily understood for the purposes of the research question. The second stage, *analysis*, addresses the identification of essential features and the systematic description of interrelationships among them – in short, how things work. The third and final stage is the *interpretation*, which addresses "processual" questions of meanings and contexts: "How does it all mean?"(sic), "What is to be made of it all?" (p. 12).

There is no fixed border between the three stages, and often no clear point where one stage becomes the next. Rather, there is a movement from the first basic data *processing* through to the final expression of insights and implications. Chronologically, there might always be an element of analysis even at the start of data processing, and certainly, interpretation can take place at any time. Underlying this is the need to *describe* the data to the reader: as Wolcott writes: "Description is the fulcrum, the pivotal base on which all else hinges" (op. cit., p. 36). In other words, the challenge is to make conclusions from the data, show how those conclusions were arrived at, and yet describe the data in such a way that readers can judge those conclusions, and even interpret the data for themselves.

The following chapters, 4 to 9, were written at a point after interpretation. However, the data went through many transformations before that point, and in the final text, I have endeavoured to describe the data in as complete and illuminating a way as possible. The following two sections describe the stages that the data went through in the passage from the transcriptions to the final version of this dissertation.

3.8.1 Data processing

The data consisted of the transcriptions of twenty-three interviews and two focus groups. Altogether, there were about 225,000 words of text. This was processed by myself, with the aid of the software package *HypeRESEARCH*. The focus group transcriptions were examined first, followed by the interviews, in no particular order. The following steps were taken:

- 1) The transcript was read through, along with listening to the recording, so as to achieve an overall feel

- 2) Initially, those parts of the script that were related to motivation were highlighted. The meanings of these segments were condensed into a short phrase, or *meaning codes*, for example: *I need to be flexible* or *my goal is to inspire the students*. Many meaning codes occurred multiple times, and many sections of the text had multiple codes.. This process continued until all the transcriptions had been examined. As far as was possible, if a meaning code emerged in a later text, the previous texts were re-examined. This was generally done using the text-search facility of the software.

Appendix 9 shows two sections of text with meaning codes being discovered in the software HyperRESEARCH.

- 3) Gradually, each of these meaning codes fell into one of five major themes related to motivation. (I had expected these themes to emerge on the basis of the literature, but I did not take it for granted). This began as the transcripts were being examined for meaning, as it had a bearing on the way in which the meanings were expressed. These themes were:
- a) *Motivation means x*. (The one pre-established theme, as this was almost a direct question)
 - b) *Motivated by x* (also, *demotivated by x*)
 - c) *Needs* (originally part of theme (b), but then separated)
 - d) *Motivated to x* (where *x* is a verb)
 - e) *Goals* (originally part of theme (d), but then separated)
- 4) Many other themes emerged during processing, and also after all texts had been coded. Some themes were clearly related to motivation (e.g. *Rewards*), and others were defined in the hope of some unpredicted insights. For example, the themes of *being Japanese*, and *enjoyment* emerged after examining the focus group data. Some of the themes, such as the important one of *context* emerged initially for the sake of tidiness.
- 5) Some of the major themes gradually divided into a number of sub-themes. For example, the theme of motivation means *x* divided into what I referred to as *class practice*, *external*, *liking it*, *professional*, and *relationship with students*. Other themes did not need to be divided in the same way. There was a constant re-examination of the original transcriptions at this stage. The software was gradually abandoned in favour of visual inspection, with pencil.

All of the meaning codes are listed and categorised into themes and sub-themes in Appendix 10. (The codes used were often abbreviated for convenience,). In the final stage of processing (by which time the analysis was beginning), the software was used again in order to produce reports

for each theme and sub-theme, which showed the text related to each of the meaning codes associated with those themes. An example of one of these reports is shown in Appendix 11. It was these reports that were used for the subsequent analysis.

3.8.2 Analysis and interpretation of the data

Once the data had been processed, I felt that the computer software was no longer useful, and the analysis proceeded with the help of eye and coloured pencils. Analysis had actually begun to some extent early in the processing stage when certain choices of inclusion or omission had to be made. However, now, in this main analysis stage I began to identify essential features and systematically describe the interrelationships between them.

During the processing stage, the basic research questions regarding teacher motivation had been left to one side so that no part of the data need be overlooked. However, as I moved into the analysis, it was necessary to move focus on to those questions, and search for those patterns in the coded data that appeared to provide an answer, and then to look for relationships within and between those patterns. The ‘answer’ that I have produced is not *the* answer, however: choices had to be made as to which patterns in the data to follow, and which to abandon. Here is a selection of the procedures that I followed:

- a) If I read text with a certain meaning, then I always looked for examples of text that contradicted, or had the opposite meaning.
- b) In general, I did not rely on quantification, but occasionally I felt that some quantification was useful for clarifying a pattern. (The term *many*, for example, would mean that I felt something was felt at least by the majority, or even simply by a surprising or notable number).
- c) In principle, I only included meanings in the analysis if they were conveyed by more than one person, unless it was a contradiction, in which case I felt a singularity was worth noting.
- d) I tried not to draw conclusions from the absence of certain meanings, as this might be because the methods did not bring out those meanings.

Kvale’s *traveller metaphor* sees the researcher as a “traveller on a journey that leads to a tale to be told upon returning home” (Kvale, 1996, p. 4). When I set out on that journey, I had a map built upon my research questions, my knowledge of the setting, my values, past research, and a wide body of theory. It was with the help of this map that I set out on the journey of analysis, searching for helpful landmarks and abandoning unpromising paths. As analysis progressed, that map was adjusted to take account of all the new information, so that eventually the tale of a new journey could be told. I hope that my map was flexible enough to allow many perspectives, but in the end,

it is certainly possible that I chose not to investigate paths that may well have provided an alternative analysis. However, I feel confident that if I had used that data, the interpretation would be essentially the same: just more elaborate, or couched in different terms.

By the end of what I am calling the analysis stage, there were four main strands to the story. Firstly, there were the ways in which the participants themselves perceived the general concept of motivation. Secondly were their attitudes to the job itself, and what might be defined as the satisfying or unsatisfying aspects of the job. Thirdly was what it was that they were actually motivated to do: their working goals and day-to-day activities. And finally, there was the question of what it was that motivated them to act in the ways that they did. This was how the original draft of the analysis was arranged, ready for a final chapter of interpretation.

However, after consideration of the this analysis, and further consideration of the literature, I decided that a more useful interpretation might be to consider the data in terms of Lockwood's categorisation of market, work and status situations. To return to Kvale's pragmatic question, posed in section 3.2, such an interpretation would provide more useful knowledge, in a framework which might better aid the ability to perform effective actions. This required a redrafting and re-analysis, into what are now Chapters 4 to 9, although there are still signs of the previous arrangement within each chapter.

3.8.3 Reliability of the analysis

In section 3.7, I described the steps taken to ensure the validity of the collected data. This section will discuss the validity of my analysis of the data. That is, whether have I extracted the meanings that are really there. In order to assess the validity of my own judgement in the processing stage described in section 3.8.1. I requested the help of two independent colleagues. to code an interview, using the categories already decided. There was broad agreement with my own coding. Two other colleagues were kind enough to read my analysis (pre-interpretation), and were able to provide some criticisms of my reasoning upon which I acted. I did not tell the participants about the analysis because I had assured them that I would take up no more of their time or attention. I had, however, said that I would be happy to tell them what I had discovered if they asked. Some made informal inquiries, which I answered but at the time of writing this, I have had no comments.

To return to McCracken's assertion of the importance of being critically aware of familiar matters (1988, see section 3.7), I did find it quite easy to, as Holliday puts it, see "the familiar as strange" (2002, p. 93). After the initial data processing, for which a familiarity of the context was useful, I felt that I was able to proceed with the analysis in a rather detached, objective fashion (with the detachment increasing as time progressed).

As for the validity of my interpretation in terms of Lockwood's categories, Wolcott (1994) maintains that, while validity should not be dismissed, it should be viewed from a broader perspective. In its place, he suggests 'understanding' as a quality that means making plausible interpretations without being obsessed with getting the correct answer. In order that the reader might judge the reliability of my analysis, I have reported accurately and as fully as is feasible. I have tried to show as well as I can how I have obtained the data, and arrived at the story I am telling. And I have tried to be as candid as possible as regards my own judgements, and indeed my own fallibility. I have not selected data to support any particular thesis, but, in the final interpretation, I have arranged the data to provide an understandable, plausible, interpretation.

3.9 Summary

In this chapter, I explained my values regarding educational and managerial research. I then explained why I decided that focus groups and personal interviews would be the most appropriate tools for collecting data. The procedures of data collection were then described. These included the initial procedures such as piloting, choosing a sample and communications with participants, and then the actual fieldwork and organisation of interviews and focus groups. I discussed the transcription methods, and steps taken with regards to ethical considerations and the validity of the collected data (including a consideration of my relationship with the setting and participants). The steps taken in processing, analysis and interpretation of the transcribed data were then explained, including the ultimate decision to consider the data in terms of the *work*, *market* and *status* situations. The chapter concludes with a consideration of the reliability of my analysis and interpretation.

Chapters, 4 to 9 contain my interpretations of the collected data. In chapters 6 and 7, the findings are discussed in specifically in terms of the *work* situation; in chapter 8, they are discussed in terms of the *market* situation, and in chapter 9 in terms of *status* and relationships. However, in the next two chapters, the three situations will be introduced through an examination of the teachers' views of their occupational context, in chapter 4, followed by their perceptions of motivation in chapter 5.

Chapter 4: Findings – Perceptions of the Job Setting

4.1 Introduction

This chapter and the next will examine the general attitudes and perceptions of the teachers themselves: first of all with regards to the job and the context of the job, and then, in chapter 5, with regard to the concept of motivation. It is an overview containing information intended as a basis for an objective understanding of motivation in this context. One purpose is to find out whether Lockwood's categorisation of market, status and work, within which motivation will be examined in subsequent chapters, resonates with the ideas and attitudes of the teachers themselves. This will prepare the ground for the question as to which, if any, of those situations allows for the expression and development of their motivation.

In chapter 1, the setting was described from my own, objective perspective. The first part of this chapter will describe the job and context in the words of the teachers themselves, from the perspective of their place in that setting. It begins with an overview of their feelings for the job, and goes on to focus on their attitudes to the management of the job situation. Then, in section 4.4, it takes up the theme of teaching English in a non-English culture, and some of the differences between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers are examined. Finally, there is an account of what the teachers think of the students they are teaching. Section 4.6 contains an interpretation of the data, with relation to market, status, work and organisation.

4.1.1 Explanation of source referencing

Each quotation is referenced to its source by means of the initial of the participant. The participants are listed in table 3.1, and are each represented by a letter of the alphabet: (A)gnes, (B)rian, (C)hrissa, (D)on, (E)leanor, (F)iona, (G)reg, (H)arumi, (I)rene, (J)ill, (K)ay, (L)inda, (M)olly, (N)aoko, (O)liver, (P)hil, (R)achel, (S)ayuri, (T)om, (U)rsula, (V)ictor, (W)illiam, (Y)oko, and (Z)ara. The Centre director and the President of the University are referred to as Q and X respectively.

F1 and F2 refer to Focus Groups One and Two respectively. Generally, the quotes are from a number of people, but if the quotation is from one particular participant, then that initial follows. The number after the colon refers to the number of the turn, as indicated in the transcriptions (on accompanying CD). The occasional letters a, b and c refer to whether the quotation is from the beginning, central part, or end of a longer turn. For example, <P:120c> would mean the quotation is at the end of turn 120 in Phil's interview, and <F1, K:100> would mean the hundredth turn in Focus Group One, spoken by Kay.

4.2 Teachers' feelings about the job

There were generally positive feelings about the job, as evidenced by the following comments that arose in the course of the interviews:

- Agnes: “Of all the jobs I have done, this is probably the most pleasurable” (A:10c).
- Brian: “We have pretty good vacations [...] also, we don't have bloody meetings interrupting our vacations” (B:126b)
- Greg: “I have not yet encountered in 22 years of teaching as many motivated, capable students, and that to me is not only mind-blowing, but it's rewarding in itself” (G:16c).
- Irene: “I've taught at different universities and by far this place is the most rewarding, so I don't mind putting energy in to students who respond” (I:4c).
- Kay: “The money's OK. Holidays are great” (K:22a).
- Naoko: “Here they have a good library, and a good cafeteria and good students, and a good reputation, and I can't complain I don't think” (N:309).
- Victor: “This is the best teaching job I've ever had.” (V:14).
- William: “The university pays average [...] The students are wonderful, the staff in the offices are always nice, all the professors I've had to deal with have always been wonderful. The directors of the English departments who hired me are really nice guys. Staff in the computer rooms and everything ... never had any problem at all here” (W:92a).

Thus, it appears that the group of participants are happy teachers. For all of them, the job is pleasurable. For Greg and Irene it is rewarding; for Brian and Kay the vacations are important; Naoko and William appreciate the facilities; and most of the teachers appear to appreciate the quality of the students. These were not the only positive comments by those teachers (and there were many other similar comments by most of the other eighteen participants).

Only a few teachers admitted to problems. In the focus groups, there were references to the difficulties posed by such issues as class size (e.g. F2:387-396), ability levels (e.g. F1:317-323), and unmotivated students (e.g. F1:257-278). And some *hijokin* teachers thought they could not do an adequate job. For example, Sayuri felt she could not teach writing (S:101) (see also sections 5.2.3 and 5.4), and Molly and Yoko felt they did not have enough time to achieve all they wanted to do. (M:10,14; Y:8-18). However, these were generally considered exceptions to a satisfactory job. (This time factor is referred to again with relation to professional commitment in section 5.3)

As for salary, most teachers seemed to accept the above views of William (a *hijokin*) and Kay that it is “OK”. Only Agnes went as far as saying that it was excellent: for her, it was a “golden apple, after twelve years of apple picking” (A:176). Despite the comparatively low *hijokin* salary, only Molly complained, and even then laughingly, when she mentioned the fact that people start to respect her when they discover where she works, but they don't realise how little she is being paid. (M:364).

4.3 Teachers' perceptions of the students

As can be seen from the above quotes, some teachers are enthusiastic about the motivation of the students. However, the German teachers did not generally describe their students as motivated. Linda claimed that this was because it was their second language (after English), and they were only studying because they were forced to (L:16-18). Even among the English teachers, the enthusiasm tended to involve comparisons with other contexts, and there was an acceptance that students are not always sufficiently motivated.

Many of the non-Japanese teachers stated opinions about the attitudes and traits of Japanese students, not only with regards to motivation, but also to personalities, attitudes to English and learning styles. There were no direct questions on the topic, but opinions came up so often in the course of conversation that it became apparent that they formed an important part of the teachers' perceptions of their job environment:

- *Related to personalities and attitudes:*
 - “[...] they won't say anything in front of anybody else.” (O:104).
 - They are reticent at first, but become more alive if given more autonomy (I:8).
 - They rarely look interested, but that doesn't mean they are not paying attention. (W:168).
 - “It is said that Japanese students are passive. I think a motivated teacher can turn them into active” (Z:12).
 - They don't argue like Americans do, and if they want to study abroad, they must learn, or they'll be “squashed like a bug” (R:46, 82).
 - “The students are pretty docile. I think you'd have to put them on the rack before they'd offer any criticism to your face” (F2, B:24). (However, some said that students do criticize if given the chance (F2, T:154; R:76)).
 - “I think that most classes need to feel that they're a group for cultural reasons. Just little things like sitting at the back of the classroom really annoy me” (O:102).
 - “Japanese students, they don't like to make new friends too much” (W:54).
- *Related to attitudes to English:*
 - “they see English as a bit of a dead language” (because of the way it's taught) (D:162).
 - “You speak English to somebody in Japan and they just cringe, almost run away” (P:20).
- *Related to motivation:*
 - They are only bothered about getting credit for graduation (F1:368-379; F2, B: 221; K:14).
 - Japanese society places too much emphasis on grades. (V:184).
 - “[...]enjoyment has been kind of beat out of them. With the mundane routine of Japanese study” (A:78
 - “I think that students in Japan get very tired of English education halfway through high school” E:48c).
 - “Some students think that German is a language that Japanese people cannot learn, because of the nature of being Japanese” (Z:125)
 - They are “mainly interested in having a good time” (K:16).
 - “The most important part of a student's life is to get a job” (I:196).
 - “I think that to inspire students, particularly Japanese students, who, as we all know, have to be considerably inspired to contribute at all, I think you really have to be terribly enthusiastic about what you're teaching” (J:60).

- *Related to learning styles:*
 - They are conditioned to only take information and write it down (F1:382-383). “It’s this idea of memorizing large amounts of information and trying to regurgitate it without actually applying it to themselves” (A:44).
 - “[...]they’ve been through years of ‘Shut up and listen!’” (B:14).
 - They never ask questions, even if they don’t understand (B:142).
 - “The Japanese are so correct-orientated that just to get two words out of them is a challenge” (P:124)
 - They can’t communicate because they were corrected too much at school (F2,Y:205)
 - They don’t understand about plagiarism, because “so much of their educational experience is copying” (R:14).

Little evidence was provided for these observations, which seem to be mainly based on experience. The comments appear to be very critical, and sometimes might be construed as complaints (Kay, for example was particularly critical about the students). However, for the most part they were couched more in terms of challenges that sometimes formed important educational goals. (See, for example, section 6.6, where teachers’ efforts to adapt to, or change, students’ learning styles are discussed.). The attitudes of the Japanese teachers in this respect are somewhat different, and specifically addressed in the next section.

4.4 TEFL in Japan: Japanese teachers and non-Japanese teachers

There was little indication from the participants that there was anything special or distinctive about teaching English as a foreign language, compared to teaching any other subject (or skill). In fact, some teachers saw the language they were teaching mainly as a medium for teaching something else. Agnes, for example, said it just so happened that she was “facilitating” in English (A:80-84), and when, in the focus group, Phil brought up his interest in teaching the students an awareness of social issues, there was some agreement that he would find a way to teach that no matter what subject he was teaching (F1:106-113). Some teachers actually described their classes as *content* classes: teaching a particular subject, such as literature or current affairs in the medium of English.

However, one issue, specific to the TELF context, which often emerged in the conversations was that of differing cultures and nationalities. There were non-Japanese teachers teaching their own language to Japanese students, and there were Japanese teachers teaching a foreign language to Japanese students. It became apparent that there were a number of differences in job perceptions between these two groups.

Some non-Japanese teachers were challenged by the fact that they were in a foreign culture. For example, Greg said: “[...]there are aspects of this particular culture that are very uncomfortable for me, and of course, those occur within the university as well as outside. So when that happens, which it does all the time, that can increase for me a sense of isolation” [G:182]. And Ursula remarked about her first time in a Japanese classroom: “Nothing was like I expected. An experienced teacher in the Western sense...in Japan” (U:108).

Teachers seemed to be particularly concerned about the expectations that the students had of foreign teachers. William talked about the pressure of these expectations:

I'm worried about their impression of me not being a Japanese teacher and not teaching in the way that they expect, and therefore they don't value me in the same way that they would value somebody who talked according to their cultural expectations.

[W:146]

However, these concerns did not make him try to teach like a Japanese teacher. Rachel also felt no need to change her ways of teaching, despite feeling aware of doing things that were contrary to assumed expectations: she sits on desks, she calls them by their first name, and she allows them to eat and drink coffee. (R:68). Similarly, Greg thought that he needed to pay attention to the students' expectations of him, but tried to make them realize that might not wish to meet those expectations. (G:186). In contrast, Chrissa felt that there were few rigid expectations of her, and therefore did not feel bound by anything. She thought that being foreign meant being released from restrictions (C:102).

The Japanese teachers also seemed to be conscious of expectations, but as teachers within their own culture of a language that was not their own. (Attitudes to speaking the target language (or not) will be discussed in section 9.6). Yoko surprised the focus group by saying that she did not feel respected in a class of lower English proficiency level students: that to them she was "just another Japanese teacher" and they were more motivated with a *gaijin* (foreigner) (F2:91-99). However, in more advanced classes, she felt that while native speakers have little experience of the Japanese situations, therefore having to rely on imaginary situations, her own experience as a Japanese *shakaijin* (member of society) enables her to play a more valuable role:

I can share my experience outside of ... I mean, in companies, businesses, places like that. I can show them that English is real and it could be real to you, too. And ... err ... English to you as Japanese native speakers living in Japan, graduating from Sophia, working maybe for big companies, English to you could become this way or that way, that way. And then that can be a very different type of motivation.

[Y:124c]

However, she did feel that she was constrained by the expectation upon her to act Japanese. She felt that she would be criticized if she were to act as casually as some non-Japanese teachers do. (She remembers not liking her own American English teacher bringing coffee to class, but feeling she could not complain as he would ignore her). On top of this is a feeling that as a Japanese she is expected to be more correct than a non-Japanese, as she should be able to use the mother tongue to explain subtle nuances, whereas, she thought, non-Japanese teachers are only expected to communicate general meanings. (Y:181-200).

Being Japanese does have its advantages. In the previous section, 4.3, it was seen how non-Japanese teachers described their students in terms of challenges to be dealt with. However, the Japanese teachers appeared to talk more in terms of acceptance and adaptation, in a process that they themselves had also experienced. For example, although Sayuri admitted that Japanese students see university as a chance to play between school and company, she saw this as an opportunity to

enrich their lives, and planned her teaching accordingly (S:79). Another teacher, Naoko, felt that the fact that she shared culture and language with her students helped her to understand them: “I know where they are coming from, and when they have problems, I understand” (N:152). When she had taught Japanese language to American students in the U.S.A., she had found it difficult because she had not shared the same language learning experiences (N:112-128).

4.5 Autonomy and isolation

Nearly all the participants either clearly stated or agreed that they had a high degree of autonomy in their classroom decisions and activities. Certainly, nobody complained of any lack of autonomy, and in fact, the only obligation ever mentioned was that of giving grades (a topic sometimes introduced by myself). All participants in the Focus Group One said that they valued this autonomy (F1:171). And in Focus Group Two, all participants agreed with Yoko when she favourably compared this job with commercial language schools, where textbooks were set, and which she didn’t “enjoy” as much (F2,Y:285). In the individual interviews also, teachers talked in terms of having a freedom in class. For example, both Brian and Don talked of how they appreciated being given a “free hand” (e.g. B:36b, D:156 & N:35). The only teachers to discuss any lack of autonomy (and this in response to my questioning them on the topic) were the German teachers, with regard to the textbook that they had to use. However, none complained about the constraint: only that it might not be the most suitable text, either for the students or for their fellow teachers (U:167-172 & L:133-144).

However, teachers were certainly aware of the other side of the autonomy coin: a degree of isolation. Many of the *hijokin* commented on their separate-ness. Harumi and Naoko pointed out the lack of a teachers’ room, or other opportunities to exchange ideas, with Naoko saying, “you just come here to teach and leave” (H:234 & N:45). Molly, while accepting that she has “freedom to concentrate on teaching”, instead of having to go to meetings (M:366) also related the story of how unsure she was when she first started teaching, as there was no guidance, and she was not even told where the copy machine was. However, this is a common predicament of *hijokin* everywhere in Japan. She solved the problem by bonding with another part time teacher, and they bounced ideas off each other.

The full-time *shokutaku* teachers were sometimes rather concerned by their isolation. Chrissa complained that it was the first job in which she had felt so isolated, and talked of the uncertainties:

I feel like in the compulsory subjects I'm teaching now I have no idea what other people are doing, I've no idea how much homework they give, I've no idea what the content is, I've no idea whatsoever. So that's just odd, because working in a programme with no curriculum, you have no idea if what you're doing is up to par. And it's hard because in terms of the standard, you don't want to only just trust the students. You want there to be departmental standards that you can adhere to, despite the fluctuations that you see with students.

[C:168]

The teachers may have full control over their classroom activity, but very little control outside the classroom. Jill in particular complained that they were not allowed to act like a professional group, and their professional experience was ignored when it came to overall programme management (J:102,86). Greg, who had complained of a sense of isolation in the Japanese culture (see section 4.4), was disturbed by what he perceived as a lack of demand upon him, and thought this was connected to the “ambiguous, negatively perceived status” of the *shokutaku* (G:137-140). The issue of status and relationships, and how they affect motivation will be examined in chapter 9, with a focus on autonomy and isolation in section 9.9.

4.6 Interpretation of teachers' views of the context

Even though we have not touched on all aspects of the context, this description of the teachers' attitudes indicates that it may well be a very important factor in the expression and development of their motivation. This brief interpretation will examine the comments of the teachers in terms first of the market, then status, and finally what appears to be the most important: the work situation. It will conclude with comments about autonomy and the associated degree of isolation.

Firstly, there was little attempt by the teachers to describe the job context in terms of the market, other than to mention that the salary was sufficient. The one exception was Agnes, who was clear that vacations are a very important part of the job, but even for her, there was no connection between job performance and motivation. This is consistent with much of the literature. However, the fact that the salary was generally described as *sufficient*, or at least not unsatisfactory, is important, as will be discussed in chapter 8.

Secondly, the position as regards status is more complex. The most salient issue in this regard is that of the teachers' perceptions of the expectations that their students (and also perhaps the university and society at large) have of them. The non-Japanese teachers are aware of themselves as foreigners, and being seen as foreigners, expected to do things differently. For some, this was a problem, while others shrugged it off, and were even grateful for it. Also, the way in which they described the Japanese students, particularly in terms of particular traits that had to be overcome or corrected, places them in the context of Japanese society. Their motives seem to be similar to the altruistic, socially conscious motives suggested by the studies of Bastick (2000), in Jamaica (see section 2.9.1), and Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), in Cyprus (see section 2.8.2), and contrasts with the tendency of the Japanese teachers to adapt rather than reform.

The Japanese teachers seemed to be very conscious of their status as Japanese in a Japanese society. This could make life difficult, as they needed to prove their abilities to the students, but it was also useful, as they felt that they understood their students' problems and needs. Thus, for both Japanese and non-Japanese teachers alike, the issue of status (hence expectations) had an effect on the way they worked, and therefore motivation, as will be discussed further in chapter 9

Status factors were also involved within the context of the university itself. It is not clear from the data above whether the separate status of the *shokutaku* and *hijokin* groups has any effect on teaching practices. Greg and Jill complained about the impotent status of the *shokutaku* and the *hijokin* teachers commented on their relative isolation, so perhaps they have to make efforts to cope with that. However, what is clear that none of the teachers saw their job as involving management or any other faculty business. Nor was there any mention of promotion or ranking in general.

Thirdly, the work situation in this context appears to be the dominant situation, in terms of which even the other situations are described. Work for these teachers is almost exclusively described in terms of what they do with relation to their students, either in class, preparing for class, or evaluating the class. There were few attempts to define what they do in terms of what the university expects, or even in terms of the TEFL profession. An examination of how the work situation affects (and is affected by) motivation will be in chapters 6 and 7. However, at this stage, it is clear that they find their work mainly satisfactory, and these positive feelings outbalance even those unsatisfactory aspects of the context which were mentioned: for example, the lack of a professional voice in decision making, and concern about nationality and expectations. Referring to Evans' ideas and definitions, discussed in sections 2.7-8, the work that the teachers do is satisfying for them, while the general context appears to be not unsatisfactory enough to lower overall satisfaction.

Clearly, the teachers are happy with their autonomy in the classroom. However, the flipside of this autonomy was a degree of isolation, and some talked about uncertainties mentioned by Lortie (1975) and Andy Hargreaves (1994): most particularly the lack of concrete models, unreliable feedback and unclear goals. Those who expressed this concern were displaying what Hoyle & John (1995) define as *professionalism*: a desire to be more involved (see section 2.8.1), but it is unclear whether they would sacrifice their classroom autonomy in order to achieve that. On the other hand, it is not possible to say that the teachers are actively desiring isolation (as Lortie, op. cit., has observed), in order to achieve a comfortable autonomy behind closed doors. There was nothing in the data to suggest that the teachers' satisfaction was what David Hargreaves (1980) defines as *individualism*: a weak escape from accountability. Rather, it appears that the organisation of the teachers is allowing what Andy Hargreaves (1994) calls *individuality*: personal independence and self-realisation. The theme of autonomy is continued in the conclusion of section 6.2, and in section 9.9.

4.7 Summary

This chapter examined the ways in which the participants described the job, and the context or the job. Their feelings about the job and the students were discussed. Then the job was put into the

context of Teaching English as a Foreign language, and it was found that there were important differences in perception between the Japanese and non-Japanese teachers. Finally, the organisation of the work was discussed, in particular the importance to the teachers of autonomy. This was followed by an interpretation of the data, in terms of the categories of market, status, work and also organisation.

The next chapter will examine the teachers' perceptions of motivation: what they think it means.



Chapter 5: Findings – Teachers’ Perceptions of Motivation

5.1 Introduction

The data in the second part of this chapter derives mainly from the responses to, and subsequent development, of the first questions of the groups and interviews, in which teachers were asked either to describe a motivated teacher or to explain why they thought they themselves were (or were not) motivated. The rationale for this question is discussed in sections 3.5.1-2. All participants had been told that I was conducting research into *motivation*, but had received no explanation about what the word could mean, apart from the possibility of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation, which also were left undefined by me (see Appendix 3 for initial communications with participants). I had expected there would be a demand for explanation and definition, in which case I would turn to them for their definition. There was also the possibility of rejection of *motivation* as a valid concept altogether, in which case I would have asked if there was anything they would put in its place.

In the event, there was no rejection of the concept of *motivation*, and not even any request for a definition. Only Greg expressed any reservations, yet he still tried to define it in his terms:

It's a word that comes up in education a lot, in terms of research, but to me, I don't apply it in any specific way to what I do, as opposed to what my brother does, or my friend does, or what the secretary does. If they enjoy their work, then I can say I enjoy my work. But I just think about it, or talk about it differently. It's that this is what I want to do, and I like doing it

[F2,G:60]

The lack of demand of an explanation for *motivation* does not mean that there is a generally accepted shared concept of the term. And not all participants were as explicit with their own concept as was Greg. In each conversation, the participants seemed to construct their own ideas, based on their experiences and observations, and these ideas were built upon by both interviewer and interviewee. Some ideas were shared, and some teachers thought more broadly than others. What follows in this chapter is an overview of these ideas. The data appears to show that the teachers relate their motivation to three distinct areas: firstly, personal positive disposition towards the job, secondly, professional attitudes, and, thirdly, the actual practice of teaching. Each of these areas is discussed in the following sections, which will be followed by a discussion of the relevance of this data to the categorisation of market, status, work and organisation.

5.2 Liking it and enjoying it

In the previous section, 5.1, Greg introduced the possibility that a teacher's motivation may be something different from that of other jobs and professions. For him, what matters is that he is doing what he wants to do, and he likes it. He was not the only one. In fact, it seems that, for some, liking or enjoying teaching does not simply lead one to become motivated to teach, but it was actually a form of motivation itself: to like teaching *means* to be motivated.

When asked about recruitment policies, the director of the Centre talked about “liking to teach” as one motivation that a good teacher should have. He defined this further as being *interested* in both teaching and the students he is teaching (Q:4c). From a teacher’s point of view, Zara talked about ‘liking’ as:

First, he likes to be a teacher. Then he has the quality to let the pupil understand that he likes his job. You can get motivation because it’s a very high paying job, but I don’t mean that kind of motivation. Even if you get hardly any money for it, if you feel that you can teach people something that they really want to learn, so that they are glad to be taught by you, then I mean that kind of liking.

[Z:4]

Some, including Greg again (G:4) and Eleanor (E:4) talked of simply ‘wanting’ to do it. Also, Oliver:

[...]somebody who really loves teaching and wants to teach, gets up in the morning and they’re looking forward to that first period class and get in there and they’ve got their lesson plan ready and they’re looking forward to trying this or that. I would say that’s what motivation means to me.

[O:2]

Others talked of *enthusiasm* (J:60), of having a *passion* (F1, K:6), or even simply of *not grumbling* (C:4). Victor expanded: “I know the students can be terrible, but it’s kind of a teacher’s job, it kind of goes with the territory. So people who moan about the students, I feel they must be unmotivated” (V:8).

Enjoyment was a common theme, particularly in the second focus group:

Brian: A motivated teacher enjoys teaching.

Chrissa: Definitely, that’s the first thing I wrote too

Tom, Yoko: Yes

Brian: I’ve never been in a position where I’ve been in front of a class and felt I don’t want to be there. Not yet, anyway..., Maybe I’m lucky.

[F2:2-7]

Both Tom and Brian agreed that it was a “contradiction in terms” to consider teachers motivated if they didn’t enjoy what they were doing (F2,29). However, Greg protested that for him, the word ‘enjoyment’ did not enter into it at all. He preferred the ideas of *satisfying* and *commitment* (F2:55). He was particularly critical of the suggestion that he might be teaching *in order to* increase his own enjoyment. However, Tom argued that even if his enjoyment is not a goal, he is still choosing things to do that would satisfy his own enjoyment (F2:59). This circular process was elaborated by Chrissa in the same conversation: “[...]we enjoy it because we are accomplishing something. There’s satisfaction knowing that we actually achieved the objective, and that they actually enjoyed meeting that goal” (F2,C:48).

Individually, Agnes (A:4), Eleanor (E:51-57) and William (W:4a) all talked of the necessity of *enjoyment*, and Brian said simply that he wouldn’t work hard if he did not enjoy the job (F2,B:36). Victor, however, questioned the direction of causation when he extended the concept to other fields: “A motivated person is somebody who finds a way to enjoy what they do, given the fact that not everything that we do in life is enjoyable” (V:12).

5.3 Being professional: Commitment, doing your best, and accepting a challenge

In a continuation of the above discussion on enjoyment in the focus group, Yoko pointed out that she does not always enjoy her work, especially when she has to be always thinking of her students' progress, working late or at home (F2,Y:37a). She called this *professional commitment*: a concept in contrast to the idea of simply enjoying your job. Later, The conversation returned to this topic:

Yoko: I think I'm not doing this as a volunteer. I need to make a living. And this is a profession that I chose. So of course, I want to enjoy it, I want to contribute to the students' needs, but at the same time I need to

Tom: Pay the bills.

Yoko: Yes. And then, because I'm receiving this reward, monetary reward, then in exchange I have to do a good job. ...You receive money if you have sincerity, if you are a man of honour, a woman of honour, person of honour.

[F2:313]

The idea of committing to the work because it is a chosen path was also touched on by Kay and Victor. Kay chose teaching because she had a natural skill for it from an early age, and having chosen it, she takes a pride in what she does (K:4). Victor talked about a professionalism that he inherited from his father: "if you do a job, do it well" (V:4b).

A number of teachers felt that commitment is revealed by the time spent outside class, in preparation, grading, or simply meeting the students. (e.g., B:4, C:4b, M:2; S:101, and V:30). In this respect, two *hijokin* teachers said that they felt less motivated because they do not have the time or facilities to do the best that they know they can. Molly also felt she had become less motivated when it became more difficult for her to put in enough hours outside of class to interact properly with the students (M:10, 14). Similarly, Yoko reported that she felt less motivated when she became a *hijokin*, because she not only had less time, but also no longer had a personal office in which to meet students (Y:8-18). For these teachers, motivation meant *doing your best*. If they knew they were not doing their best, they were not motivated.

In contrast to the above two teachers, another *hijokin*, William, rarely spends time outside of actual class hours:

As far as being a motivated teacher, I'm not really like some teachers I've met who want to spend [...] their Sundays talking about teaching, or joining groups to sit and talk about teaching, or go to conferences and talk about the lesson plans or things like that. I like to go into the classroom and start teaching, I don't like to make a lesson plan. So I'm not really motivated to prepare materials and things, but [...] I might say I'm dedicated because I don't like to be late, I feel guilty if I try to finish the class early. I'll say, okay, today I'm going to try to finish 15 minutes early and it comes down to I teach the entire 90-minute class, or I get out 5 minutes early, even when I'm leaving to go do something. Or to call in sick or something, I can't do that, I'm motivated to go in and teach, or dedicated, something like that.

[W:4c]

So for William, being motivated means to be dedicated, and to be dedicated means nothing more (or less) than being loathe to do anything but a good job as soon as he enters the classroom.

For Chrissa and Oliver, motivation means *challenge*. A motivated person in any kind of job, said Chrissa, would "accept a challenge", rather than face defeat. When asked to elaborate, she replied:

At the beginning of a class, the beginning of the term, there's an excitement, like you're looking forward to getting all of these new students and teaching, but it's a challenge in terms of figuring out the students and their experience, their background, what they know, what they don't know, and how you're going to present this information to them, that's a challenge. I mean challenge in a positive sense of the word. And I think defeat is when things don't go as planned, or things aren't as you expected, and there's just an attitude of resignation like, okay, I'm just getting through this one, I'm going to get through chapters 9, 10 and 11, just by the book.

[C:8]

According to Oliver, “the challenge is being able to teach even when things are not going the way you want them to”. To be motivated is to accept this challenge, and try to figure out a good way to teach, for example, a difficult group of students, even though it might be stressful, and not pleasurable (O:6). Chrissa adds that a motivated teacher would not grow complacent, but would actively search out ways to improve her teaching, either by engaging colleagues in discussion or going to workshops (C:4, 14). And finally, a motivated teacher would invite students to evaluate her teaching: a suggestion put by Chrissa in her focus group, and agreed by all in the group (F2:136-140).

5.4: In practice: Energy and relationships

When describing a motivated teacher actually in practice, teachers talked in terms of *innovation*, *flexibility* and above all, *energy*. Rachel, in describing the influence of her former teacher, talked about a person who “put a tremendous amount of energy into the class” (R:184). Brian defined what he meant by *energy*:

I'm not saying that just because this teacher is jumping around the class burning off calories he's necessarily better than a relaxed teacher. But there's energy that can be put into preparation, and energy that can be put into getting a point across. What I mean, basically, is that a teacher who is going through the motions half asleep is definitely not motivated. And you can spot that pretty quickly.

[B:8]

Yoko described the “offhand” teacher that she had often experienced and feared that she had partly become now that she cannot devote enough time to her work. Such a teacher would not put energy into her work, and the students would, she said, be very aware of this fact (Y:34-44).

Some thought that it is important to not only to have energy, but also to show the students that you have this energy, and indeed to spread that energy around. Brian talked about the importance of “positive vibes”, and a willingness to create a “positive” situation, where you do not have “half the class staring out of the window” (B:4, 16-18). Sayuri goes even further to say that a motivated teacher wants to make the class alive, so they are in the classroom both “bodily and mentally” (S:4, 10). Because she felt that she could not do that in her writing class, she said she lost motivation. (S:22)

Other teachers agreed about the importance of the relationship with the students, and an adequate response to their needs. When she said that a motivated teacher was innovative, Zara continued to explain that this meant “he likes to find out what the pupil wants to learn, so that he can pick out things which fit the expectation of the pupils” (Z:2). Similarly, when she talked about flexibility,

Eleanor explained in terms of a teacher who takes trouble to find out how much the students really understand, and is then willing to move away from a planned path in response (E:2, 14c). Chrissa suggested that a motivated teacher would not only change his own plans but would also be determined enough to change the whole learning environment if necessary. In other words, he should be *active*: “making choices, rather than just accepting what’s there” (C:10).

Zara pointed out that enthusiasm cannot be faked: “You must really like it. It’s the feeling. I don’t think you can deceive people in that way. I think they will understand how motivated a teacher is” (Z:6). For some, one way to make this connection with the students is simply showing that you care enough to remember their names (H:28, M:2). The importance of this personal connection was stressed by Ursula: “I think I cannot teach without giving something personally from me. And to be open to receive, also. That is the difference from internet classes. There is always a person” (U:26).

5.5 Interpretation of teachers’ perceptions of motivation

On the basis of the data provided, it does appear that the teachers conceive of motivation primarily in terms of the work being done and the relationship with that work. The references to liking teaching: enthusiasm, passion and above all, enjoyment recall the earliest utilitarian theories of motivation: we do things because we like doing them. However, the teachers here were not only talking of why they themselves teach. They were describing their image of a motivated teacher, and motivated teachers, they think, enjoy what they are doing (or, as Greg said, they are satisfied). However, motivated teachers would not have passion relationships with work: they would actively try to do well, search out challenges, and improve their performance. They would, in other words, put energy into their work.

Concerning the market situation, it seems clear that the teachers do not conceive of motivation in terms of maximising income or security. As there was little mention of market factors in their description of the job context, it is perhaps not surprising that they are not prominent in the teachers’ conceptions of their motivation. However, the ideas related to professional commitment did include a notion of giving value. Also, the basic need to earn a living should not be overlooked. This brings the teacher to the work in the first place, and can have a controlling influence. For example, as has been seen, *hijokin* are not able to devote sufficient time to the task is mainly because they have to earn money elsewhere. These points will be further discussed with relation to the market situation in chapter 8.

The status situation is a factor in the notion of providing value for money in the role of teacher, as well as maintaining professional values. However, it seems to be most important within the classroom itself, during the practice of teaching. It is the students who are the judges of whether the teachers are putting enough energy into the class, and in fact, much of that energy is spent

forging and maintaining relationships with the students. This, and other status-related points will be discussed in chapter 9.

The teachers do sometimes say or imply that a motivated teacher would have certain individual characteristics. However, when considering the data together with the conclusions of the previous chapter, a stronger implication seems to be that it is the working environment that should have characteristics that allow teachers to engage properly with their work: to enjoy their teaching, be professionally committed, and use their energy efficiently. In other words, whatever motivation the teachers have, it needs a satisfactory environment to allow it to bear fruit. As Evans (1998b) says (see section 2.8.1), motivation is predominantly contextually determined, with compatibility between teachers and the context being very important.

5.6 Summary

This chapter examined the participants' views of the concept of motivation. One perspective was that of individual teachers liking and enjoying what they do. The second was the idea of professional commitment and the need to do one's best as a teacher. And the third perspective was from within the classroom, with specific reference to energy and generating good relationships with students. This was also followed by a brief interpretation.

The next two chapters will examine motivation in terms of the work situation, with chapter 6 focussing on goals and working processes, and chapter 7 on the ways in which the teachers are motivated by their work.

Chapter 6: Findings –The Work Situation

6.1 Introduction

This chapter and the next examine the motivation of the teachers in terms of what Lockwood calls the 'work situation'. He defines this as "the set of social relationships in which the individual is involved at work by virtue of his position in the division of labour" (1989, p. 15). Lockwood's purpose, however, was to describe the class position of the office workers he was examining. Here, the purpose is to discuss and hence provide an understanding of the motivation of a group of teachers, and so the work situation will be examined from a rather different set of perspectives. In chapter 4, the way that the teachers describe their work and its context was discussed. This chapter will continue the examination of their work situation by focussing on their work goals and the work process. Then chapter 7 will examine the aspects of the work situation by which the teachers feel they are motivated.

The first perspective will be of the goals that the teachers work towards. According to Porter et al. (2003), an important notion in the conceptualisation of motivation is that of individual goal orientation: "their behaviour is directed *toward* something" (p. 1). Although goal-related questions had been prepared for both focus groups and interviews (see section 3.5), the participants generally talked about their goals without being prompted. First, those goals that are connected with the teachers' grading criteria are discussed, with special focus on any goals related to linguistic achievement. Then section 6.3 will discuss goals related to students' attitude to the language and language learning, with special reference to confidence building.

The second part of the chapter will bring into focus the actual process of the work and decisions related to that process. Short-term goal setting might be involved but the focus is on the day-to-day, class-by-class process of teaching. Many teachers talked about their motivation in terms of their teaching actions, methods, and the way they approached their work. This was sometimes linked to longer-term goals, but in this study, there was no attempt to link classroom actions with classroom goals, either during the conversations or in this analysis. In section 6.4, the importance to the teachers of providing a chance to communicate will be examined, followed by a discussion of the teachers' efforts to increase student motivation. Finally, in section 6.6, there will be a short account of efforts to deal with or change students' learning styles.

The chapter will show that the teachers are motivated to a great extent towards the work that they do in the classroom. It does also appear that this motivation is greater than that which is directed towards market or status factors (which will be discussed in later chapters). It will also show that their motivation is individually directed. That is, they form their own goals, and are not impeded by the fact that there is little guidance from the institution. It is also notable that there is a wide variation both in the ways the teachers cope with their institutional responsibilities (i.e. grading),

and in professional goals, particularly those related to actual acquisition of language. However, there was a wide agreement in the importance of student-focussed teaching processes. Also, it appears that it is the work environment: not only the degree of autonomy, but also the lack of negative features, that makes these processes possible.

6.2 Teachers' grading criteria and linguistic achievement goals.

Teachers are expected to set their own class goals and grading criteria (see section 1.6.4). The only institutional obligation is to submit a list of grades at the end of term. How they arrive at those grades is for the teachers to decide. However, few initially talked of their class goals in terms of grades. (Nobody, for example, said that their goal was to have all students get A-grade, and only Chrissa mentioned them in her description of a motivated teacher).

However, when questioned specifically about grading criteria, it became evident that they did think quite deeply about them. And they were asked about grading criteria in the interviews because of the interest in grading that was evident in Focus Group One:

Kay: If you are looking at language skills, I guess that there are certain skills that need to be tested, in my opinion, and certain skills that don't need to be tested. Formally. Perhaps informally. Talking about the writing, I don't test formally. I get them to give me a portfolio of their writings. And I just read through them and balance them all out among each other to give up them a grade. Because I have to give a grade. Otherwise I wouldn't do that at all.

Irene: So we're looking at performance then.

Kay: But when we're looking at something like listening skills, which is task-oriented, I'd give a test, because it's the only way, in this university that I can evaluate, and give some sort of a grade. I'd rather be subjective, based on those goals or aims that I had set at the beginning of the year. If it is a textbook then whatever the textbook has got in them in the front.

Agnes: It's really hard for me to take student motivation out of my testing.

Tim: *Can you expand on that?*

Agnes: Well, I mean a lot of my tests are really subjective. A lot of them are, "OK, you're in front of me. Go-ahead. Talk." and when I feel that this student has made an effort, then I want to give them a good grade.

Kay: So you test on effort and motivation, rather than language skill.

Irene: Yes yes.

Agnes: For the most part, I guess I do.

Phil: Especially when they all come in. These levels.

Kay: They are all supposed to be the same.

All: ((Laughter))

Phil: This student doesn't have to do anything, if you graded them all the same, right? And this poor guy down here, well he's got to go up to here, just to get a C.

Others: ((noises of agreement.))

Kay: Yes, you're supposed to get him up there, though.

Irene: But you're right. We are testing them, we are evaluating them on their motivation - or how happy they are, in what they're doing.

Agnes: Yes

Phil: Mm. Yes.

[F1:255-271]

Table 6.1: Language goals and grading criteria (see section 6.2)

NAME	LANGUAGE GOALS	EVALUATION AND GRADING
Agnes	<i>Writing:</i> should be correctly structured, not “Japanese” (A:96) <i>Oral:</i> behaviour is as important as accuracy (A:102).	<i>Writing:</i> grades homework, looking for accuracy. <i>Oral:</i> Interview tests, grades on students’ individuality (A:115) and if they “applied it to themselves”. Dislikes grading, but appreciates that it gives her leverage (A:125-134).
Brian	<i>Basic:</i> structural goals, class by class (e.g tenses) (B:136). <i>Advanced:</i> the students should be able to become involved and organize themselves to give good presentations. (B:138).	Grades based on class participation, effort and language ability (50%), which he “more or less” knows (B:311-317). Looks for “people nodding and looking positive”, and gives occasional tests (B:136). “Agonises” over grading (B:301)
Chrissa	<i>Oral:</i> not in terms of pronunciation or grammar points, but “more communicative” (C:62). <i>Writing:</i> aims to have students write “beautiful sentences” (C:88).	Thinks grades are important as they were important to her as student. Assignments and tasks graded according to her goals. Ensures students are aware of their grade record (C:208).
Don	Aims mainly at “developing their listening skills so that they can actually hear native speakers talk” (D:76).	Grades not linked to proficiency level, so doesn’t think they have meaning outside his class (D:86). Grades on effort and progress. “As long as they’re pushing themselves and doing better, I’m happy” (D:90)
Eleanor	<i>Oral:</i> aims for “performing”, telling stories and responding on topics. <i>Writing:</i> put together a basic idea, ask questions and respond to each other’s work (E:24).	Tests are performances or projects through the year. Students get ‘B’ “if they do what they need to do and show some energy and surprise me a few times” (E:105, 109).
Fiona	Communicative ability more important than correctness. Pronunciation important (F:165-170).	Gives few tests. Bases grades on students’ self-grades and if she thinks they have been trying (F: 275-284).
Greg	Correctness is not a primary goal. “Linguistically, my goal is for students to develop greater confidence in using English” (G:34-42).	Grades on confidence and fluency. Correctness is least important.
Harumi	Goal is that they “speak more” and listening “improves” (H:30, 115).	Tests once a term, but can usually remember what they did in the classroom (H:276).
Irene	Due to large classes and little time, “the most you can do is ... help them learn vocabulary, to do pronunciation, more performance-based” (I:66). Motivation a “huge factor” (F1:305)	Agonises over grades. Quizzes and projects build up marks over the year. Could grade just by “looking at them”, but likes to have justification. (I:197-218) So gives “billions of tests” (F1:339).
Jill	Goals given to students in terms of behaviour: tasks that they should be able to perform, and are very general at first so they can be adjusted.	Grades at all levels according to performance (J:37-52)
Kay	Uses textbooks with set linguistic goals. Also aims for “behaviouralist communication” based on cultural content (K:57).	Grades on “language and communication performance” with points through the year (K:103).
Molly	Aims only to get students “use” the language (M:96c).	No set tests. Grades according to class participation. Students will not fail if they attend all. (M:154-174).
Naoko	Aims for better reading skills, and learning of content (N:72).	Gives half the class grade A, based on homework and tasks in class (N:333-344)
Oliver	Aims for students to be able to use English in a conversational setting (O:52).	He thinks tests are important. Grades based on performance aspects (O:50, 60).
Phil	<i>Oral:</i> Speak and interact (“not cringe and run away”) (P:20). <i>Writing:</i> Be able to write something that is interesting enough for him to want to read (P:148).	Feels he can tell what effort a student has been making, and grades accordingly. Writing graded on level of interest, which includes sufficient accuracy (P:194).
Rachel	<i>Advanced:</i> “to be able to use English fully, as an intellectual discourse” (R:46). <i>Basic:</i> to manage basic social situations, express opinions about simple material things (R:36).	Gives points for various tasks through the year, and warns students if they are in danger of failing (R:28, 138)
Sayuri	<i>Reading:</i> aims for the students to enjoy reading original English without translations (S:30). <i>Writing:</i> accuracy is primary (S:239).	Reading graded on dramatisations, assignments, an “easy” test, interviews. Writing graded mainly on accuracy, partly on content (S: 244-281).
Victor	<i>Advanced:</i> teaches them content and “hope that their language improves” (V:228-230). <i>Writing:</i> Aims for clear thinking and well-structured ideas (W:62).	Thinks grades are “a meaningless carrot” (V:182), and generally gives A or B, based on small tests and interviews which usually coincide with students’ self-appraisals (V:192).
William	Chooses a book and adopts those goals. Takes “Whole language approach”, all skills (W:50).	No end of term test, but grades on regular vocabulary test marks, attendance, and effort (W:63-72).
Yoko	Formerly “accuracy”, now “fluency”, and communicating without worrying about mistakes (Y:48, 86).	Gives grade in each class for small tests which also involve accuracy (Y:260).

Kay was the only teacher who acknowledged the need for language proficiency criteria. For the others it is clear from this conversation that *attitude* is an important goal in grading: at least four of these five teachers say that they base their grades on attitude, and in particular, *motivation*. Even Kay admitted that she was only testing because she had to, and would prefer to be as informal and subjective as possible.

In Focus Group Two, when I pointed out that they had not mentioned grading or goals related to language proficiency, the general response was that they had no such goals. Even in writing, where performance is more visible, there are not specific *levels* to reach, but only the hope, for example, of writing with style, and feeling rewarded when it happened (F2:183-193). As for the oral, conversation classes, both Brian and Tom denied that they had any linguistic goals at all, with Brian saying it was just too difficult to set specific goals (F2, 201-204). There was general agreement with Yoko, when she said:

Let's get out of the rigid, perfectionist way of learning English, that you must have been doing for the past six years. Teachers have been correcting you: "No, no, that's not 'the'(schwa) that's 'the' (rhymes with 'she')". They kept getting stopped by teachers because of minor mistakes that are not really a big issue for communication. My major goal is not really linguistic. It's more like an attitude.

[F2,Y:205]

For Group Two also, then, competence goals appeared to be less important than attitudinal goals. (When asked directly what their overall teaching goals were, the replies were *inspiration, student satisfaction, passing on a love for learning, and developing student autonomy*). This was confirmed in the individual interviews of these teachers. Of all of them, it was Chrissa who placed the most importance on language ability: not "fine tuning grammar points or anything like that, it would be more communicative"(C:60). Brian also said that he had linguistic goals in each basic class, but language ability only counted for half the grade, along with *effort*, and the *effect* he believes the grade will have on the student (B:301-319).

Data related to each of the English language teachers with regard to linguistic goals, grading criteria and teachers' attitudes to grading have been summarised and listed in table 6.1. All grading criteria have been included, whether they are attitudinal, related to a linguistic benchmark, or simply required attendance. Linguistic goals have been limited to those that relate to competence, rather than attitude, which will be discussed in section 6.3. If the teacher did not mention any language competence related goals, then attitudinal goals are listed. (All had some kind of linguistic-based goal).

As can be seen from the table, there were a variety of linguistic competence goals expressed, as well as many ways of giving grades. Few teachers had fixed linguistic goals, in terms of reaching a certain level of competence, but most had very wide aims such as being able to use the language in conversational settings (O:52) or simply to improve listening (H:30). Such goals would sometimes, but not always, be reflected in their grading criteria. For their grades, many teachers

brought in attitudinal factors, such as effort and confidence, and attitude to language and language learning, rather than competence, which was often not a factor at all. The attitude of the teachers towards grading varied. Some teachers, such as Chrissa, felt the grades were an important product, but many, such as Victor and William, talked of grading as being only a burdensome task that had to be done.

The German teachers were in a rather different position as regards grades, and are therefore not included in the table. Grades were given according to marks on tests, and combined with grades given by another teacher. Each teacher had rather a different attitude to this. Ursula worried that it would not be professional to pass a student who she thought was not proficient (U:245-252), Zara managed to arrange things so that she could give credit to those who were more fluent, independent of the test (Z:78), and Linda was content to accept her partner's criteria, which she thought were rather easy, because she thought all grades were worthless, anyway (L:178-182). All three teachers also had attitudinal goals, discussed in section 6.3.

The limitations of the context should be acknowledged. William and Victor pointed out that there was little time in class to achieve much language learning (V:80,W:88), and Oliver talked of the need to understand that the acquisition of language as adults can be very slow, so students have to be realistic about goals (O:96). In the first focus group, Phil and Fiona agreed on the limitations of their job. For example:

I see my role as being pretty small, but when they leave my class they should be doing something, whereas another teacher might think "I have to get them all the way to fluency and proficiency in one year." I don't see my job in that way.

[F1,P:139]

However, Irene thought that even though linguistic goals had "fallen by the wayside" because of lack of time, it was still possible to help with vocabulary and pronunciation (I:66) while Jill asserted that experience can tell a teacher how to adapt to time constraints and still have firm goals (J:84).

The main conclusion to be made here is that it appears that the teachers were not deterred (or influenced) by the lack of official criteria, and were able to set their own goals, towards which they worked. These goals satisfied the few institutional requirements, while at the same time allowing them to fulfil their perceived roles as language teachers. This role is almost entirely played within their own classes, and is concerned almost exclusively with the students, rather than the institution. If they did not enjoy the autonomy that they describe in section 4.5, it is unlikely whether this would be possible. The reasons for the general disdain for language competence benchmark goals are not so clear-cut. Autonomy allows them to make these choices, but it is unclear whether they believe that those choices are appropriate for English teaching contexts in general, or are only an adaptation to the limitations of this particular context. However, the

important point here is that they do make choices, they do express them, and most of them do justify them in terms of the context in which they work.

6.3 Goals related to students' attitude to the language and learning: generating confidence

All teachers aimed to influence the students' attitude in some way towards either the language or their ability to perform in the language. Many teachers hoped that the students would simply develop a real interest in learning the language, with some teachers even saying that they were not interested in whether the students made progress in language proficiency:

I give them a sheet with my goals on it. ...There are two main things - one was that they would come out at the end of the course feeling that learning another language has been an enjoyable thing to do, and I don't give a shit whether they make any progress. ...also, they should gain confidence.

[V:36, 40]

[...] generating energy and interest is one of my motivations. That's almost a goal for me, no matter how poorly they do speak

[F1,F:29a]

There seemed to be two main ways of generating this "energy and interest" that Fiona hoped for: First, by changing attitudes to the language itself; and second, by changing attitudes towards learning, and learning language in particular.

Changing attitudes towards the language itself was generally seen in the same terms as the director: so that "they can use that language not simply for the purpose of attaining knowledge of it, but in order to communicate feelings and ideas that they have" (Q: 30c). For example, Naoko, a Japanese English teacher, referred to the fact that many High School pupils see English as nothing but a tool for gaining entry to university and hoped that when they leave her class they might see it as a tool for communication (N:74). Also, Rachel hoped that the students would come to see writing, in particular, as a tool that they can use in their future studies (R:30a). Linda, a German teacher, took it further and said that one of her goals was "to make them feel that German is a beautiful language." She talked of success when some students told her at the end of the year that they now understood what made German unique (L:46-48).

As for attitudes towards learning, Agnes illustrated her aims with a quote from *Fiddler on the Roof*, which she uses with her students: "What good is a brain without curiosity? It's a rusty tool" (F1:A,69a). And Fiona said that she feels successful simply if by the end of the semester the students have a positive attitude towards studying English (F:54).

Changing these attitudes towards language learning was almost exclusively expressed in terms of improving the students' own confidence that they can learn and perform in the language, and many teachers were clear that that was their aim. Some teachers talked simply of decreasing the shyness of the students and making them more comfortable using the language (I:14, P:20, R:36 and Y:88). However, others were firmer. Greg, for example, was adamant that confidence was his aim, and that he did not think of his own goals directly in terms of language at all (G:36-42). His

assumption was that confidence brings fluency, and “then, gradually, over time, you get to correctness” (G:42). He remarked:

I try to make that clear to students, that a big part of this class for me is that you will develop greater confidence in using English. I can't teach you how to read, I can't teach you how to speak, I can't teach you how to write, you do all those things - my goal is to get you to have confidence doing them in English, or greater confidence if you already have confidence.

[G:34a]

Sometimes the acquisition of confidence means that the students have to be persuaded that it is possible for them to succeed. This was particularly so in the case of German: Zara's goal was to overcome her students' conviction that they cannot learn German because they are Japanese (Z:124), and one goal of Ursula's class was to lower their fear of reading long texts, by demonstrating that it is not necessary to understand everything (U:190). Similarly, Sayuri, a Japanese teacher of English, wanted to convince her students that they could read (and enjoy) non-translated English books (S:30).

Generating the confidence to be independent was often seen as a goal. Sayuri was specific in that she considered creating “independent learners” to be an end in itself (S:22). Other teachers thought more in terms of being able to function independently in the language. Oliver, who tells his students that his aim is for them to be confident enough to go and function in Vancouver (O:52), in fact feels successful if they simply gain the confidence to come up and talk to him (O:48). Victor told his students that they would learn that he, the teacher, is not necessary and they can carry on learning independently without him (V:40, 80).

6.4 Providing a chance to communicate

Agnes said in her focus group that she was motivated to get the students “to communicate how they feel, how they see, and to learn more about who they are” (F1,A:109). She said that she felt successful if a student disagreed with the teacher, because it means that student is at least communicating (F1,A:104,109). This idea of *communication* was a key concept in the director's account of the goals of the centre, and was cited by a number of teachers in both their language goals and grading criteria. However, it also formed the basis of a day-to-day teaching approach. Fiona responded to Agnes' comment by describing the importance of creating an environment for communication to happen, and generating an energy that spreads in the class

I think what Agnes is saying is important. Part of my motivation is to get them to express ideas to each other. The best teachers for these kids are their peers.... I have great hope, when even a few students who were willing to express their opinions and to generate enough energy for other people to come back with arguments against, or whatever, support for. And when you get to that point, in a sense, they are influencing each other. You are influencing them too, to generate that initial energy, but once it gets over the hump, they can keep it going. To me, that's a major task, and I think it's a real motivation too, to get them to express these opinions, which are very difficult. They really have to study, and practice in order to be able to speak out.

[F1,F:115]

In the other focus group, they spoke of the importance of providing an *opportunity*. Yoko had been making the point that students lose motivation because: “they can't even imagine a situation where they use English. Surely less than 10% of the students who we teach have any access or contact with English after they finish school” (Y:223). The feeling was that it is the teachers' responsibility to provide realistic uses for the language in the context of the classroom:

Tom: Oh, I think you've made a good point. It's true. I mean, when you do focus on use, it inevitably raises the question why.

Yoko: When you said you tell your students to use what they've learnt, right? Unless the knowledge is put to use, it's not....

Brian: It's useless.

Yoko: Right, but that's very...

Tom: Yes, but we all know there's a huge gap between their receptive skills and their productive skills.

Yoko: [...] most students don't have any opportunities where they have to produce anything.

Greg: But why can't the class be an opportunity? I mean, when you talked about the future... "right here, right now, talk." Or write, or whatever.

Brian: We have ways of making you talk.

Greg: I mean, you don't need the future, you don't need another country. We're here, and it's now.

[F2:234-242]

However, different teachers had different ways for providing this realistic environment for communication. Irene found that she needed to challenge the students, and therefore abandon course texts, which she finds to be “mechanical” (I:130-132). Other teachers concentrate on creating a *safer environment*. According to Phil “they're yearning to feel safe and they want someone to create a situation where they can feel safe” (P:80). Others simply try to create an enjoyable, relaxed, atmosphere (e.g. Y:66a, D:26).

6.5 Lighting the fire

It was noted in sections 6.2 and 6.3 that increased student motivation can be a goal that the teachers work towards. Some teachers said, for example, that their goal was for the students to be motivated enough to continue study (P:58, Z:107). However, even if motivation was not an explicit goal, many teachers stated quite clearly that much of their effort was spent increasing and maintaining students' motivation. Some also admitted that when grading, they consider motivation of the student to be as important a factor as actual ability in English (F1:260-263 & F1:305).

Motivating the students was also described also as ‘inspiring them’, ‘keeping their interest’, or simply ‘keeping them awake’. This was a recurring theme in the Focus Group One. In the previous section, 6.4, Fiona talked about *generating an energy* that spreads in the class. Her group agreed, and it became referred to as *lighting the fire*, which had to be kept burning:

Fiona: [...] I think that generating energy and interest is one of my motivations. That's almost a goal for me, no matter how poorly they do speak, but if they have got interest, and they're willing to put energy into learning English, to me that's very meaningful, and that gives me energy to do more. Now I have a passion about science. So maybe that comes through. And I'm grateful for that. But I teach also students who don't have that kind of background. Then I become like a facilitator almost. Once they've caught the fire, then it's a matter of facilitating, taking care of the fire.

Irene: It's a matter of lighting the fire, then.

Fiona: Yes, lighting the fire and then...

Kay: keeping it burning

Fiona: Caring for it. Minding it.

[F1:29-33]

There was some discussion as to the nature of the fire they were lighting. In her focus group, Kay defined her problem as having to motivate a majority of her students who are there only because it is an obligatory course. This initiated a round of comments to the effect that, as Fiona said, “the whole system is not motivating”, and unless something is done to generate their motivation, “they just roll along that way for four years”. Irene then wondered what it is they, the teachers, are trying to do: “trying to get them to communicate, or to get them to think in ways that are different from the norm?” Is it just “something different from the *gaijin* teachers?” (F1: 192-207). Fiona responded by suggesting that their task was “to motivate the students to learn, whether it's language or something else. And if they can get motivated, our job is to get them motivated around language, and culture and literacy” (F1,F:208).

Fiona suggests, then, that there were two aspects of motivating the students: first to motivate them to be learners, and then to interest them in learning a language. This distinction was shown in the variety of statements of other teachers, referring to how they wanted to affect the students. The following might apply to learning environments in general:

- “[...]so the students are not sleeping. Even if they open their eyes, if their mind is not there in the classroom I'm not teaching them. So they have to be there. Bodily and mentally. So if both are there, that means they are alive. Awake” (S:10).
- “[...]to get them motivated to study on their own” (F:46).
- “[...]to get them to do something other than doing their chemistry homework in the back of the class” (M:316).
- “If you can help them to learn and satisfy, fine, but when you inspire, then you've kind of reached the next level, then they don't need you” (F2,T:168).
- “[...]so that they can understand that they are not just the vessel waiting to be filled” (E:85b).

And the following statements apply specifically to the language-learning environment:

- “...to let them know that they learn a language to use this language, not just to get some credits” (L:12).
- “I try to teach them that language is like golf, it's a very personal thing, so long as you're pushing yourself and doing better, then I'm happy with that” (D:90c)
- “...to get that person to recognise and express and communicate their opinion” (F1,A:104a).

Irene talked about the conflict she felt between these two aspects of student motivation, during a discussion on whether to enforce English-only in the classroom, and the possibility that having to do a task in English might damage the motivation inherent in the task itself. She describes a task that the students have become involved in:

They can either be doing it in English, or they can be doing it in Japanese. But the thing is, what do I want them to do? To be interested in doing it, and therefore getting their minds, their thoughts, and questions going? Or do I say, “no, you've got to do it in English!” which could kill the whole aspect of them trying to interact with each other?

[F1,I:146c]

Not all teachers, however, were willing to persevere in motivating the students. Linda said that she tried to motivate, but once it passed a certain point, then she simply did not address that person any more: if they did not want to learn, “it’s not my business to *make* them learn” (L:32c). William and Molly also complained about the amount of energy they had to spend in motivating unmotivated students. After a few weeks, they would give up, concentrate on the students who seemed to care, and ignore the rest (M:290, W:26).

6.6 Dealing with and changing students’ learning styles

In section 4.3, some teachers described their perceptions of the attitudes and learning styles that the students bring to class. They were often critical of them. In general, teachers had to balance between adapting to these styles and trying to change them to something they considered to be better. For example, Brian had complained that the students never ask questions:

In Japan, it’s a cultural thing, where you get lockjaw trying to repeat, “you can ask questions, you won’t get shot at dawn or anything like that.” And after a few years, when you realize when they are pretending to understand, and you know they don’t understand a bloody word. And so, you get the feelers and signs, and so you have to, basically, repeat things.

[B:142]

Nevertheless Brian insists elsewhere that a teacher should not simply “go through the motions”, but try to create “positive vibes” in the classroom (B:8,16). He also said in his focus group that it was important to change their attitudes towards speaking and language: “...they’ve had six years of *jukeneigo* (English for entrance exams) which is enough to put you off English for life. We’re trying to break them out of that” (F2,B:217). Tom agreed, saying that the teacher should provide opportunities for them to realise that “stuffing it in your head”, which was what he thought they had been trained to do at High School, was not a useful thing to do (F2,T:222)

One common theme in the perceptions of the teachers is that Japanese students do not express their individuality. Agnes pointed out that if one is assuming, as she is, that learning a foreign language requires the ability to express oneself, then the Japanese context poses a particular problem. Japanese school texts, she thought, appear to have the pupils memorize information and “regurgitate it without actually applying it to themselves”. She preferred to base her teaching on Canadian texts, which were “...always trying to pull the student into the environment...where they could use that information rather than just learning it” (A:44-48).

Finally, Irene felt that the best way to decrease shyness and generate enthusiasm was by encouraging autonomy:

I just find that from the very beginning when they were more reticent and shy, by the end of the term they are just much more alive and interested, mainly because they’ve got a bit more autonomy in what they can do.

[I:8]

6.7 Summary

This chapter was the first of two chapters focussing on the working situation of the teachers. It looked at work-related goals, and then the processes of work itself: what it is that the teachers say that they do. Regarding goals, for many teachers goals related to language competence were less important than attitudinal goals. Those goals that were related to language competence were usually expressed very generally rather than fixed to any benchmark, and were not always reflected in the grading criteria, which tended to stress more attitudinal factors. Teachers were able and willing to set their own goals, and worked towards them. The teachers varied in opinions, but were able to justify their goals in terms of the context in which they work.

The second category of goals discussed were those related to the students attitude either to the language itself, or to language learning in general. It was hoped that the students' attitudes to language would change so that they would leave the course believing that they had a tool for communication. Attitudes to language learning were expressed in terms of confidence, and many teachers were satisfied if, by the end of the class, the students were more confident in their ability to perform or study in English.

Many of these goals were reflected in the teachers' day-to-day activities in class. Many teachers see their class as providing an opportunity to communicate, and nearly all of them made a lot of effort to motivate the students. This was referred to by some as *lighting the fire*. The students needed to be motivated both as learners and as learners of a language. The teachers had different ideas as to how best this should be done, and some certainly were less willing to persevere than others. Many teachers talked about their efforts to either adapt to or change the students' learning styles, which were sometimes described as too passive. Overall, it seems that the classroom aims of the teachers were related to the context in which they work.

The next chapter will continue the theme of the 'work situation' by discussing how the teachers say they are motivated by their work.

Chapter 7: Findings –Effects of The Work Situation on Motivation

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine the aspects of work that might be said to motivate the teachers. Two further factors in motivation that Porter et al. (2003) cite are firstly, “energetic forces within individuals that drive them to behave in certain ways and environmental forces that often trigger these drives” (p. 1), and, secondly, those forces in individuals and environments that reinforce or discourage that behaviour. In other words, there are forces that induce a person to behave in some way, and other forces that act on that behaviour once it has started. This research is not designed to make such distinctions, and will assume that in many cases, at least, triggering forces are also reinforcing forces.

The chapter is based on data taken from those parts of the transcript that could be interpreted to answer the simple question “what are you motivated by?”. (Such a direct question was rarely asked). The original processing of the data produced such themes as needs and rewards (see section 3.8.1, and Appendix 9). However, as I developed a more sociological analysis, the focus moved away from forces within individuals, towards how they react with their setting: in particular, how they describe the effects that environmental forces have upon them. The importance of the work situation was established in the previous chapter, and the purpose of this chapter is to detail in an accessible way the effects that the work situation has on the motivation of the teachers.

First, the motivational effects of the training of the teachers will be discussed. This is followed by an account of the ways the teachers are motivated by their environment, facilities and materials. In section 7.4 the motivational effects of the students are examined: in particular, their language abilities and motivations, and this is followed, in section 7.5, by an account of how success can motivate the teacher, and the importance of response and feedback from the student. Then the ways in which the teachers are motivated by interaction with other teachers are discussed, and finally, the chapter looks at how the teachers work towards their development as teachers.

7.2 Training and professional development

The teachers had experienced a variety of training paths, and there were mixed feelings as to how their training affected their attitude to their work. On the one hand, some teachers thought it made no difference, or was even detrimental. Kay felt that her training was too specialised, and far from being motivated in class, she feels “angry that I had so much training” (K:84-87). Also, Irene thought that if she had not been trained, she would still work “at the same level”. The only difference would be that she “would be a little more stressed out trying to compete with everybody else” (I:184).

On the other hand, Brian felt that his training affected his desire to do a good job quite a lot, and said he applied a lot of what he had learnt. In particular, his training allowed him to observe other teachers: an opportunity that does not exist at work (B:196-214). Harumi and Oliver found that as their training forced them to become students again, they found that they were able to understand their own students better than before (H:297-304 & O:25). However, Molly, who is now enthusiastic about developing about learner autonomy, said that although she first learnt about it in her training courses, she was not motivated to apply the ideas until she had had more experience, (and a busier life meant less time for preparation) (M:32, 41-46).

There was little reference to any effect of work experience. This was possibly because it was easier to focus on a fixed period of training. However, some were motivated by a wish to improve themselves as teachers. Irene summed up a discussion in her group by saying that that “the motivation factor for ourselves is just to constantly build upon what we have, and to move on from there” (F1, I:48). Oliver would feel he has improved if he felt things had gone smoothly for the year and that he had “taught them something” (O:72-80). He believes “the challenge is trying to figure out the best way to get things learned” and has had to learn how to jump around and be more extrovert (O:4, 20-22). Eleanor also talked of the challenge of finding new and better ways of doing things (E:173-175). And according to Jill, “if you thought you were perfect, it would be time to resign, wouldn’t it?...I always have to work for something else” (J:128-130).

7.3 Working environment and materials

The place itself can be motivating. Some teachers talked of being motivated simply by entering the classroom. Molly talked about entering the classroom for the first time after a break:

Oh, God, this is going to be sound perverted, but almost sexual, it's almost ... it's a turn-on. I really get off on going into the class, having some great ideas, trying something and having them respond to it.

[M:390]

Oliver said that his own motivation to teach does not begin until he actually enters the classroom:

[...]some mornings I come to a particular university on the train and I can't say that I actually really want to teach that morning. (laughs) I quite often have that feeling. It might just be kind of like a stage fright or ... I mean, once I'm into it and I'm doing it, then I basically forget that feeling and once I'm involved in a class and things are working or things aren't working, I don't have time to think about those feelings any more. Usually, after that first moment I would say that I am pretty motivated.

[O:10]

And continuing the metaphor of the classroom as a stage, Brian talked about snapping out of everyday worries as soon as he enters the classroom:

It's a bit like Dr Greasepaint: the actors who snap out of it as soon as they step on the stage. And we are on the stage to some extent. We have an audience. You can't just stand there and say, "I feel bad today." You've got to do it, and it's stimulating.

[B:38]

Computers and other teacher-aids within the classroom were rarely mentioned by the teachers and there was no mention of any of the equipment that is available. Perhaps this was because it was taken for granted, and there would have been complaints if they were not present. But in general, it

seems that the teachers accepted the environment and facilities they had, and adapted if they were not sufficient. Don, for example, carried 40kg of computer equipment to school every day.

There were also few, if any, descriptions of being motivated by materials, although the teachers were generally appreciative of their freedom to choose their own textbooks. There was, however, some talk of avoiding texts that demotivated them, coupled with the urge to expand off the texts, particularly if they were texts that they were forced to use. In Focus Group One, the teachers discussed their choice of textbook.:

Kay: I don't think you can teach anything that you don't like. Or use a text that you don't like.

Fiona: Or use a text that you're tired of. You have used it so long.

Kay: Or got bored with. Certain publishers, the way that they fill up their textbook, I can't use them. It's not my teaching style or whatever. When I teach novels and literature, I can't teach novels that I don't like.

Irene: Quite often, what we do in classes is expand off things, and we get motivated when we expand off the textbook.

Kay: Yes, if you got a choice over what textbook to use, and what things to do, you pick ones that you like, and that you're comfortable with.

Irene: You choose chapters that you like, and then you take certain aspects of that, and spin off it.

Kay: But if you're forced to use a textbook...

Agnes: I wouldn't like that.

Kay: You wouldn't like it, but you'd probably spin off it even more.

Agnes: Yes.

Kay: Wouldn't you?

Irene: Oh yes.

[F1:158-169]

It was also occasionally evident that there was a desire to look for, or create materials that would motivate the students (and motivated students might motivate the teacher: (see the next section. 7.4)). Sayuri, for example, talked of time spent picking out real materials, but in the end, she was motivated by the need to save the students money, and she “wouldn't feel an attachment to any textbook that I didn't feel worked for us” (S:77).

As explained in chapter 1, the German language teachers do have a textbook imposed upon them by prior decisions. While they wondered about the suitability of the text, they did not complain about the constraint of having to use it (U:167-172 & L:133-144). Zara talked of the use of the required text being a “challenge”:

It's a great challenge. After three weeks, the students told me they couldn't cope with the textbook. I told them how I learnt Japanese, and we came to the conclusion that if someone really wants to learn the language, it doesn't matter how, and so we tried to motivate each other.

[Z:68a]

7.4 The students' ability and motivation.

When you are having a dentist day, you try to think of your more co-operative classes. That makes you feel better.

[B:54]

In sections 4.2-3, it was shown that the teachers consider this to be a setting with comparatively smart and motivated students (even though they were critical of attitudes and learning styles). It appears that this perceived level of smartness leads to a higher level of satisfaction. Victor, for example, says: "I'm not sure if it's achieving something, but the time in the classroom is more enjoyable, because the students are smarter and I can do what I want" (V:16). The university President said that the teachers at the university tell him they are motivated by the good students: "in other places it was kind of a drag, but teaching here is very different" (X:54). However, the President went on to conflate 'good' students with 'motivated' students, and it is often not clear if teachers are referring to 'good' students' ability or their motivation.

Since 2000, all the classes have been streamed according to language proficiency level. For some teachers, this system is preferable to the old, non-streamed version. According to Irene, the increased variety "gives an edge to it" (I:178). Different teachers were motivated by different levels. Only the German teachers encountered absolute beginners, and both Linda and Ursula said that they found this especially motivating. According to Ursula: "the good thing is that you can start from zero. I think this is a very good thing. You know what they have to know, what you taught already" (U:260). Linda felt that the motivating factor was the responsibility: she is providing the students' first impression of the German Language.

On the other hand, some teachers felt more motivated in the advanced classes. For Victor this was because "it's better to do something that's a bit more difficult.". He accepts that lower level students may be the bigger challenge, but "you're only going to see it over a year, you're not going to see the whole thing" (V:222-224). William was motivated by the change and variety that was possible with advanced classes (W:212). Two Japanese teachers, Sayuri and Naoko, spoke of their lack of confidence when scheduled to teach advanced classes, and their motivation to do a good job. Naoko said she was scared at first, and was determined to form a good relationship with students who, she realised, had chosen her. Sayuri found the experience to be, at first, "horrible", but she was determined to do a good job, even though, in the end, she could not tell if she had succeeded, and asked not to be given the same level again (S:180-213). (The particular challenges of the Japanese English teachers are also referred to in sections 4.4 and 9.4).

For some teachers, the greatest motivator was not the level or ability of the students but their motivation. As Tom put it: "[...]what really matters to me is student motivation, and if you've got some basics who really want to learn, I'm just as motivated to teach those as those high end ones. There isn't maybe the intellectual stimulation, but in terms of motivation, it's satisfying in a

different way” (F2, T:81). For him, “their motivation is contagious. When you see the kids motivated, it just motivates you to work harder, do more, develop that idea, do more of it” (F2, T:52). Others in Tom’s focus group agreed with the value of motivated students.

Irene explicitly preferred student motivation to the attractions of salary:

“[...]it’s not so much the money, but the students. Even if it’s a lower paid job, if the students are highly motivated, they want to learn, they’re interested, they want to know more, yes, I would put more effort into it. If I was getting great money, but unmotivated students, then I definitely wouldn’t put any effort into it at all”

[I:122]

And William went as far as calling himself “parasitic: I live off their motivation. Maybe they live off mine” (W:106c). (However, he does not ask for much in the way of motivation: “Just at least minimum preparation, participation and normal classroom behaviour” (W:108)). And Kay admitted to being spurred on by “keen and interested students,” but “it’s hard with Japanese students because they don’t respond in the way that other students do” (K:25).

Regarding unmotivated students, there were differing attitudes. Tom expressed impatience with unmotivated students, along with an admiration for those teachers who can cope in such an environment. Brian, Chrissa and Greg, on the other hand, reckoned that it was part of their job to motivate students (F2: 81-113). And although Greg thought that the high motivation of his students at this university was “not only mind-blowing, but rewarding in itself” (G:16), he also insisted that “if students were not so motivated[...]it doesn’t alter my desire for teaching, but it will change how I do things” He actually prefers to work with less motivated students, as “it makes me want to work with them more, to see if I could motivate them” (G:48-52).

Less able, or less motivated students were thus often seen as a challenge. Jill, for example, said that she tended “to like the trouble-makers, because it’s like sort of a taming ... a sort of a challenge to the taming, if you like, of trying to get them to enjoy their English” (J:6b). Oliver was quite specific about this:

I think there’s a challenge to teaching that a lot of people don’t actually recognise. The challenge is being able to teach even when things aren’t really going the way you want them to. And also like doing it over a long period of time, like the challenge of working with perhaps a difficult student or a difficult group of students. And the challenge is trying to figure out the best way to get things learned, what you want them to learn. That’s certainly one of the challenges that I’ve faced many times.

[O:4]

7.5 Success: Response and feedback

Many teachers said that they were motivated by success, which had many forms. The most basic is simple completion of the year’s course, and then moving to the next group of students. Brian said that he was motivated by the chance to change every year, and compared his lot with that of his wife:

[...]no matter how much preparation you do, you have no idea what the class is going to be like. You walk in there, and it’s a completely different group of people. And that’s motivating too. Like, you’ve had

them through a term or a year, and you get rid of them, they pass on, and you get a new group. Actually, my wife motivates me, in that way. She says, "You go through a term, and you complete something. You've got a group, you grade them, you say goodbye, and then you get a new group. I'm a housewife, it's just non-stop, 365 days a year.

[B:128c]

A more specific notion of success might be in terms of linguistic criteria, but it may also be, for example, students trying harder, or trying to use the language. It may mean that the students are becoming enthusiastic (that is, the fire is lit), or that they are simply enjoying themselves. Success in all these forms was generally described in terms of observed response and Irene likened teaching to "putting on a show": "if there's a response from the audience, then that's motivation" (I:62). Fiona described the effect of perceived success clearly:

If I see a student who really doesn't speak well, but he's really trying, I feel that there's something happening there, there is some success there. And success always motivates me to do more.

[F1, F:37]

This kind of motivating success was only occasionally in terms of any easily assessable linguistic criteria. In Focus Group Two, participants did acknowledge that writing classes can provide clearer linguistic signals of success, but only Chrissa described this as at all motivating. In fact, she found it to be exciting:

"Having them learn how to craft beautiful sentences and different types of introductions and learning how to really compose and think about doing something unique and creative with their writing. This was the first time I'd seen students come in at the beginning, and be somewhere completely different at the end. And it was so exciting."

[F2, C:187]

The motivating response does not have to be very extreme. For Ursula, it was when her basic German students started to be able to make such requests as asking for the air conditioner to be turned off, and for Chrissa and Naoko, it was when the students were simply able to come to the teacher and talk to her about what they had learnt (C:48, N:78). And all Fiona wanted was the students to "pick up" her suggestions, and "seem to understand what I want them to do" (F:4a).

Another desired response is simply student enjoyment, and in their focus group, Chrissa and Brian agreed that this had an important effect on the teacher (F2: 44-46). Later, in her interview Chrissa added to this while discussing the way in which a 'great' lesson spurred her on to greater things: "I think a great lesson is one that obviously makes the students learn what you're trying to give them in a way that they are enjoying themselves" (C:48).

In section 6.5, the importance of *lighting the fire* in the students was described. If that fire is seen to have been lit, it can be a strong motivator for the teacher. As Agnes puts it:

Agnes: Maybe it's not them that's motivated. Maybe it's us bringing motivation to them. It's a two-way communication, here. I'm trying to teach communication. English from Japanese students, and if they can realise that they have to be an active part in it, and I'm an active part, then there's that dynamic, that two-way communication. Sometimes, some students will pick up on that, and that class will go two ways. But if I'm just standing in that class bubbling over with nothing coming back at me, then there isn't the enjoyment either, and motivation goes down. But if I see the one person in the classroom is going "yes I'm curious. I have a question, I have something I want to say. There's something I want to know. Then the dynamic is there, and you can load more motivation on yourself.

Irene: That's the same as what she was saying about catching the fire. That's what that fire is. [F1:69-70].

Irene went on to explain that her lessons were “fuelled” when students became passionate about the social injustices that they were covering in her class.

7.5.1 Feedback

Teachers can also feel success through the feedback they receive. As is shown in section 4.5, teachers did not expect feedback from the university. (This point is considered further in section 9.9). However, they did talk about being motivated by feedback from their students. Rachel, who was one teacher who felt there was institutional appreciation for her work, nevertheless said that feedback from the students was far more important: “If the school says ‘Rachel, you’re doing a great job’ but I got really crappy evaluations from my students, I’d feel really bad” (R:198). “When I get feedback that says ‘Gosh this class was really brutal, but I walked out of here with a lot of skills’, that’s great” (R:54).

For some teachers, such as Jill (J:24a) , Ursula (U:8) and Eleanor (E:125), all that is needed to motivate them and spur them to go the extra mile is an expression of thanks and appreciation. However, Zara talked more specifically of how feedback had changed her behaviour over the years:

I, as a teacher, have to be aware of my motivation – where is it, what do I like to do with them, what are my abilities, what can I do? And then, I try to do it in the class, and then the feedback gives me motivation. Now, if there weren’t any feedback, I could be talking to the wall instead

[Z:26]

For her, even criticism is valuable, as it gives her motivation to change. If she has no feedback at all, or if she fails to notice it (if it is in Japanese), then she cannot change, and so she feels that eventually the motivation of the students will decrease, in turn lowering her own motivation (Z:42). Brian also expressed a need for some criticism from the students because “if there is never a hint of any criticism, or sign that you are taking the wrong direction...you might get lulled into the sort of idea that, ‘Oh yes, I’m a great teacher’” (B:70).

However, Brian believed that the reluctance to criticise or praise was connected with the Japanese culture. Kay suggested that the fact that Agnes is energised by a student arguing with her might be a “cultural thing”: she would not feel so enthusiastic if it happened in a culture where arguing was more normal (F1:104-105). In fact, a Japanese teacher, Yoko, said she has learnt not to worry if her students do not comment on her work, as she feels that Japanese students just do not do that sort of thing (Y:80).

7.6 Interaction with other teachers

Interaction with other teachers was valued for the sake of work, although such interaction was rare for *shokutaku* and practically non-existent for *hijokin*. (It may well have been valued from a social point of view also, but this was left unsaid. Also absent was the expression of any status concerns,

in the form of rank or one-upmanship, or any feeling of inter-personal stress.) Interaction was often by chance, and very rarely organised. In fact, the focus groups of this research were one of the few occasions of organised interaction. Agnes said that she enjoyed these groups as they were a rare opportunity to discuss questions that are rarely discussed (A:160). Rachel, a *shokutaku* talked about giving and receiving ideas while waiting at the copy machine and thought that her teaching improved because of it (R:160). William, a *hijokin*, said that he enjoyed interacting with teachers in the teachers' room and discussing materials, "because then it's immediately relevant and applicable to what I do" (W:144).

Greg wished that there were more interaction as he thought it would be rewarding and would enhance his own teaching. Without this, he found that "the motivation that you're getting has to be much more, if not completely, self driven" (G:142-144). Sayuri also said that she would have appreciated some sort of "frank talking" with other teachers to enable to get over the problems she was having with her advanced writing class (S:199). However, she was adamant that she was not at all demotivated by her more isolated status as a *hijokin* (S:285-295).

Some teachers were actually motivated by the absence of interaction, although in different ways. Chrissa found that she had become motivated to make more personal contact with the students themselves instead of relying on comparing notes with other teachers: "When you're finding out from the student first-hand, the attitude, for me at least, is different because you have a student kind of confiding in you. So it's different than just kind of complaining with a co-worker over lunch" (C:162-166). Molly, a *hijokin*, on the other hand, was so "terrified" in her first year teaching at the university that she actively searched out a teacher in a similar position to compare notes. She likes having guidelines, she said, and likes to know what other teachers are doing (M:244)

7.7 Enjoying the work

In section 5.2, it was shown how the teachers felt that a motivated teacher would enjoy the work and some said that they would not be teaching if they didn't enjoy it. It also appears that some are motivated by the need to enjoy their work, and adjust their approach accordingly. Agnes admitted to her approach as facilitator (above), being a "mutual kind of exchange" (A:68), which she follows because it is "much nicer being able to communicate with people that you know and you have some care about" (A:70). Victor, who admits that his real professional concerns are elsewhere, is happy to have found a job into which he can incorporate materials from those interests in a way that pleases him (V:168). He shuns structured methods and runs his classes so that he enjoys the time: "I don't want to be in a room if I feel I want to get out of there" (V:38). If he is happy, he says, then the students become happy, and he in turns puts in more energy (V:234).

The avoidance of boredom is also part of the reason for Phil to have the students write interesting prose, even if it might not be correct, but in his view, this is also good teaching (P:153-158).

7.8 Summary

This was an account of the ways in which the teachers were motivated by their work. First, there was a brief discussion of their training, which was not always motivating, and the present need for professional development. Then there were some examples of ways in which the working environment might be motivating: simply entering the classroom can be motivating, but there was little mention of facilities such as computers. Textbooks are motivating only if there is an opportunity to extend or modify them.

Regarding the students, the chapter discussed how some teachers are motivated by more advanced students, and some by more elementary levels, but nearly all of the teachers are motivated by motivated students, and often work towards that motivation, as described in section 6.5. If the teachers have been successful, then that can motivate them towards further success, and the most important motivators in this case are the responses and feedback from the students themselves. The chapter then proceeded to discuss ways in which the teachers are motivated by interaction with other teachers: such interaction is often just by chance, and some teachers thought that there was not enough of it. Finally, as enjoyment of work was such a strong factor in the teachers' concepts of motivation, there was a short discussion about how they are actually motivated by enjoyment.

The final section of the findings, section 9.9, will make the point that many of the teachers' working goals and processes that were described in chapter 6, and the ways in which they are motivated by their work, described in this chapter, are made possible by the level of autonomy that they have in their work. Before that, the next chapter will discuss the 'market situation': the teachers' attitudes to career and more extrinsic rewards, such as salary and vacations.

Chapter 8: Findings – The Market Situation

8.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the motivation of the teachers in terms of what Lockwood defines as the 'market situation'. That is, "the economic position narrowly conceived, consisting of source and size of income, degree of job-security, and opportunity for upward occupational mobility" (Lockwood, 1989, p. 15). The focus groups and interviews did not focus on this situation more than any other, and so it was not covered comprehensively in each conversation. Most of the data here arose in the course of the conversations, with the topic introduced by the participants. As with the previous chapter, goals, processes and motivators are all important, but the data here is not categorised as such. The chapter proceeds by examining issues related to career, and then, in section 8.3, contractual rewards, such as salary and vacations.

The fact that this chapter is substantially shorter than the two chapters concerning the 'work' and 'status' situations should not be taken to mean that the information is less important. The fact that the participants did not bring up these issues very often, despite having every opportunity to do so, may mean that they are not among the foremost of their concerns. However, it may also mean that there is simply not much to be said about something that is always important. One example of this might be job security, regarding which there is very little data, but which is certainly an important issue. (The lack of data on that topic may be due to the fact that the degree of job security in this context is high, even if part-time).

8.2 Career

Few teachers suggested that there was any connection between working hard at their teaching and any career goals that they might have. The one exception was Oliver, a *hijokin*, who was hoping that he would eventually be offered a full time position. However, he realised that there might be no way to judge his performance objectively. He thought it was useless to expect that hard work in class was going to be recognised: "People like that will be killed in the end" (O: 149b). If the other *hijokin* teachers had such hopes, they did not mention them. Some had full time jobs elsewhere, and some simply did not have the time to commit to a full time job. Of the full time contract teachers, possibilities of career advancement did not enter any conversations regarding their teaching in this setting.

There was, however, some desire to write materials and do research, particularly among the *hijokin*. Oliver stressed that if one wanted career advancement, it had to be through hard work in educational organisations, or perhaps by publishing (O:149c). This occasionally influences teaching decisions. Both William and Don, for example, two other *hijokin*, preferred to use their own materials in class, rather than any textbooks. William said this was because he had a strong

motivation to write his own books, and so liked to try out his ideas (W:32, 40). Don preferred to write his own materials for the sake of his research. He admitted that although he finds it “a joy” to teach his classes, he could not afford to be as committed in terms of time and effort if it was not supplying him with some data that he could use in his studies, which he hoped would be eventually recognised and rewarded (D:142). They are both sure that they can do better than the textbooks, and be relevant to the students’ lives. Don, in fact, is motivated enough to carry 40kg of his own equipment from home to every class. As he has “a really low threshold for just doing stuff because you’re getting paid to do it”, he appreciates the freedom this job gives him (D:8-14).

While many *shokutaku* full-time teachers wrote their own materials, none talked about the same desire or need to publish. This was possibly because they already had a degree of financial security. Research was only mentioned in terms of the influence of past interests on the conduct of the class. One teacher, for example, brought an interest in comparative culture into the classroom, while another was motivated by a “passion” for media and communications.

8.3 Contractual rewards: Salary and vacations

It was evident from some of the comments in section 4.2 that among the full time teachers, there appears to be overall satisfaction in the salary level. There were, however, some mixed feelings about teachers’ salaries in general. In Focus Group One, Phil was reviewing the comments he had written at the beginning of the session:

Phil: I had all these altruistic, lovely things down here, which I believe. But then when you said that, of course we’re motivated by money, too. If I’m not making enough money, I can’t think about my teaching.

Kay: Money is your motivation?

Phil: No, if money were my motivation I wouldn’t be a teacher.

Others: ((noises of agreement))

Kay: I don’t think any of us would be.

Agnes: well that’s not the case for me. I’d definitely be a teacher. This is the best job I’ll ever see.

Irene: Yes well we’re working at a university.

Phil: No, if I cared about money...

Agnes: I do care about money.

Phil: Not that much, obviously. You’re a teacher.

Agnes: Beats everything else I’ve ever done. For me, this is paying me well.

[F1:12, 38-47]

Agnes, a full-time teacher was obviously very happy indeed with the salary, while Phil, who was on a limited-term contract, was more concerned with the poor salaries in the teaching profession. However, neither of them said that their perceptions of the salary had any effect on the way they teach. Later, Phil explained that if he does not have to worry about money, then he can focus on his teaching, and in this context, that was indeed the case. Kay added that such worry could depend on the degree of external responsibility one has. When she was younger with no family to

support, she was able to focus on teaching, even though she was not living comfortably (F1, K:222).

In Focus Group Two also, all teachers felt that they were being paid enough. Tom asserted that when deciding on employment, the “salary doesn’t get ignored” but that once one has committed oneself, then it has little effect on how hard one works, and most teachers agreed with him (F2, T:316). However, then Brian compared his present situation with a past job with poor pay. He said that his motivation level had been low, as he felt that his employers “didn’t give a damn”: the low pay always “weighed on your mind” (F2, B:329). Tom then conceded that if one job paid considerably more than others then one might feel more obligation to put effort into that job (F2:323-335). Chrissa suggested that this was not so much because of the money itself as the commitment and valuation that it implies:

I value the commitment to learning highly in my mind, so when I see someone is offering to pay a lot of money for a teacher, I feel like they value it, they see it as I do. You know what I mean? They cherish learning and education. If they’re willing to put it in that place, then I’ll work hard, because I’m encouraged to do my best. That’s how I kind of see it. If they place the teacher at a high level, then they esteem education [...]

[F2, C:337]

The conversation concluded with a general criticism of teachers who seem too motivated by money:

Greg: [...] when there are folks that are what I would think too motivated by money, I kind of look askance at them in terms of my ideas about teaching. But people have different needs. For example, family and so on, but I ’m not talking about that. I’m talking about ‘teach English and see the world’, kind of thing, it’s not my notion of what I do.

Chrissa: People who like to rack up as many part time jobs as possible.

Greg: You know, people who spend a month here, and a month there. Just not me.

Brian: Oh yes. Yes.

[F2:347-351]

In the individual interviews also, there was a general denial of the importance of money as a motivator. Jill, for example, said that she was only conscious of the remuneration when she accepted the job, and if she did become conscious of it again, she would just change jobs (J:20-22). One apparent exception was Rachel, who said: “I’m being paid a huge amount of money for being a teacher. Part of that money means not to go and do it off the cuff” (R:126a). However, later, she said that if they reduced her salary, then this would not affect the way she worked, but she would simply work less overtime, and make up her salary elsewhere (R:208-214). The only *shokutaku* to express some dissatisfaction with her salary, Irene, also said that she was nevertheless working hard. One reason was, as she was quoted as saying in section 7.4, the motivation of the students, which was more important to her than money (I:122). Another reason was that she felt at this university, “people give you a sense of worth” (a theme which will be returned to in the examination of relationships with the university, in section 9.9) (I:108-110).

As noted in chapter 1, part-time *hijokin* teachers receive not only less payment than the full-timers, but also rather less than part-timers elsewhere. However, none of the teachers said that this affected

their practice. Harumi recalled that when she was working at High School they called teachers who simply came at 8.15 and left at 5.00 *salaryman* teachers. In other words, they acted just like office workers, collecting a salary with no interest in all the work that needs to be done outside the class. When asked why she did not become a salaryman teacher herself, she answered, “because I chose this job, I’m a teacher and I want to be useful somehow” (H:354-360). Molly and Naoko, two other part-timers, asserted that although more money would be nice, they chose this job for other reasons (such as the quality of the students and the academic atmosphere) and the salary level did not affect the way they worked (M:358 & N:54).

One person who did talk specifically of being motivated by money was Victor, who spoke of an increase in his motivation when he moved from teaching in language schools to better-paid part-time university work. However, this was partly because it allowed him to feel more professional, as he had been in his own country: “I could sort of kid myself that there was an overall educational goal” (V:4). When asked if his motivation was still connected to salary, he replied that it definitely was, and elaborated:

Feeling valued, feeling that your job is a professional job. I mean, being valued by the institution where you teach and being valued in society, because if you know people in other professions and you're getting to the same age as them, if you don't have the same earnings as them. I mean, I know quite a lot of both Japanese and Westerners doing other things here and abroad, and there's kind of a feeling like ... well, there's 2 feelings, one is, oh, you're a university teacher, it's sort of a dead end job for other professional people, until they find out how much you earn and it's often about the same as they do or more, although it's not particularly good here, to be honest. And then they're like, oh, okay, and you only have to teach 3 days a week. And it changes a bit. So there's status games going on, obviously. Yes. But I think it's a question of being valued, that you feel, that I feel I'm earning a salary that at my age and with my qualifications, which admittedly are not that good, but just one's feeling of one's self-worth, that you are earning what you ought to earn.

[V:22]

Thus, even for Victor, it is not so much the money, but what the money signifies. One important thing is that he gets a lot of free time, in which he can pursue other activities. Despite the disdain expressed in the focus group towards teachers who “teach English to see the world”, this was an option valued by a number of the participants. However, it was only Victor who associated it with salary.

For other teachers, vacations were seen as a necessary escape. Rachel, for example, wrote:

Oh they pay us a good salary. But I also think I worked for it. People make this big deal about vacations. I need it. Teaching as a giving profession. It's like being a doctor or nurse. When I feel I'm doing it properly, I feel like I have a personal stake in 300 different souls and that's an exhausting thing. At the end of that experience I need time-out.

[R:216]

However, although she felt she deserved those holidays, Rachel felt that because they were so long, she owed it to the university to do a good job when she was there (R:134). Kay talked about the need for holidays to get inspiration and the opportunity to get in contact with her own language: “If I didn’t have that, I think I would shrivel up and die” (K:22a). Another *shokutaku* teacher, Agnes, insisted that she could not handle only having 2 weeks off in a year, as she needs time to be

“disorganised.” If she had normal holidays, she would quit, as she has “never done normal” (A:188-194). Finally, Phil recollected his past experience as a manager of teachers:

Phil: Yes. Well, teachers are funny I think. They love teaching, but if they don't have to teach they love it even more. It's very interesting. Boy, if the teacher gets a day off he's the happiest person in the world!

Tim: *Does that include you?*

Phil: Yes. I think it's hard work. And it's scary, to me.

[P:114-116]

8.4 Summary

In order to understand the teachers' motivation in the context of the 'market situation', this chapter first examined their career-related attitudes, and then their feelings about the importance of salary and vacations. There was little evidence that career considerations had any effect on the way in which the teachers worked, except for the occasional wish to write materials or to publish research.

As for salary, the general feeling seems to be that the level of salary will bring them to the job, but once the contract to teach has been established, then the salary level has little effect on their work. However, not all felt like that, and there was some feeling that a low salary would mean less motivation to work well. This was explained in terms of the suggestion that a decent salary allows one to concentrate on teaching rather than survival. It was also thought that a higher salary meant that they were valued more, and therefore they were more willing to work harder. However, one person said that she felt badly paid, yet still highly valued, which was reflected in her motivation.

For all of the teachers that addressed the topic, the long vacations were a necessary part of the job rather than a reward. However, it was not clear what the teachers would do, or how their work would be affected if these vacations were removed or reduced. As some of the teachers are based abroad, and return there often, it is possible that they might feel the same as Agnes says she does, and quit.

The next chapter will examine the 'status situation' of the teachers: the relationships that are part of the participants' working lives, yet distinct from their work as English language teachers. It will begin with a brief examination of the possibility of a trade off between status and market elements.

Chapter 9: Findings –Status and Relationships

9.1 Introduction

This chapter first examines the data that relates to the status situation as defined by Lockwood. It then goes on to explain why it is also important to investigate human relationships not only in the society at large, but also within the work setting. As with previous chapters, this chapter progresses from goals, to processes, and then to motivators, as explained in section 5.1. Section 9.4 discusses those goals related to students' personal development. This is followed by a description of teacher-class relationships, with particular reference to *respect*. Section 9.6 addresses the question of how the decision of whether to use the students' mother tongue in class affects relationships. (This has some connection with the data related to Japanese and non-Japanese teachers, in section 4.4).

Section 9.7 then discusses the ways in which the teachers can be motivated by relationships with their students. Section 9.8 introduces the ways in which the teachers have been influenced by the relationships they had with their own former teachers: both positively and negatively. Finally, in section 9.9, the teachers describe how their motivation is affected by their relationship with the university. This focuses particularly on the degree of autonomy that they have.

9.2 The status situation

Lockwood defined the 'status situation' of the worker as "the position of the individual in the hierarchy of prestige in the society at large" (1989, p.15). In this inquiry into the motivation of teachers, however, there appears at first to be little mention of prestige in the society at large. The most important data in this regard came from the Japanese teachers, discussed in section 4.4. In particular, Yoko talked of lower proficiency students failing to respect Japanese teachers as they would respect a non-Japanese teacher. She felt constrained by the expectations upon her to act Japanese: she is expected to be more correct, and behave within accepted norms of Japanese society (Y:181-200). However, she felt that her experience as a member of society allowed her to play a more valuable role among her more advanced students. Another Japanese teacher, Naoko, felt that the fact that she shared a culture with her students helped her to understand them (N:112-128). (It should be noted here that status is very important in Japanese culture and society: vocabulary and verb structures used in conversation and writing depend on the relative status of the persons with whom one is communicating). Section 4.4 also discussed the fact that non-Japanese teachers were aware of the different expectations on them as *gaijin* (outside people). This could make them feel isolated (for example, Greg, G: 182), or possibly liberated (for example, Chrissa, C: 102).

It has been suggested that there is status involved in working at a Japanese university. This may be so, but there was little in the data to indicate it. Of the non-Japanese, only Victor compared his job with other work he had had in Japan (see section 8.3). He certainly felt more professional and valued at the university than he had at language schools, but this was mainly reflected in the increased salary he received and the more time he could spend on his interests. In fact, he talked of the low status that university teaching held in the minds of other professionals and the way that he changed their opinions by telling them of the length of his vacations (V:22). The fact that this topic was not brought up by others may be due to the fact that few had had experience of working in any other Japanese context (and it is doubtful whether there is any status inherent in working in Japan rather than any other country).

Most of the Japanese teachers, on the other hand, did have experience in working in other Japanese settings. It is possible that Yoko's desire for respect, for example, was connected with the way that she perceived her university status in relation to other positions. However, nothing was said that supported this idea, or even touched on the issue. The fact that this issue was not considered indicates that for both Japanese and non-Japanese the status of working at a Japanese university is unlikely to affect motivation within that context.

9.3 Human relationships

If status is defined as being relative to the “hierarchy of prestige in the society at large”, which is Lockwood's definition, the data contains little evidence of it being important in this context. However, this still leaves a substantial element in the data that has not yet been covered within either work, market or status situations: that is, the set of human relationships within the workplace.

Lockwood was describing clerks, working alongside other clerks in an office. Their relationships were described as being within the work situation. I am describing teachers, usually working alone in a classroom of students. When they step out of the classroom, they are in an environment that to some extent remains a work environment. However, it is also a living environment: a place where they can expect to think for, and about themselves. It is not “society at large”, but it is linked to the outside world. This place also exists within the classroom. As will be seen in this chapter, the teachers are not always relating to their students in their role as language teachers: they are also relating to them as human beings and fellow members of society. Certainly, many aspects of student-teacher or teacher-teacher relationships were discussed as part of the work situation in chapters 6 and 7, and there is a case for simply treating these further relationships as another part of work situation. However, I think it is more illuminating to think in terms of another situation, close to the status situation, but related to human relationships in the working environment that are not directly connected with work.

The need for students' respect described in the first paragraph, for example, may be connected with society at large, but they are also connected with the society within which the teachers live and work. There are descriptions of other similar relationships: not only between the teachers and students, but also with the university, and even with former teachers. (Interaction with present teachers was discussed within the work situation (section 7.6), as it was described mainly in professional terms). This chapter is an attempt to distinguish and examine those relationships.

9.4 Goals related to the students' personal development

Many teachers showed that they were motivated by a concern for the future lives of the students: their status and success in the society they were about to enter. This was sometimes specifically language related, but was also related to coping with general challenges. There were even efforts to coach them in certain social issues.

Some teachers hoped that their students would go abroad. When Phil was asked why he considered there to be more progress in a language class than a literature class, he explained:

When the students come to me and say they want to go abroad and study and they realise now that they like English. I got an e-mail from one student who said "I never liked English in my life until I was in your class and now I love it." It seems like in the class that we are teaching, meets twice a week, a huge class, you can achieve a couple of things. One of them is to make the students want to further their English education, which takes a huge effort.

[P:58]

Phil "supposed" it was also possible to improve English language proficiency(P:60). However, he said that he saw more progress in willingness and enthusiasm for learning more English (by going abroad) than progress in actual quality of English.

In a similar way, Brian sees his role as raising the students' "expectations" so that they think beyond English as just another subject in the domestic educational curriculum and might consider taking a trip to a foreign country (B:96). Here also, however, teachers recognise limitations. Zara's goal is simply that at the end of the year at least one student out of eighty tells her he is going to study at a German university (Z:107).

Other teachers were concerned more with the students' overall development as human beings. Victor, for example, said he wanted his students to "gain confidence not just about English, but about projecting their personalities and being able to stand up and do things, being able to talk to other people" (V:40). Also, Greg said that one of his fundamental goals was to get his students to "think about their lives and the direction of their lives". Indeed, this was the main reason he liked working with young adults (G:34c).

A Japanese teacher, Sayuri, thinks more in terms of enriching their lives by sharing, as a *senpai*, her understanding about "what is important in the world, or about life itself" (S:137). In section 4.4, it was stated that she saw the fact that Japanese students see university as a holiday between the examinations of High School and the drudgery of the workplace as just such an opportunity to

enrich their lives. She chose her materials and methods not so much for their function as language learning tools, but for their value as aids in learning about life and life values:

...in Japan it's considered the last enjoyable free time for the students. So they just come in and play a lot...But the most important objective for me in university level education is to enrich their lives. That is the last chance. Of course, learning is a whole life thing, yet it is the last chance for them to spend as much time as they want. So through my being an English educator, a teacher, I'd like to help them help me to grow in those classes. So I pick up the topics, the reading materials based on that value.

[S:79c]

Even if a teacher focuses on language competence, this might still be with a view to having an overall effect on the students' adult lives. Jill, for example, plans her classes so as to provide models in tasks and projects that might help them in future lives, and describes the thrill she feels when students tell her that these lessons have been of use (J:24-26). However, she admitted that she felt she was doing well if she could affect the lives of 5 of her 300 students per year (J:24b).

Finally, there is the hope that the students can go on to become leaders. According to the President of the university, a teacher should help students firstly to “become responsible, educated citizens of the world” and secondly, “people who can contribute in leadership roles to the development of society” (X:2). This was reflected in some of the goals and methods of the teachers, particularly as discussed in the Focus Group One, when Phil was talking about working in class with a survey about sexual molestation on trains:

Phil: ...these guys hopefully some day will be in a position of power. And they will be able to change things in society. I hope. And I tell them, I'm telling you because hopefully you'll be a leader of society some day, and I want you to change things. I'm direct with them. I don't try to pussyfoot around.

Irene: Is that part of your lesson plan? Or is this just something that you felt about doing at the time?

Phil: I've always got it on my mind. Especially at this school. ...And I think about the position of power that I have, and what I want to do with it.

Agnes: To empower your students.

Phil: I want to educate them about the injustices of the world somehow. To change the life out there. And I always think I have a very short time with them. I want to make an impact.

[F1:82-86]

Molly also thought just as strongly about the need to “get them thinking about social issues”: global issues for the sake of the planet and the human race (M:456-460). And Victor admitted to being “a bit missionary” about teaching “thinking”, so that the students can then make informed political choices (V:120). However, the limitations are recognised. Irene does try to bring global issues to the class, but feels the best she can do is to “present a *gaikokujin's* view of life”. Even that would be a temporary lesson, she thinks, as the most important part of a student's life is to get a job (I:191-196).

9.5 Teacher-class relationships

Teachers were also concerned about the lives of the students in the context of their class, as young adults with whom they wanted to form a relationship. Sometimes this concern was due to the social needs of the teacher. Harumi's main hope, for example, when she started at the

university was that she could simply get along with her students (H:24). For others, a good relationship was an important step on the way to language acquisition. For Rachel, for example, creating a “camaraderie” with the students was a major step towards the goal of overcoming their communicative abilities (R:172). However, the relationship itself was nearly always described in social terms.

In order to form a relationship, Jill said she made it “her business to know each student as much as possible as individuals”, to assess needs and give guidance (J:98). It is important also to understand the class as a whole: Agnes talked of the “learning process” of reading what a class is like, and perhaps trying to figure out how it could work more smoothly (F1,A:79c). William puts it very simply: “[...] from the beginning I'm looking to find out what kind of class I have and I'm exploring who the students are and who's going to participate, who's going to sit back, who do I need to work on” (W:40a).

Some teachers admitted to the class relationships being sometimes a function of their own personality. In the context of lighting the fire, discussed in section 6.5, Fiona suggested that a teacher might be a *facilitator* (F1,F:29). In her interview, Agnes used the same word: that she tries “to facilitate the students in the environment to help them dig deep” (A:56). When asked to explain, she said that she often feels that, compared to colleagues, she just does not have so many answers as to the best way to teach, so she feels she is a facilitator, rather than a teacher. Part of it also, is that she feels she is very good at organizing people, and that she has “a lot of empathy, and maybe too much empathy” (A:64). Thus, her teaching approach is a natural extension of her own personality. Not all teachers, however, have quite so much confidence in themselves. Oliver admitted that his approach might be different if he did not have a fear of presenting himself in front of 50 students (O:12-14).

9.5.1 Respect

A number of teachers talked about the importance of *respect* in the student-teacher relationship. Linda talked about gaining students’ respect so that they might understand that she can help them to study. This respect has to be gained “by your personality, by the way you teach.” It cannot be taken for granted (L:107)

I mean respect, not in the way that they might use polite language, that they bow in front of me, not in this way. I mean respect in the way that they think, “OK, we can learn this and this and this from this teacher,” - not all, of course - “and we can learn this and this and this from another teacher.” So in this way, I mean ‘respect’ in that they think “OK, this person has something to give.

[L:108]

Greg also talked about the need to earn respect: “teachers I’ve known about have demanded or expected that respect is automatically there and they don’t have to earn it. But I don’t have that way of thinking” (G:94). He works to create a “mutually respectful environment” in which he can best do his job (G:100). However, it is not always possible to gain respect. Referring to a position

at another university, Irene talked of losing the motivation to do the job at all when she was unable to gain respect. This was, she believed, because she was a woman (I:46-56).

Yoko, a Japanese teacher, feels that in order for the students to heed her advice she has to persuade them to respect her 15 years' experience. She tries to provide English-based situations in class (F2,Y:224), but she feels that this is not easy for her, as a Japanese person, and she has to work harder to win their respect. She does this by commencing her classes by giving the students a questionnaire about their learning histories and expectations, and then explaining that if they want to fulfil those expectations, they should study in the way that she says. (Y:324c). Further issues related to the position of the Japanese teachers are discussed in the next section, 9.6.

9.6 Speaking only the target language (or not)

One of the most important choices regarding teacher class relationships, and indeed respect, is whether or not to restrict classroom language to the target language. Although newly employed teachers are told that they should do this, there is no enforced rule, and teachers are generally left to decide their own practice. In literature, according to McKeon (2006), there is a need for further research into the question of what prompts teachers to use (or not use) the students' mother tongue (L1). One of the few papers on this is Macaro (2001), who found that teachers did not explicitly base their decisions on professional literature, yet did not necessarily rely on personal beliefs either. He found some conflict among teachers, which was also the case here. The teachers had clear arguments both for and against the exclusive use of the target language. Naturally, there is much here which is in the work situation, but it is discussed in this chapter because most of the teachers' arguments were based on their views of teacher-class relationships.

Of the four Japanese teachers, two said they made efforts to restrict themselves to English in class, while the other two have reasons for not doing so. Sayuri speaks only English because she believes that it would foster the right attitude, even though she accepts that they might not understand completely (S:55). Harumi also speaks English nearly always, even though she finds it difficult and she sometimes makes mistakes. She feels bad if she has had to speak Japanese as it would mean that her English was not understood (H:190-206, 222-226).

On the other hand, Naoko and Yoko are less concerned about speaking their native languages. Naoko talked of her frustration as a Japanese teacher in the USA when she was not allowed to speak any English. She found this to be inefficient, and also restrictive: "...they have to release their own feelings, they have to be able to communicate. In a way, learning is like a therapy" (N:198). Now that she is free to choose her own approach, she often uses Japanese in class because she feels it is more efficient, and she wants the students to feel free to tell her what they think or feel. Also, she does not want them to feel that English is a superior language (N:206). Yoko uses Japanese a great deal: not so much in more advanced classes, but up to half in the basic

(Y:172). This is because, as discussed in section 4.4, she feels that as a Japanese she is expected to be able to explain, and also provide a more secure environment:

Maybe to learn the nuance, maybe it's better to take my class, but to learn how to stick to one language, how not to run away into Japanese, it's better to take your class. It's like real ocean swimming. Mine is a little more protected swimming pool, swim with the floating buoy.

[Y:192]

Of the non-Japanese teachers, only two felt that they should speak Japanese in class. Greg was adamant about it, even though his own Japanese proficiency was low. He said that his students had led him to understand that an instructor who spoke their language would command more respect. He even felt that if teachers cannot speak Japanese, then they are unqualified to teach:

I would very much like to teach basic classes, but I cannot because I don't speak Japanese. ...I would not in good conscience take on that responsibility, knowing that I could not communicate with the students in that class. I had some difficulty communicating with the students in Intermediate 1 at the beginning of the year for a while, ...because I can't speak Japanese. And students, parents, are paying big bucks to come to the school. So I think to put me in that situation is to put an unqualified person in that situation. So, to me, I think the institution has some responsibility in that regard.

[G:158]

Zara, a German teacher who can speak Japanese quite well, said she also found it necessary to use Japanese. "If I have to explain the grammar or something like that, what shall I do?" She thinks that being able to speak the students' language makes it motivating for both sides (Z:60-62).

However, the other teachers think differently. Those who speak little Japanese do not feel this hinders them in class. Phil feels that if he did speak Japanese, the students would make less effort to speak English. "Japanese would be a crutch" (P:104). Eleanor thinks that the students have had too much English taught to them in Japanese at High Schools (E:103), and Chrissa is simply confident that she can teach and explain in English (C:92).

Even those non-Japanese teachers with good Japanese are reluctant to use it in class. Victor, whose Japanese is excellent, tries not to speak any at all, even in basic levels. He tells the students that it is a waste of their time if he speaks Japanese to them: "It would be easier to teach the basic English in Japanese, but...I'd feel less motivated, or less satisfied, because I think they would end up speaking less English" (V:133-144). Two other teachers use Japanese in class, but think they should not: William finds himself slipping into it to explain things (W:187-194), and Brian occasionally uses it for the sake of good organization and because "if they ask a question in Japanese, then they're obviously motivated" (B:176-188). One note of doubt came from Molly, who worries that her "knee jerk reaction" to stop the students speaking Japanese conflicts with her ideas about learner autonomy (M:422).

9.7 Motivational effects of the relationship with the students

The relationships that were developed with the students, and the interaction with them were some of the most widely described sources of motivation. As Rachel said, "The kids are what make you work harder" (R:128c). Phil's main motivation came, he said, from his positive feeling for

students, making him want to “share” himself and his time (P:14). When asked how he would teach if he did not have that positive feeling, he replied:

I can't think of any class where I haven't had a positive feeling towards the students so it's difficult to say. I think it's easy for me to perform as it were, be on stage. I mean it's difficult up there. You have to expose yourself. Well I don't know, I suppose some people don't, some people do. I do. And if I didn't feel safe around the students, if I didn't feel... If I felt animosity towards them, or felt it coming from the students, then I probably couldn't do my job nearly as well. I couldn't open up

[P:8]

Fiona talked similarly of developing a *rapport* (F:90), and William found that interaction with students helped him overcome his shyness: “[...]I used to be very shy and I still don't like giving a presentation or something, but once I get into the classroom the students give me their attention and listen and that's motivating, I think” (W:120). This rapport is so important to Naoko, who described her experience of teaching Japanese to Americans in section 4.4, that she preferred to teach students of her own nationality, even though she is teaching them a foreign language: “so I know where they're coming from and when they have problems I understand” (N:148-162).

The participants in Focus Group Two emphatically agreed that attitudes of the students towards them could have a marked effect on their motivation. Chrissa pointed out that this was probably not something the students thought about: “We realize it, but I don't think the students realize how much their attitude affects how we perceive the class, or how we make choices and changes” (F2, C:104). Individually, teachers talked about the different ways in which student attitudes affected their feelings, and how this motivated them. Molly felt *liked*: “It motivates me more. If I know that they like what I'm doing and are satisfied with what I'm doing, I'm likely to continue doing it and put more energy into it” (M:88). William felt *respected*: “...the students give me their attention and listen and that's motivating, I think, that they're giving me that respect to listen” (W:12). And Yoko and Naoko said they were motivated because they felt *wanted*: “They registered for my class, they weren't forced. Then I feel like I have to respond to that” (Y:66, also N:66).

Although conversations did not dwell on demotivating aspects, some teachers described the effect of a bad attitude towards them. Irene said that lack of respect from a certain group of students made her “just not want to teach that class” (I:52). Phil also went as far as to say that he could not go on teaching if the students had a bad attitude towards him: “The idea of 45 people sitting in front of you hating you, I just couldn't do it” (P:226). However, not all teachers were that extreme. Brian wondered, in fact, whether it would be more motivating if his students actually began to criticise him more (but he said it is not “part of the culture” to do that) (B:62-68) (see also section 7.5.1).

9.8 Motivational effects of relationships with former teachers.

Some teachers felt very strongly about the influence of their past teachers. In general, it did not appear to be the work, or methods of their former teachers that influenced them. Rather, it was their relationship with them, and the energy and commitment that had developed their attitude towards

learning. In his focus group, Greg spoke about “motivated, great, *genki*, spectacular teachers” that he had had, and said that “their love for learning, which was so tangible, got to me as a learner, which, in turn, I attempt to do with my own students” (V2, G:117). He finds the fact that he can now have the same relationship with his students as he did with his own teachers, “fostering their love for learning”, to be being very enriching (G:8). Similarly, Chrissa embarked on her teaching career with a conviction that she wanted to be like her teachers:

...the ones that really stand out are people that invested in my life beyond the walls of the classroom. Having that availability, being accessible to students and staff. I think that has really made it something more meaningful to me. Education and learning making a life lesson, rather than just a classroom lesson.
[F2, C:118]

Kay also was firm about a similar influence of her past teachers: “I had some great teachers, through high school, and they inspired me to love learning and teaching. So that is where my motivation comes from” (K:4). Linda said that she became a language teacher because of a love of language that began for her as a seven year old learning a language in a foreign country, and was fostered later by linguistically gifted and motivating teachers, whose enthusiasm she wants to pass on (L:12). Lastly, Rachel talked of the difficulties of being brought up in an area where peer pressures often cause children to ignore any encouragement from parents and her desire to model herself on the teacher that helped her survive:

Rachel: ...my responsibility I think in the classroom is not just to represent a body of information and hope that they're going to pick up on it, it's to coach them, to encourage them, it's to manage them so that, you know, they are responding to what I'm giving them in class and when that doesn't happen of course I feel somewhat responsible for that.

Tim: *Why 'of course', though? Do you think this is what every teacher should feel? Do you think it's something personal?*

Rachel: It's probably something personal. I mean I hope it's what teachers should do. I mean part of this comes from my background and the feeling that I've been successful in my life because I had teachers that gave a damn.

[R:6c-8]

However, not all were motivated by an admiration of their past teachers. Don, for example, said that one of his main concerns was that the students get value for money: “... from my own education I like now to thank all the poor teachers that I've had because I've promised myself that I would never inflict the same thing on my students” (D:110b).

Yoko was similarly scathing about teachers she had encountered: “There's too many unmotivated, shady teachers in Japan”. She thought that one reason for this was that students were not motivated enough to evaluate their teachers (F2, Y:123-127). In her interview, she used the term *offhand* to refer to teachers who put little *energy* into their work: “when you want to get away with lots” (Y:40), and she has determined that she would not be such an offhand teacher. However, when she was studying English herself, she found that in fact she preferred her Japanese teachers to her American teachers, even though she accepted that the American teachers might be motivated. Just being motivated, she says, is not enough (Y:290-304). It was this experience that influenced her decision to use Japanese in class, as described above in section 9.6.

9.9 Motivational effects of the relationship with the university

It was explained in chapter 1 that the teachers had almost complete autonomy in their work, and in section 4.5 it was shown that the teachers recognised this, and in general appreciated it. However, Section 4.5 also showed that teachers were aware of, and critical of their isolation: being separated from the mainstream of teaching in the university, and receiving little feedback or praise from the institution. One teacher, Greg, talked of his status as *shokutaku* as being “ambiguous but negatively perceived” (G:140), and found the lack of any kind of specific demand on him to be very disturbing.

Jill was very concerned that the lack of co-ordination did not allow them to act like a professional group, and complained that their professional experience was ignored. One particular example was having no say in deciding which students have the ability to take her course, and therefore she might have a student who cannot cope. As his parents are “paying big money for him to fail automatically”, she finds it “a considerable amount of neglect and I find it very distressing to have to work with that, very distressing” (J:102). Regarding the lack of feedback from the university, she found it demoralising that “we don't have any kind of motivation given to us from our employers other than our remuneration” (J:60c). Brian also pointed out: “I feel that we're not appreciated enough here...sometimes, you know, a little pat on the back might be handy. And that would increase the motivation” (B:36).

However, Jill was adamant that she would not let the university's attitude affect her work, and Brian also later said that as the demands on him were “not terribly onerous [...] it behoves us to do a good job” (B:230). Overall, in fact, there were few indications that the isolation had much effect on motivation. One possible reason for this was a sense of duty. Referring to the recent curriculum changes, for example, Sayuri said: “As a teacher, I understand how difficult it is to make such a change in the university, so I want to be part of a helping force” (S:217).

Naturally, also, there is a desire to give value: hence a certain overlap into the market situation. Rachel, for example, was quoted in section 8.3 as saying that the “huge” amount of money she was being paid obliged her to work well (R:126a). However, an equally strong factor was the sense of value that the teachers felt about themselves. Victor was willing to do a good job because he felt his salary showed that the university valued him, and increased his feeling of self worth (V:22). Irene, on the other hand, thought her pay was low, but even then did her best because “people give you a sense of worth” (I:108-110).

Overall, the dominant feeling was that the context provides for the teachers a feeling of independence and confidence. Irene put it in terms of *satisfaction*, saying that if working to somebody else's plan, “the satisfaction is going to be somebody else's satisfaction, it's not going to be mine. So I have to find out where I can glean what's solely mine[...]I think true success is

where you call it your own” (I:98). Molly said that the search for autonomy was part of why she became a teacher: “I don't like having rules imposed on me, I'm actually sort of a loner and I sort of like to not be accountable to anybody” (M:232). Don talked in terms of *responsibility*: “All the things that I didn't like about teaching seemed to be because there was someone stuck in the middle, some organisation saying these are the rules, this is what we're going to do. So if you can take that risk and responsibility on there are bigger rewards and you've got a lot more freedom to do stuff” (D:4).

It appears that the responsibility that Don and other teachers felt was to the students, rather than to the university, and were pleased that they could put it into practice. Commenting on the fact that as a *hijokin* her responsibility to the university was limited to getting the grades in on time, Molly said: “The reason I like being a part-timer and not being in the whole academia thing, is that I am only accountable to my students” (M:182). She appreciates having the freedom to concentrate on her teaching instead of having to go to meetings (M:366). Both Harumi, another *hijokin* teacher, and Chrissa said much the same thing: they were happy to be able to focus responsibility completely on their students because of their isolation from the department, and even, in Harumi's case, other teachers (H:234-246, C:174). Finally, Jill, who had been so concerned about lack of professional stimulation and feedback in the department, said:

So instead what we do normally to compensate for that, I think, is that you redress your ideas and say to yourself, well, my motivation has to come from each group of students in their own individual right as a group, they're the ones that I focus on and that's where I get my rewards from.

[J:94]

Overall, it has become clear that many of the work-related goals, processes and motivations that they describe in chapters 6 and 7 might not have been possible without the autonomy that the teachers enjoy. It also appears that those work related goals are sufficiently motivating to counteract any demotivating effects due to the lack of professional status of the teachers within the framework of the university.

9.10 Summary

This chapter began by discussing the findings that related to the participants' feelings about their prestige in the society at large. Such findings were limited to the issues described by Japanese teachers teaching a non-Japanese language, and non-Japanese teachers in a Japanese society. These issues mainly concerned their relationships with the students. It was then explained that it appeared from the data that these relationships between the students and the participants as human beings formed a situation separate from those that consider them in their roles as language teachers.

As with previous chapters, this chapter was organised from goal to processes to motivators. The main goals in this respect related to the graduation of the student into society. These goals were

sometimes language related, but the more general hope was for students with enriched lives who are aware of social issues and able to become leaders.

The chapter went on to discuss the importance of forming relationships with the class. The teachers expressed a wish to find out about the students. Some were content to rely on their own personalities, but this is not easy for all of them. Some find it challenging to be in front of a class, and a number of teachers talked about the need for respect, in terms of the student trusting that they can learn from the teacher. One very important decision that has to be made in this respect is whether or not to restrict themselves to the target language. Most teachers talked of this decision in terms of the relationship with the students, and not all of them made the same choice. This central part of the chapter concluded by describing the ways in which the teachers' motivations were affected by the relationships and interactions with the students. Most were motivated by what was described as a good rapport.

The final part of the chapter looked first at the ways in which the participants' former teachers influenced their motivations. In general, those who had had good relationships wanted to replicate them with their own students, and those who had poor relationships were motivated to be better teachers. Lastly, the teachers described the ways in which their motivation was affected by the acknowledged high level of autonomy. For the most part, they felt that they were able to work better because of it. This was tempered with a feeling of demoralisation caused by a perception that they were rather isolated or not valued as professionals. However, this did not appear to affect motivation in the work situation.

Chapter 10: Discussion

10.1 Introduction

This final chapter will discuss briefly the findings and some implications of the dissertation. It will be organised according to the objectives stated in section 1.4. However, they will be in reverse order. First, the categorisation of the data into Lockwood's three situations: work, market and status, will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion of the importance of the teaching context. The section 10.4 will then discuss how the findings might contribute to the overall understanding of teacher motivation, and suggests a number of themes and possibilities for consideration. The chapter ends with some reflections on the study: its design and limitations, followed by some brief suggestions for policy and managerial practice.

10.2 Work, market and status

The objective was to relate teacher motivation to the *work/market/status* categorisation proposed by David Lockwood (1989). After an original formulation of the data according to psychological concepts, it was decided the information would be more accessible if it were expressed in more sociological terms, which would allow for a better consideration of the contextual features. In the summary of insights from the literature review (section 2.15), it was concluded that a categorisation of the research results in this way did appear to provide a more practical understanding..

To recap, it appeared that the market situation could be considered in terms of such extrinsic factors as salary, security and perhaps holidays, in much the same way as it was considered by Lockwood. The status situation also remained as defined by Lockwood: "The position of the individual in the hierarchy of prestige in the society at large" (1989, p. 15). However, with regards to the work situation, I concluded that a distinction was necessary between the intrinsic factors related to the work itself, and the factors related to the working environment and organisation.

In the process of re-analysis and interpretation, the market situation proved to be quite clear-cut, as shown in chapter 8, and the interpretation in Lockwood's terms was enlightening. However, the work and status situations, although also ultimately enlightening, were not so straightforward.

With regards to the work situation, the main difficulty was that as I became engaged with the data, I became reluctant to push it into any preconceived theoretical framework. The distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic factors, and the idea that intrinsic factors are more likely to increase satisfaction, hence motivation, were developed in the theory discussed in sections 2.6-7. Intuitively, a great deal seems correct, and I concluded in section 5.5 that the teachers conceive of

motivation primarily in terms of the work being done and the relationship with that work. However, when the focus was on the actual work context itself, the situation became less clear-cut.

The main concern here was that the various intrinsic factors are distinguished according to *a-priori* definitions and categorisation, and these would then be imposed on to the data. The factors included as part of the market situation are certainly extrinsic, and appeared to be conceived as such by the participants. However, in their conversations regarding the work situation, they did not really distinguish between intrinsic-ness and extrinsic-ness of work-related factors strongly enough for me to feel that my interpretation should draw attention to the distinction. The more extrinsic factors, related to environment and organisation, and the intrinsic factors related to the chalk face job of teaching itself were in fact too interconnected to be described separately.

Therefore, while most of the data was work-related, and Lockwood's work situation was obviously useful, it would be better if it provided a less theoretical, more contextual interpretation. I put aside those concepts that appeared to have less significance to the teachers, and tried to interpret the data in a way that resonated with what they told me (and each other). I then simply detailed the many ways in which they described their work situation, followed by the many ways in which they were affected by it. Some of these factors were clearly intrinsic or extrinsic, according to the definitions to be found in the literature. However, their significance can be seen in conjunction with an account of the full context.

Regarding the status situation, there were enough examples to show the potential importance of this categorisation. It is possible that status, defined as prestige in the society at large, is of greater importance in the setting than was found in this study. However, the participants would only have talked about those status-related aspects that were relevant to their motivation. The rationale for regarding the data in terms of human relationships (which would include status) both within and without the work environment was set out in section 9.3. This allowed for a separate consideration of what appear to be an important group of factors, particularly those related to autonomy.

Overall, then, it seems that the data fitted well into Lockwood's framework, with some important adjustments. This interpretation allowed the data to be seen from a more practical perspective, and, most importantly, from the same perspective as the teachers themselves.

10.3 Context

The second objective was to show how the nature of teacher motivation can be dependent on the teaching context. To some extent, this was shown with the wide variety of contexts in the literature review, although it was not really possible to predict motivation from the context. In order to appreciate this context, it was described as objectively as possible in chapter 1, while chapter 4 focused on the teachers' perceptions of their working environment. Taking all of the information

into consideration, it is difficult to disagree with Evans' position that motivation is predominantly contextually determined (1998b). The teachers talked of their motivation not in general terms, but in terms related to the context. Also, chapter 5 showed that the teachers themselves found it difficult to separate the concept of motivation from contextual issues.

This is not to say that every context has a unique effect, nor that if one of these teachers moved to another context, then his or her overall motivation would necessarily be enhanced or damaged. This particular context had mainly motivated, pleasant students, sufficient pay, and organisation that allowed the teachers considerable autonomy of action. On the other hand, there was little professional feedback, and some teachers said that they felt that they were not valued within the institution. Another context might have very different attributes, and yet the teachers educate just as successfully. Contexts affect the *nature* of motivation, rather than strength or quality (not that strength or quality can be measured). In a different context, teachers would be motivated to do different things, in different ways, which would still add up to students learning. To build on another position of Evans, I think that the crucial point, as findings in chapter 9 show, is that compatibility between teachers must be developed so that the energy of the teachers can be focused on the learning of the students. This point will be developed further in the conclusion of the next section.

10.4 The nature of teacher motivation

The main initial objective of this study is to contribute to the overall understanding of the nature of teacher motivation. The findings have been categorised into work, market and status situations for this reason, and the findings have been written as far as possible so that readers can come to their own conclusions. The following paragraphs will summarise four themes that I think are important. I will then suggest a way in which the concept of motivation might be developed.

First, there were very strong indications throughout the data that there are, in Evans' terms, both satisfying factors and satisfactory factors, with job comfort adding to job fulfilment to create a level of job satisfaction. According to the theory in section 2.7, this should heighten morale, meaning that the teachers are motivated towards goal-focused activity that would in turn sustain and increase job satisfaction. In many ways, the data bore this out. Chapters 6 showed that the teachers created their own goals and developed work processes to achieve those goals. Sections 7.4, 5 and 7 showed how these goals and processes can maintain satisfaction, hence motivation.

This willingness to create personal teaching goals, in the apparent absence of clear institutional goals is another important theme. This situation seems to contrast with an important image of goal-setting theory (see section 2.5): that of the superordinate goal creating a sense of purpose and inspiration. However, it does coincide with Locke's emphasis on the personal context and the

importance of goals that fit teacher values and capabilities, and in particular Binswanger's encouragement of allowing teachers to set their own purposes. In fact, in this language teaching context, with 7,000 students, scores of teachers with different methods and abilities, and a product that is difficult to measure, perhaps the lack of a clear institutional goal is not surprising. Although their actual work is rooted in this context, many of the teachers, particularly the non-Japanese, may see their broader mission in global terms, and the superordinate goal that inspires them is a global one, which they would bring to any context. Chapter 6 described goals that were universal in character, followed by work processes that were more related to the context.

Goals were also described in Section 9.4. These were expressed very much in terms of what the teachers can do for the students within the Japanese context. This introduces a third important theme: the differences between the non-Japanese teachers and the Japanese teachers, who have been brought up in the Japanese society. In section 9.4, for example, amidst all the goals to have the students break out and think globally, Sayuri says she realises this is the last enjoyable period of the students' lives, and wants to share, like a *senpai*. There were only four Japanese teachers in the sample, but it became apparent that their perceptions of their motivation in the Japanese context were rather different from those of the non-Japanese teachers. This theme began with the views of Yoko in Focus Group Two. It is then shown directly in section 4.4, and also, in relation to using the target language, in section 9.6, and in relation to status in section 9.2. This is certainly a question for further research.

A fourth theme is enjoyment. Overall, as was clear from chapter 4, the teachers appeared to enjoy their job, and this formed part of the teachers' perceptions of the concept of motivation (see section 5.2). It is also part of motivating factors in chapter 7, and even in the market situation, some teachers are motivated by the enjoyment of vacations. And as it is also implicit in their work-related goals, the teachers would likely agree with Csikszentmihalyi's position that "the real task of a professor is to enable the learner to enjoy learning", and teachers who enjoy teaching are best able to do that (1997b, p. 76) (see section 2.6). This is not to say that education should necessarily be managed so that teachers can enjoy themselves. However, it does show that enjoyment is on teachers' minds when they are thinking of their job, and inclination to do that job, and perhaps that should be considered and reflected by management.

10.4.1 Energy

Chapter 2 described and discussed some of the more important theoretical concepts of motivation. Much of the research detailed in that chapter was based on a particular theoretical perspective. However, in the end, a picture of motivation was built from research that addressed various issues and questions, such as reasons for being a teacher, causes of commitment and burnout, leadership, effects of salary, and job satisfaction. This research adds to that picture by detailing and

interpreting the views of a specific group of teachers regarding their job and what they consider their motivation to do that job. Evans' definition, stated in section 1.1, talked of "those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity" (1998b, p. 34). Not only are there many such factors, but also, as has been shown, there is no one activity of teaching: teachers see the job in terms of a variety of tasks and goals, all related to the overall work environment.

As the motivation to teach has been shown to have such a multiplicity of dimensions, then how useful are the various concepts of motivation discussed in chapter 2? This research can certainly not conclude that any of them are wrong, and in fact, nearly all of the ideas expressed in that chapter helped towards a better understanding of the data. However, each idea in itself seems to be incomplete, and insufficient for describing or explaining the wider concept of motivation. Unfortunately, according to Mitchell & Daniels (2003), "very little integrative or cross-fertilization takes place" between the various theories (p. 39). They believe that the field of motivation needs to "reorient itself".

It was interesting that of all the participants in this study, only one (Greg) even mildly challenged the utility of the general concept of motivation, even though the concepts that they held individually differed widely. Therefore, it remains a valid and useful topic of research, but what is required is a sense that it can take various forms, depending on both individual and context. In section 5.4, it was shown how the teachers sometimes talked of motivation in terms of *energy*. Some were thinking mainly of a physical, dynamic attribute, but most went further. Rachel, for example modelled her total attitude to her work on her former teacher, who "put a tremendous amount of energy into the class" (R:184). Yoko used the term in her description of unmotivated, "offhand" teachers:

[...]when we are talking about putting in a lot of energy, or excessive energy, not enough energy, or time, in teaching and preparing materials and grading students' papers and making comments and everything, you can ... err ... you can get away with lots of things when you're in the category of offhand teacher. There are different types of offhand teachers, but when you want to get away with lots, then definitely you have to be in the category of offhand. So everyone knows about that, students know this and we know that, too, and we've seen a lot of teachers who don't want to go out with full dedication and energy and time and full capacity. Usually they are very much offhand.

[Y:40]

In other words, the term *energy* can refer to a willingness to engage in a wide range of activities that, to her, imply motivation. Thus, different types of motivation could be all be seen as energy, which could perhaps be a more useful term to use. When the teachers are describing the sources and effects of their motivation in so many ways, it might be constructive to conceive of many different forms of energy, which in itself cannot be destroyed or created, but only transformed.

The value of such a conception also lies in the fact that many teachers often used the term *energy* to describe student motivation, and in particular the connection between student motivation and their own motivation. In the group conversation about *lighting the fire*, (section 6.5), Fiona said:

“[...]if they have got interest, and they're willing to put energy into learning English, to me that's very meaningful, and that gives me energy to do more” (F1,F:29). Many teachers echoed Irene, who said simply that “the students that respond most I put more effort into” (I:3), or Molly, who said that “If I know that they like what I'm doing and are satisfied with what I'm doing, I'm likely to continue doing and put more energy into it” (M:88).

Not all of the participants actually used the word *energy*. However, during the course of the interviews, it began to appear that the way in which they were describing the educational context could be conceived, metaphorically, in terms of the law of the *conservation of energy*, from the field of physics. This states that the total amount of energy in any isolated system remains constant. It cannot be created or destroyed, but can only be changed from one form to another or transferred from one body to another. Thus, the teachers bring energy to their part of the educational system, in a variety of forms, both complex and simple, and the students leave with energy: perhaps in terms of language ability, or a heightened desire to obtain that ability. It is the role of management to ensure that as much of the energy brought by the teacher is transformed into the energy obtained by the student.

In physics, energy is often transformed into forms that are unwanted: most notably, heat. In an educational system, too, the energy of the teacher might be transformed into forms that are not seen to be educationally productive. There may be a conflict between the goals of teachers and those of the educational establishment, society, or individual students. Teachers may get distracted by extrinsic goals, or have to deal with environmental hindrances and bureaucratic demands. Or they may be required to use teaching methods that do not suit the energy that they bring. To put it another way, teaching energy is transformed most efficiently into learning energy if there is convergence of goals, with no distracting extrinsic goals, and a suitable teaching environment. In particular, based on the data in this study, methods should suit the teachers.

This is a basic framework of a concept that I started to perceive in the course of this study. It is the first stage of an effort to bring together the various theoretical concepts of teacher motivation. However, this study was not designed to address such an effort, and therefore I can go no further than these suggestions. It will be the basis of any future research that I undertake.

10.5 Reflections on the study

I have little doubt that an interpretive approach was the most appropriate for dealing with the questions that I was asking, for all the reasons given in section 3.2. I am also satisfied that I made the right choices regarding procedures, with one important exception: the focus groups were so successful, and the source of so much useful data, that perhaps I should have made more effort to organise a third, comprised of *hijokin* teachers. (I still feel that my decision to separate *hijokin*

from full-time teachers was the correct one: I may have obtained more data regarding the part-time/full-time issue, but that would have been at the expense of data regarding other issues.)

I was pleased that I was able to achieve close to comprehensive sampling of the *shokutaku* teachers, with few refusals, and that none of the other invited teachers refused. This does indicate that I was able to avoid the drawbacks of much research into motivation: that only motivated people respond. In fact, most of the participants did appear to be motivated, but that was a function of the context, rather than any sampling bias. However, a point for concern is the fact that I was unable to assert *a priori* whether these teachers were in fact professionally competent. I think that the conversations revealed ultimately that they were capable and conscientious teachers, and the accounts of grading criteria and language goals in section 6.2 were partly an attempt to show that the teachers were not only motivated but also professional.

There are two important factors that have not been examined in this study. The first was the impact of contextual change over time. In fact, this context did change considerably during the time period of analysis and interpretation, but I was not able to consider that change, as the data collected reflected only a particular point in time. This was a valuable perspective, of course, but in future research projects I will consider studying fewer participants, but following them in their jobs and careers over a period of time. The second factor was the students, and their concepts of teacher motivation. In fact, I did give a pilot questionnaire to some students, but then decided that it was too complex a question to be within the scope of this study, but was an excellent topic for future research.

It is necessary to understand the limitations of this study, which are mostly concerned with the limitations of qualitative enquiry itself. ("Qualitative study has everything wrong with it that its detractors claim" (Stake, 1995, p. 45)). First of all, it is essentially subjective. In design, procedures, processing and analysis, I made many choices that simply seemed to be the best thing to do, and even as the study progressed, I was aware that results might be different if I had made different choices. One such example is the choice to put focus groups before interviews. As the individual conversations sometimes recalled the group conversations, if I had set the focus groups *after* the interviews, then I may have obtained a different set of data. The only research I could find on this issue was Wight (1994), who indeed found that the order of methods is important. In the end, I had to trust my own judgement.

The main products of choice have been the selection of data from the 225,000 words of conversation, and a selection of themes for an analysis that might represent the views and ideas expressed by the 26 participants. I feel that I did capture the spirit of the conversations, and have produced an account as complete as the limitations of time and space allow. However, despite my efforts at validation described in sections 3.7 and 3.8.3, it must be acknowledged that different choices might have led to a different analysis, and possibly a different interpretation. In the end,

much depends on the extent to which the reader has come to trust my capabilities and intuition.

10.6 Suggestions for policy and practice

In section 1.3, I wrote that this dissertation was aimed at educational managers, whose goal would be an efficient and secure learning environment, with satisfied clients. The study would provide an illumination of teacher motivation that might inform management decisions. It also set out to show that teacher motivation was not something that could be generalised from one context to the next, but is contingent on context, and therefore to a certain extent dependent on any decisions that affect that context. In this, I hope it has been successful, and if so, it shows that the management of an educational environment can have an effect on the motivation of the teacher within it.

This dissertation cannot provide specific guidelines, and readers will have to judge whether any lessons learnt from this context have any relevance to their own. However, I think that it does indicate possibilities, particularly with regards to teacher autonomy and institutional support. There are two aspects to this. Firstly, it shows that teachers do not all approach their work in the same way, but, as long as they have the chance, they develop goals and methods that can lead to satisfactory results. To return to the *energy* metaphor, the environment should be managed so that as much of the teaching energy that the teacher brings to the situation results in productive learning and acquisition-related energy of the student. This study indicates that this might best be accomplished by interfering no more than is absolutely necessary.

The second aspect concerns isolation and lack of support. Many of the teachers in this study felt that they were isolated, and received little in the way of professional support. However, this did not appear to affect motivation. I would suggest that their motivation remained steady because they were allowed to adapt and forge a way for themselves. Also, while there was little praise, there was no criticism (with the resulting insecurity) either. Certainly, specific support may be a way to ensure that teachers' energy is not wasted and this context is wanting in that regard. Perhaps a more supportive environment would have allowed teachers to use their energy more productively. However, it is just as important to avoid policies that might drain that energy, and to acknowledge that teachers might be best placed to understand their own motivation and direct their own energy.

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Appendix 1: Glossary of Japanese terms

Japanese terms have occasionally been used in this dissertation. This is either because they refer to concepts that are particular to the Japanese context, or because they are in general use by participants, and were used in the interviews. Most terms were translated in the text, but for convenience, here is a glossary of terms.

(note: 'professor' in this context refers in general to a university teacher or lecturer)

Gaijin (also gaikokujin): A foreigner. Sometimes considered to be insulting, but common currency among foreigners.

Genki: A commonly used adjective meaning healthy well and active.

Hijokin: a professor who is paid per *koma*. They receive no other emolument, although they are generally paid a monthly amount which continues through vacations.

Ippangaikokugo: The foreign language element of general education (languages taught to students who are not majoring in that language).

Ippankyoiku: General education, such as PE, ethics (distinct from subjects taught by faculties)

Jukeneigo: English taught only for the sake of the university entrance test.

Kikokushijo: Students who studied abroad, and have now returned to Japan to study. They may well be proficient at a foreign language, but have difficulties with Japanese. They are sometimes referred to as returnees.

Koma: A 90 minute lesson or lecture. A '6 koma' teaching load, for example, would mean 6 90 minute lessons per week

Sennin: a professor with permanent (that is, lifetime) employment status. They receive monthly salary, equivalent of five months bonus per year, a year's sabbatical every seven years, and retirement pay. None of the participants in this research are sennin.

Senpai: A student or pupil in a year above. They are expected to lead, and expect respect.

Shakaijin: Literally, a member of society. When students graduate, they become *shakaijin*.

Shokutaku koshi (generally referred to as *shokutaku*) the status of a professor employed on annual contract. They receive a monthly salary and two months bonus per year and a research allowance. These contracts are generally renewable, but in the past decade most employment situations have restricted renewals to a maximum of three years employment. (Japanese-English dictionaries usually define *shokutaku* as 'part-time', but in fact they are 'full-time' in the generally accepted western sense)



Appendix 2: Information to Participants

Dear

Thank you very much for agreeing to help me in my research. I hope the process will be of as much interest to you as it is to me. In this short letter, I hope to indicate briefly the aims of the research, and to describe some of the commitments I shall make regarding the information that I obtain.

As I said in my first introduction to you, I am hoping to discover something about the nature of motivation, and in particular intrinsic motivation. Up to now, the bulk of research involving this topic has involved measurement by questionnaire, and very little attention has been paid to efforts to actually ask those involved in the education process. Although I am also interested in learner motivation, I am particularly interested in the motivation of teachers, and the motivation of our students will be of interest only if it has a bearing on teacher motivation.

I want to assure you that I am not interested in 'assessing' your motivation. I am assuming that all the people I interview are 'motivated', which is why I chose to interview you. However, I also assume (or hope) that this sense of motivation is somewhat individual, shows up in many different ways, and has a variety of sources.

I hope I have given you enough information regarding my research aims. I do have specific issues: both theoretical and practical, in mind, but I'd rather not bring them to the forefront at the moment. I hope to have two focus group sessions with the full time teachers, and then I would appreciate the opportunity to interview you individually at a time that is convenient to you. I will also be interviewing a similar number of part time teachers. Although, as I stress below, all sources will be anonymous, I will have to describe the group as a whole, in terms of teaching experience, background, etc, so I will be checking with you on those points. I *might* also ask you to complete a short five or ten minute (anonymous) questionnaire, in order to tie some issues up.

The information that you supply in either the group or individual settings will be used as data in a doctoral dissertation. However, only a very small proportion of your words will be in the text. Full transcripts will accompany the submission of the dissertation. These may be in the appendix, but I think it is more likely that they will be unbound and separate. I will keep you informed on this if you require. The dissertations are kept in the Bristol university library, and they can be accessed by any researcher. However, they must work according to British copyright law, which means there can be no quoting or copying without permission. I myself may also like to use the material for further publication.

At no time will names of individuals or establishments be used. However, I think I have to state that the context is a Japanese University. I will preserve anonymity as far as possible, although it is possible that you will recognise each other. Thus I would request that you should also treat what others say as confidential.

I appreciate your help,

Tim Knowles

Appendix 3: Letter of Consent for Teachers**Consent Form**

for research by Tim Knowles, FOR Ed.D. Degree, Bristol University, U.K, 2002-2003.

- ◆ I consent to being recorded while being interviewed, and during the focus group session.
- ◆ I consent to the recordings being analysed for research purposes, and extracts of the interviews or discussions in which I take part being included in research publications or reports. I understand that as far as possible anonymity will be preserved.
- ◆ I undertake to preserve the anonymity of others who are taking part in the research, and treat what they say with confidentiality,
- ◆ I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time.

NAME:

SIGNATURE:

DATE:



Appendix 4: Revised Letter of Consent

(I first gave this form to the Director and President, but then also to some of the teachers, as I wanted to make sure that they were fully aware of the extra points, particularly about the possible recognition of the university)

Consent Form

for research by Tim Knowles, FOR Ed.D. Degree, Bristol University, U.K, 2002-2003.

- ◆ I consent to being recorded while being interviewed.
- ◆ I consent to the recordings being analysed for research purposes, and extracts of the interviews or discussions in which I take part being included in research publications or reports. I understand that as far as possible anonymity will be preserved.
- ◆ I understand that if I do mention others, they will not be identified.
- ◆ I understand that while I will not be referred to by name, I will be referred to by my position, and it is therefore likely that I can be identified by other participants in the study.
- ◆ I understand that while the university will not be referred to by name, it will be referred to as a 'Japanese university' where the researcher works.
- ◆ I know as much as I need about the aims of this research, and I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time.

NAME:

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

Appendix 5: Letter to Participants After Interviews and Transcriptions

Dear «FirstName»,

Thank you very much indeed for participating in my research. I know it must seem like a long time ago now, but I wasn't able to transcribe everything until August, and finally started an initial analysis of it all in September.

Anyway, here is the transcription of your interview and/or group discussion. I'm not expecting you to proof read or anything like that. I'm really just giving them to you as a courtesy, and I think they contain some interesting thoughts and ideas of yours, which you probably haven't recorded anywhere else.

I think that everything has been transcribed fairly accurately. I did half myself, and sent the other half off to be done in England. If I ever do it again, I'll send the whole lot off. I'm sure you are aware that spontaneous speech is rarely grammatical, so please don't worry about that. I must admit, though, that I'm quite surprised in places that you managed to understand some of my rambling questions. As I said, I'm not asking you to proof read. However, you are more than welcome to come back to me if you think that you want to add something, or if you think there is a possibility that you may be seriously misunderstood: perhaps you accidentally said one thing but meant another, or you were conveying your meaning with intonation which didn't come out in the transcription.

In these drafts, there may still be some signs of your identity, particularly, of course, your names. Please rest assured that all quotes from this material will be completely anonymous: you will all have pseudonyms, and references to places, careers, etc, will be totally changed (although I doubt if such references will be needed). However, you may well be recognisable among yourselves, and perhaps by others at Sophia, although I doubt if this is going to be on the reading list of the average Japanese professor. While I will, of course be careful, if you are concerned about anything that you have said please don't hesitate to tell me about it. In any case, I am looking for general themes in what was told me, rather than individual differences.

As I believe I told you, I would like to ask you a few more questions: just a bit of simple background stuff (so I can create a general profile of the participants), and some simple questions which may arise from my initial analysis. I'm also interested in what you thought of the discussion and the interview process. But rather than bombard you with bits of paper, I think it best to contact you by email when I have all my questions together.

Once again, thank you very much, and I hope you enjoy next semester.



Appendix 6: Guideline questions

(This is a list of guideline questions which I had by me in the interviews. As explained in the main text, after the opening question most questions flowed naturally from the issues arising from the participants' responses and I only had to refer to this list on the rare occasion when the interview went off topic. The only exception was the final question, which I endeavoured to ask all the participants).

They are based mainly on issues in literature, although some, particularly the job context related questions, are based on my own knowledge of the context.

General motivation:

- Would you call yourself a motivated teacher? Why?
- Does your motivation change from day to day?
- What would cause it to change?

Motivation in Class:

- Can you describe a particular event in class which illustrates what you mean by motivation?
- What actually 'happens' when you are motivated?
- What effect do you think your level of motivation has on the students' learning or motivation?

Goal related:

- What are your aims, or goals while teaching?
- Could these goals be expressed in terms of specific linguistic achievement?
- How important is the possibility of success in these goals?
- How do you actually feel when these goals are achieved, or not achieved?
- When you see your goals are not being met, would you change goals, or change the way you are teaching?
- What is your motivation to innovate?
- In what way is your motivation tied to your goals?
- Are your goals personal, related to you and your development, or more in terms of the student?
- Is there ever any conflict in goals: either between your own goals, or between your goals and those of others? Do you feel you might need to resolve these?

Flow related:

- Do you see teaching in terms of challenges?
- Do you enjoy challenges, and do you try to create challenges?
- Is there ever a time while teaching when you feel totally involved in what you are doing?

Job Satisfaction/enjoyment.

- Is 'enjoyment' connected with 'motivation'? How do you feel, and what happens, when you are 'enjoying' teaching?
- To what extent might you be motivated towards increasing your own enjoyment of the process, or perhaps increasing your interest in the process?

The context of the job:

- What would you mean by 'doing a good job' in your situation?
- Is there any conflict between your aims and the aims of the institution? If so, does this affect your motivation?
- To what extent is autonomy important to you? Would your motivation be affected if you were told how to teach, and what materials to use?
- When you are choosing textbooks for a class, what goes through your mind?
- A few years ago the unit introduced a new curriculum, and we had a hand in the creation of that curriculum. Did that process motivate you in any way?
- How important is it to be part of a group?
- How do you feel about the attitude of the establishment to you as a teacher, and the provision of materials, support, etc? Does this have an effect on your motivation?
- How do you feel about the fact that our offices are to be moved to the second basement, under the car park?

Cultural issues:

- To what extent does the fact that you are working in a culture that is not your own affect your motivation?

Similarly, to what extent does the fact that the native language of this environment is not your own affect your motivation?

(To Japanese subjects) To what extent is your motivation affected by the fact that you are teaching a language which is not your native language to students whose native language is the same as yours?

Grading:

How much do you worry about grades, and to what extent are you motivated to grade 'fairly'?

Why don't you just give all students 'A', and have done with it?

Does the new grading system, geared to an overall GPR, motivate you to spend more time on grading?

Extra Mile:

Given that you can more or less do anything you like in class, there is absolutely no evaluation of what you do, and you could probably cancel every other class without anybody knowing, what is it that makes you 'go the extra mile'?

Appendix 7: Section of a Transcribed Interview

- 1 TIM: OKAY, SO WOULD YOU SAY THAT YOU ARE A MOTIVATED TEACHER?
- 2 IRENE: I would think so. And the reason why I say I think so is because of the amount of work I put into my classes. I think if I wasn't very motivated I just wouldn't put much time and energy into re-writing, improving upon what I've already done, and I don't think I would put so much work into creating as well. So I think, for me anyway, my effort is often equal to the amount of motivation I have.
- 3 TIM: SO WHAT DO YOU THINK IT IS THAT MAKES YOU WANT TO PUT SO MUCH EFFORT INTO IT?
- 4 IRENE: One thing, I think, is my pride. I think if I didn't put much work into it, I wouldn't really find my job very satisfying. But I think also too, the students here, I've taught at different universities and by far this place is the most rewarding, so I don't mind putting energy into students who respond. I mean, granted with the different classes I teach, the students that respond most I put more effort into.
- 5 TIM: DO YOU THINK THE AMOUNT OF ENERGY THAT YOU PUT IN COINCIDES WITH AN INCREASE IN RESPONSE?
- 6 IRENE: Yes, I think so. I notice this particularly with some of my intermediate classes this year because I've really pushed them further than they would normally go. I always find I get the most positive feedback from students that get worked the most. I don't know if that's just a product of them thinking that because we do so much work we must be improving, or whether they really are improving, but in most cases they are, especially my writing course, I do see a big improvement in my writing course. And, funnily enough, I do see a great improvement in the intermediate classes, too, their confidence level.
- 7 TIM: HOW DO YOU FEEL ... I CAN UNDERSTAND WRITING BECAUSE YOU'RE SEEING THAT, BUT HOW DO YOU SEE AN IMPROVEMENT IN THE INTERMEDIATE, HOW DO YOU MEASURE THAT?
- 8 IRENE: Well, what I do is this year I've done something different, doing presentations, so I've stayed completely away from textbook oriented stuff. And I just find that from the very beginning when they were more reticent and shy, by the end of the term they are just much more alive and interested, mainly because they've got a bit more autonomy in what they can do.
- 9 TIM: SO YOU FEEL GOOD THEN BECAUSE YOU'VE MADE THEM MORE ALIVE?
- 10 IRENE: Yes. I feel that they've come to a standard, I suppose, that I expect in what I think they should be producing.
- 11 TIM: DID YOU HAVE THIS OTHER GOAL TO BEGIN WITH?
- 12 IRENE: No, by choice, I just think we're going to do this and then I sort of see things that are happening afterwards and I'm quite pleased.
- 13 TIM: SO WHAT SORT OF STANDARD HAVE THEY COME TO THEN? WHAT KIND OF STANDARD - HOW DO YOU MEASURE IT?
- 14 IRENE: I usually just gauge it from how they were from the beginning through to the end, and if they've shown more enthusiasm and they're a little more aggressive ... not aggressive, but obviously if I pay attention to eye contact and things, I know kids are actually watching and noticing people more, so their alertness is heightened. And I've also noticed kids who were originally a little bit ... I suppose a little ... err ... well, they weren't very confident about their levels, and even at the end maybe their speaking hasn't improving but basically a lot less shy.
- 15 TIM: SO YOU HAVE AN IDEA OF SUCCESS IN YOUR MIND THEN?
- 16 IRENE: Yeaah, sort of.
- 17 TIM: AND YOU'RE MOTIVATED TOWARDS A PARTICULAR CHANGE. YOU SAID YOU'RE MOTIVATED TO GET CHANGE BETWEEN THE BEGINNING AND THE END.
- 18 IRENE: Yes.
- 19 TIM: EVEN THOUGH IT'S KIND OF INTUITIVE? WHETHER OR NOT YOU'RE SUCCEEDING OR NOT IS DEPENDING ON YOUR ... HOW DO YOU JUDGE? CAN YOU GIVE ME AN EXAMPLE? I KNOW IT'S A DIFFICULT QUESTION.

- 20 IRENE: It's funny, because I see ... I had a few students in both my intermediate and my writing class, which have shown no improvement at all. Gosh, there's one student who came in looking at the ground and left looking at the ground, and no matter what I did she stayed that way. But I just find those people an anomaly and wouldn't respond no matter what you did. So I don't really count those students. And also it depends on their subject. A lot of students studying, say, mathematics, are not really interested in ...
- 21 TIM: SO WOULD YOU CALL THAT YOUR FAILURE, OR ...?
- 22 IRENE: I don't think it's my failure and I don't think it's their failure either, I think it's just part of the system, they're mismatched, they're in the wrong place and they're just not doing something they want to do. Where I see failure is students who are alert, they know what they're supposed to do and they blatantly don't do it. I had this one group of guys who were business managers and they were very alert in the class, they were doing all the things and they seemed like they were doing things as they were, and then when it came to the final project they did everything wrong. I mean, it was so wrong it was almost a comedy of errors.
- 23 TIM: DID THAT GET YOU DOWN?
- 24 IRENE: Yes, I was really mad actually.
- 25 TIM: DID THAT HAVE AN EFFECT ON YOUR MOTIVATION TO DO THE JOB?
- 26 IRENE: Err, I think because it's just one case out of many it didn't bother me, to me it was just an example of kids who don't care.
- 27 TIM: CAN YOU DESCRIBE A GOOD CASE?
- 28 IRENE: A good case then would be students ...
- 29 TIM: A PARTICULAR CASE. I MEAN, CAN YOU THINK OF ANYTHING IN THE LAST FEW WEEKS, A PARTICULAR SUCCESS?
- 30 IRENE: Oh yes, yes, kids who go beyond my expectation, presentation-wise, these kids who do surveys on top of the research, and give a completely well-informed presentation which I would expect more of an advanced level student and would put just a lot of time and effort making charts, making graphs, showing slides, the whole ten yards. So for that I would be surprised and very pleased. But I think, too, they were quite happy to do it as well, so they wanted to produce something good.
- 31 TIM: DO YOU THINK THAT IS TO DO WITH YOUR TEACHING, OR ...?
- 32 IRENE: I think so. I mean, a lot of students told me that they loved watching me in class, because I jump around and do all acrobatics and things. So they try to emulate as much as they can from me, because I'm always saying look at me, I want you to do it like I do it. So I think because I'm fairly easy in class, they feel comfortable.
- 33 TIM: AND KNOWING THIS MAKES YOU FEEL ... HOW DOES IT MAKE YOU FEEL? WHEN YOU SEE, FOR EXAMPLE, THAT THEY'VE DONE WELL AND THAT YOU FEEL THAT THIS IS PART OF YOUR OWN WORK ...
- 34 IRENE: Yes. Err ... there are times ... you see, I feel much better now than say 15 years ago when I started teaching. I was teaching at (*name withheld*) University with classes of 60 students, and I had to do the theatrical bit to get them motivated to learn. But that was useless - to me, I could do the same thing, but because they had absolutely no motivation to learn, I felt more of a clown in the front of the classroom - more than I do here.
- 35 TIM: BECAUSE YOUR MOTIVATION IS TIED IN WITH THEIR MOTIVATION, IS IT?
- 36 IRENE: Yes, and I think also, too, that the students' enthusiasm for English tends to be a little better than in some other places.
- 37 TIM: SO IF YOU WENT BACK TO THAT OTHER PLACE NOW, GIVEN YOUR DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING, DO YOU THINK THAT YOU WOULD BE MORE MOTIVATED NOW?
- 38 IRENE: Err ... yes and no. I think it really depends on the type of classes that ... I was teaching mechanical engineers, it was 60 guys and basically their reaction towards me was not very good. They didn't regard teachers very highly, so I basically hated it.

Appendix 8: Section of Transcribed Focus Group Two

- 1 TIM: OK, SO, WHAT DO WE FEEL? WHEN SOMEONE SAYS THEY ARE A MOTIVATED TEACHER, WHAT DOES THAT MEAN TO YOU? WOULD SOMEBODY LIKE TO BEGIN?
- 2 BRIAN: A motivated teacher enjoys teaching.
- 3 CHRISSA: Definitely. That's the first thing I wrote, too.
- 4 OTHERS ((noises of agreement))
- 5 BRIAN: I've never been in a position where I've been in form of a class and felt, "I don't want to be here." Not yet, anyway.
- 6 TIM: NEVER?
- 7 BRIAN: Never. I presume there are people who are in that position in front of a class, and not happy, but I've never felt that. Never. Maybe I'm lucky.
- 8 TOM: I don't know if I'm that lucky. I mean I would generally say I feel the same way, but there are times I think, when I've had a bad class, or students have not been very nice or receptive, and maybe in those cases where you don't feel you've really been able to get things back on track before the next class, sometimes it's kind of awkward going in there. But, yeah, those are rare moments for me, too. When I meet those who seem to experience it regularly, I wonder why they're teachers. But they seem to be rare.
- 9 BRIAN: As long as you get some feedback, that's fuel for your motivation. If you had to teach every lesson in sign language, you'd probably stop being a motivated teacher. The positive feedback you do get keeps you going. And the small bugbears I used to have don't worry me any more. They used to really bug me.
- 10 TOM: You've been here a long time. It's my first year here. A different perspective.
- 11 BRIAN: Oh yes. One bugbear I used to have was the "Are you quite sure you understood everything?" and they're all nodding away, and when as they leave the classroom, you can hear them all saying, in Japanese, that they didn't understand anything. So that doesn't bother me any more.
- 12 TIM: CHRISSA, WHAT DO YOU THINK?
- 13 CHRISSA: I was just going to say that I think that I've never gone into a class on the first day and felt that I don't want to be here. But I've had bad days where half way through the class, I've felt, "I don't want to be here any more." Because of the way the students are acting. So if I think in terms of what can remove my motivation, is students.
- 14 TOM: Oh yes.
- 15 BRIAN: Oh, yes, me too.
- 16 TOM: It's not me. It's them. I'm always glad to be there, but...
- 17 CHRISSA: Right.
- 18 TOM: If they don't want to have me there. If they're reacting negatively, even being rude, it's like, "What am I doing here?"
- 19 BRIAN: Well, I've taught High School, where you take your life in your hands. So this is a doddle compared to High School.
- 20 CHRISSA: Yes. Yes.
- 21 TOM: I had Junior High.
- 22 BRIAN: A third Dan in karate comes in most useful.
- 23 OTHERS: ((laughter))
- 24 BRIAN: And I've always got plenty of material ready, so if something's not working, I try something else. Maybe Japan is a special case. I mean the students are pretty docile. I think you'd have to put them on the rack before they'd offer any criticism to your face. They're generally quite well motivated, though.
- 25 GREG: The word enjoy didn't come to mind for me. I wrote that when I hear somebody say that, it means that they want to do it. Maybe it means kind of the same thing.

- 26 TIM: WELL, IN YOUR MIND. DON'T LOOK FOR THE RIGHT ANSWER.
- 27 GREG: Well, I mean that when I hear someone say, "I'm a motivated teacher," to me it implies that they really want to do whatever it is that they're doing. Whether they enjoy it or not doesn't necessarily come to mind for me. But it's something they want to do, and they have a reason for doing it.
- 28 TOM: But do you actually know teachers who you think are good motivated teachers who don't enjoy what they're doing? Is that possible?
- 29 BRIAN: Seems like a contradiction in terms.
- 30 TOM: To me.
- 31 CHRISSE: I think maybe if you're stuck with a bad class it's the teacher motivation, though, that would get you to the end of it. You know what I mean, the commitment to your profession, the commitment to the material...
- 32 BRIAN: Dedication
- 33 CHRISSE: Yes.
- 34 BRIAN: You've got to show you're hard working. I mean, they soon suss out if you're a lazy teacher.
- 35 CHRISSE: Yes.
- 36 BRIAN: And, you know, for instance, I always look at whatever work gets handed in, even if it's crap, you know. To show that I've looked through it. Even if I write on it, "This is rubbish." You've got to show that you are hard working to get a response. But you wouldn't work hard if you didn't enjoy the job, I guess.
- 37 YOKO: Half of it is enjoyment, of course. But the other half is professional commitment. I want to put the progress of students before anything. Well, not anything, but before anything. So that I can prepare classes with that idea of "Can this be of help to students in this way or that way?" So when I prepare for classes, or when I do miscellaneous work for classes, I have to think about the progress of students, for the sake of the progress of the students. And then, that doesn't mean I enjoy the work, late at night, or at home. To be able to do that, I have to have good feedback from students, and of course, that's a reward or part of the fuel that keeps me going. That's half of it. The other half is like, "This is my job, I'm being evaluated on how I do, on the level of progress of the students. Not the actual progress only - it's how students - the progress that students feel that they have made, so that may be a little different from the actual progress that they've made. So sometimes at the end of the year....
- 38 TOM: Don't you also enjoy.....
- 39 YOKO: I do, I do.
- 40 TOM: I mean, when I think of enjoyment, most of it is the in-class face-to-face stuff. But I mean, I certainly enjoy a lot of the preparation and stuff I do, even if there's pressure to do it. Which I felt a lot this year. You know those students... I'm not talking about Ippan classes, where I just kind of cruise through doing what I usually do. But these eigogakka guys - man, whoever said they you really have to push them to get any negative feedback, I haven't found that at all. They'll come and tell you quite directly what they do and don't like, without any hesitation at all.
- 41 BRIAN: I've taught skills in Eigogakka one year, and they were good like that, yes.
- 42 TOM: Even with the pressure, though. But they push me to do stuff I know is good for me to do, and it makes the classes better, and... but... there's some of it....
- 43 TIM: BEFORE WE GO ANY FURTHER, CAN YOU DEFINE WHAT YOU MEAN BY 'ENJOYMENT'? WHAT DO WE MEAN WHEN WE SAY WE ENJOY TEACHING?
- 44 BRIAN: I enjoy it when I can see my students enjoying themselves too. I have lots of large conversation classes where you can't really see much progress, but I try to set the idea forward that learning English, or learning, can be enjoyable. And if I see them having fun, then, that's enjoyable for me. I get them doing little skits. I really push that. They can play around and make dialogues with English. They enjoy it, and when they get into it, you can see that I got that idea across. And they always score Brownie points if they can make me laugh. And sometimes they do.

Appendix 9: Coded Data in HyperRESEARCH

These are screenshots of text being coded in the software HyperRESEARCH. On this page is a section of a focus group, and on the next page is a section of an interview. On this page, note the development of the four themes: motivated to; motivated by; motivation means; and goal. On the next page, in the interview, I branch out into rewards and needs, and also develop some more contextual, issue-related codes.

○○○
Focus 1 H.txt
?

Page Number
1 of 1

Font Settings...

extrinsic purposes. Not because of our passion.

FIONA: But think my passion to is to say "you guys need this."

KAY: And lots of them say " No we don't."

FIONA: And they don't have that sense. Or many of them don't. Some do. But the ones who don't. They drag things down. But I think that generating energy and interest is one of my motivations. That's almost a goal for me, no matter how poorly they do speak, but if they have got interest, and they're willing to put energy into learning English, to me that's very meaningful, and that gives me energy to do more. Now I have a passion about science. So maybe that comes through. And I'm grateful for that. But I teach also students who don't have that kind of background . Then I become like a facilitator almost. Once they've caught the fire, then it's a matter of facilitating, taking care of the fire.

IRENE: It's a matter of lighting the fire, then.

FIONA: Yes, lighting the fire and then...

KAY: keeping it burning

FIONA: Caring for it. Minding it.

TIM: DO YOU THINK IT'S POSSIBLE TO PUT MOTIVATION IN TERMS OF AIMS? WE'VE GOT THIS ONE AIM. DO YOU THINK THERE ARE OTHER AIMS INVOLVED?

KAY: Oh yes. Getting through goals and hurdles, like getting them through exams, getting them to a level.

IRENE: I think also, too, I don't know if it's a goal, but I always find that when I do the same course year after year, I don't teach in the same way. I'm always trying to find a better way, so to me, the goal is to improve what I'm doing, and build up on what I'm doing.

FIONA: I think too, we need to realise that we're dealing with goals for ourselves as well as goals for the students or class. And then there are individuals who are at very different places. So if I see a student who really doesn't speak well, but he's really trying, I feel that there's something happening there, there is some success there. And success always motivates me to do more.

KAY: (to PHIL) Money is your motivation?

PHIL: No, if money were my motivation I wouldn't be a teacher. (all agree)

KAY: I don't think any of us would be.

Display Codes In Context

personal experience as learner	PHIL: It just feels like a safe atmosphere for language learning. To me language learning and any kind of class seems like a kind of scary situation. Maybe because I'm not comfortable in large groups, I don't know. Maybe there's a personal problem. I think I remember learning French. One time I had a French teacher, and every time someone made a mistake, the teacher would laugh at that person. And I remember being laughed at when I made a mistake, and it just felt so uncomfortable, I felt terrible. And that was a long time ago and I realised that language is really tied up to something inside you. And I notice it with my son when he is at Japanese school. He tries so hard to say everything just the way the Japanese kids do it. He's really really worried about it. So it's really part of your ethos, part of your make-up. So to have a classroom where people feel safe, what they don't have to worry about seeing the wrong thing, they feel free to express themselves, which I think is very very important.
theory	
need to create learning environment	TIM: HOW DO YOU DEFINE SAFE THEN?
	PHIL: No-one's going to make fun of them, they can make mistakes and just speak, raise a hand and talk.
personal experience as learner	TIM: SO YOU THINK YOU'RE MOTIVATED BY TRYING TO GET AWAY FROM YOUR SCHOOL EXPERIENCE?
	PHIL: That's not overwhelming or anything, but I'm just reminded by that.
job career choice	TIM: WHAT GOT YOU INTO LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE FIRST PLACE?
	PHIL: Well I was studying to be a teacher, and had wanted to be a teacher for long time, and then probably just by accident, when I was in Oregon, tutoring at the language centre, .. language teaching, and I liked it. Actually I had lots of Japanese students then. That made me come to Japan.
comparison with other subjects	TIM: WHAT DID YOU LIKE ABOUT IT?
motivated by intimacy	PHIL: About teaching languages? Don't know. Maybe the intimacy.
reward progress	Connection with people, and the responses you get from the students: that's very very positive. And maybe.... an interesting question... Maybe the progress you can see. I taught literature for a long time, you can't see the progress so much in the literature classes as you can in the language classes.
reward response	
	TIM: DO YOU SEE PROGRESS HERE?
goal continue Eng. educ.	PHIL: In some cases. I think I can see progress in the motivation of the students. When the students come to me and say they want to go abroad and study and they realise now that they like English, I got any mail from one student who said "I never liked English in my life until I was in your class and now I love it." It seems like in the class that we are teaching,

Appendix 10: Codes and Themes

This a list of all the codes divided into themes. These are working notes, so there are a lot of abbreviations. 's', for example, is student, and 't' is teacher. 'Not' is a simple negative.

MOTIVATION MEANS:

MOTE MEANS: BASIC STUFF

mote depends on students
mote everywhere
mote means goal
mote means good teacher not
mote means job satisfaction
mote up and down

MOTE MEANS CLASS PRACTICE

mote means being active
mote means being innovative
mote means bringing stuff to class
mote means culture giving
mote means developing materials
mote means energy
mote means flexibility
mote means methodology

MOTE MEANS EXTERNALISH

mote means deadline
mote means developing materials
mote means research interests

MOTE MEANS LIKING IT

mote means enjoying
mote means enthusiasm
mote means job satisfaction
mote means liking it
mote means liking students
mote means loving teaching
mote means not grumbling
mote means passion for learning
mote means positive vibes
mote means taking pleasure
mote means taking pleasure not
mote means wanting to do it

MOTE MEANS PROFESSIONAL ATTRIBUTE

mote means accepting challenge
mote means acting the part
mote means being committed
mote means being conscientious
mote means dedication
mote means discussing it
mote means extra time with s
mote means giving value
mote means organisation
mote means preparation
mote means preparation not
mote means problem solving
mote means prof commitment
mote means prof development
mote means punctuality
mote means putting in time
mote means willingness to be evaled

MOTE MEANS RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENTS

mote means conveying enthusiasm
mote means culture giving
mote means extra time with s
mote means giving value
mote means interaction w s.
mote means liking students
mote means listening
mote means making class alive
mote means positive vibes
mote means remembering names
mote means sharing
mote means understanding class

MOTE MEANS STUDENTS

mote means active students

GOALS

GOALS GENERAL

goal a feeling it works
goal not
goal personal and students (no examples)
goals adjust
goals conflict
goals imposed
goals limited
goals momentary
goals writing

GOALS LANGUAGE

goal accuracy
goal accuracy not
goal fluency
goal linguistic
goal linguistic not
goal listening improved
goal reading skills
goal speak more

GOALS LANGUAGE USE

goal academic situations
goal authentic English
goal behaviour
goal communication
goal cultural competence
goal express feelings
goal express opinions
goal natural English
goal performance
goal production
goal skills more than
goal task
goal use English

GOALS LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

goal alertness
goal attitude
goal better learning strategies
goal break barriers
goal change perceptions of English
goal dissolve confusion
goal get them interested
goal give opportunity to develop
goal give opportunity to use
goal increase s confidence
goal independent learners
goal motivate students
goal s autonomy
goal s. inspiration
goal students discover potential

GOALS SPECIFIC

goal content
goal content learning
goal creation
goal global view
goal language experience
goal learning
goal s. think about stuff
goal thought processes

GOAL STUDENT LIVES

goal academic situations
goal affect s lives
goal citizens of the world
goal continue Eng. educ.
goal enrich s. lives
goal give opportunity to develop
goal improve society
goal open their minds
goal raise expectations
goal s consider their lives

GOAL STUDENT PERSONALITY

goal happiness
goal individuality
goal pass on passion
goal s. enjoyment

GOAL TEACHER BASED

goal become good teacher
goal feedback
goal personal development
goal reduce time and energy
goal research
goal rewards
goal security

NEEDSNEEDS FOR ENGLISH

need authentic English
need grammar

NEEDS FOR LEARNING

need hard work
need s. autonomy
need self-evaluation
need standards
need student enjoyment
need student interest
need students relaxed
need to be tough
need to practise

NEEDS FROM JOB

need escape
need money
need reason to do it
need suspense
need to take responsibility
need vacations

NEEDS IN PRACTICE

need challenge
need change
need change not
need control
need efficiency
need goals
need justification
need needs analysis
need preparation
need preparation not
need relevant materials
need to be flexible
need to be professional
need to be strict
need to create learning environment
need to encourage s.

NEEDS FROM SELF

need awareness of reality
need courage
need energy
need focus
need knowledge of linguistics
need less personal investment
need level consciousness
need love of language
need mutual respect
need organisation
need personality
need stability
need to enjoy
need to increase interest
need to keep face
need to open up

NEEDS FROM RELATIONSHIP

need connection with students
need good rlnshp w s
need mutual respect
need personal communication
need s-t fit
need to be candid with s
need to know s.
need to meet students
need to negotiate with s
need to understand students

NEEDS FROM STUDENTS

need feedback
need feedback not
need respect fom students
need response

NEEDS FROM TEACHERS

need interaction with teachers
need interaction with teachers not

NEEDS FROM UNIVERSITY

need appreciation not
need autonomy .
need recognition not
need respect
need respect not
need standards from dept
need structure
need to be valued
need to be valued not
need underlying ideology

NEEDS CAREERISH

need direction
need prof development
need stimulation
need to develop practice
need training

MOTIVATED BY:

MOTED BY CLASS ENVIRONMENT

moted by advanced
moted by beginners
moted by change
moted by difficult students
moted by difficulty not
moted by harder work
moted by involvement in class
moted by moving around
moted by performing
moted by pressure
moted by students
moted by surprise
moted by textbook

MOTED BY UNIVERSITY ENVIRONMENT

moted by autonomy
moted by change workplace
moted by duty to universtiy
moted by inst.demands
moted by involvement in system
moted by respect
moted by status
moted by univ. atmosphere

MOTED BY EFFECT OR RESULT

moted by effect on lives
moted by failure
moted by intimacy
moted by lighting fire
moted by response
moted by spark
moted by student progress
moted by students discovering potential
moted by students enjoyment
moted by success

MOTED BY FEEDBACK

moted by feedback
moted by feedback avoidance not

MOTED BY OTHER TEACHERS

moted by comparison with other t.
moted by interaction with t.
moted by interaction with t. not
moted by responsibility to other teachers
moted by team teaching
moted by team teaching not

MOTED BY THE PAST

moted by family
moted by old teachers
moted by training
moted by training not

MOTED BY PERSONAL FACTORS

moted by conscience
moted by enjoyment
moted by feeling a reason to do it
moted by like for students
moted by love of language
moted by love of learning
moted by love of teaching
moted by need to be liked
moted by need to know
moted by pride
moted by spark
moted by understanding students

MOTED BY STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TO TEACHER

moted by being liked
moted by criticism
moted by respect from s.
moted by s sensitivity
moted by students being nice
moted by students choosing you
moted by trust and respect

MOTED BY RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENTS

moted by control over s.
moted by interaction with s
moted by pressure
moted by responsibility to students
moted by student rapport
moted by understanding students

MOTED BY STUDENTS' LEARNING POTENTIAL

moted by co-op classes
moted by s. involvement
moted by smart students
moted by st energy
moted by student motivation

MOTED BY CAREER STUFF

moted by career
moted by research
moted by status
moted by wish to improve practice
moted by writing materials

MOTED BY EXT STIMULATION

moted by home
moted by jalt etc not
moted by new ideas
moted by power and injustice

MOTED BY EXTERNAL

moted by money
moted by money not
moted by travel
moted by vacation

DEMOTIVATED BY:DEMOTED BY ENVIRONMENT CLASS

demoted by beginners
 demoted by change
 demoted by change not
 demoted by lack of change
 demoted by lack of communication
 demoted by lack of response
 demoted by lack of response not

DEMOTED BY ENVIRONMENT JOB

demoted by bureaucracy
 demoted by culture not
 demoted by isolation
 demoted by isolation not
 demoted by job conditions
 demoted by job conditions not
 demoted by lack of app.from admin
 demoted by lack of autonomy
 demoted by lack of co-ordination
 demoted by lack of demand
 demoted by lack of prof. recog.
 demoted by lack of respect
 demoted by lack of stimulation
 demoted by lack of time
 demoted by money
 demoted by no prof sharing
 demoted by no supp from uni
 demoted by poor dept. communication
 demoted by system
 demoted by system not
 demoted by too many classes

DEMOTED BY FAILURE

demoted by being late
 demoted by breaking schedule
 demoted by failing
 demoted by failing not
 demoted by lack of confidence
 demoted by letting them down
 demoted by students disappointed
 demoted by students hating you

DEMOTED BY JOB DEMANDS

demoted by being in front
 demoted by disciplining
 demoted by need to manage
 demoted by performing
 demoted by using text book

DEMOTED BY STUDENTS

demoted by cynicism
 demoted by rich students
 demoted by s nonmote
 demoted by s nonmote not
 demoted by sexism
 demoted by students
 demoted by students disappointed
 demoted by students hating you

REWARDS

accomplishment
 effect on lives
 feedback
 good time
 unexpected
 interaction with s
 satisfaction
 learning
 moments
 progress
 raised s. ambitions
 reln with s
 response
 s. involvement
 s. using language

satisfaction
 self-satisfaction
 student motivation
 student progress
 students discovering potential
 students enjoyment
 students expressing themselves
 success
 this univ
 univ. appreciation
 from classroom situation
 from students

MOTIVATED TO:

MOTED For the Sake of PROFESSION

moted to become good teacher
moted to become good teacher not
moted to create
moted to do what you like
moted to express oneself
moted to gain confidence
moted to improve curriculum
moted to improve methods
moted to required standards only
moted to write materials

MOTED For the Sake of SELF

moted to avoid boredom
moted to earn respect
moted to feel good
moted to feeling good not
moted to improve status
moted to increase t. enjoyment
moted to keep t. interest not
moted to learn
moted to transfer a content passion
moted to transmit love of language

MOTED For the Sake of STUDENTS' CHARACTER

moted to change students
moted to dev own way of thinking
moted to foster individuality
moted to give sense of values
moted to make them think

MOTED For the Sake of STUDENT LEARNING

moted to change study skills
moted to develop attitude
moted to have them understand
moted to increase confidence
moted to increase s. autonomy
moted to increase s. involvement
moted to make them think

MOTED TOWARDS RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENTS

moted to close distance w.s.
moted to get along with s
moted to know s as individuals
moted to understand class

MOTED TOWARDS STUDENT'S MOTIVATION

moted to change motivation
moted to energize
moted to inspire
moted to interest them
moted to keep awake
moted to light fire
moted to maintain interest
moted to motivate
moted to motivate not

MOTED TOWARDS STUDENTS IN GENERAL

moted not to waste their time
moted to challenge them
moted to give opportunity
moted to give value for money
moted to increase s.satisfaction
moted to transfer a content passion
moted to transmit love of language

MOTED TOWARDS STUDENTS' LIVES

moted to broaden their world
moted to change society
moted to change society not
moted to make educ meaningful

MOTED TOWARDS TEACHING

moted to assess needs
moted to create learning environment
moted to explain language
moted to facilitate
moted to find goals
moted to hit moving targets
moted to improve atmosphere
moted to improve learning environment
moted to make language attractive
moted to provide opportunities
moted to teach communication
moted to transmit love of language

Appendix 11: A HyperRESEARCH Report

Theme: MOTIVATED TOWARDS STUDENT'S MOTIVATION

Codes:

moted to change motivation
 moted to energize
 moted to inspire
 moted to interest them
 moted to keep awake
 moted to light fire
 moted to maintain interest
 moted to motivate
 moted to motivate not

moted to change motivation, 3869,4373, Linda-

So my parents are both teachers, my teachers were really good, my experiences in Japan and then when I came back to Germany, you know, something that foreign language is something you...need, you use, that you have to know, otherwise you're totally lost. This is my experience. And maybe some of my motivation comes from this part. I would like to transmit this to the students, to let them know that they learn a language to use this language, not just to get some credits. So that is this part, and ...

moted to energize, 25311,26527, Eleanor

ELEANOR: Well, I find that my students have motivational problems, because they've been in a system where they're told to show up on time and jump through this hoop and do this and pass the test and you're done. So it's very hard to activate your real energies, which is what is needed for them to really learn how to communicate. They have to ... one of them referred to it as opening the gate. It was a very interesting discussion about when we communicate and when we don't, and the student said that it was the job of the teachers to open the gate. And we had a very interesting discussion that day. But if I am in this hypothetical situation, where I am dealing with motivational problems, part of what I do in all of my classes, whether it's a writing or whatever the class is, I do some initial ... err ... actor training energy exercises, so that they can understand that they are not just the vessel waiting to be filled, and we deal with that in every class in the introduction of all of my classes, regardless of what the specific skill is or what the level of the students are, we do some energy exchange exercises and I make it very clear to them that I will let them know if they are just sitting there.

moted to inspire, 25430,26296, Focus 2,

BRIAN: Oh yes, yes. For me a good student is one that can teach me something. But as for inspiration, I mean if they're inspired to do something beyond what we've done in class, like they sign up for the ryugaku or do something extra, then that's really a good thing. TOM: There's a word I left out I should have put down here. I think for a good teacher, inspiration should be a big part of it. That's kind of like the top level. CHRIS: Yes. TOM: If you can help them to learn and satisfy, fine, but when you inspire, then you've kind of reached the next level, then they don't need you. (laughter) TOM: Doing it on their own. BRIAN: Basically you should be working to do yourself out of a job. TOM: I mean I put down things like "likes to help the students to learn," and "meet their needs," but "inspires them," yes, I think is really...I left that out.

moted to inspire, 43167,43852, Focus 2,

BRIAN: Part of the inspirational thing is leaving the teacher a free hand. You've got to cut the cloth to suit the customer.

TIM: WHAT DO YOU MEAN? BRIAN: Well, what you see works with a particular group of people. Every class is a different animal. To hell with levels. I mean, you might have a group of people who just don't get on altogether, and it doesn't matter what level they are, they're harder to teach. You get a group that just fit nicely together and then you got a nice atmosphere. They may be basics, but you can do things. I treat each class as a different personality, and there is no way of figuring everything out before you step in the classroom, that's for sure.

moted to inspire, 29800,29913, Brian:

TIM: WHAT DIRECTION DID YOU HAVE BEFORE? BRIAN: Oh, the same. To motivate students, and inspire them if I could.

moted to inspire, 43318,43935, Don,

I think that it's great that I can come into the classroom and say this is my experience and this is what I bring with me, that English can be useful, and that for the students English can be used ... the world's opening up to them and this is where university students are at the peak of their life in terms of what areas can they go and do and pursue, and a lot of

them are kind of like, oh, I'm only Japanese, I can't do it, but it's like you can break through that, if you know English, boy, the world is opening up to you, not just where you graduate from, but you're at a good school as well, so that's a double.

moted to inspire, 1722,2527, Jill,

But I tend to like the trouble-makers, because it's like sort of a taming ... a sort of a challenge to the taming, if you like, of trying to get them to enjoy their English. And I've found out this semester only, through his work, that his father has died very recently and that the family's having a very hard time, so when he chooses to tell me things about this, I write, in reply, encouraging comments on his work. So increasingly, without having a direct conversation about it, he is warming to his English and is really inspired. It's absolutely amazing how much difference it's made to him. And, as I said, there's never been a face-to-face conversation about it, but through the writing class he knows I know and he knows that there's a certain amount of solidarity there, so he ... feels inspired.

moted to inspire, 11542,11974, Jill

JILL: Well, I think if you are bored with the materials because you know them so well and you've got so much out of them over numbers of years, you run the risk of projecting that boredom onto your students. And I think that to inspire students, particularly Japanese students, who, as we all know, have to be considerably inspired to contribute at all, I think you really have to be terribly enthusiastic about what you're teaching.

moted to inspire, 12276,12563, Jill

TIM: BUT HOW WOULD YOU DEFINE A CLASS NOT GOING WELL? I KNOW YOU SAY IT'S INTUITION, BUT IS IT POSSIBLE TO THINK OF IT IN WORDS AT ALL? JILL: Err ... it's something about the mood of the class really. It's the inspiration of the students that really comes in connection with the teacher.

moted to interest them, 3285,4182, Fiona,

FIONA: Well, it's like a challenge, you know, just to try to awaken their participate (sic), like usually they're not great participators, they won't volunteer answers, and even when you call on them it takes them a long time to put an answer together, and they think they need to have a little discussion with their neighbour and stuff. And I keep saying you answer on your own. So if they answer well, I try to affirm that, if they don't answer well I just say thank you, and then when I'm walking around the classroom I try to speak to that student personally and if they look tired or something I might say are you doing part-time work at night, is that why you're so tired? Especially if it's first period. Or you're coming in late or you don't seem to be involved with the group and the group activity.

TIM: SO YOU HAVE A MOTIVATION TO INTEREST THEM, THAT'S WHAT YOU WANT TO DO? FIONA: Yes.

moted to interest them, 20261,20923, Fiona

But for a textbook I try to find topic-focused texts that have enough material for the year and maybe just less than a year, because if the group is able to do extra things then there's time, and I usually want to do extra things with them.

TIM: DO YOU EVER LOOK AT IT IN TERMS OF YOUR OWN INTEREST, TRYING TO REDUCE YOUR OWN BOREDOM? FIONA: Well, yes, I've done that. Oh, yes. If there are topics there that I find interesting and topics that I consider would be of interest to the students in that particular block, then I would go for that one. The other thing I look for is difficulty, enough to challenge but not so difficult that they can't say anything.

moted to interest them, 1429,2325, Sayuri,

TIM: YOU MENTIONED 'ALIVE'. WHAT YOU MEAN BY THIS? SAYURI: Well, so the students are not sleeping. Even if they open their eyes, if their mind is not there in the classroom I'm not teaching them. So they have to be there. Bodily and mentally. So if both are there, that means they are alive. Awake.

TIM: DO YOU THINK THIS IS WHAT YOU'RE MOTIVATED TOWARDS? KEEPING THEM ALIVE? SAYURI: Yes.

TIM: IS THAT AN END IN ITSELF? IS IT YOUR MAIN AIM - TO KEEP THEM ALIVE, TO KEEP THEM INTERESTED? OR IS IT JUST A NECESSITY? SAYURI: Both, I guess. Whatever you want to teach, you as a person meet them as a student. Unless they are interested in me, unless they are interested in being there I believe nothing will be learned. Oh, they can pass the class, maybe, if they study, but that doesn't mean that they get something from me, or from the class. That's therefore an aim, but it's a necessity, too.

moted to keep them awake, 38060,38838, Molly,

TIM: SO THESE PEOPLE ARE NOT NECESSARILY THERE BECAUSE THEY LIKE ENGLISH. MOLLY: No, not at all. But either I would just have fun with them and take games and sing songs and blah, blah, blah, just have fun with them, do whatever I could to keep them awake. Yes, and there were still a lot that didn't give a flying ... you know.

TIM: SO WHAT WAS YOUR GOAL THERE THEN? WAS YOUR MOTIVATION STILL SIMILAR TO WHAT IT IS HERE? MOLLY: Err ... for the first year or two, I probably tried harder to make them like English, to motivate them as it were. Err ... but