

**Language teacher motivation:  
A study of teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) in New  
Zealand language schools**

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## List of abbreviations

AUTEC	Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee
CertTESOL	Trinity College Certificate in TESOL
CELTA	Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
ESL	English as a second language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
GTCfE	General Teaching Council for England
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L2	Second language
L2 student	Students learning a second language
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TESOLANZ	the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOLANZ is the New Zealand national association of teachers and tutors of ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) at all levels of education from pre-school to tertiary

### **Attestation of authorship**

I hereby declare that this thesis submitted for the Master degree is the result of my own study, except for where due acknowledgment is made. To the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the qualification of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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## **Abstract**

Research on the motivation of teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) has been scarce and fragmented. This study aims to bridge the gap in the research by investigating the motivation of ESL teachers employed in private English language schools and other state tertiary institutions in New Zealand. The rationale for the study comes from a need to understand, first, the key motivational factors involved, and second, what measures can be adopted by both teachers themselves and by the institutions they work for to sustain and nurture teacher motivation, ultimately in order to facilitate positive outcomes for students. The underlying theoretical assumption of the study was that motivation could be investigated by employing self-determination theory, which draws primarily on an intrinsic/extrinsic distinction (Dörnyei, 2001). Accordingly, the study was guided by three research questions which aimed to: 1) identify factors affecting teachers' motivation; 2) examine teachers' degree of motivation; and 3) elicit from teachers any measures that might sustain or nurture their motivation. To answer these research questions the study employed a mixed-method approach. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through the implementation of 72 questionnaires, with seven respondents agreeing to keep a journal. Three semi-structured interviews were also conducted with the journal keepers. The findings of the study provide some insights into what factors are important in affecting ESL teachers' motivation and what measures are likely to sustain or nurture their motivation. The study found that intrinsic factors were more important than extrinsic factors in affecting teaching motivation. Intrinsic aspects of work, including helping students to learn English, involvement in professional training and personal enjoyment were key factors. However extrinsic factors such as management policy and work autonomy also played significant roles. Though the degree of teacher motivation could not be ascertained by the present study, it was found that teachers were dissatisfied with lack of work autonomy and job security. Regarding measures to sustain or nurture motivation, teachers asked for more professional training and personal challenges in their work, less administrative work, more involvement in management policy and more respect from management. The implications of the study offer suggestions for ESL teachers and for the management of language schools on how to create a better working environment for facilitating positive student outcomes. It is hoped the study also stimulates further research on ESL teachers' motivation, in a range of contexts, the sum of which will be of benefit to students, teachers, stakeholders and the whole community.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the study

The study in this thesis examines the motivation of language teachers teaching English as a second language (ESL) in New Zealand Aotearoa. In this study, teacher motivation is concerned with “the nature of the teacher’s own enthusiasm and commitment” (Dörnyei, 2003a, p. 3), and is influenced by the work community which includes students, colleagues and managerial staff (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This focus on teacher motivation is set against a backdrop of English language provision in New Zealand, for both international students and recent immigrants and refugees. While some research has investigated English language schools and their management (Holmes 2005; Li, 2003; Walker, 2001, 2007; Ward & Masgoret, 2004) and a growing body of literature exists on the provision of English language in both export education (Barkhuizen & Cooper, 2004, Block, 2008; Butcher, 2004; Butcher & McGrath 2004; Collins, 2006; Hayes & Read, 2004; Read & Hayes, 2003; Sherry, Bhat, Beaver, & Ling, 2004, Tarling, 2004; Ward & Masgoret, 2004) and ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) for new settlers (Chandler et al., 2008; Cooke, 2001; Lewis, 2004; Mathews, 2006; Roach & Roskvist 2007; Watts & White, 2004; White, Watts, & Trlin, 2002), few studies have focused on ESL teachers.

#### 1.1.1 International students

According to the Education Act 1989, international students are defined for fee purposes, that is, they pay “foreign fees” (Ministry of Education, 2007). Numbers of international students coming to New Zealand have fluctuated due to factors such as perceived value for money; however, when the study was planned in 2008 there were about 94,040 international full fee-paying students in New Zealand studying in primary schools, secondary schools, universities and language schools (Immigration New Zealand Statistics, 2009). Out of the above four education providers, the present study is focused only on language schools where students learn English as their

second language (L2). However, it is recognized that many learners are already bilingual and are learning English as a third or even fourth language.

Statistics New Zealand (2008) figures show that international students spent a total of 1.5 billion New Zealand dollars in 2008. Yet, Education New Zealand chief executive Robert Stevens was quoted in the media as estimating that income to be as high as \$2.3 billion (Stevens, 2008). On the whole, the earnings from export education are the third largest and produce 7% of all export income (Tang, 2009). This revenue is next only to tourism and the export of dairy products (Statistics New Zealand, 2008). As for tuition fees, a breakdown in statistics indicated that this amounted to \$121 million in 2008, an increase of \$4 million from the previous year (ibid). As well as this, it has been suggested in the media that the industry created 32,000 jobs (Parker, 2009).

Apart from the monetary benefit, these international students bring other intangible contributions: social and cultural input to New Zealand; a future workforce if they remain after their study; and they will be a link between New Zealand and the outside world if they return to their home countries (Ministry of Education, 2007).

International students might be further categorised into students who intend to return to their home countries after graduation, or to apply for New Zealand residency after graduation (Butcher, 2004). Statistics showed that during the period from 2002 to 2003, 65% of the 16,018 principal applicants in residency had a student, work or visa permit at some time in 1997, of which 4% held a student permit (ibid). These statistics were not surprising as research had suggested that “gaining New Zealand residency” being one of the major reasons for international students coming to New Zealand (Butcher, 2008). However, as the vast majority returned or migrated to other countries after graduation, other factors such as costs, proximity, and especially the quality of export education played important roles too (Parker, 2009; McKay, 2009).

### **1.1.2 L2 provision for new settlers**

In New Zealand L2 students are not necessarily international students. In the 2006 census, 88,000 New Zealanders with Permanent Residency or New Zealand passports could not converse well in English (Roach & Roskvist, 2007). The Adult ESOL

Strategy (Ministry of Education, 2003) also estimated that in 2003 about 200,000 adults had limited English conversation skills, among them, 50,000 did not speak English.

The need for L2 learning for new settlers dated back to the nineteen seventies when Vietnamese refugees and economic immigrants from the Pacific Islands, many with no or limited ability in English language, started arriving in New Zealand (Lewis, 2004). During the past 30 years, more than 19,000 refugees have settled in New Zealand as permanent residents through the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (Roach & Roskvist, 2007). In addition to the continued arrival of refugees, changes in New Zealand immigration policy, first in 1986 and subsequently in 1991 with the removal of the traditional source country preference and adoption of a points-based system, resulted in an influx of new migrants, many of whom required English language tuition after arrival. Roach and Roskvist (2007) note that although there was a lack of government commitment towards adult ESOL provision for new settlers with L2 needs, resulting in negative settlement outcomes for a significant number, recent policy initiatives such as the Adult ESOL Strategy (Ministry of Education, 2003) has resulted in more targeted provision. The development of national and regional settlement strategies (Immigration New Zealand, 2007 & 2008) also recognised the relationship between English language provision and successful settlement outcomes. In general, however, adult immigrants with L2 needs have had to pay ‘market rates’ for tuition, particularly for professional or semi-professional immigrants who wish to improve their English in order to enrol in foundation learning programmes which open a pathway into higher education.

## **1.2 English language teaching in New Zealand**

Against this backdrop of increasing globalisation and immigration (Block 2008; Tarling 2004), international and local L2 learners mainly attend three types of English language teaching institutions: private language schools, language schools operated by state tertiary institutions (universities, polytechnics and Maori tertiary education institutes) and community providers. Community providers mainly teach English for resettlement purposes (Roach & Roskvist, 2007). The present study is not concerned

with teachers and/or volunteers in community-based provision such as that offered by Adult Community Education or by Language Partners New Zealand (formerly ESOL: Home Tutors). English language schools operated by private entities and state tertiary institutions provide English language education to both fee paying international students on student visas and permanent resident new settlers (Lewis, 2005; Roach & Roskvist 2007). It is these two latter educational contexts which provide the focus of this study.

As shown by the Ministry of Education's list of approved signatories to the Code of Practice for Pastoral Care of International Students in 2003, there were 139 registered language schools in New Zealand (Ward & Masgoret, 2004). The number of operating language schools in 2008 fell to about 121, inclusive of 37 schools with nil students (Statistics New Zealand, 2008).

### **1.2.1 Language schools**

Language schools in New Zealand play a very important role in L2 teaching, both for international students to further their education and local residents who have English as L2.

In 2008, 70% of international students in New Zealand came from countries in which English is the second or foreign language (Statistics New Zealand, 2008).

International students without the required English level have to study English to pass required standards either in their home countries or here in New Zealand before gaining entry to any New Zealand tertiary institution (Ho, Li, Cooper, & Holmes, 2007). For example, according to the Auckland University of Technology Calendar, admission to an undergraduate degree course requires an applicant to have an International English Language Test System (IELTS) score of 6.0 with no band less than 5.5; or a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) score of 550 with a minimum of 4.0 in the Test of Written English (TWE) (AUT, 2009). While a proportion of international students meet IELTS requirements, particularly at the post graduate level, in response to such gate-keeping at entry level, most language schools provide English courses to help students prepare for IELTS examination.

Consequently, it is estimated in a newspaper report that 54% of all New Zealand

international students have attended English language courses before pursuing further study (Parker, 2009).

Figures also support the importance of language schools to the education export industry. Out of the 94,040 international students studying in New Zealand in 2008, more than 40%, or 39,668 students were studying in language schools (Statistics New Zealand, 2008). Furthermore, 20,000 jobs out of the 32,000 jobs related to the provision of English language instruction are said to be provided by language schools (Ward & Masgoret, 2004).

In addition to language schools catering primarily for international students, there are also providers who cater for permanent residents and New Zealand citizens with English language needs, some specialising in basic L2 education, some involved with more advanced study, and some providers offering a combination of programmes. In 2001, it was estimated that about 13,000 New Zealander L2 learners learnt English in both formal and informal classes (Ministry of Education, 2003). Given continued immigration and refugee resettlement from non-English speaking countries, this number has undoubtedly grown in the past decade. Such courses are mostly run by community-based agencies in schools and community halls, providing free (or highly subsidised) one-to-one tuition by trained volunteers (Roach & Roskvist, 2007). Such volunteer tutors are not a focus of this study. However, this study of teacher motivation does include teachers employed in private language schools and/or state tertiary institutions, some of which offer both government-funded and user-pays English language programmes for New Zealand permanent residents and citizens.

### **1.2.2 Professionalisation of L2 teaching in New Zealand**

With rapid increase in L2 students in New Zealand over the past three decades, there has been concern about the lack of qualified teachers, notably in the private sector which is primarily concerned with teaching English to international students on study visas preparing for acceptance into mainstream tertiary study, or on short term holiday visas (Ministry of Education, 2003). The situation in polytechnics and universities is, however, rather different; as can be expected in a tertiary education environment there

is an increasing need for diploma or post graduate qualifications for entry level employment (Lewis, 2004)

In regard to private English language schools however complaints about the service have made the headlines in the media over the last few years with some language schools being called “cowboys” that should be “cleansed” (Parker, 2009). Some government officials have also voiced their concerns over their quality. One of the major concerns is language teachers’ competence (Education NZ, 2003 as cited in Li, 2003; Mallard, 2005).

Some empirical research also supports this position. Li’s (2003) survey of 40 Asian international students in two New Zealand private language schools found that student expectations of a quality academic service were not met. In other words, students were not pleased with the quality of language teaching. In Li’s study language teachers were perceived as money-makers, rather than professionals, who were battling for wages and jobs and rarely had permanent tenure; furthermore, with 25 classroom work-hours a week they had no time to either prepare lessons or deliver quality teaching. The study listed one major reason for this state of affairs: the standard for a qualified language teacher is very relaxed. In the limited context of two private language schools, Li (2003) argued that becoming a language teacher is one of the easiest teaching qualifications to obtain in New Zealand as TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language) qualifications are open to people who “have little or no experience of teaching English as a second language [and] the training programmes are very short (about 4 or 5 weeks)” (ibid, p. 14).

Li (2003) is correct in arguing that entry-level L2 teacher training programmes are of short duration. The two main entry-level TESOL qualifications worldwide and arguably also in New Zealand the Trinity College Certificate in TESOL (CertTESOL) and the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) (Leung, 2009) – are one month intensive programmes focusing mainly on classroom management and basic methodological skills, although on occasions they are delivered part-time over a longer duration, as is, for example, the 12- week Certificate in Teaching English to Adults (CLTA) offered at the Auckland University of Technology . However, there is a growing recognition that such qualifications are

simply entry-points into English language teaching. According to Barduhn and Johnson (2009), the regulatory body of CELTA, the University of Cambridge, acknowledges that this certificate is only an initial step in professional development. There is, among other things, the need for personal motivation “for acquiring qualifications beyond the minimum” (ibid, p. 63).

In addition, Li (2003) noted there was a report which indicated that some private language schools had not employed English language teachers with the minimum entry-level TESOL requirement – qualification of TESOL or CELTA. English language providers need only a standard commercial registration to operate. Unless it involves the issuance of a New Zealand national certificate or diploma, an English language school need not gain accreditation with the governmental New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) (NZQA n.d.). NZQA oversees the quality of education providers which includes accreditation to English language institutions which have reached a certain standard (ibid). These institutions may be either private language schools or state tertiary institutions. State tertiary institutions are already accredited. For private English language schools, however, members of two professional associations, the Federation of Independent English Language Schools of New Zealand and the Combined Registered English Language Schools of New Zealand, are charged with upholding quality standards (English Forum, n.d.).

As discussed previously, international students spent a total of 1.5 billion dollars each year. Statistics estimate that 40% of these international students are studying English as a second language in private and state tertiary language schools (Statistics New Zealand, 2008). Statistics New Zealand also showed that there had been a drop in L2 students attending language schools by more than 40% in the five years since 2003, that is, a decrease of 30,000 students from 2003 to 2008. Possible reasons that have been put forward to explain this downturn are: an unfavourable exchange rate and the high costs of studying in New Zealand (Parker, 2009); competition from Australia (McKay, 2009); or issues with the quality of teaching. In 2005, the then Minister of Education, Trevor Mallard, emphasized the importance of export education. He planned to implement policies, with a view to improving the skill of our language teachers and “enhancing quality to strengthen New Zealand’s reputation as a high quality provider of education services” (Mallard, 2005, p.2).



However, the present study will not cover the debate over English language teaching standards as suggested by Li (2003) and Mallard (2005). The discussion in this section aims to point out the importance and the need to examine ESL teacher motivation in this specific context.

### **1.3 Aims of study**

Against the backdrop of English language provision in New Zealand, this study aims to investigate the uncharted area of ESL teacher motivation in New Zealand language institutions, in particular, teachers employed in the two types of language schools: private sector institutions and state funded tertiary intuitions. The study is not concerned with teachers and/or volunteers employed in community-based provision, such as New Zealand Language Partners (previously ESOL Home Tutors).

According to Dörnyei (2001), research on teacher motivation has focused on general teacher motivation only and not specifically on language teacher motivation: “the literature on the motivation of language teachers is even more scarce than on teacher motivation in general” (p.170). He further added that what research has been done on ESL teacher motivation has been “largely fragmented”, “meagre” and “uncharted” (Dörnyei, 2003a, p.26).

In the New Zealand context, while an increasing body of literature about adult ESOL provision in New Zealand exists few studies have investigated teachers’ perspectives. Although there has been a limited amount of research on New Zealand language schools and their management (for example Holmes, 2005; Li, 2003; Walker, 2001 & 2007; Ward and Masgoret, 2004), a search of the literature indicates a paucity of research on the perspectives of ESL teachers, and in particular on their motivations. The current study attempts to address this gap in the literature. Given the aims of the study, and the importance of English language provision in New Zealand, the research is guided by the three research questions:

1. What are the factors/reasons which affect ESL teacher motivation/de-motivation?

2. What is the current degree of motivation/de-motivation among ESL teachers?
3. What can be done to sustain or nurture the motivation of ESL teachers?

The study draws on a mixed quantitative and qualitative research method.

Questionnaires were sent to ESL teachers in English language teaching institutions throughout New Zealand. 72 participants returned the questionnaires, with seven teachers agreeing to keep a journal. Three of these seven journal keepers were subsequently interviewed.

The study has a number of implications. First, given that English language education will almost certainly continue to be an important export earner in New Zealand, and that in regard to the resettlement of immigrants and refugees “the need of adult ESOL provision is likely to be ongoing” (Roach & Roskvist, 2007, p. 56), the findings may offer insights for ESL teacher training and development in the New Zealand context. Second, findings may offer management and/or employers insights into what motivates and/or de-motivates ESL teachers, thus providing for a better management system and ultimately offering the potential for better student outcomes. Finally, it adds to the studies about ESL teacher motivation.

#### **1.4 Organization of the study**

This thesis consists of five chapters. Following the current Introduction, Chapter 2 provides a theoretical and empirical framework for the study by reviewing the literature on motivation. It commences with a review of general motivation theories, proceeding to examine research on motivation in education with a particular focus on the key area that informs this study – ESL teacher motivation.

Chapter 3 explains the methodology and methods that have been used for conducting the research and for analysing the data. The chapter outlines the reasons for adopting a mixed-method approach, namely, to enrich the data and to address any probable inadequacies arising from a single method. It describes the three instruments used for data collection (questionnaires, journals and interviews) and outlines how the data was analysed.

Chapter 4 presents the key findings of the study based on both quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the key findings in relation to the literature, draws conclusions from those findings and indicates some of the implications of the findings. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are also identified.

## **Chapter 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Overview**

The previous Introduction chapter has outlined the background of the study and has situated the research in the area of teacher motivation. Chapter 2 subsequently reviews the research on motivation as a means of providing a theoretical framework for the study. In particular, the chapter discusses previous educational research on motivation, especially ESL teacher motivation. The discussion will highlight the need for a better understanding of ESL teacher motivation, especially in the New Zealand context.

To provide a clear picture for discussion of teacher motivation, the chapter commences by discussing the theoretical framework of this study. The discussion then proceeds to the literature on motivation in general, then expands the discussion to motivation in work context, followed by motivation research in education, namely L2 learner motivation and general teacher motivation. With this backdrop, there will be a detailed examination of teacher motivation and related studies. In doing so, the discussion will identify the factors influencing motivation.

As a rationale for the study, the chapter then goes on to identify a gap in the literature on research on ESL teacher motivation, particularly in the New Zealand context. Finally, by way of summary, the chapter identifies the motivational factors which informed the research instruments used in the present study.

#### **2.2 Theoretical framework**

As it is the case in most studies of ESL teacher motivation, the current study is underpinned by self-determination theory (for example, Ryan & Deci, 2000), particularly the categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which characterizes

self-determination theory (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005). A brief discussion of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation illustrates the theoretical basis for the current study.

Ryan and Deci (2000) define the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic in the following terms:

“[intrinsic motivation refers to]...doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation...refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (p. 55).

In other words, intrinsic motivation is related to internal feelings, while extrinsic motivation is externally prompted by instrumental values such as avoiding sanctions and acquiring future valuable returns. Based on this, Ryan and Deci study the interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with a focus primarily on any psychological *factors* that motivate. These *factors* include feelings of competence (such as positive feedback), autonomy and engagement in interesting activities. According to their *Organismic Integration Theory*, the enhancement of these *factors* promotes integration and internalization which allows a person to shift from being extrinsically motivated to becoming intrinsically motivated. Elaborating on Ryan and Deci's interpretation, Dörnyei (2001), in the context of ESL teacher motivation, describes the rationale of intrinsic motivation as a desire to impart knowledge to students and extrinsic motivation as being affected by external influences from schools or the wider social context.

Consequently, within the theoretical framework discussed above, factors explored under intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, underpinned by self-determination theory, may facilitate an understanding of: a) the significant factors affecting ESL teacher motivation in the New Zealand context; b) their degrees of motivation; and c) any appropriate measures to sustain or improve teacher motivation. With this backdrop, a review of motivation is conducted first from general then to the specific of ESL teacher motivation.

## **2.3 Motivation**

Kassabgy, Boraie and Schmidt (2001) commented that we know very little about ESL teacher motivation. Dörnyei (2003a, 2005) further points out that research on ESL teaching motivation has been “uncharted”, and there has not been any compilation of a list of key motivating factors. The situation seems to have not changed much since then.

However, in order to examine and establish the theoretical framework for the study of ESL teacher motivation, first, the general concept of motivation has to be looked at. However, definition of motivation is complex or incomplete (Chambers, 1999; Convington, 1992). Vroom (1995) defines motivation as “asserted to be the explanation of choice or direction” (p. 31); Spector (2008) describes motivation as an internal process that leads a person to pursue particular behaviours; and Dörnyei (2001) characterizes it as “the direction and magnitude of human behaviour” (p. 8). In other words, it might be generalized that motivation affects people’s choice, persistence and effort spent.

The study of motivation has evolved from focusing on examining the thinking process of an individual, to the understanding of influences from external (social) variables on that person (Higgins & Kruglanski, 2000; Stipek, 2002). The latter is known as social cognitive theory by which the present study is informed.

### **2.3.1 General motivation**

Early social cognitive theory believes that individuals will conduct cognitive processes before yielding to environmental (societal) pressures (influences) (Stipek, 2002). This cognitive process is originated from “needs, equity or expectancies concentrated on a process-oriented analysis of the factors influencing the relationship between human action and environmental outcomes” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 127). Early theories also attempt to explain an *individual’s* thinking and processing of information from society (Porter, Bigley & Steers, 2003).

The study of motivation on an individual basis evolved from the early need theory by Henry Murray in 1938 and Abraham Maslow in 1954 (Dörnyei, 1998; Pennington, 1995; Sanchez-Runde & Steers, 2003). A very brief summary of need theory is that: Individuals are driven to action by basic biological instincts (Higgins & Kruglanski, 2000). Later, need achievement theory (by John Atkinson and David McClelland) takes into account the individual's striving for success and fear of failure (Covington, 1992). Since the eighties, attribution theory (by Bernard Weiner and others) argues that past experience affects motivation (Covington, 1992; Dörnyei, 2001; Higgins & Kruglanski, 2000). Then, goal and goal setting theories sum up motivation as an activity that is goal-oriented (Dörnyei, 1998; Dweck, 1986; Porter et al., 2003). However, any goal setting is affected by the self. Self-efficacy theory argues that the belief in one's efficacy will have an influence on the levels of goal-setting, commitment, effort and strategies, hence, the levels of motivation (Bandura, 1997).

Moreover, there have been suggestions that the major distinction between the abovementioned prominent theories is basically about *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motives (Vallerand, 1997 as cited in Dörnyei, 2001). This field of research was summed up by Deci and Ryan as early as 1985 to become self-determination theory. It is claimed that this self-determination theory has been the most influential and studied theory of motivation (Winn, Harley, Wilcox & Pemberton, 2006). The theory states that extrinsic motivation (from outside settings) can become self-determined (intrinsic) if there are experiences of: autonomy (feeling of own control), competence (feeling of self-efficacy) and relatedness (feeling connected to the outside settings) (Deci & Ryan, 1985 as cited in Dörnyei, 2001). It has since been elaborated on and now intrinsic is defined as the gain of something within any activity, for example, own interests or enjoyment; while extrinsic is rewarded with something outside the self, like passing an examination or monetary return (Williams & Burden, 1997). However, Williams and Burden agree that both may play a role at the same time. Though it has been suggested that social coercion (extrinsic) may be detrimental to motivation (Heckhausen & Dweck, 1998), Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that extrinsic factors such as social expectation or coercion can be beneficial, internalized and integrated into the sense of "*self*" if there is a material gain.

More recently, this concept of “self” has been used by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009b) to re-conceptualize motivation through the study of L2 learning motivation. They theorize that an individual has imagery of a current self and a possible self. The future possible self comprises an ideal self and an ought to be self. Hence, “ideal and ought to self will serve as a powerful motivator to ...reduce the discrepancy between our current and possible future selves” (ibid, p.4). Ushioda (2009) further argues that “we need to understand L2 learners as people, and as people who are necessarily located in particular cultural and historical contexts” (p. 216). Nevertheless, most research tends to depersonalise and focuses on cause-effect rather than person-in-context leading to ignoring “the person’s motivational response to particular events and experiences in their life” (ibid, p.219. ). Thus, Ushioda urges that each individual should be regarded as a real person who has identity, personality and is unique with self and identity. This recent concept of self has been applied to explain ESL teacher motivation and it is supported by research conducted by, for example, Kubanyiova (2009); and White and Ding (2009) and this will be discussed in the section of ESL teacher motivation.

There has also been argument as to whether motivation is static, dynamic, internal or external, and conscious or unconscious (Dörnyei, 1999). However, this study will not look into these arguments. Moreover, variables (factors) affecting motivation “were left relatively unarticulated” (Higgins & Kruglanski, 2000, p. 1). Unavoidably, the concepts, definitions or the ways of gauging motivation are described as fragmented or confused (Dörnyei, 1998; Mitchell & Daniels, 2003; Nakanishi, 2002; Williams & Burden, 1997).

To briefly sum up the above discussion, motivation theories seemingly draw on either self (internal) or societal influence (external), or the interaction between them. Consequently, motivation can possibly be narrowed down to be described as: (a) the choice; (b) the persistence; and (c) the effort expended. Choice is propelled by the individual’s “want” of desired states and “avoidance” of undesired states, and the pursuance of becoming the future possible self from the current self. Furthermore, some significant constructs of motivation stemming from self might possibly be identified as:



- Psychological (intrinsic ) needs: such as autonomy, self-beliefs and intangible satisfaction
- Physical (extrinsic) needs: such as personal needs, rewards and tangible satisfaction

The above discussion aims to provide us with a framework for the present study of ESL teacher motivation, and in particular for the constructs of intrinsic and extrinsic factors as summed up by self-determination theory. Over the years, drawing on the general motivation theories, different disciplines expand their studies on motivation with specific regard to their own characteristics. Thus, the following will discuss theories and studies on work motivation (briefly) and in particular examine education motivation.

### **2.3.2 Work motivation**

Work motivation involves the effects of the working environment or society, and takes into effect possible personal gain or development (Murtonen, Olkinuora, Palonen, Hakkarainen, & Lehtinen, 2008). However, like general motivation, “there is no single, accepted theory of work motivation” (ibid, p.45). Nevertheless, researchers have put forward certain specific concepts about work motivation. One of the early explanations is that work motivation comes from the very basic idea of “scientific management” – reward for good work and punishment for bad (Taylor 1911, as cited in Katzell & Thompson, 1990). For the convenience of analysis, some researchers categorize these numerous work theories as either “internal influence” or “external influence” (Mitchell, 2003 as cited in Porter et al., 2003), hence, the application of intrinsic and extrinsic motives.

Regarding the process of achieving work motivation, Locke and Latham’s goal-setting theory is probably “the single most dominant theory in the field” (Mitchell & Daniels, 2003, p. 29). The main constructs of this theory are that: work having higher level of difficulty, more feedback to employees’ performance and more employees’ participation in the goal setting will bring better achievement and commitment (Locke, 2003). Other theories such as reinforcement theory put more emphasis on environmental influences than internally generated motives (Spector,

2008). In other words, external influences have a more direct and causal effect (Stipek, 2002). Therefore, external factors such as rewards or returns will likely improve work behaviour. Accordingly, a lack of reward will be de-motivating.

Without doubt, Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) has been widely applied to explain work motivation (Porter et al., 2003). For example, people are motivated to work by intrinsic motivation – the satisfaction of competency, autonomy and needs of relatedness (ibid), and the seeking of challenge and novelty (Stipek, 2002). To summarize, work motivation is possibly constructed by the following factors:

- intrinsic motives such as autonomy, competency, novelty, achievement and power
- reinforcement by extrinsic motives
- goal setting effects

The above discussion about work motivation is possibly applicable to teaching as teaching could be considered as a subclass of work. However, teaching inevitably has certain specific constraints, such as encounters with students; or the isolation, that is “interaction between teachers [is] often restricted by physical arrangements” (Crookes, 1997, p.68). These constraints require further examination.

### **2.3.3 Motivation research in education**

This section will first address L2 learner motivation. It is necessary because L2 learner motivation is likely to be affected by teacher motivation. Then general teacher motivation which includes teaching students English as their first language will be examined. The knowledge of general teacher motivation provides a theoretical backdrop to the study of ESL teacher motivation. General teacher motivation is also dealt with to indicate the inadequacy of research concerning ESL teachers.

To begin with, there are two main streams of L2 learner motivation study. The first, social psychological studies suggest that individuals are motivated by social pressures (Dörnyei, 1998 & 1999). The second paradigm of motivational psychological studies

generally describes motivation of L2 learning as factors determined by the attitudes and affective states of the learners. Additionally, as noted previously, there is a new theory recently proposed by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009a, 2009b) about *self*, that is, L2 learners are motivated to become a better self.

In brief, L2 learning motivating factors are summarized as (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, as cited in Ellis, 1997):

- Instrumental: aim to pass an examination or get a better job (educational and economic opportunities)
- Integrative: being interested in or wanting to be identifiable by the people and culture of L2 (or aims to manipulate and overcome them)
- Resultative: success in learning L2 may in turn cause motivation
- Intrinsic: curiosity in learning L2 aroused and maintained

There has been some argument about which variable is more prominent (Jordan, 2004). Dörnyei (2003a) conjectures the “temporal” factor as the answer to this disagreement. He argues that researchers have not considered the fact that motivation changes in a learner’s three stages of L2 acquisition:

1. Pre-actional stage: a “choice motivation” in starting and setting goals
2. Actional stage: an “executive motivation” in carrying out the necessary tasks to maintain motivation (if not, drop out)
3. Postactional stage: a “retrospective motivation” in appraisal of and reaction to L2 performance

A study was conducted by Shoaib and Dörnyei (2004) upon 25 L2 learners (through natural and institutionalized learning) under the age of 34 which arrived at a conclusion which is supportive of the supposition that motivation is dynamic and fluctuates over time. In other words, L2 learning motivation is unstable, and is essentially affected by external factors – including, very importantly, teacher motivation.

In regard to the effect of teacher motivation, the teacher-pupil relationship is said to be the most significant variable affecting pupils' attitudes or motivation towards L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei (2005) further comments that teacher motivation is a significantly positive factor in L2 students' learning and achievement. Williams and Burden (1997) also emphasize the crucial role of language teachers in sustaining L2 learner motivation to pursue their goals. Some empirical studies seem to lend support for this argument. For example, Chambers's (1999) longitudinal study of English students aged 11-13 learning German (n = 400) found that the most important extrinsically affecting factor in their experience was the *teacher*. Tse (2000) successfully demonstrates the connection between the classroom and success in L2 acquisition. The research (n = 51) on adult L2 students in the U.S. concludes that successful learners had classrooms with attentive and sympathetic teachers and lively discussion with instant correction of any mistakes. Furthermore, it is also proposed that students' behaviour and attitude are closely related to teacher motivation (Atkinson, 2000). Nikolov (2001), for example, interviewed 94 young Hungarians about their L2 learning experience. Seventeen of them responded that a pleasant experience was due to the teachers' personality and innovativeness. In the same study, 19 participants ascribed the success of L2 learning to a good teacher. Further to that, they harshly criticised unenthusiastic teachers.

Here in New Zealand, Walker (2001) conducted focus group interviews (n = 39) to reveal that language students expect teachers to be skilled, receptive, knowledgeable and flexible to their needs. More importantly, students expect a teacher not only to have undergone professional development but also to act as their "coach, counsellor and mentor" (p.193). It has been shown that L2 learners' successes, or motivation, are possibly affected by their teachers' motivation. However, there have been suggestions that teacher motivation, in different contexts, is in decline which will be detrimental to students' learning.

Studies have indicated that there is a decline in teacher motivation. In general, the level of teacher motivation can be reflected by teachers' willingness to stay in teaching (Pennington, 1995). Walker and Barton (1987), for example, reported that after interviewing and observing 42 teachers (general subjects) in several U.S. secondary schools, only 25% of the female teachers and 16% of the male teachers

planned to stay in the profession. This was an alarming difference when compared with the figures of 57% and 35% respectively in 1961. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors both played their roles. The surveyed teachers commented that low salary, a lack of career prospects, a deterioration in public image and self-esteem, and heavy workload had affected their self-efficacy and hence the students' performance. Furthermore, their sense of powerlessness and inharmonious collegial and student relations led to a decline in morale. Though the data is dated and this is not deemed to be a comprehensive and representative study due to the small sample, this might reflect a trend in that specific context.

Recent research appears to indicate that the situation has not improved. A study in the Nineties of 1,800 teachers in the U.K. painted a gloomy picture, with two thirds planning to leave teaching in five years' time (Travers & Cooper, 1991 as cited in Pennington, 1995). A more recent study seems unable to provide more insights. GTCfE's (General Teaching Council for England) 2002 survey in Britain showed 56% of the respondents claimed that their morale/motivation had deteriorated since joining the profession. Furthermore, 34% of them replied that they did not expect to be teaching in five years' time. However, it has to be noted that these few studies were mainly conducted in the last decade in the U.S. and Britain and the participants were teachers in general subjects (including a few ESL teachers).

In short, the previous discussion appears to demonstrate that teacher motivation is important to the success of students' learning. With the suggestion that teacher motivation has been in a decline, a study of teacher motivation, with relevance to the New Zealand context, is timely and necessary. Next, general teacher motivation will be examined and followed by ESL teacher motivation.

Motivation in general education (including teaching students with English as first language) is considered to be similar to other human behaviour; and the general motivation theories are applicable (Dörnyei, 2001). However, Dörnyei suggests that teaching is a profession with special characteristics but has received "little attention in educational psychology" (ibid, p. 156).

Taking into account the various general motivation theories and work theories reviewed above and allowing for the confined scope of this study, one common way of generalizing teacher motivation is to separate them into intrinsic (internal) motives and extrinsic (external) motives (GTCfE, 2002; Lortie, 1975). Extrinsic motives can further be expanded to include contextual factors (Dörnyei, 2001). The significance of these two motives will be discussed in more detail below.

First, intrinsic motives in teaching is defined as personal and internal enjoyment in teaching, interacting with students, involvement in interesting subjects and fulfilling career targets (GTCfE, 2002; Lortie, 1975; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1999). Dörnyei (2001) describes it as “the internal desire to educate people, to impart knowledge and values, and to advance a community or a whole nation” (p. 158).

There is, however, another rather similar motivating factor: an altruistic factor which is the motive to serve people (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000). Teachers are motivated by a willingness to offer service to society, to achieve higher moral grounds and to impart their knowledge or personal beliefs to others (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Lortie, 1975; Poppleton, 1989).

Empirical studies have supported the importance of intrinsic motives. For instance, Spear, Gould and Lee (2000) reviewed 90 articles, papers and books published in a decade about the decline in the number of school teachers in the UK to conclude that satisfaction from their jobs and their students are teachers’ major motivating factors. Moreover, the respect of students in classrooms and a good relationship with them are crucial elements for creating teachers’ enjoyment, satisfaction or confidence (Sederberg, Cox, & Clark, 1990; Nias, 1989; Poppleton, 1989). A more recent (self-reporting) online study in Australia of student teachers (n = 375) who had changed career to study to become teachers, confirmed that intrinsic and altruistic motives are the major reasons for their taking up teaching as a career (Williams & Forgasz, 2009). The participants regarded pay and social status the least important. However, the researcher admits that these participants have yet to practise and it would be interesting to check what happens after five years’ time. Similarly, a more comprehensive questionnaire study conducted in Britain by GTCfE (2002) with over 70,000 teachers (13% of all registered teachers) found that personal achievement

(32%) and challenge (25%) were the major motivating factors. Moreover, (further to their study in 1998 of 900 teachers in 71 schools in Australia) Dinham and Scott (2000) surveyed over 1,100 additional teaching staff in New Zealand and England about their current job satisfaction and motivation. Their findings give credit to intrinsic factors such as working with people as major motivators while extrinsic factors such as societal, school and governmental pressures were de-motivating. Consequently, intrinsic factors seem to be more influential in motivating teaching while extrinsic appears to be exerting a negative effect.

Secondly, and in contrast to intrinsic factors, extrinsic (external) factors are those related to, among other things, monetary and ancillary rewards such as power over the students, job security, convenient working hours and holidays (Johnson, 1986; Sederberg et al., 1990). In addition, extrinsic factors are said to contribute to de-motivation through unsatisfactory salary, poor prospects and working conditions, low status and heavy workload (Spear et al., 2000). These accusations seem to be supported by some empirical studies and excessive workload is found to be the most likely dispiriting factor.

GTCfE's (2002) survey of 70,000 teachers in British mainstream schools (other than language schools) revealed that 56% of the respondents regarded excessive workload as the major de-motivating factor. A similar report on British primary and secondary teachers but on a smaller scale (n = 1695) found that heavy workloads have caused the dropout rate to reach 14% for primary teachers and 8% for secondary teachers (Smithers & Robinson, 2003). Galton and MacBeath's (2008) survey over a five year period of primary (n = 63) and secondary school teachers (n = 40) in England suggests that the issue of workload is "topping the poll in almost every survey...this is seen as the leading explanatory factor for teacher stress, dissatisfaction and burnout..." (p.12). Jin, Yeung, Tang and Low (2008) surveyed teachers in 13 secondary schools in Hong Kong (n = 261) to identify six sources of teacher's stress including pressure from supervisors, preparation of students' examinations, lack of recognition, and unnecessary duties including non-teaching work. They concluded the "teaching workload tended to be the most salient determinant" (p. 361). They further recommend the reduction of class size and provision of adequate facilities and resources. In fact, Nias (1989) reported from her survey (of British primary school

teachers) that in her context of study, there had been a lack of space and facilities. A Tasmanian study of primary teachers discovered that one of their major problems is a “lack of resources” (Gardner & Williamson, 2004 as cited in Galton & MacBeath, 2008).

Salary is yet another prominent factor but its influence is rather controversial. Poor pay was listed as a rather insignificant contributing factor to teachers’ job dissatisfaction (Spear et al., 2000). Poppleton (1989) suggests its role as low in affecting job satisfaction. This is supported by the GTCfE (2002) survey which reported that only about 11% of teachers regarded salary as a de-motivating factor. In addition, Galton and MacBeath (2008) interviewed one teacher who said “it is not the money that motivates nor the career prospects, but the intrinsic satisfaction from seeing young people learn and grow” (p. 12). On the contrary, Johnson’s (1986) survey reported that most teachers were dissatisfied with their comparatively lower pay. An earlier survey by Webb and Ashton (1987) reflected teachers’ complaints about the imbalance of workload and pay. Nevertheless, with the recent recognition of this problem, salary structure in Britain has been improved as an inducement to teachers to change the ways they teach (Galton & MacBeath, 2008). Other than salary, career path appears to be another concern. A study of undergraduates who did not intend to become teachers found they “placed relatively greater importance on good promotion prospects and high earnings over length of career” (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000, P.122). Pennington (1995) also argues that teachers’ positive intrinsic motives are likely to be undermined if they do not see a career path.

Aside from the extrinsic factors that have been examined, Dörnyei (2001) further characterizes some extrinsic factors as macro and others as micro contextual factors. Macro factors are pressure from society, parents or media. On the other hand, micro factors are the influences more “closely related to the organisational climate of the particular institution” (p. 161). In other words, micro includes the effects of the institutional culture, its management, the resources available, relations with students and collegial relations. Some studies have examined their relevance.

A large survey in eight nations of over 12,000 participants, which investigated the job satisfaction of academic staff in universities, was conducted by Lacy and Sheehan



(1997). To a certain extent, it could be regarded as irrelevant to teachers in general subjects at a lower educational level. However, the findings linked working atmosphere and collegial relations as having a major effect on job satisfaction. The significance of interpersonal relations with colleagues has been reflected in other surveys. The survey by Spear et al. (2000) concluded that a “good relationship with colleagues” is the second most important factor in teachers’ job satisfaction (next only to working with children). Thus, collegiality also affects the performance, involvement and esteem of teachers (GTCfE, 2002; Osterman, 2000).

Another major factor is management which has significant, though indirect, impact on teacher motivation (Evans, 2001). Dinham and Scott’s (2000) study of teaching staff in Australia, New Zealand and England revealed that over half the teachers’ motivation declined after taking up jobs largely due to a lack of autonomy in their work through external forces (for example, interference by management or the government). A lack of control of curriculum has been identified as another negative factor (Crookes, 1997). Another major complaint against management is a lack of recognition: that is an indifference to teachers’ performance, complaints or opinion (Jin et al., 2008). This can be summed up as indicative of a non-supportive, weak or inefficient administration with a lack of communication with teachers and is found to be a de-motivating factor (Poppleton, 1989).

This limited review of empirical studies seems to suggest that, for general teaching, the intrinsic (internal) are regarded as the more influential motivating factors, whereas extrinsic (and contextual) motives were found to be the likely de-motivating factors. For example, teachers are motivated by encounters with students, but at the same time tend to be de-motivated by low monetary rewards and unsatisfactory physical working conditions. To this end, researchers have striven to discover whether the intrinsic or the extrinsic is the dominant factor.

There have been arguments and earlier research to suggest that extrinsic factors are undermining the effect of intrinsic motives (Johnson, 1986). However, two major surveys of over 2,000 teachers in England, Australia and New Zealand contradicted that view to report that even with the increase in dissatisfaction caused by extrinsic factors, intrinsic motives were “quarantined and remained constant” (Dinham & Scott,

2000, p. 9). Pennington (1995) also argues that when people are satisfied with intrinsic factors and have something to look forward to they will tend to ignore the negative extrinsic factors. Johnson (1986), after studying the education system in the U.S, came to the conclusion that extrinsic factors such as better pay and higher status would attract new recruits but would not retain them; and the intrinsic rewards were the key factor in maintaining motivation to avoid a loss of capable teachers. Others' studies (Nias, 1989; Poppleton, 1989) concurred with that argument. Nias's study of primary school teachers (n = 99) in England found that rewards from working with children, a sense of competence and an extension of personal skills and qualities were the major motivating factors. In other words, intrinsic factors provide the persistence to stay in teaching.

In short, the major motives for teaching outlined in the review may possibly be: intrinsic and extrinsic (and contextual) factors. Both play a role in motivating or de-motivating teachers but it has yet to be seen which one is dominant. For example, Kyriacou (2001) asked for more research on teachers' stress; Dinham and Scott (2000), GTCfE (2002), Jin et al (2008), and Williams and Forgasz (2009) both emphasized the significant influence of intrinsic motives; Smithers and Robinson (2003), and Walker and Barton (1987) pinpointed extrinsic motives whereas Nias (1989) valued both. On one hand, Johnson (1986), Spear et al. (2000) and Webb and Ashton (1987) argued that pay was a major motivating factor; but Galton and MacBeath (2008), GTCfE (2002), Poppleton (1989), Williams and Forgasz (2009) disagreed.

Though this discussion does not lead to any conclusion of dominance by either intrinsic or extrinsic motives, this review of work and teacher motivation has led to the identification of possible factors which are likely to affect motivation. These factors will be reflected in the research instruments of this study and are summarized as:

- Sense of achievement or challenge
- Salary
- Workload
- External recognition (social status)
- Career prospect

- Job security
- School management and policies
- Work autonomy (control of curriculum)
- Relations with colleagues
- Relations with students

It has to be noted that this section has primarily looked at general teacher motivation and teacher drop outs in primary, secondary and even tertiary institutions, but it has not been concerned with ESL teachers, which is the focus of this study. The motivation of ESL teachers is discussed next.

## **2.4 ESL teacher motivation**

The previous sections have discussed general teacher motivation, and it has to be noted that only a few of the studies included language teachers as their participants. Language teaching receives little attention and ESL teacher motivation attracts even less attention within educational research (Dörnyei, 2001, 2003a). It must be stressed that ESL teachers are working in a different domain and deserve attention. For example, Chambers (1999) lists the difficulties faced by ESL teachers in particular as: choice of medium of instruction (using students' first language or L2); numerous attainment targets (listening, reading, speaking and writing); intensity of practice; content complexities; and various media and modes of instruction. ESL teachers need to undergo ongoing education to fulfil expanding roles and responsibilities required in this era of rapid development (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009; Leung, 2009). In this regard, this section commences by discussing some general theories on ESL teacher motivation, with a brief discussion of a more recent re-conceptualization of motivation. It then continues with an examination of empirical studies, which will lend support to the discussion of the gap in this field of study in section 2.4.

### **2.4.1 Concepts of ESL teacher motivation**

Like L2 learner motivation or work motivation (including general teaching), ESL teacher motivation is influenced by the environment and by personal interests. Drawing on L2 learner motivation theories, Dörnyei (2001) summarizes four particular features of ESL teacher motivation:

1. Intrinsic component: There may be an internal desire to educate, to impart knowledge and values, or to advance the community
2. Extrinsic component (Social contextual influence):
  - a. Macro influence prevalent at the societal level from politicians, parents, the media;
  - b. Micro influence from the particular institution i.e. school, classroom, students, the reward or workload; and a positive or negative comparison with others (other jobs or professionals)
3. Temporal (the possibility of a life long career):
  - a. Increased variety of teaching content (new roles)
  - b. Contribution to (take charge of) curriculum development
  - c. In-service programs
  - d. Material development
4. Negative influences:
  - a. Stress caused by dealing with students, isolation in work and pressures from multiple constituencies
  - b. Frustration at restricted autonomy
  - c. Insufficient self-efficacy in managing groups, interpersonal skills or conflict resolution
  - d. Lack of intellectual challenge (boredom)
  - e. Inadequate career structure (without future plans and goals)

However, it is disputed that though the above micro- and macro- factors have provided significant insights into the study of ESL teacher motivation, they have not enabled us to understand their enactment and their interaction in the highly dynamic and complex individually situated contexts (Kubanyiova, 2009). Furthermore, these micro- and macro- factors have resulted from “the largely fragmented research” (ibid, p. 315). Hence, there has been a recent re-conceptualization of ESL teacher motivation through the concepts of self and identity. Aligned with this new paradigm is the study of teacher identity, which is a set of beliefs that are “multiple, dynamic and conflictual, closely related to socio-cultural contexts” (White & Ding, 2009, p.335). According to this view, a teacher is motivated to become a future possible “good self” and to avoid an “ought-not-to-be bad self”, situated in one’s own context

(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009b). There have been recent studies, for example, by White and Ding (2009) who examined ESL teacher motivation (to learn) by studying 5 participants in an E-course (in China, UK and New Zealand) in a span of 9 months. They claim that “teacher self is an important catalyst...evidently motivated by ideal and/or ought-to self orientations” (p. 333). However, it has to be noted that the sample is small and the interview data might be affected by the Hawthorne effect – inaccurate data caused by interviewees’ awareness of the study. Another study seems to have resulted in similar findings. Kubanviova (2009) observed a small sample of eight non-native speaking ESL teachers (from primary, secondary and tertiary institutions) attending an in-service course for nine months in Slovakia. She concludes that ideal, ought-to and feared language teacher selves have motivated their pursuance in career, hence, the “construct of possible selves [serves] as a theoretical framework for a better understanding of language teacher cognition and development” (p, 330).

To a certain extent, the above discussion has summarized some likely factors in the determination of ESL teacher motivation. However, similar to the inconclusiveness of whether intrinsic factors or extrinsic factors are dominant in general teacher motivation, it seems that researchers have not reached any consensus about the dominant factors in ESL teacher motivation. This is understandable as research on ESL teacher motivation is even scarcer than that of teachers in general subjects, as previously mentioned.

#### **2.4.2 Studies on ESL teacher motivation**

As noted earlier very little is known about ESL teacher motivation (Kassabgy et al., 2001; Dörnyei, 2003a, 2005). The following discussion examines the paucity of research in both the international and the New Zealand context.

In regard to the international context, much of the literature has focused on ESL teachers’ training and education, but it lacks discussion on their “motivation”. Richards and Nunan’s (1990) edited book on language teacher education has a wide range of articles about practising but only one article, by Pennington, briefly discusses teachers’ attitudes, goal setting and professional life beyond initial training, but has nothing specifically about ESL teacher motivation. Chambers (1999) discussed at

length ways to motivate learners but had only a few paragraphs on ESL teacher motivation, which was mainly about the difficulties they faced. A recent review of the Cambridge Language Teaching Library books catalogue (Cambridge, 2008) shows that published books are almost entirely about teaching skills or self-learning.

However, Dörnyei (2005) listed some exceptions in ESL teacher motivation studies. They are works by Doyle and Kim in 1999; Jacques in 2001; Kassabgy et al. in 2001; Kimura in 2003; and Pennington's various pieces of research in 1992 and 1995 which addressed the issue of motivation through the perspective of job satisfaction (a similar approach to the one adopted by the present study). It has to be noted that most of the studied participants are ESL teachers in primary and secondary schools, not in tertiary language schools.

As early as the 1990's, Brown (1992) surveyed by open-ended questionnaires members of the U.S. TESOL organization (n = 334) about problems in teaching. He concluded that about one third of them were concerned about recognition, while another third were concerned about pay and job security. Meanwhile, Pennington (1992) commenced her study on ESL teacher motivation by urging its enhancement through "personal growth and career options" (p.215). With her colleagues, she surveyed 95 U.S. language teachers at post secondary level through questionnaires, and suggested that they had not suffered from burnout (Pennington & Ho, 1995). Later, Pennington (1995) studied ESL teachers in secondary schools, also by questionnaires, in the United States, Australia and Hong Kong and concluded that they were mainly motivated by "intrinsic work process and human relations factors" (p.139). She recommends that school administrators should maintain a "context-sensitive and humanistic management" environment (p. 175). She also recommends that ESL teachers should not regard this career as part time or transitional and should have upward mobility and "a sense of optimism and a striving for future rewards that promotes excellence" (p. 176). In her other mega-study about work motivation in teaching English as a second language, Pennington reviewed previous research on ESL teachers (in normal schools) concluding that they had high stress, low morale and suffered a lack of support (Pennington, 1995). Pennington suggests improvements in personal growth and greater job rewards for motivation.

Subsequent meta-analysis conducted by Crookes (1997) concludes that the major de-motivating (de-skilling) factors are: lack of training, lack of control of curriculum, irrelevant administrative workload, isolation and inadequate pay for preparation work. Crookes argues that these factors arise because schools are accountable to authorities, or are interested in profit. Hence, teachers were not given the tools and opportunities, and could not function professionally. Crookes further highlighted the need for professional development and the training of, for example, “theories of culture or intercultural contact” (p. 71). Though Crookes’ study was in the context of ESL teachers in the U.S. public schools and is maybe dated, its deliberations are still worth noticing.

Crookes’ concerns were corroborated by another major study by Terry Doyle and Young Mi Kim in 1999. Through questionnaires and supplementary interviews, they studied the dissatisfaction and low morale of ESL teachers in Korea (9 interviews and 99 questionnaires) and in the US (5 interviews and 100 questionnaires) (Kim & Doyle, 1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001). The study concludes that the major negative factors are external: low salary, lack of advancement opportunity, lack of respect, and stress caused by impeded autonomy.

Other research has studied this subject from a different perspective and tried to locate the connection between teachers and students. Jacques (2001), after reviewing work done by McKnight (in 1992), Pennington and Ho (in 1995), Richards and Lockhart (in 1994) and Barnabe and Burns (in 1994), constructed a questionnaire survey (n = 21 university students) aimed at finding any interplay between students’ and teachers’ preferences in teaching modes and thereby possible motivation enhancement. The study concluded that teachers and students had different purposes and preferences of teaching modes and so it was inconclusive. They also recommended that further research be conducted to identify motivational factors with a larger sample which included interviews and longitudinal studies.

Kassabgy et al. (2001) surveyed ESL teachers with closed and open-ended questionnaires (which informed the questionnaires of the present study, and it will be discussed further in the next Methodology chapter). They questioned 70 teachers from Egypt and 37 from Hawaii, about their rewards, satisfaction and views on

motivational factors. They found that teachers value intrinsic aspects of work more, and that there is a positive relationship between rewards (both intrinsic and extrinsic) and job satisfaction. This corresponds with Pennington's (1992) claim that there is a reasonable match between the aspirations of teachers and their work. However, Kassabgy et al.'s study is limited in a similar way to Jacques's (2001) in which teacher preferences or rewards for their motivation could not be identified in detail. Furthermore, Kassabgy et al. accepted that they "have only brushed the surface of understanding" (p.227).

Studies discussed so far are primarily concerned with ESL teachers in normal schools. A more recent and comprehensive study concerning language schools is the 12 year work by Senior (2006) on ESL teachers (n = 101) in England. It has produced rich data from questionnaires, observations and ongoing interviews. The focus of Senior's study is, however, more about the patterns of good language teaching in a classroom. Having said that, the findings uncover specific difficulties encountered by teachers, such as: short term and casual work, sporadic and seasonal work depending on the number of students, lack of training, inferior social status, low pay and heavy workloads because "students are seldom turned away even when existing classes are full" (p.231), and an absence of a career path. Furthermore, Senior found that their motives are more extrinsic and are related to being able to travel, being able to work casually or part time, having a supplementary income, or having a job after retirement.

Contrary to Senior's (2006) findings, most ESL teacher motivation studies have shown that the motivation is similar to that of other professions. That is, motivation is influenced more by self-esteem, accomplishment, concern for students and self-efficacy, these being intrinsic motives (Barnabe & Burns, 1994, as cited in Kassabgy et al., 2001; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Pennington, 1992, 1995).

Regarding motivation of ESL teachers in New Zealand in the context of language schools, only a few peripheral studies have been conducted. With some research having a commercial agenda, it has to be admitted that we know very little about New Zealand language school ESL teacher motivation.



Walker (2001) examined L2 students' expectations of New Zealand language schools. In this focus group study of 35 overseas language students, Walker categorized students' expectations and put forward recommendations to school management. Another study by Walker four years later on the perceptions of the quality of service by staff and students in New Zealand language centres (n = 30 private language schools and tertiary institutions) was conducted through a self completed questionnaire survey. Other than those data addressing the main issue, the conclusion indicated that a slight majority of the 1684 students surveyed were strongly satisfied with the teaching quality (Walker, 2005). In a more recent and related study, Walker (2007) studied New Zealand language teachers' (n = 275) perceptions of the servicing climate, that is, their views about their working conditions and services to students. Walker's respondents were from 22 privately owned and eight state funded language schools. Out of those 275 valid respondents, 220 were language teachers and the remaining non-teaching staff. Although he found teachers were satisfied with the overall working environment and their service to students, language teachers were concerned about poor physical working conditions. The language teachers had negative perception of their management. The problem of job security was also highlighted as only 39% of those surveyed enjoyed job security: They "are likely to be on short-term contracts and even hourly rates, and may be hired and fired according to cyclical movements in the industry..."(p.330). Moreover, 52% of those respondents felt stress in their job, and only 33% considered their pay fair.

In a very different context, a more recent study by Chandler et al., (2008) examined adult literacy tutors' work (n = 57) by surveys, focus groups, interviews and journals. Only five of the participants were ESOL tutors and all participants were working in private training establishments or community centres instead of language schools. The study focused on the tutors' work conditions and reasons for joining, however, the study found that these tutors were mostly motivated or de-motivated by student accomplishments or feedback during lessons.

There have been other studies done with a commercial agenda. A government commissioned nation-wide questionnaire survey of 2,736 international students studying in colleges, tertiary institutes and language schools discovered that quality of education had been one major deciding factor in their choosing New Zealand (Ward

& Masgoret, 2004). The study also found that 64% of them were satisfied with the quality of instructors (in other words, teachers including language teachers). However, only 16% (437 participants) of those surveyed were students from language schools. Thus the report admitted that international students in language schools were under-represented (this 16% compared with 40% of all international students were studying in language schools). Furthermore, students in language schools surveyed were less satisfied than students studying in tertiary institutes as pointed out by the report. Another study by Holmes (2005) was commissioned by the New Zealand export education industry with a view of improving international students' conditions and hence attracting greater numbers. He conducted five studies and two of these were focus group interviews with nine language teachers in two private language schools (together with another 48 teachers in four secondary schools and two universities). Suggestions in the report were rarely about the teacher. However, it recommends funding teacher education "to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary for teaching in the multicultural classroom" (p.116). The report did not touch on ESL teachers' difficulties or motivation.

This section has reviewed ESL teacher motivation theories and some related empirical studies of which only a few were in the New Zealand context. The next section will identify the need for research in this area.

## **2.5 Identifying a gap in the literature**

As evident in the above discussion, educational researchers have paid much more attention to general teacher motivation, with some attention in language teacher motivation, than they have to ESL teacher motivation (for example, Dinham & Scott, 2000; GTCfE, 2002; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Nias, 1989; Poppleton, 1989; Scott et al., 1999; Sederberg, 1990; Smithers & Robinson, 2003; Spear et al., 2000; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). However, we cannot assume that these studies on *general teaching* are applicable to *ESL teaching* as the latter have specific characteristics and identities, as described above in section 2.3. In other words, motivation of ESL teachers seems to have remained uncharted and deserves urgent attention, as mentioned some years back by Dörnyei (2003a). Although it has to be admitted that there has been some research examining ESL teaching in primary,

secondary or tertiary institutes (for example, Crookes, 1997; Jin et al., 2008; Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; Pennington & Ho 1995), their context is different from that of language schools.

According to Dörnyei (2001), most studies on teaching motivation research relied heavily on quantitative methods (self-reporting surveys). For example, of the major studies reviewed, only research by Nikolov (2001), Walker (2001,2007), (part of) Kassabgy et al. (2001), Dole and Kim (1999 as cited in Kassabgy et al., 2001) and Senior (2006) were through interviews leading to qualitative data. As a result, most studies on motivation have relied mainly on written questionnaires asking for scales of opinion and hence they lack rich data.

Furthermore, with the exception of the surveys by GTCfE (2002), Lacy and Sheehan (1997) and Dinham and Scott (2000), most studies were conducted with a relatively small sample leading to weak representation and inconclusiveness. There is also very few longitudinal studies except Senior's (2006) 12 year research on language teachers. However, only some of her participants were working in language schools and her focus was on classroom interaction.

Moreover, apart from Pennington's (1992, 1995) suggestions for some ESL teacher motivating measures, such as allowing personal growth, career options with a context-sensitive and humanistic management, smaller class size and better salary, there is no comprehensive list of recommendations for motivating ESL teachers (Dörnyei, 2001).

Given the scant attention to ESL teacher motivation, there will inevitably be controversies on its *why* and *what*. It is noted that, for example, the earlier work by Pennington (1995) concluded that ESL teachers had no burn-out. Nevertheless, her later work unveiled teacher's extrinsic difficulties, such as stress, low salary and lack of support. Other research (Crookes, 1997; Senior, 2006; Walker, 2007) suggested other de-motivating factors such as lack of recognition and job-security. Kassabgy et al. (2001) has commented that "teachers have a very important influence on the motivation of language learners, and we know very little about"(p.214). However, most of the above-mentioned studies did not focus on teachers in language schools.

Teaching in language schools is a totally different domain. For example, the GTCfE's (2002) survey on teachers in schools other than language schools, reveals that 54% (n = 70000) of them regard working with children/young people as motivated, but that does not necessarily apply to language teachers who are mostly dealing with mature students. Though some research have covered, or partly covered, ESL teaching in language schools (for example, Brown, 1992; Holmes, 2005; Pennington & Ho, 1995; Senior, 2006; Walker, 2001, 2005, 2007), it is inadequate as indicated by Dörnyei (1998, 2001, 2005), and as revealed in this limited review.

More importantly, in *New Zealand*, it seems that, apart from the study on the motivation of ESL teachers by Walker (2007), and of adult literacy tutors by Chandler et al. (2008), which have touched peripherally on this issue, there has not been any major research in this specific context.

With this study it is expected that the findings may provide insights to the New Zealand context leading to: (1) improvement of ESL teacher training and development; (2) offering management and/or employers knowledge for a better management system that ultimately benefits teachers and students; and (3) add to the existing knowledge of ESL teacher motivation.

## **2.6 Summary**

This overview of general motivation, work motivation, L2 learner motivation, teacher motivation and most importantly ESL teacher motivation has provided an examination of these related empirical studies. Research on ESL teacher motivation, although scarce in nature, is most relevant for the focus of the current study. This limited research is underpinned by self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and in particular the categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005). In summary, specifically related to ESL teacher motivation, intrinsic motivation is about a teacher's inherent satisfaction, for example, meeting personal challenges and helping students achieve their goals, while extrinsic motivation relates to gaining instrumental values such as promotion, or the avoidance of consequences. The theoretical framework provided by self determination theory allows for the identification of factors reflecting intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Drawing on

Kassabgy et al. (2001), categories of intrinsic and extrinsic are used to elicit data in the questionnaire and interviews in this study.

Following Kassabgy et al. (2001) and Dörnyei (2001, 2005), in order to address the research questions the following are the main themes used to code the quantitative and qualitative data:

- Intrinsic
  - personal achievement or challenge or growth
  - Service to society
  - Imparting knowledge
  
- Extrinsic (and contextual)
  - Salary
  - workload
  - External recognition (social status)
  - Career prospects/training
  - Job security/casual job
  - School management and policies
  - Support/isolation
  - Physical working condition
  - a positive or negative comparison with others (other jobs or professionals)
  - Autonomy (control of curriculum)
  - Relations with colleagues
  - Relations with students

To sum up, this overview has illustrated that despite the importance of ESL teacher motivation in the context of New Zealand language schools, relatively little has been published on this topic. As clearly stated by Mann (2005) “all teaching is local...not one-size-fits-all development and a greater appreciation of the context in which teacher education efforts are situated [is needed]” (p. 112). An insight into this context is important to New Zealand ESL teachers, their management, their

employers and the service receivers. To gain such insights the study uses the following three research questions:

1. What are the factors/reasons which affect ESL teachers' motivation/de-motivation?
2. What is the current degree of motivation/de-motivation among ESL teachers?
3. What can be done to sustain or nurture the motivation of ESL teachers?

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Chapter Three describes the methodology and methods used in this thesis to study ESL teacher motivation in New Zealand English language schools. The chapter first operationalizes the constructs of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for this study; then focuses on a justification for adopting a mixed methods approach. Given the importance of the methods used to validate the findings, justification of them will be provided in detail. In short, macro level data from the close-ended questions in the questionnaire provided background information of the participants, a broad picture of motivating/de-motivating factors and the degree of motivation/de-motivation. Micro level qualitative data derived from the open-ended questions, participants' journals and interviews captures individual profiles and was used to supplement and expand the quantitative data from the questionnaire. The chapter then goes on to identify the research design used in the study, including the participants and the methods used to collect and analyse the data, and how reliability and validity is protected. Finally, ethical issues associated with the study are addressed.

#### **3.2 Operationalization of theoretical framework**

As noted in the Literature Review chapter, in order to address the three research questions, the categories of intrinsic and extrinsic underpin both the research instruments and the subsequent interpretation of data. In brief, intrinsic motivation includes a sense of achievement and challenge, while extrinsic motivation involves considerations about salary, workload, work autonomy, relations with colleagues and students, career prospects, job security, and school policies.

To operationalize intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, Kassabgy et al.'s (2001) questionnaire used to study ESL/EFL teacher motivation was adapted for the present study. The questionnaire assisted in the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. For the quantitative data, 32 statements and their corresponding

32 statements were used in developing the questionnaire for this study (refer to appendix c). The 32 statements in section one of the questionnaire aim to elicit data about teachers' values, and the matching 32 statements in section two measure teachers' perception for their respective rewards. These 32 statements (in both sections one and two) reflect or indicate different factors categorized under the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic. These factors were further coded under different themes or major headings. For example, the statement "Having a challenging job" asked in section one, and the matching statement "My job is challenging" asked in section two, were both grouped under the intrinsic heading: "Personal Challenge". Conversely, the statement "Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to" asked in section one, and "I receive frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to" asked in section two, were categorized under the extrinsic heading: "Management Communication". In addition, these established themes or major headings assisted in coding qualitative data collected from the open-ended questions, journals and interviews. For instance, suggestions for improvement such as "clear communication channel" and "more regular feedback" were coded under that major theme of "Management Communication".

### **3.3 Justification for mixed methods methodology**

Quantitative and qualitative approaches are sometimes deemed to be indistinguishable (Nunan, 1996). However, Bryman (2008) notes that, in general terms, quantitative approaches are artificial with a focus on behaviour and numbers; while qualitative approaches are more natural with a focus on the meanings participants express in words. Nunan (1996), nevertheless, further observes that:

Quantitative is obtrusive and controlled, objective, generalizable, outcome oriented, therefore it is hard [data]...in contrast qualitative is soft as it assumes that all knowledge is relative, that there is a subjective element to all knowledge and research, and that holistic, ungeneralizable studies are justifiable". (p.3)



In other words, quantitative research is more concerned with cause-effect relationship, variables and attitudes while qualitative research attempts to give voice to participants' own meanings.

Most motivation studies discussed in the preceding chapter were shown to be predominantly reliant on a quantitative approach. Consequently, they have been fruitful in identifying variables through scale-type questionnaires. However, they have also been criticized for a lack of “robust and in-depth” data (Dörnyei, 2007). On the other hand, quantitative data could provide a basis for further research and collection of subsequent qualitative data (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this regard, a subsequent qualitative approach may provide further narrative data that captures individual values and behaviour through interaction between researchers and participants.

The foregoing discussion indicates the incompleteness of a single methodology as used in many empirical investigations. An appropriate research methodology is important in finding answers to research questions, and the adoption of only one is vulnerable to its discrepancies. Neuman (1997) also emphasizes that most social researchers would not be ready to concur with only one methodology, nor would they conduct any research utilizing only one.

Arguably, then, a mixed methods approach (as named in Creswell, 2003) combining both quantitative methods and qualitative methods can offer “additional benefits for the understanding of the phenomenon in question” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 47). Hence, a combination of the two methods can facilitate each other so that the accuracy and robustness of a study can be strengthened

In fact, there appears to be a trend in using mixed methods to investigate motivation. The most frequent approach is through a combination of quantitative questionnaires, quantifiable observations, and elicited speech samples or interviews (Creswell, 1994 as cited in Dörnyei, 2001). For instance, Senior (2006) adopted a mixed methods approach using a questionnaire, class observation and ongoing semi-structured interviews to study language teachers' drive and class strategies. She comments that this approach can help find out the “what”, “why” and “how”, which provide

sufficient richness and depth of understanding to further address the validity of the findings. In other research on language teacher motivation, Pennington emphasizes that evaluative results needed to be complemented by comprehensive and explanatory data (Pennington, 1995). In other words, qualitative data can be used to supplement, validate, explain, illuminate or reinterpret quantitative data gathered from the same participants.

However, a mixed methods approach has its critics. It is both time and resource consuming (Dörnyei, 2007), and hence is difficult to implement. This difficulty of implementation is discussed further in the Data Collection section. Additionally, this approach has been described as part of an “old tradition [with] over reliance on cross-tab and case-study...opportunistic eclecticism” (Bullock, Little & Millham, 1992, p.86). Bryman (2007) adds a mixed methods approach may be: 1) unpredictable and redundant; 2) confusing in functions; and 3) unsure of the how, when and why in combining the data. However, Bullock et al. (1992) agree that if it is not adopted only for convenience, but has one methodology supporting the other, a mixed methods methodology will allow complementary and illuminating data.

Bryman (1992) remarks that any research approach, including mixed methods, has to be decided by the nature of the research question. Subsequently, Bryman (2007) lists five reasons for facilitating two types of data provided by a mixed methods approach. These reasons are applicable to the present study and are discussed further:

- Triangulation: to corroborate
- Complementarity: to elaborate, illustrate, clarify or enhance
- Development: to identify participants or to inform the other method
- Initiation/openness: to find new perspective or question
- Expansion: to extend breadth and range

### *Triangulation*

Triangulation is pursued to enhance the validity and reliability of any research by collecting data through different means or multiple sources. Drawing on works by Anderson (1998) and Freeman (1998), four types of triangulation can be outlined:

- multiple methods: different data collection methods
- multiple data sets: a survey of different sources or a same source at different times
- multiple investigators: uses of several investigators
- multiple theories: employment of more than one theory

The present study is triangulated through the first type. Data is triangulated by multiple collection methods via self-completed questionnaires, journals and interviews. To implement the multiple methods triangulation, there is a comparison of the dominant factors in quantitative data and qualitative data. In other words, there will be a triangulation by whether a dominant factor in the first data may become less dominant in the second data through numerically coding, measuring and comparison.

Thereupon, intrinsic bias caused by a single method research will likely be overcome by the different inquiry approaches. In other words, investigations from different perspectives will possibly eliminate bias by researchers.

Creswell and Clark (2007) posit that triangulation is one of the four major designs in a mixed method approach (others are the Embedded, the Explanatory and the Exploratory). Through triangulation design, quantitative and qualitative data are collected for supplementary purposes either to “directly compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings or to validate or expand quantitative results with qualitative data” (ibid, p. 62). For the present study, the results from the quantitative closed questions in sections 1 were validated with or illustrated by the qualitative results from the open-ended questions in section 3 of the questionnaire and the subsequent data from journals and interviews.

Having said that, it has to be noted that there have been arguments about whether data from multiple methods can be consistent with results in triangulation, or only complementary to them. Bryman (2007) suggests that even with the same aim, data from these two approaches may not be comparable because of the different preoccupations and highly contrasting strengths and weaknesses.

In the confines of this study, only one out of ten questionnaire participants had joined the journal keeping group ( $n = 7$ ) and three of them were interviewed. Hence, arguably, data triangulation in this mixed methods approach may play a less significant role than if providing complementary data, openness and clarifications.

### *Complementarity*

The preceding literature review has pointed out that most studies regarding general teacher and ESL teacher motivation were conducted quantitatively and hence lacked robustness and comprehensiveness. For this study, the quantitative research identifies areas of focus (motivating/de-motivating factors) while qualitative data gives substance to the focus. For example, the subsequent qualitative data from journals and interviews will likely provide further explanation, illustration or variables some previous researchers were unaware of. This function is supported by some studies. Sosu, McWilliam and Gray (2008), for example conducted a research into teacher commitment using a mixed methods approach and comment that “Preliminary analysis for the survey informed some questions in the interview process...find[ing] out both general and specific factors...[and] compared to the use of a single method, this should help expand the scope of our understanding of the situation” (p. 172).

### *Development*

Neuman (1997) advocates for the application of a mixed-method and justifies it with having the advantage of creating access to participants and understanding of their broad circumstances. This method will allow systematic sampling of the questionnaire returnees and ability to locate and interview specific individuals who are of interest to the researcher. For the present study, the quantitative data from questionnaires assisted in identifying specific ESL teachers and further data was collected through subsequent journal keeping and interviews.

### *Initiation/openness*

As noted in the previous chapter, there seems to be a lack of consensus on a universally acceptable theory on work or teacher motivation. Moreover, ESL teacher motivation in New Zealand (as elsewhere) is under-researched. There is a need for

discovery, via a qualitative approach, before any hypotheses or conclusion can be reached as there is possible unanticipated information.

### *Expansion*

There have been a few longitudinal studies on teacher motivation (for example, Dinham & Scott, 2000; Senior, 2006). The use of journal may allow a longitudinal survey – data collection over time.

To sum up, a mixed methods approach is the most appropriate for addressing the issues in the present study because:

- Quantitative questionnaires have been predominantly used for research in teacher motivation offering very little complementary data, new perspectives or extended breadth which can be provided by the inclusion of qualitative methods
- Corroboration of two sets of data via the mixed-methods may provide triangulation
- Openness is important for examining the uncharted territory of ESL teacher motivation in the New Zealand context

## **3.4 Research design**

The design of a research study includes the establishment of a boundary for the study; that is, the identification of the participants, use of instruments and data collection methods and the procedure for data recording and analysis (Creswell, 2003).

### **3.4.1 Participants**

The participants in the study were practising language teachers teaching English as L2 in New Zealand language schools (administrators and former teachers were excluded). Also excluded from the study were English teachers in community contexts, such as Adult Community Education, or volunteer tutors with ESOL Home Tutors (now renamed English Language Partners New Zealand).

At the time of the study, Statistics New Zealand (2008) estimated there were about 121 operating language schools in New Zealand. Schools approached for this study were located through three major sources: 1) website of “English language schools in New Zealand” (<http://www.english-schools.co.nz/>); 2) website of “finda New Zealand” (<http://www.finda.co.nz/business/c/language-instruction/>); and 3) the TELECOM Yellow Pages directory. In total, 99 language schools were identified (55 in the Auckland region, and 44 mainly in Dunedin, Christchurch and other cities) by this study. Persons in charge of language teaching in these schools were contacted by telephone calls or emails. Amongst them, nine schools were initially uninterested and six were unable to be contacted. For the remaining 84 schools, in accordance with ethical guidelines, participant questionnaire information sheets (see appendix A) and consent forms (appendix B), as well as the questionnaire (appendix C), were sent via emails or mail to respective contact persons to be distributed to their ESL teachers. In addition, through the secretary of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOLANZ), a notice with details of this study and a contact were posted on its website (<http://www.tesolanz.org.nz/Site/Noticeboard/notices.aspx>) in July, 2009 to draw their members’ attention. The questionnaire data collection process lasted from June to August. In total, 72 returns from participants in 26 language schools (from Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Dunedin, Hamilton and Napier) were received and were useable. It was impossible to ascertain the participant response rate; however, ESL teachers in 26 language schools out of the contacted 84 schools participated in the present survey.

Sample size is a crucial factor in the credibility of a quantitative survey. Fraenkel and Wallen ask for a minimum of 100 for descriptive educational studies (2003, as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, Mackey and Gass suggest that in L2 studies, the number of participants could be smaller “as long as the techniques for analysis take the numbers into account” (p. 124). Dörnyei (2003b) suggests that in accordance with “statistical significance”, a number of 50 participants should be required in a credible L2 study.

Given a response of 72, the sample size for the present study may be considered to be substantial. There are no official statistics on the number of practicing ESL teachers in New Zealand. However, TESOLANZ, the professional organization of language

teachers in New Zealand, covering the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors, had a membership of 350 members in 2009. Therefore, this number of 72 participants could be a fair representation (21%) taking into account this population of ESL English teachers, although it must be remembered that only schools in the tertiary sector were contacted (i.e. post secondary sector), and that community-based ESOL teachers involved with adult immigrant and/or refugee groups were not included in the study. TESOLANZ membership also includes such teachers. Nevertheless, 72 questionnaires might be deemed as an adequate sample after taking into consideration the scope of this study, and other research regarding ESL teacher motivation such as:

- 14 interviews and 199 questionnaires by Kim and Doyle (Kim & Doyle, 1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001)
- 21 questionnaires by Jacques (2001)
- 107 questionnaires by Kassabgy et al. (2001)

#### *Questionnaire participants*

A breakdown of the 72 questionnaire participants is listed in Table 3.1 below. Almost two out of three respondents were female. Over half of them were over 41 years old, and only six were under the age of 30. Only three had English as their L2. Regarding education and training, 83% had undergraduate degrees with certificates in ESL teaching, while five participants did not give any educational qualification. Furthermore, 38% had postgraduate degrees. 72% were full time staff. Half of them have been language teachers for over 10 years, while 11% had worked for five years or less. Finally, there was a fair split between private language schools and schools run by tertiary institutes.

**Table 3.1: Bio-data of 72 questionnaire participants**

Bio-data	Number	In percentage
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	24	33%
Female	48	67%
<b>Age</b>		
20-30	6	8%
31-40	19	27%
41-50	20	28%
51 & over	26	36%
Unknown	1	1%
<b>English</b>		
As first language	69	96%
As second language	3	4
<b>Qualifications (&gt;1)</b>		
Undergraduate degrees	60	83%
Postgraduate degrees	27	38%
TESOL certificate	61	85%
Unknown	5	7%
<b>Tenure</b>		
Full time staff	52	72%
Casual staff	17	24%
Both	1	1%
Unknown	2	3%
<b>Years of teaching</b>		
under 1 year	1	1%
1 to 5	7	10%
6 to 10	24	33%
over 11	38	53%
Unknown	2	3%
Under 1 year	1	1%
<b>Types of school</b>		
Tertiary language schools	38	53%
Private language schools	33	46%
Unknown	1	1%



### *Journal and interview participants*

A preliminary review and analysis of the 72 questionnaires was conducted after the completion of the questionnaire survey. According to the maxim variation principle, 8 respondents who replied as “very dissatisfied” with their job or career and another 8 who were “very satisfied” were selected to participate in the journal keeping and interviews. Participation was requested by email, with information sheets and consent forms attached (see appendices D, E & F). Seven of the 16 agreed to participate. A description of these seven participants is presented in Table 3.2 below. This sample could generally be regarded as a fair representation of the population. Four of them were female and three male. They had teaching experience ranging from two to twelve years. Three were working on casual terms while four had full-time employment. Five of them were working in private schools and two in schools run by tertiary institutes. Regarding their answers in the previous returns, three out of seven indicated that they planned to change career and among them, two were not satisfied with their salary. The remaining four said they would stay in ESL teaching. Finally, four replied positively on job satisfaction while two had no opinion and the remaining one was unhappy. However, due to the limitations of time and resources, and the availability of the participants, only three of the seven journal keepers were subsequently interviewed. It may also be assumed that the three fairly represented journal keepers as indicated by their responses in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Analysis of seven participants in journal keeping and interviews**

participant	gender	age	year in work	types of school	tenure	change career	change job	job security	salary satisfaction	job satisfaction
all 72 participants	female = 67%	n.a.	n.a.	private = 47%	fulltime = 72%	no = 62%	no = 54%	yes = 43%	yes = 77%	yes = 65%
	male = 33%	n.a.	n.a.	tertiary = 53%	casual = 24%	yes = 18%	yes = 16%	no = 33%	no = 16%	no = 18%
	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	No answer = 4%	no opinion = 20%	no opinion = 22% (no answer = 8%)	no opinion = 14% (no answer = 10%)	no opinion = 7%	no opinion = 17%
Breakdown of bio-data/responses by the seven participants in journal keeping and interviews										
participant number*	gender	age	year in work	status	tenure	change career	change job	job security	salary satisfaction	job satisfaction
Q49/J1/I1#	female	41-50	12	tertiary	casual	no	no opinion	no	yes	no opinion
Q3/J2/I2#	female	over 51	9	private	full time	no	No	yes	yes	yes
Q56/J3/I3 #	male	20-30	7	tertiary	full time	yes	No	no	no	no
Q53/J4	female	20-30	5	private	full time	no	No	yes	yes	yes
Q47/J5	male	31-40	2	private	full time	yes	Yes	yes	no	yes
Q6/J6	female	20-30	6	private	casual	yes	Yes	no	yes	no opinion
Q14/J7	male	31-40	6	private	casual	no	No	yes	yes	yes

Note: \* Participants were numbered as follows: number of questionnaire returnee/number of journal keeper/number of interviewee

# Three journal keepers who took part in subsequent interviews

n.a. = Not applicable

### **3.4.2 Instruments**

As mentioned in the previous sections, three instruments were used in this study to collect data, namely, questionnaires, journals and semi-structured interviews.

#### *Questionnaire*

Questionnaires are one of the most frequently used methods in collecting data from a large sample and are especially useful in respondents' self-reports about their beliefs and motivation (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Handy and Ross (2005) note that researchers support this survey method because it can: 1) avoid tension caused by verbal interview; 2) solve geographical, financial and time difficulties of accessing each and every participant; and 3) avoid the prejudices of interviewers during interviews.

For the present study, open-ended and close-ended questions were included in the self-completed questionnaire (Refer to appendix C). The questionnaire used was substantially guided by a relatively recent study conducted by Kassabgy et al. (2001), who had studied 107 ESL teachers' attitudes towards the importance of various motivating factors and their career satisfaction.

The questionnaire had two sections of close-ended questions. The questions were statements (items) asking participants to rate them on a 5-point Likert scale. The Likert scale was used for evaluation because of its versatility, reliability and its effectiveness in measuring positive/negative attitudes (Dörnyei, 2001, 2003b). The first section consisted of 32 items with five response categories to choose between, including a no opinion option. It aimed to gauge teachers' perceptions of importance in various motivating/de-motivating items, such as relationship with students, colleagues and managers. The second section then addressed teachers' perceptions of work satisfaction or dissatisfaction (rewards) by using 32 items matching those in the first section. There was an addition of five questions in the second section. They elicited data such as whether or not participants wanted to change their jobs or career.

Section 3 of the questionnaire consisted of five open-ended questions. These questions were asked to assist the interpretation and understanding of the broad survey findings. For this study, the five open-ended questions were designed to validate and expand data gleaned from closed questions. Participants were primarily

asked in four questions to list any favourable and unfavourable incidents during their dealing with the persons they report to and with their students; the last question asked for any recommendations for possible improvement in their feelings about teaching (to address Research Question Three).

Section 4 elicited personal information. It was put at the end of the questionnaire to reduce participants' resistance, to alleviate their sensitiveness and to avoid "off-putting" the participants (Dörnyei, 2003b, p. 61). Apart from the above macro data, micro (individual) data were collected via journals and interviews.

### *Journals*

A journal is a daily written account to record events, details and feelings, thus, less subject to memory problems, and hence, may avoid rounding up or down information (Bryman, 2008). Motivation can be temporal. Therefore it might be questionable how accurate the examination of a questionnaire from a single point of time can be representing the "motivational basis of a prolonged behavioural sequence" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 186). Therefore, longitudinal data from a journal is useful to reflect teachers' thoughts, which are described as flexible and "changeable like weather" (Senior, 2006, p.248). In fact, for the present study, a participant reported that the journal had facilitated reflection on her work.

Nevertheless, Dörnyei (2007) describes journal taking as time consuming and demanding; hence it is advisable to have some guidance for journal taking. For this study, general guidance was provided to participants for recording related incidents (See appendix G). The guidance and consent forms (for journal keeping and interviews) were sent via email.

In accordance with the scope and resources of the present study, participants were asked to keep the journal for a period of two weeks. Data could be returned either by emails daily, weekly or by the end of journal keeping time. Data were returned by weekly emails except one participant chose to mail the whole journal. Afterwards, three participants became available for interviews.

### *Interviews*

Data of one-to-one interviews was supplementary to questionnaires and journals. The purposes of interviews were to clarify and explore preliminary finding from previous data, and to find out what cannot be directly observed. Data from the three interviews also allowed limited data set triangulation.

A grid (see Table 3.3 below) was designed following preliminary analysis of data from the three interviewees' questionnaires and journals. It also provided guidance and a pattern for the setting of interview questions. Consequently, a semi-structured interview protocol (see appendix H) covering nine main areas focusing on "why" was prepared before the interview. The protocol allowed the best use of time with a systematic, focused and comprehensive data collection. There were follow up questions with care for uniformity. For example, an interviewee disclosed that she was going to Pakistan to teach English for 3 months. A follow up question discovered that she planned to work for a charity organization.

**Table 3.3: Interview Grid**

Participant	Motivating/de-motivating incident	Measure suggested
Q49/J1/I1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Having support from and communication with the management</li><li>• Frustrated by bureaucracy</li><li>• Motivated by students' performance</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Awareness of ability by management</li><li>• Share of knowledge with colleagues</li></ul>
Q3/J2/I2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Thanked by manager</li><li>• Thanked by students after class</li><li>• Positive feedback from students</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• More time to prepare classes</li><li>• Better planning</li></ul>
Q56/J3/I3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Dissatisfied with: low salary/lack of job security/heavy workload/no reward for extra work</li><li>• Favourable with students' feedback</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• More resources</li></ul>

Interview times and locations were decided by the interviewees. One interview was conducted on a bench in a park, one in the interviewee's school and another over the

phone. With prior consent, the proceedings were recorded and transcribed. Consent forms were informed and signed (prior consent signed by the phone interviewee). Interviews were opened up with broad issue questions to make them comfortable before launching into more personal issues. Brief notes were also taken by hand.

### **3.4.3 Data collection**

According to Ivankova, Creswell and Stick (2006), a mixed methods approach poses difficulties such as: 1) their weightings in collection and analysis of the two types of data; 2) sequence in collection and analysis; and 3) stages in their connection and integration. A visual model can provide a clear illustration for addressing the above issues. A visual table is provided in Figure 3.1 below to illustrate the 6-month data collection and the different stages for the present study.

<b>Period (2009)</b>	<b>Phrase</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Product</b>
May	Pre-stage	Pilot –testing of questionnaire	Modification of questions
June To August	Questionnaire survey  - Quantitative data collection  <i>- First qualitative data collection</i>	Closed questions in Likert Scale (2 sections with a total of 70 questions)  <i>Open-ended questions</i>	Numeric data  <i>Text data</i>
July To August	First data analysis  - Quantitative  <i>- First qualitative data</i>	Univariate data screening (frequencies & means)  <i>Coding and thematic analysis</i>	Descriptive statistics  <i>Text data &amp; descriptive statistics</i>
August To September	<u>Connecting quantitative and qualitative data</u>	Purposefully approaching 16 participants based on response and maximal variation principle for journal taking  <i>Developing journal guidance</i>	Cases (n=7)  <i>Journal guidance</i>
August To October	Second qualitative data collection (journals)	Contacting and collecting journal data	Text data (from journals)
October	Second qualitative data analysis	Coding and thematic analysis journal data	Codes , themes and frequencies Intra-coder reliability conducted
October	<u>Connecting two qualitative data</u>	Purposefully approaching 3 journal takers for further interviewing  <i>Preparing interview grid (questions)</i>	Cases (n=3)  <i>Semi-structured interview questions</i>
Since October	Third qualitative data collection (interviews)	In-depth interviews	Text data (audio recording to be transcribed)
Since November	Third qualitative data analysis	Coding and thematic analysis	Codes , themes and frequencies Intra-coder reliability conducted
Since November	<u>Integration of quantitative and qualitative results</u>	Interpretation and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative results	Data analysis to inform: - Discussion - Implications - Future research

**Figure 3.1: Visual figure for mixed-methods design procedures**

The pre-stage involved a pilot-testing of the questionnaire. In the questionnaire survey period from June to August, through key persons at identified language schools, relevant questionnaires, information sheets and consent forms were sent to participants. Of the total 72 returns, 32 were collected via four institutions' contact persons. Others were returned individually either by emails, fax or post.

Quantitative and qualitative data collected concurrently from the questionnaire were analyzed and connected throughout August and September resulting in identifying journal participants and journal guides. The last journal was received in October. There was an average gap of two months between their filling in the questionnaires and the completion of the journals. Journal data collected were then analyzed, and connected with the first qualitative data with the prime view of locating interviewees. Subsequently, the data collection stage ended with the three face-to-face interviews. The interviews were held after October.

To sum up this section, the three research questions for the present study endeavoured to study ESL teachers in New Zealand language schools through: 1) the dominant motivating/de-motivating factors; 2) the degree of motivation/de-motivation; and 3) suggestions for their sustaining or improvement. This was achieved via the following four means offered by the research design:

- Quantitative close-ended questions in the questionnaire
  - to possibly identify dominant motivating/de-motivating factors
  - to possibly determine their motivation/de-motivation degree
  - to develop or locate participants for qualitative investigation
- Qualitative open-ended questions in the questionnaire
  - to provide complementarity
  - to provide triangulation
  - to elicit participants' open views and suggestions
- Qualitative journals
  - to provide longitudinal data for further explanation and enrichment
  - to further elicit participants' open views
- Qualitative interviews



- Expansion and improvement in understanding of data from the above

### **3.5 Data reliability and validity**

Credibility of the design is a significant issue to be addressed. This can be achieved through the protection of reliability and validity.

#### *Data reliability*

Data is considered to have both external and internal reliability (Nunan, 1996). According to Nunan, compliance to external reliability ensures that other researchers can replicate the study while internal validity concerns the consistency and accuracy of the data collected. For the present study, the reliability is protected through consistency in the data collection methods, data analysis and a pilot testing (to be discussed in the validity section).

Dörnyei (2003b) proposes that the multi-item scales in questions assure consistency in data collection. Thereupon, for this study, participants were asked in close-ended question in Likert-scale type. For the qualitative study, journal participants were given guidance. Interviews were controlled by grid and protocol – areas to be explored to minimize the problem of inconsistency and inaccuracy. Furthermore, interviews were conducted by the sole researcher to achieve uniformity and to reduce interference likely caused by different interviewers.

On the other hand, a sole interviewer might cause the problem of subjectivity. Data is open to researchers' interpretation, explanation and description, hence, truth may not be demonstrated, and repetition is difficult. This issue of subjectivity can be alleviated by relying on main data from a quantitative instrument, which was the case for the present study.

Furthermore, Anderson (1998) asks for reliable participant information and systematic, focused and rigorous record-keeping. Hence, for the present study a detailed record of participants and the research process had been kept. Additionally, all records, notes and transcripts and reflective thinking, in other words, an audit trail had been kept, as illustrated in the visual Figure 3.1 above. Finally, in data analysis,

Bryman (2008) suggests “intra-coder reliability”, that is to say, a coding re-checked for consistency overtime. A second coding of qualitative data was conducted after the first coding by a peer student and the researcher. The re-check first looked at the categorization of items into either intrinsic or extrinsic factors as asked in sections 1 and 2 of the questionnaire (as demonstrated in Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.7 and 4.10). The second step looked at the coding of qualitative data derived from the open-ended questions in section 3 of the questionnaire, the journals and the interviews. The percentage of disagreement was insignificant, and the first coding by the researcher was mostly consistent with the second one, with only a few issues which led to a simplification of the wording for the items. For example, in regard to positive incidents related to students (see Table 4.6), the items were changed as shown below:

First coding:	Final coding:
Positives with students	<b>Feedback from student - Positive</b>
- Good appraisal, being thanked by students personally (written, gifts)	<b>- in classes</b>
- positive feedback (during classes)	<b>- outside classes</b>
- good study atmosphere (happy, relaxed, attentive, supporting other students)ask for extra work	<b>- students’ success in learning English</b>
- students’ success (understand the contents) (pass)	<b>- Students” success in examinations</b>
- approach by students after classes, friendship after class	
- positive feedback from real situation	

#### *Data validity*

Validity refers to whether the instruments are measuring what they are supposed to measure for quantitative data, while validity of qualitative data concerns the skill, competence and rigor of the researcher. To address the issue of validity for the present study, a pre-used credible questionnaire was adapted for use and a triangulated approach was adopted. The questionnaire used was adapted from a study of ESL teacher motivation by Kassabgy et al. (2001) which is upheld as one of the pioneering studies in language teacher motivation (Dörnyei, 2003a). Dörnyei also recommends borrowing questions from an established questionnaire with quality questions because bugs have been ironed out. However, because of the different context for the present study, the adapted questionnaire was pilot-tested.

Pilot testing is another means of ensuring validity and concerns the trialling of the research methods and in particular, the validity, reliability and neutrality of the questions in regard to any necessary revision (Mackey & Gass, 2005). It is also used to vet any inappropriate, unclear, unnecessary questions, and to add further questions as necessary. For the present study, two ESL teachers were requested to pilot the questionnaire to check for the neutrality and compatibility of the questions. As a result, two questions relating to students' parents and job title were irrelevant or repeated, and were removed. Furthermore, credibility of the instrument is the repeat response to the same question by the same person. Accordingly, the two participants taking part in pilot testing were asked to complete the modified questionnaire a month later and their second responses were found to have no major discrepancy with the initial responses. Lastly, transcripts of the interview data were returned to interviewees for verification.

In summary, the mixed-methods design provided triangulation of data collected through different methods and over a period of time.

### **3.6 Data analysis**

Data were analyzed by statistical instruments of frequencies, means and percentages to arrive at descriptive findings. As illustrated in Figure 3.1, three different stages of data analysis were conducted. Factor analysis was not employed to compare different categories of intrinsic versus extrinsic with factors such as gender, age, context of employment, a limitation of the present study. The discussion below provides details.

#### **3.6.1 Quantitative close-ended questions**

As already briefly described in the questionnaire section, data in Likert scale from 32 items (32 variable factors) in the first section (a continuum of 5 to 1 in the order of: *very important, somewhat important, no opinion, somewhat unimportant and unimportant* at all) were numerically coded. Similarly, 37 items (first 32 matching those in the previous section) in the second section (a continuum of 5 to 1 in the order of: *strongly agree, agree no opinion, disagree and strongly disagree*) were also numerically coded.

Data were analyzed by individual response analysis to arrive at numerical data of “score means” for an item. An item with a high means was considered as having a significant effect (importance), while those with a lower score would be regarded as insignificant. Hence, the data were displayed in two main tables. The first showed participants’ choice of important items affecting motivation (data from questions in section 1 of the questionnaire). The second indicated agreement or disagreement levels of the rewards from 32 items related to their current job (data from questions in section 2). In addition, a direct comparison of the first and second tables (the 32 matching items) demonstrated the degree of motivation (via their agreement or disagreement) related to the respective item. As discussed in the previous chapter, motivation can be categorised as intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Items under these two main factors were further discussed.

In addition, the 32 items were tabulated according to their rating of importance by respondents. The number of times an item received a rating of *very important* were counted and were turned into a percentage of the total respondents. For example, “Really helping my students to learn English” was rated by 63 out of 72 teachers as *very important*. Hence, the percentage score for that item is 88% and that item tops the frequency table. Then, this frequency table was compared with the “score means” table to check if there was any discrepancy in these two statistical measurements. This comparison is shown in Table 4.7 in the next chapter.

As previously illustrated in Table 3.1, the bio-data from the survey were collated to study the composition of the participants by gender, age, qualifications, experiences in ESL teaching and tenures of employment. This helped the choosing of participants for subsequent surveys. As noted, 16 participants, evenly split in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, were approached for further qualitative study.

### **3.6.2 Qualitative open-ended questions**

Qualitative data from the five open questions in the questionnaire were content analysed to organize them into manageable units, ideas, constructs, themes or patterns. These five questions were specific open questions, which elicited factual information related to the 32 close-ended questions.

First, four of the five open questions in the questionnaire asked for favourable and unfavourable incidents (motivating and de-motivating factors) from the participants. The qualitative data from the four open-ended questions were analysed line-by-line and coded according to the 32 items listed in the first section. For instance, an answer of “Students showing approval at the end of a course of studies” from the open-ended question, was categorized under the item “Being evaluated positively by my students”; and an unfavourable answer of “...students getting bored and lack of commitment’ was counted as an unfavourable incident, under the item “Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from my students”. However, an answer such as “Racial conflicts between different groups in the school” by Q58 was an additional theme (item) discovered from the open-ended question. All were then analysed by counting their frequencies to reflect their significance and hence, a possible triangulation with the findings from close ended questions.

Secondly, the last question elicited suggestions on how to improve or sustain teachers’ motivation. Suggestions for improving or sustaining motivation were also coded under similar themes and were tabulated in frequencies to statistically describe any prominent measures.

In short, qualitative data from these five questions were used to supplement or explain findings derived from the close-ended questions.

### **3.6.3 Qualitative journals and interviews**

Bounded by the journal guidance, participants recorded events of motivation and de-motivation throughout the 2-week period. Similar to data from open-ended questions in the questionnaire survey, there was open coding to be generated from participants’ journals. Consequently, a combination of pre-set and open coding allowed the identification of the frequent and dominant themes to add to or complement data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire. For example, Q6/J6 commented in the journal that “[of a certain ethnicity] students leaving early” was an unfavourable incident. That reported incident was coded and counted under the theme of ethnicity and gender as descriptive statistics (refer to appendix I). Furthermore, qualitative data received from Q6 in the open-ended question suggested that teachers should be informed of any teacher appraisal by management. That suggestion was coded under

“management communication”. A further example such as when Q49/J2 commented in the journal that the teaching plan or curriculum was adjusted by the teacher to suit the needs of students, and this data was used to illustrate a teacher’s means of resolving the issue of the lack of autonomy.

Regarding the interviews, the three taped interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. The data were used for expansion and further explanation. In the example of Q49/J2 regarding the lack of autonomy mentioned in the previous paragraph, the interviewee further explained the process of negotiation with the management, finally arriving at a curriculum solution which catered for some of the students in the class.

After a brief description of analysis of multiple data, the issue of trustworthiness has to be provided. Whenever a closed-question was left unanswered, the percentages calculated were then based on a total of 72 minus 1 because this variable contained one missing value (Bryman, 2008). In brief, trustworthiness of analysis of data was achieved in the following ways:

- Triangulation of multiple data sources
- Comparison of two types of data
- Prolong engagement of the research (6-month data collection)
- Conduction of an “intra-coder reliability” and an audit trail

### **3.7 Ethical issues**

The present study was approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) and conducted according to its ethical guidelines. Participants were provided with respective Participant Information Sheets and Consents Forms before taking part in the questionnaire survey, journal taking or interviews. On the forms, the aim of the research, the nature, the use of the information, participants’ duties and the protection of their privacy and confidentiality were clearly explained. The participants were mature ESL teachers not known to the researcher and hence there existed no power relationship.

Taking into account the nature of this study, participants' honest answers regarding job dissatisfaction could pose some threat to them if these answers were known by the institutions they worked for. Therefore, effort was made to ensure the absolute confidentiality of data. All data and Consent Forms were returned directly to the researcher or the supervisor. In the four instances where returns were collected by key persons in the language schools, participants were asked to seal their questionnaires in envelopes. Anonymity was guaranteed by assigning an individual number to all participants and by assurance that no identifying information would be included in the report.

Regarding discomfort, the questionnaire added the statement: "You are free not to answer any questions that you feel uncomfortable or at risk". Moreover, participants were informed of the right to withdraw at any time. Participants were expected to possess professional literacy ability in English and were not expected to encounter any difficulty in comprehending the aims of the study. However, contacts for accessing the researcher, the supervisor and AUTECH were available for any possible queries. For the three interviewees, a personal encounter allowed opportunities for further explanation.

### **3.8 Limitations and summary**

This chapter has outlined the research design with detailed discussion upon the appropriateness and application of a mixed methods approach for the present study. The closed and open questions of the survey, journals and interviews enabled a comprehensive collection of data to be analyzed to address the three research questions. The questionnaire survey was the principal tool for collecting quantitative data, which provided insights into the significant motivating or de-motivating factors and the degree of motivation. These data in turn informed the subsequent qualitative study. Data from the qualitative open questions, journals and interviews supplemented and triangulated the quantitative findings to improve the validity and reliability of the study. Furthermore, sampling and ethical issues were thoroughly considered to ensure the integrity of the study.

However, as commented upon by Bryman (1992), there are no “universally superior research designs or methods for the research question” (p. 68). There were limitations to the present design which are listed as follows:

- Due to the time and resource constraints and the availability of participants, only seven participants in the survey questionnaire took part in journal keeping. Moreover, only three out of seven journal keepers were able to be interviewed. As a consequence, these limitations impact on triangulation of the data and the subsequent reliability and validity of the findings.
- It has to be noted that the person in charge of a language school who was contacted to oversee the procedure had the discretion of choosing whom (ESL teachers) to give questionnaires to. Any possible bias involved cannot be detected or eliminated.
- The sample was self-selected, hence, there is always the limitation of representation. Participants might be a specific type of ‘eager-beaver’ or ‘gung-ho’ respondents, or those motivated enough to participate in the study, and findings can only be generalized to represent this sub-population of ESL teachers rather than generalized to the entire population.
- While the research design attempted to capture the motivations of ESL teachers across the tertiary sector (i.e. private language schools, polytechnics and university departments), data from ESL teachers in a range of community contexts was not collected. Consequently, findings are only generalizable to the sector investigated
- Finally, the limitations of data collected prevented generalization via inferential statistical procedures



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed the mixed-methods approach and the research design adopted to gather data. This chapter highlights the findings after analyzing these data. The findings aim to address the research questions for the present study in the New Zealand context:

1. What are the factors/reasons which affect ESL teacher motivation/de-motivation?
2. What is the current degree of motivation/de-motivation among ESL teachers?
3. What can be done to sustain or nurture the motivation of ESL teachers?

As previously mentioned, the present questionnaire was informed by Kassabgy et al.'s (2001) study. Their approach of analyzing data by measurement of "mean" was adopted. To address the first two questions, quantitative data gathered were descriptively analyzed by counting frequencies and then the mean for every item. The overall procedures are used:

- First, to identify teachers' evaluation of the 32 statements (the terms statement, item or factor were used interchangeably) in the questionnaire, that is, the salient motivating/de-motivating factors
- Secondly, to find their degree of motivation/de-motivation by comparing the salient items' importance and their rewards as perceived by respondents

The third research question was addressed by the last open-ended question in the questionnaire. The qualitative data were content analyzed, coded by the pre-set themes, then frequency counted ("quantitizing"). In answering the three research questions and during the merging process, qualitative data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, the journals and interviews provided further explanation.

As mentioned previously in Chapter 3 there were 72 questionnaire returnees of whom seven kept a journal for two weeks. Three journal keepers were further interviewed. For anonymity, all questionnaire returnees were allocated a number from Q1-Q75 (numbers 1, 2 and 61 were not used) in sequence. Journal participants were further assigned numbers from J1 to J7; and three further interviewees with I1 to I3 respectively. For example, the teacher who was assigned a number of “Q3” in the questionnaire, and who then kept a journal, and was interviewed, was indicated by “Q3/J1/I1”; however, a quote from that journal was indicated by “Q3/J1” and by “Q3/I1” from the interview.

## **4.2 Research Question One**

Data from the quantitative close-ended questions in the first section of the questionnaire addressed the first question which was: what are the major motivating/de-motivating factors? As described in detail in the previous chapter, 32 items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale for respondents to choose between: with a rating from 5 to 1 (5 = *very important*, 4 = *somewhat important*, 3 = *no opinion* or neutral, 2 = *somewhat unimportant* and 1 = *unimportant at all*).

As a first step, numerical “mean” was calculated for each item and those items were tabulated in descending order. A table of the most important items (means of 4.5 or above) was analyzed. The findings then expanded with relevant qualitative data from the four open-ended questions in section 3 of the questionnaire (these questions asked for favourable or unfavourable incidents during interactions with management and students), journals and interviews. This table was then triangulated with a percentage scores table of factors rated as the *very important* to test if there was any discrepancy between these two statistical measurements.

### **4.2.1 Items reflecting intrinsic factors**

Most of the questionnaire items were seen by the respondents as being important: 13 items were rated with overall means higher than 4.5 (*very important*); another 14 were between 4.0 and 4.5 (*somewhat important*). As mentioned in the Literature Review chapter, *intrinsic* factors were identified as: (1) imparting knowledge, (2) personal achievement or challenge and (3) service to society. In contrast, factors related to

material returns, job security and interactions with students, colleagues or management were categorized as *extrinsic* factors.

In the current study, intrinsic items appeared to stand out from the data, with two of them rated as first and second. These intrinsic items are listed in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: ESL teacher values – intrinsic items**

Items reflecting intrinsic factors	(means)
Really helping my students to learn English	4.88
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	4.83
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	4.67
Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	4.65
Having a challenging job	4.22
Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment	4.17
Providing service to society	4.11
(Note: Coloured denoted intrinsic items)	

As shown in Table 4.1, all items reflecting intrinsic aspects of work were rated higher than 4.0 (*somewhat important*). To a large extent, this reflected respondents' generally valuing the intrinsic aspects of work over extrinsic factors (to be compared and discussed in section 4.2.2). Imparting knowledge such as helping students to learn English was rated the most important. Job-related factors that connected with personal feeling, achievement and challenge were rated near the top range of *very important*. However, providing service to society and being recognized for teaching were considered to be least important among those items. The important intrinsic items that topped table 4.1 are discussed below in more detail, complemented by qualitative data.

#### **4.2.2 Most important items**

Table 4.2 shows the 13 statements rated between *somewhat important* and *very important* (4.5 was taken as a point between 5 = *very important* and 4 = *somewhat important*).

**Table 4.2: ESL teacher values – most important items**

Items rated as the most important	(Means > 4.50)
Really helping my students to learn English	4.88
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	4.83
Being fairly treated in my organization	4.81
Having a friendly relationship with my students	4.79
Having the freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching	4.74
Having a good relationship with the person I report to	4.72
Having good relationships with colleagues	4.69
Able to work independently and use my own initiative	4.67
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	4.67
Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	4.65
Having a person I report to who is responsive to suggestions and grievances	4.57
Being evaluated positively by my students	4.57
Job security	4.51

Note: Colour denotes intrinsic items

“Really helping my students to learn English” received the highest mean of 4.88; and was followed by “Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating” with a mean of 4.83. These were both intrinsic factors. Qualitative comments from the teachers provided some further insights:

“I felt good about my teaching because she [student] appreciated it & obviously learnt a lot in the 6 weeks in my class from what she said.” (Q3/J1)

“I can see the difference I have made to them.” (Q49/I2)

“...a clear improvement in their language output...I feel good to have helped them along...” (Q53/J4)

“...they got all the vocab[ulary] right. Very pleased with myself” (Q6/J6)

“Excellent feedback session with students reflecting on vocab[ulary] and phrases learned this week showing very good uptake by students...was very happy to see end result at end of the three hours.” (Q47/J5)

Table 4.2 above also indicates the six extrinsic factors which followed next. Five of those were institutional in nature: fairly treated in my organization, teaching freedom, work independence, and relationship with management and colleagues. It was

interesting to note that though “fairly treated” was rated as the third most important factor, it was mentioned only twice in the qualitative data:

“A long-serving, contract-based colleague was passed over (in favour of an outside applicant) after applying for a permanent position...created tension with administration.” (Q34)

“Certain courses...only taught by certain teachers...Everyone should be treated exactly the same, but they aren’t.” (Q42)

This relative absence of comments related to “fairly treated” might be due to the fact that the respondents had also considered institutional working conditions, such as policy, salary and workload, as factors for “fairness”. Hence, respondents might have voiced their experiences regarding “fairness” through policy, salary and workload.

Autonomy such as teaching freedom and work independence with pursuance of own initiative were the next two important items. Qualitative data from the open-ended questions, interviews and journals provided some explanations:

“Discouraging teaching only IELTS – such a strict curriculum means little time to build rapport to students” (Q49/J2) “The curriculum has very little relevance to them [students]...That pissed me off.” (Q49/I2)

“...my boss didn’t understand one of my more creative lessons and banned it.” (Q52)

“Being given a free hand to do what I want and to work on my own projects makes me happy in my job.” (Q55)

Furthermore, a journal keeper voiced dissatisfaction in entries for two days regarding the restraints of curriculum; and another teacher described the annoyance caused by a lack of work independence:

“...disappointed with depersonalized nature of FCE [First Certificate in English, Cambridge]...[in other entry] Its just a lot less stimulating and energize.”(Q47/J5)

“...one day no one [students] showed up...[manager] made me stay in the classroom till the end of the class.” (Q6)

Relations with students, management and colleagues were rated to be significantly important as illustrated below respectively:

With students:

“Helped student fish key out of drain on road, rapport increased with that student.” (Q56/J3)

“A particular class of students...developed strong friendships...still keep in contact and that’s 10 years ago now.” (Q55)

“Received emails from past students... It was really rewarding to see how happy they are to keep in touch with me” (Q53/J4)

“A student misinterpreted my friendliness and developed a crush on me.” (Q55)

#### With management:

“The manager discussed [with me] future plans at a personal level.” (Q31)

#### With colleagues:

“A colleague consulted me...lent me role-play cards/Assembly was interesting today which made me proud to be part of my language school.” (Q3/J1)

“Feeling insecure...colleagues supported my decision to work less and deal with my anxiety...” (Q49)

“...counseling sessions around a relationship with a colleague...affecting the relationship and atmosphere at work.” (Q73)

#### However, there was also concern about the relationship with student:

“...a female student followed me for several months...outside school time. It upset me and changed the way I dealt with students to some extent.” (Q70)

The remaining five items among the top rankings had another two that were intrinsic: “a job I can learn and develop”, and “a job that allows best personal performance”. Relatively little had been mentioned directly about “personal performance” in the qualitative data. It might be because “personal performance” had been regarded as related to “helping students”. By contrast and unsurprisingly, the theme of professional learning and development was cited most frequently as improvement measures, which is discussed in Research Question Three. Here are two citations which underpin its importance:

“[feeling improved by having] more opportunities for professional development.”(Q63)

“...finished a seminar of professional development...I feel more confident with my future teaching.” (Q14/J7)

The last three statements in Table 4.2 concerned management responsiveness, positive evaluation from student and job security. Several teachers vividly described their feelings about these factors:

“My head of school carried out a teaching appraisal in my classroom and made very positive and constructive remarks. (Q71)

“I commented “very good students” and heard one respond “very good teacher” (Q32)

“...continually been employed as a contract teacher both part time and full time...since...have never had a permanent position. ” (Q64)

“I am casual, but have been teaching at this school for almost 2 years. I would appreciate having more security and benefits...” (Q22)

It was noticeable that the last participant (Q22) pointed out the desire for more *benefits*. However, “Fringe benefits” was ranked last in importance in the 32 statements survey.

### 4.2.3 Somewhat important and least important items

Table 4.3 shows the statements within a category rated below 4.5 but still above the *somewhat important* scale of 4.

**Table 4.3: ESL teacher values – somewhat important items**

Items rated as somewhat important	(Means < 4.50 > 4.0)
Having a manageable work load	4.47
Having support from other teachers	4.44
Having an adequate and comfortable physical working environment	4.42
Working with colleagues as a team	4.40
Being evaluated positively by the person I report to	4.38
Having clear rules and procedures	4.33
Working for a reputable Organization	4.28
Earning a good salary	4.22
Having a challenging job	4.22
Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment	4.17
Being included in the goal setting process	4.14
Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from my Students	4.13
Providing service to society	4.11
Having contact with professionals in the field of English language teaching	4.08

Note: Colour denotes intrinsic items

As shown in Table 4.3, manageable workload was regarded as a major concern and topped this category. The excessive teaching and unrelated work was described as affecting the performance:

“Sometimes I have too much to do to be able to do my best.” (Q67)

“*Paperwork’s not finished. Takes so long...[next day] Paperwork’s finished. At last. What a nightmare!!!*” (original emphasis) (Q6/J6)

Physical working environment was rated 4.42. The negative feelings were reflected in the questionnaire and journals:

“...in an extreme small teachers’ room where 13 teachers already fight for space, 2 more desks were placed...without any consultation...we protested...ignored *again!*” (Q42)

“I am generally nervous about the onset of summer with regard to my schools malfunctioning or nonexistent air conditioning.” (Q47/J5)

It was interesting to note that “Earning a good salary” was given an overall mean of 4.4 and was only *somewhat important*. As discussed earlier, teachers were more concerned about job security and this was also reflected in the limited qualitative data on dissatisfaction with pay:

“I already feel very positive about teaching...higher pay would be fabulous.” (Q34)

Surprisingly, coming bottom in this category was “Having contact with professionals in the field of English language teaching”. This item was given a low rating here although it was suggested by 16 respondents to be a measure that could improve their feelings (motivation). This is dealt with when addressing Research Question Three.

Similarly, it was interesting to note that extrinsic “Fringe benefits” was mentioned four times by respondents when asked in the open-ended question to name measures for improvement. However, “Fringe benefits” received the lowest rating of 2.8 in importance. That was *somewhat unimportant*. The four other least important items were also extrinsic factors as shown in Table 4.4.



**Table 4.4: ESL teacher values – least important items**

<b>Items rated as the least important</b>	<b>(Means &lt; 4.0)</b>
Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to	3.73
Having flexible working hours	3.69
Being promoted to a senior supervisory job at some point in my career	3.09
Having a profession that is prestigious	2.93
Fringe benefits	2.80

As indicated in Table 4.4, other extrinsic items such as “Having a profession that is prestigious”, “Being promoted to a senior supervisory job at some point in my career” and “Having flexible working hours” were ranked amongst the least important aspects of work. However, it was interesting to note that “Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to” received such low ranking. This was contradictory to the frequencies of this item in the qualitative data to be discussed next.

#### **4.2.4 Quantitative and qualitative data triangulation**

In order to validate and enrich the findings, respondents were asked in four open-ended questions in the questionnaire to list, respectively, any incidents that were very favourable and unfavourable: first, in the relationship with the person they report to (management), and second, in dealing with students. These data were coded in accordance with the themes of items in the questionnaire. Frequencies were counted to demonstrate the significance of the themes.

Regarding relationship with management, Table 4.5 below indicated the frequencies of those categorized qualitative data that corresponded to main themes in the 32 statements in closed questions.

**Table 4.5: Incidents related to management**

Factors	Positive	Negative
Feedback from management	34	3
Communication (and support)	9	13
Rewards (promotion)	12	6
Management policy	0	18
Misunderstanding & personal issues	1	5

Respondents named positive feedback from management as the most significant factor during their favourable encounters. Together with unfavourable, there were 37 mentions (34 favourable and 3 unfavourable). In contrast, “Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to” was rated *somewhat unimportant* (a mean of 3.73) in the quantitative survey and was in the bottom five. Another item reflecting a similar theme, “Being evaluated positively by the person I report to” was rated more important with a mean of 4.38. This seemingly disconfirming evidence from qualitative data was considered, in fact, to have “confirm[ed] the accuracy of the data analysis, because in real life, we expect the evidence for themes to diverge...” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p.135) However, to clarify this threat, Creswell and Plano Clark qualified this saying by asking for a follow-up study by larger qualitative samples or by weighting the case.

Communication (and support) with management was significant though respondents complained more, mostly, about lack of consultation and unsupportive responses (13 unfavourable out of the total of 22). This supported respondents’ rating of “Having a person I report to who is responsive” with a high mean of 4.57 as discussed.

Furthermore, job related factors such as rewards (for example, having lunches, assignments of new teaching and promotions) were mentioned 12 times as favourable encounters; but six as unfavourable such as unrewarding of work. Experiences of management policies, such as placement of students, were all unfavourable, and were mentioned 18 times. This high frequency to a certain extent supported the high rankings of items “being fairly treated”, “having the freedom in teaching”, and “having a good relationship with the person I report to” in the quantitative questions.

In short, except for the item of management feedback, it was likely that qualitative and quantitative data regarding respondents' attitudes towards the management corresponded with each other.

In contrast, as indicated in Table 4.6 below, incidents dealing with students could be described to be matching findings in Table 4.1, which identified key intrinsic factors:

**Table 4.6: Incidents related to students**

Factors	Positive	Negative
Feedback from students (total)	(67)	(37)
- in classes	44	25
- outside classes	11	3
- students' success in learning English	9	5
- students' success in examinations	3	4
Teachers' own problems	0	15
Ethnicity & gender issues	0	7
Colleagues' support	1	1

Feedback from students was mentioned a total of 104 times, as favourable or unfavourable incidents, in the open-ended questions. They were further broken down into four categories: positive or negative feedback in classes (for example, attentiveness or inattentiveness and appraisal during classes), contact outside classes, success in learning English and success in examinations. The above feedback supported the most important ranking of the two intrinsic items: helping students to learn English and having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating (refer to Table 4.1). Even when the learning atmosphere was de-motivating in classes, in 25 incidents, responsibilities were shouldered by teachers with reasons such as ill preparation. However, most noticeable was the mention of ethnicity and gender issues by some respondents which were all negative. Comments by the teachers drew a clearer picture:

"Racial conflicts between different groups in the school." (Q58)

"I had a student that did not like or respect females...very unpleasant for everyone."(Q66)

"...when a male student thinks its Ok to just walk out of class without saying anything... a class full of males can be intimidating..." (Q48)

"Students went on strike because they weren't used to my teaching style...my students were all Asian." (Q40)

"[emphasis of a certain ethnicity] students leaving early..." (Q6/J6)

“[emphasis of a certain ethnicity] students, especially males, sleeping at their desks...” (Q22)

“A student said...he wanted a man teacher.” (Q13)

This new theme, of ethnicity or gender encountered by respondents, initiated by respondents will be examined further in the Discussion chapter.

In the confines of the present study, there was no further study of responses by gender, education or types of institutes. In addition, it has to be mentioned that this mixed-methods triangulation validity was limited by the following:

- The open-ended questions were not responded to by 11 of the 72 questionnaire returnees, hence, qualitative data was provided from a smaller sample
- Themes in the close-ended questions were not fully represented in the open questions as only dealings with management and students were asked
- Qualitative data may be over-counted since they were not transformed into a dichotomous variable (0 or 1) to count a certain theme occurred for each individual

In addition, only the measurement of “mean” was utilized as the statistical analysis. In order to check if there was any possible discrepancy by this instrument, items in Table 4.1 was compared with a percentage scores table of items rated as *very important*. Table 4.7 is a comparison of items rated in their importance by means and percentages.

**Table 4.7: Comparison of most important items by means and percentage**

Items with top rating in means	(means)	Items rated <i>very important</i> in %	(percentage)
Really helping my students to learn English	4.88	Really helping my students to learn English	88%
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	4.83	Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	83%
Being fairly treated in my organization	4.81	Being fairly treated in my organization	81%
Having a friendly relationship with my students	4.79	Having a friendly relationship with my students	79%
Having the freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching	4.74	Having the freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching	75%
Having a good relationship with the person I report to	4.72	Having good relationships with colleagues	74%
Having good relationships with colleagues	4.69	Having a good relationship with the person I report to	72%
Able to work independently and use my own initiative	4.67	Able to work independently and use my own initiative	69%
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	4.67	Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	67%
Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	4.65	Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	65%
Having a person I report to who is responsive to suggestions and grievances	4.57	Being evaluated positively by my students	63%
Being evaluated positively by my students	4.57	Job security	62%
Job security	4.51	Having a person I report to who is responsive to suggestions and grievances	59%

Note: Colour denotes intrinsic items

In Table 4.7, the percentage indicated the proportion of respondents who had chosen *very important* for that corresponding statement. For example, “Really helping my students to learn English” was rated by 88% of respondents to be *very important*. As shown in this table, the top ten items rated either by overall means or frequency percentage matched, and the 11<sup>th</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> were positioned slightly differently. Therefore, it could be concluded that the most important items were similarly identified through the two statistical measurements of means and percentages.

In summary, addressing Research Question One, through the analysis of the questionnaire, journals and interviews, it was found that:

- Intrinsic items were generally rated as most or more important than extrinsic items; *intrinsic* items such as student and personal development or enjoyment factors were found to be playing significant roles
- Fairness, school policies and teaching or working autonomy were among the more significant *extrinsic* items indicated by the survey
- Other extrinsic factors such as job security and workload were rated to be more significant than salary though they were all at a comparatively lower ranking
- Frequent ethnicity and gender incidents were mentioned by respondents as unfavourable experiences
- For triangulation, findings derived from quantitative data mostly corresponded with those from qualitative data (in descriptive frequencies) except for the item of “feedback from management”, which was rated with a low mean from quantitative questions but was mentioned most often as favourable or unfavourable incidents by teachers from the qualitative open-ended questions

The second research question was also addressed by data collected from the questionnaire. Similarly, qualitative data provided flesh to the bone, that is, experiences of respondents that brought evidence for a deeper knowledge.

### **4.3 Research Question Two**

The second research question sought to find out teachers' degree of motivation or demotivation through the perspective of job satisfaction. To address this question, in the second section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to agree or disagree whether or not they had rewards from 32 items reflecting different aspects of work. These 32 items in the second section were matching to the 32 items in the first section. For example, they were asked whether they agree or disagree to "I have a satisfactory salary"; that corresponded and is to be compared with "Earning a good salary" asked in the first section.

The data were analysed by two approaches to address Research Question Two: First, by examining individual item's means score in rewards, and second, by comparing that mean score with that item's mean score of importance. According to the fit hypotheses, it is "those who attach the most importance to specific rewards will be happiest if they get them and unhappiest if they do not" (Kassabgy, 2001, p. 215). Hence, a comparison of data between the first and second sections might be able to provide some insights. In other words, data were analyzed to find whether respondents were satisfied or dissatisfied with those significant items (the term "reward" was used interchangeably) identified in section one.

Furthermore, five additional questions in section two asked respondents whether they intended to change jobs or careers. These data, together with qualitative data from journals and interviews, provided complementarity.

#### **4.3.1 Rewards**

First, Tables 4.8 and 4.9 below show items in descending order according to their means score. A higher score indicates respondents' perception of better reward. Second and more importantly, an item's means of importance and reward were compared to find any discrepancy in percentage. For example, "Job security" has a mean of importance of 4.51, and a mean of reward of 3.22; then the reward had a discrepancy of 1.29 in mean value or 29% discrepancy. These discrepancy percentages were shown in Table 4.10, Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 for more detailed analysis.

### Means score

Half of the 32 items were perceived to be satisfactory in rewards. As indicated in Table 4.8, 16 items rated above the means of 4 (4 = *agree*), which suggested that respondents were perceived to be satisfied with many aspects of their current jobs.

**Table 4.8: ESL teachers' rewards received from their jobs**

Items with means > 4.0	Rewards	(Importance)
I have a friendly relationship with my students	<b>4.58</b>	(4.79)
I have good relationships with colleagues	<b>4.44</b>	(4.69)
I know that I am helping my students to learn English	<b>4.40</b>	(4.88)
I work for a reputable organization	<b>4.39</b>	(4.44)
I have support from other teachers	<b>4.39</b>	(4.28)
My students evaluated me positively	<b>4.31</b>	(4.57)
My job that is enjoyable and stimulating	<b>4.30</b>	(4.83)
I have a good relationship with the person I report to	<b>4.29</b>	(4.72)
<i>I am allowed sufficient freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching</i>	<b>4.24</b>	(4.74)
I have a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	<b>4.18</b>	(4.65)
<i>My job is challenging</i>	<b>4.14</b>	(4.22)
I am fairly treated in my organization	<b>4.10</b>	(4.81)
The person I report to is responsive to suggestions and grievances	<b>4.08</b>	(4.57)
I have team work at school	<b>4.07</b>	(4.40)
The person I report to evaluates me positively	<b>4.07</b>	(4.38)
There are clear rules and procedures at work	<b>4.04</b>	(4.38)

Note: Means of Importance of matching items in (*Italic*)

Only one item: “I have a friendly relationship with my students” was agreed strongly, and received a mean higher than 4.5 (*strongly agree* = 5). It was interesting to note that the top two rewarding items concerned relationships with students and colleagues. On the other hand, relationship with the management received a much lower satisfactory rating, and was at position number eight. The most important item of “helping my students to learn English” was also rated to be satisfactory with a high mean of 4.40.

However, items that respondents rated satisfactory were in many cases incongruent with what they perceived as important. As shown in Table 4.8, very important items, such as “work autonomy”, “fairly treated in my organization”, “workload” and “job



security”, received relatively low ratings in rewards. Those items were emphasized in Tables 4.8 and 4.9. Whether this might be a concern will be further unveiled when discussing their percentage disparities.

**Table 4.9: ESL teachers’ rewards *not* received from their jobs**

<b>Items with means &lt; 4.0</b>	<b>Rewards</b>	<b>(Importance)</b>
My job provides scope for me to learn and develop to my full potential	3.97	(4.63)
I receive frequent enough feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from my students	3.93	(4.13)
I have an adequate and comfortable physical working environment	3.90	(4.42)
I know that I am providing service to society	3.85	(4.11)
I have a satisfactory salary	3.83	(4.22)
Teaching accomplishments are recognized	3.76	(4.17)
I have sufficient opportunities for contact with professionals in the field of English teaching	3.68	(4.04)
I receive frequent enough feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to	3.61	(3.76)
<i>I have manageable work load</i>	3.58	(4.49)
I have flexible working hours	3.56	(3.69)
I am included in my organization’s goal setting process	3.42	(4.14)
Independence and initiative are rewarded	3.38	(4.67)
<i>I have good job security</i>	3.22	(4.51)
Teaching English is a prestigious profession	3.15	(3.05)
I have prospects for promotion	3.15	(4.38)
I have good fringe benefits	2.92	(2.80)

Note: Means of Importance of matching items in *(Italic)*

As shown in Table 4.9, extrinsic items such as salary, physical working environment, working hours, involvement in goal setting, along with workload and job security were all rated below satisfactory levels. Furthermore, the least important item of “Fringe benefits” was most dissatisfied with a mean below 3. However, this might be assumed to be negligible since fringe benefits was the lowest consideration in respondents’ expectations.

As mentioned, getting higher rewards from the important items will make teachers happier. Hence, an analysis of any discrepancies between respondents’ evaluation of items and their perceived rewards would likely lend more support to the present analysis.

### 4.3.2 Disparity between rewards and importance

In general, respondents gave higher ratings to the importance of most aspects of work than to the rewards. The overall mean for the evaluation of 32 items was 4.28 (between *somewhat important* and *very important*); where the overall mean for rewards was only 3.90 (between *neutral* and *agree*). The overall discrepancy between evaluation and rewards was 8.9%. However, certain important items had a much higher discrepancy percentage.

Remember it was found, in section 4.2 Research Question One, that all seven items reflecting intrinsic factors stood out, and were regarded as important by respondents. However, none of these seven intrinsic items received rewards in means that exceeded or even matched their means in importance. Table 4.10 shows the discrepancies in percentage of each item.

**Table 4.10: Intrinsic items' discrepancies**  
(rewards in means comparing with their means in importance)

Intrinsic items	Rewards	Importance	Discrepancy
Really helping my students to learn English	4.4	(4.88)	-10%
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating	4.3	(4.83)	-11%
Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	4.18	(4.65)	-10%
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential	3.97	(4.63)	-14%
Having a challenging job	4.14	(4.22)	-2%
Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment	3.76	(4.17)	-10%
Providing service to society	3.85	(4.11)	-6%

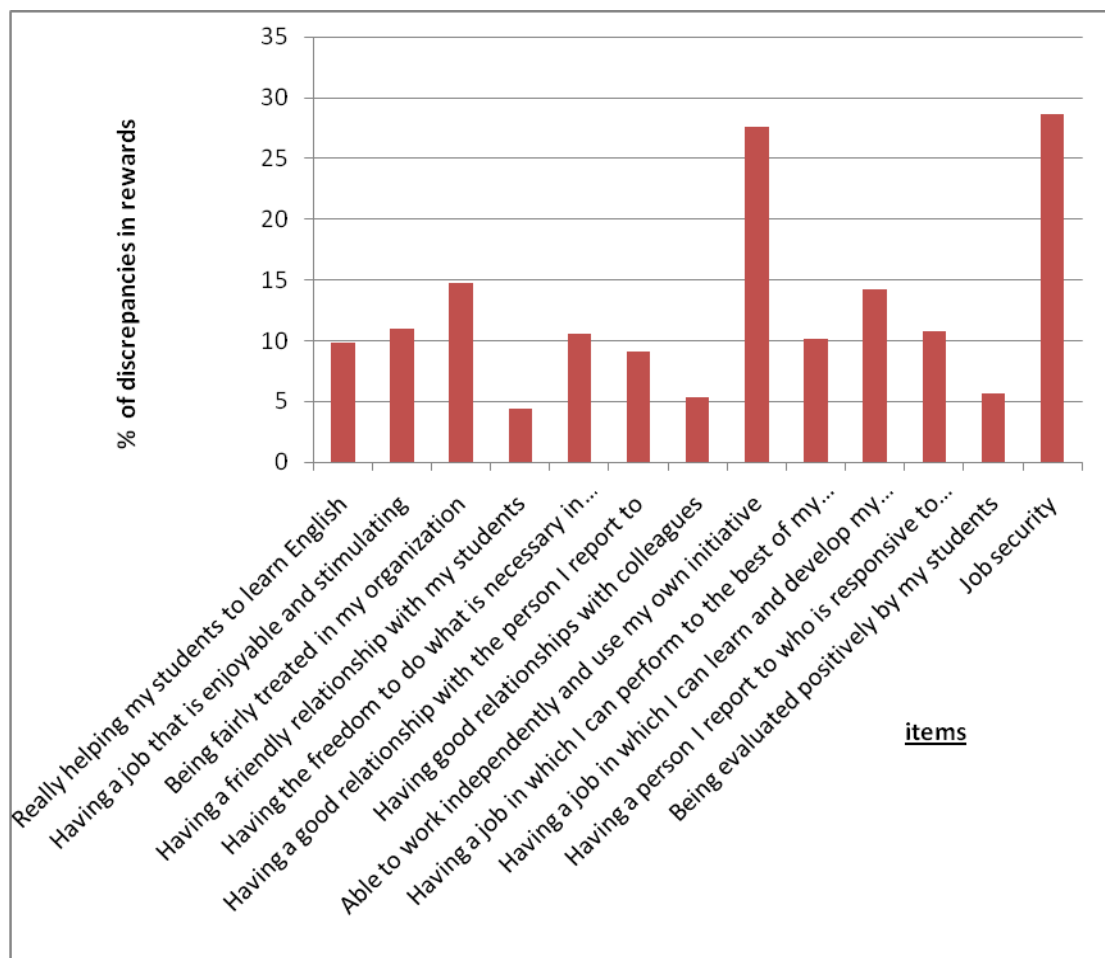
Note: Means of Importance of matching items in (*Italic*)

Colour denotes intrinsic items

Most of the rewards of the intrinsic items fell short of their importance by about 10%, including the top item “Really helping students to learn English”, and two job related factors: “...perform to the best of my ability” and “...teaching accomplishment recognized”. However, respondents were mostly disappointed with “...being able to learn and develop my ability”. That item had the highest discrepancy of 14%. In

contrast, respondents' "Having a challenging job" was almost congruent. Having said the above, however, it might be difficult to suggest what discrepancy in percentage level might have or did affect their motivation.

Further than discussing the disparity in percentages of intrinsic items, all items in their descending order of "rated importance" were indicated in Figures 4.1 and 4.2 for further analysis.

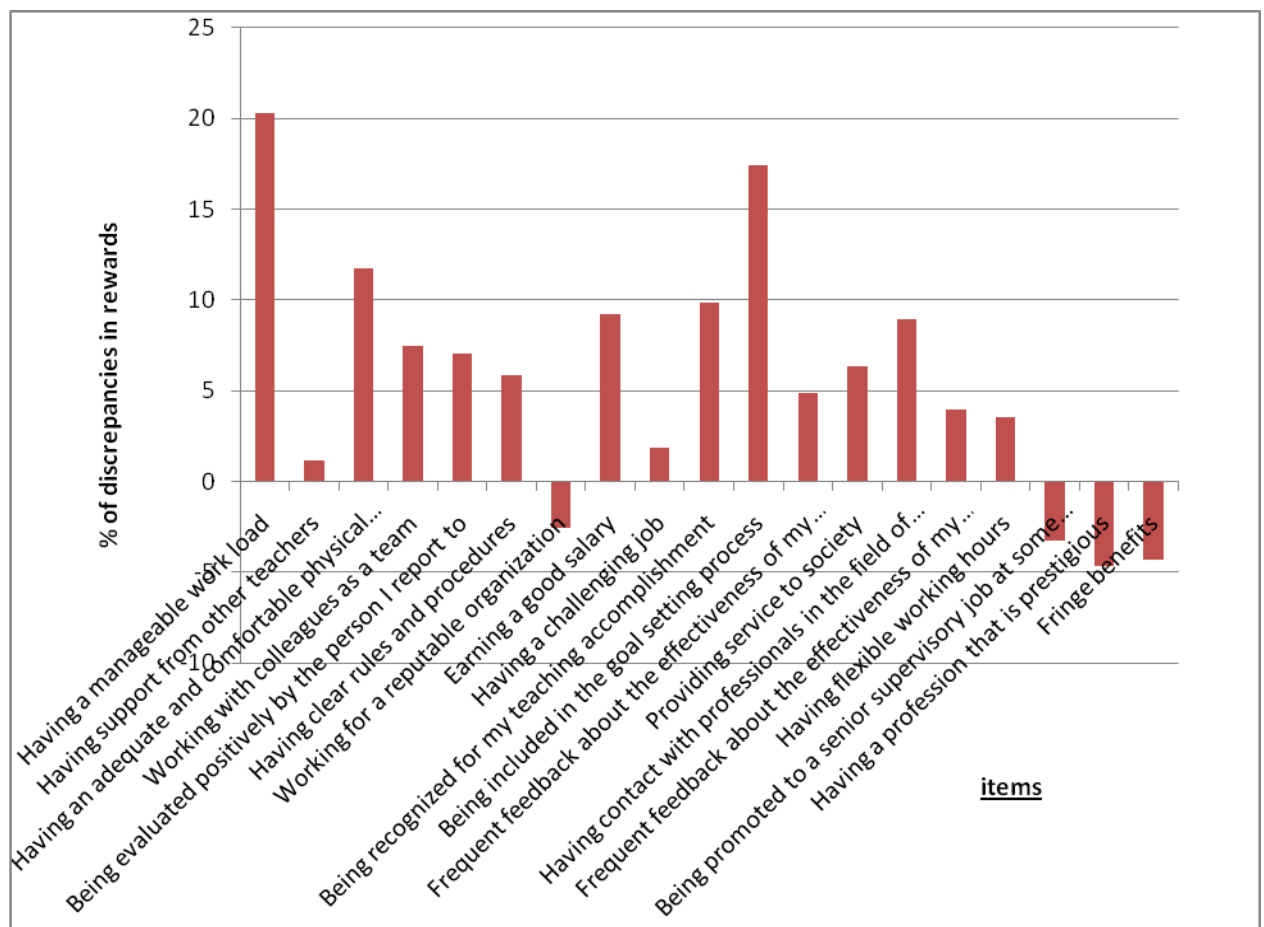


**Figure 4.1: Items of more importance: Percentage differences between means of rewards and importance**

Figure 4.1 shows that of the 13 more important items, among them, rewards from extrinsic items such as "Being fairly treated in my organization" and "Having a job that I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential" had discrepancies of 15% and 14% respectively. More alarmingly, "Able to work independently and use my own initiative" and "Job security" had the largest discrepancies of 28% and 29%

respectively. In fact, these two were among the worst rewarding items with means of less than 4, as indicated in Table 4.9. Overall, 10 had a range of discrepancies about or above 10%.

In contrast, only 5 out of the 19 remaining less important items had discrepancies about or above 10%. The percentage differences of the less important items, and 5 unimportant items, were listed in Figure 4.2.



**Figure 4.2: Items of less importance: Percentage differences between means of rewards and importance**

The most notable discrepancies were rewards from “Having a manageable workload” and “Being included in the goal setting process”. The negative percentages were 20% and 17% respectively. Another notable dissatisfaction in reward was “Having an adequate and comfortable physical working environment”, which had an inadequacy of 12%.

Salary was generally perceived to be a significant affecting factor, and had a relative high rating of importance (mean = 4.22). Interestingly, though its mean of reward was a low 3.83, the discrepancy was a relatively low 9% which made it comparatively insignificant. Its discrepancy level was similar to those items such as “Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment” and “Having contact with professionals in the field of English teaching”.

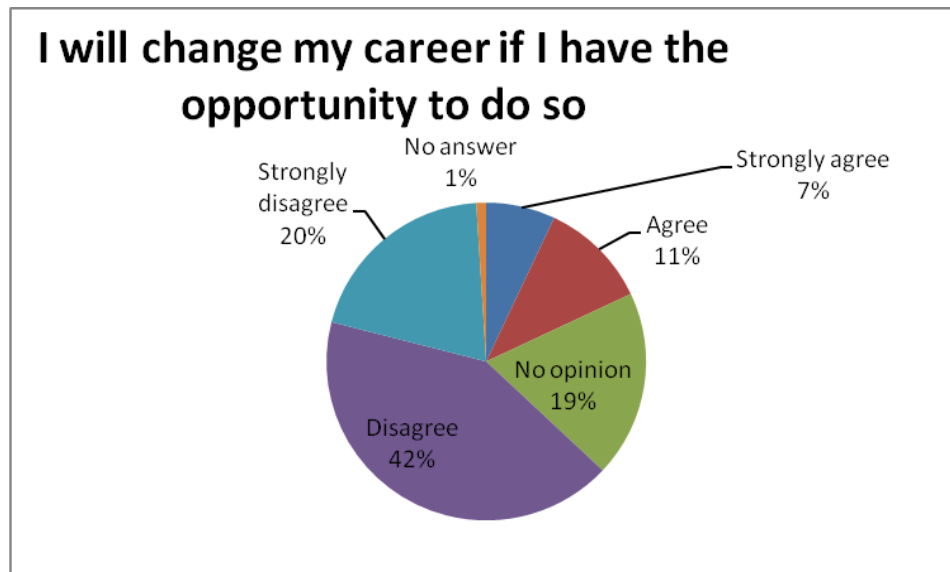
Relationships with students and colleagues and evaluation from students, had a discrepancy percentage of only about 5%. It is more than likely that respondents were happier with these rewards.

In contrast, rewards from four items exceeded their importance. They were: reputable organization, promotion to a supervisory job, prestigious profession and fringe benefits. However, the last three were at the bottom of importance, and hence, might be regarded as insignificant.

In short, more items of importance had discrepancies above 10%. As respondents seemed to generally place higher ratings upon intrinsic items (as found in Research Question One), it was noted that these items had a rather moderate discrepancy percentage of about 10%. On the contrary, there were rather drastic discrepancies among some extrinsic items, such as job security, workload, work autonomy and involvement in goal setting. Clearly these were identified as the four major aspects of work that respondents did not have in their current jobs.

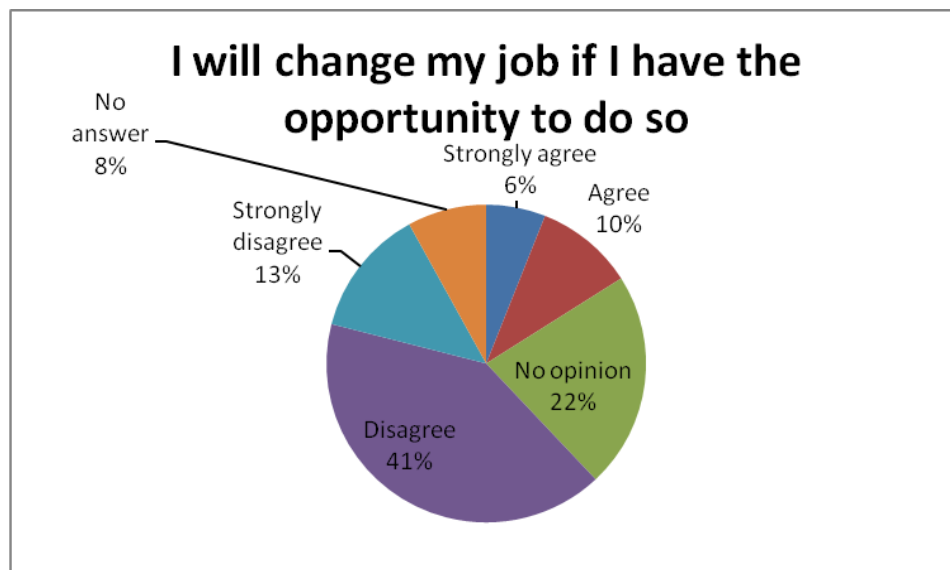
#### **4.3.3 Career or job changing**

To complement the preceding analysis, further data from additional questions about respondents’ intention in changing jobs or career were examined.



**Figure 4.3: Intention of respondents in changing career**

As indicated in figure 4.3, a total of 62% of respondents *strongly disagree* (20%) or *disagree* (42%) that they would change their career even if there were chances. In other words, 44 of 71 respondents (one did not answer) were enjoying or willing to continue pursuing their present career. Conversely, 18% or 13 respondents indicated that they would change their career if possible. However, a notable 19%, or 14 respondents chose *no opinion*. This may imply that they were not committed and were in a “transitional” period.



**Figure 4.4: Intention of respondents in changing present job**

Data from the question about intention to change job, as shown in Figure 4.4, could be perceived as congruent with their responses to career changing. Asked whether they would change jobs if being able, a similar majority of 54% or 39 respondents replied “no” by choosing *strongly disagree* (13%) or *disagree* (41%). In contrast, 11 participants (16%) responded that they were willing to do so. However, it had to be noted that 6 respondents or 8% did not answer this question, where 15 respondents (22%) responded with *no opinion*.

Given the response, it was likely that respondents had regarded their job as equivalent to this career if viewed within the context of intention of changing. Some teachers explained their commitments in the qualitative data:

‘I am always in the job of education, as a teacher...I would not change my job. I would not consider have a profession as such...a policy maker.’ (Q56/I3)

In summary, the preceding analysis illustrated that:

- Intrinsic items were generally perceived to be less unsatisfactory in reward.
- Most rewards of the more important items were perceived to be about or more than 10% below their ratings of importance. However, important items such as job security, work autonomy and fair treatment had much higher discrepancies which showed clearly these were aspects of work the respondents lacked in their rewards.
- Less important items, generally, were more congruent between importance and rewards; however, workload and being involved in goal setting evidently stood out as being less rewarding.
- The majority of respondents (about 60%) were committed to their jobs or career; however, some 20% were willing to change their jobs or career.

Having said the above, there might be argument about what level of discrepancy in percentage could affect teacher satisfaction. In other words, to what extent will that dissatisfaction affect their motivation? That is likely to be the limitation in finding their current degree of motivation, and this will be dealt with in the Discussion chapter. However, the complementary data of whether respondents intended to pursue their career/jobs seemed to have provided an optimistic picture.

The third question asked respondents to name measures to sustain or nurture teacher motivation. This question was addressed by analysing qualitative data from the open-ended questions, journals and interviews.

#### **4.4. Research Question Three**

The third research question sought to answer what can be done to sustain or nurture the motivation of teachers. Data to address this question was mainly from the last open-ended question in the questionnaire, which asked respondents to name any measures they thought would improve their feelings about teaching. 50 questionnaire returnees answered that question, and the majority had more than one recommendation. For example, respondent Q66 named four responses for improvement: Improved and varied challenges; a greater variety of experiences; more time to do my job properly; and more trust from supervisors. The first two recommendations, hence, were grouped under one item (measure) of “personal challenge” where the other two under “time stress/workload” and “management communication” respectively. Therefore, Q66 was counted as a respondent to each of these three items. As a result, there were a total of 83 responses grouped under 14 items (measures) from those 50 respondents.

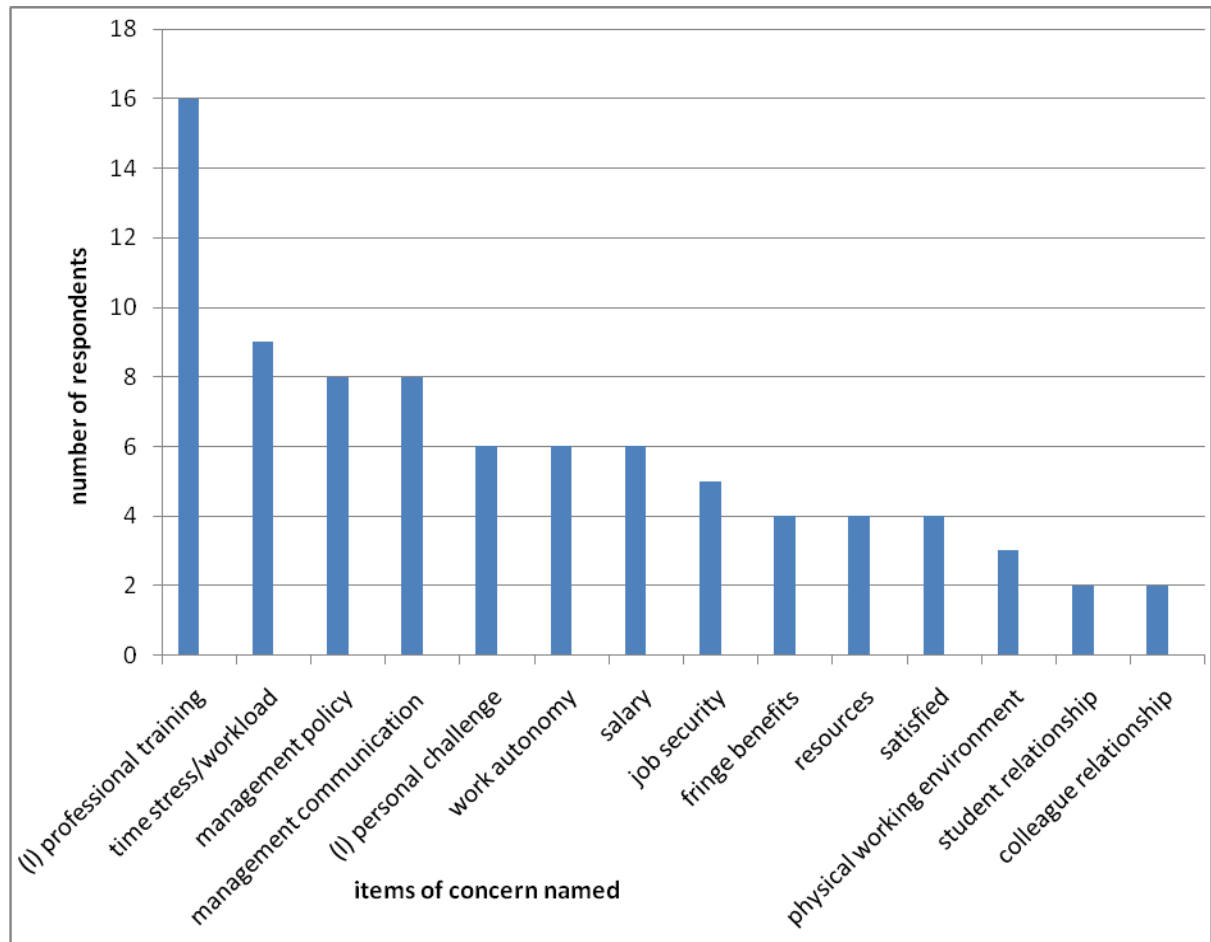
The preceding analysis in Research Question One and Two illustrated that:

- Intrinsic items were rated as relatively important factors affecting motivation
- Job security, workload, work autonomy, fairly treated, professional development and salary were among the top items that respondents were not satisfied with (high discrepancy percentages).

It would be reasonable to posit that recommendations related to the unsatisfactory extrinsic items should be named more frequently; however, there was inconsistency. On the contrary, the two items reflecting intrinsic aspects of work were mentioned very frequently, a total of 22 out of the 82 responses.



The 14 items for improvement derived from data given by the 50 respondents is shown in Figure 4.5 to be discussed further in the following sections. The two intrinsic items were indicated by (I).



**Figure 4.5: Measures named by participants to improve feelings about teaching – (I) denotes intrinsic item**

### *Professional training*

As shown in Figure 4.5, the intrinsic item “Professional training” was mentioned by most respondents. 16 respondents out of 50 asked in different ways with a main theme: “to improve my teaching knowledge” (Q72). That is, a significant 32% of all respondents. That was relatively consistent with the high discrepancy percentage in respondents’ reward from personal learning and development as found in Question Two. In other words, respondents were unhappy with that factor and were asking for improvement. The following are some suggestions by respondents:

“More information about(Q65)...more frequent professional development opportunities.” (Q18)

“Be given time for more professional development...study the diploma in TEFL.” (Q48)

“Stress management work shop...classroom management workshop” (Q75)

“More opportunities to discuss teaching methods with colleagues.” (Q63)

“More teacher refresher opportunities.” (Q31)

### *Workload and managerial factors*

Next are measures related to three items of workload, management policy, and management communication, which were named by a total of 25 out of 50 respondents. It is unsurprising to have these measures raised by half of the respondents given the high level of dissatisfaction by participants for these three items. Moreover, all three items might be regarded as elements of institutional “fair treatment”, which also had a very high discrepancy percentage. These three items are dealt with in more details next.

First, nine respondents suggested acknowledgement of time for preparation and reduction of extra or unnecessary work to relieve their burden of workload:

“Fewer administration tasks to be completed.” (Q31)

“Acknowledge of time taken to prepare lessons and complete reports, moderation etc.” (Q35)

“More free time: less preparation and marking time therefore better resources.” (52)

“Programs not overloaded and students not rushed through.” (Q58)

Second, eight out of 50 respondents named improvement in management policy. Among them, two asked for involvement in management goal setting. That was consistent with the high discrepancy rate in goal setting. It was also notable that four respondents named inappropriate student placement policy as a major problem needed to be addressed. Some measurements named are as follows:

“[Having] involvement in academic decisions.” (Q45)

“More involvement in goal setting...more appreciation of teachers’ professional judgement” (Q42)

“...education [not] as a commodity.” (Q58)

“To have the same class for a longer period instead of new students every month.” (Q15)

“Appropriate placement of students according to their academic abilities.” (Q60)

“Schools rules be informed to students.” (Q7)

Third, management policy might be related to management communication. Eight respondents asked for respect, trust and regular and honest dialogues from management. An interviewee (Q3/I1) explained what happened and what could be done about: “Management at a higher floor, teachers and students at another floor, hardly any communication...[and]...change the rate [pay]...I was overseas training, I did not know about that...it will be nice to be told personally.” Other suggestions:

“Clear communication channels.” (Q62)

“More regular feedback from management... management listen to suggesting ideas and improvements...be told the truth” (Q44)

“More trust from supervisors.” (Q66)

As discussed in section 4.2, “Helping students to learn English” was rated as the most important factor affecting teachers’ work. Management’s goals, which normally tended to be more fiscal, were more likely to be different from this goal of teachers. Clearly, there were conflicts in goal setting or policy such as inappropriate placement of students as mentioned by teachers.

### *Personal challenge*

Another item reflecting intrinsic aspects of work had a rather significant number of instances mentioned. Six respondents (12%) named having personal challenge as a means of improving their feelings:

“More challenge with teaching different levels and groups of students.” (Q53)

“Mentoring other teachers or observing beginner teachers.” (Q49)

### *Work autonomy*

As mentioned, job security and work autonomy were the two items respondents were most dissatisfied with. Very surprisingly, the themes of work autonomy and job security were only named by six and five respondents respectively, a mere 12% and 10% of respondents, far fewer than some less important statements discussed. To improve their work autonomy, respondents wanted a freer-hand in being able to create or experiment with their teaching. A respondent asked for shouldering responsibilities within their assigned areas which, however, was vague in meaning:

“To create and experiment in teaching students.” (Q73)  
“Teaching in a park...a price for game winner.” (Q3/J1)  
“Free hand to do what I want to work on my projects.” (Q55)  
“Creates responsibility within officially assigned areas.” (Q46)

Before moving on to the next item of job security, salary was analyzed as it had a higher ranking as indicated in Figure 4.5

### *Salary*

Six of the 50 respondents mentioned salary, but briefly, for example: “Decent salary” by Q8 and “Higher pay...yearly pay rise” by Q52. Some suggestions were more detailed:

“Improve conditions - paid hours for preparation and marking.” (Q63)  
“Remove GST on fees paid overseas so teachers can get pay parity with teachers in Australia.” (Q40)

A further investigation by examining the journal entries indicated no mentioning of any effect of this salary issue by the seven journal keepers. Qualitative data from interviews seemed to suggest that salary might be an *individual* factor:

“Some people complained about salary, but not me, because you have more money, you only spend more...” (Q3/I1)  
“20 something you start out, you don’t mind...a mortgage to pay or family to support and neither is easy without regular well paid work.” (Q49/I2)  
“Of course, I like I could be paid more...many things could be done...many issues now been resolved. I am more optimistic.” (Q56/I3)

The disparity in views on the importance of salary as a factor of motivation might be illustrated by a person-in-charge of a private language school who, when contacted to participate in this study said that teachers were too busy, and it was easy to motivate them simply by increasing salaries.

Due to the limitation of the close-ended question, respondents did not elaborate on their levels of salary, and what increase would be considered satisfactory. That issue was not further explored during interviews as well.

### *Job security*

There will be more discussion about job security as this was rated the worst rewarded item but was mentioned by only 5 respondents. Their recommendations were very straightforward. A respondent asked for “permanent position instead of contract teacher” (Q64). Interestingly, another suggested that “government understanding the English language industry to assist so we can have more job security” (Q40). Respondent Q13 could only “hope none of us lose job because of restriction of students and classes closed.”

Within this context, it might be likely that teachers were feeling “self-uselessness”; that is to say, some might feel helpless or “impotent” in improving their work conditions. For example, accepting unreasonable requests from management or feeling unsupported in addressing truancy. As demonstrated by respondent Q 52 who simply wrote: “No future.” Therefore, understandably, few responses were given though job security had been regarded as having the worst reward. Taking into account its importance, respondents’ questionnaires and qualitative data were examined for further possible expansion and explanations.

In the questionnaires, 24 respondents *disagreed* that they had job security (among them, 6 *strongly disagreed*). Of those respondents, as mentioned, only five named related measures for improvement when answering the question requesting suggestions. It was interesting to note the remaining 19 respondents’ responses (some have more than one), though they might not have had job security in mind when responding:

- Six did not respond to the question
- Six named the need for personal challenge or development
- Three asked for pay increase
- Two suggested more involvement in policy making
- Another three asked for colleague support or a better structured organization
- Four named the need for more resources

The preceding data might imply that, instead of asking directly for job security, respondents sought other means to deal with that issue, such as personal development, involvement in policy making or even “giving up”. The qualitative data seemed to lend support to this explanation. Respondent Q49 (a journal keeper and interviewee) strongly disagreed with having job security. This respondent’s short term contract finished and a six week overseas job was confirmed. The interviewee commented:

“I took the job [overseas]...not going to end up better than I am working full time here but at the moment now there is not any full time work here...[teachers] have to have something above their training to get them a job and that is usually offshore experience...unless the industry provides more permanent, secure jobs they are always going to be at risk.”

In fact, another respondent Q3 was going overseas too (though it was an overseas volunteer teaching job for 6-12 weeks). Another respondent Q63 commented: “Jobs in reputable institutions always seem scarce and insecure.”

An examination of these 24 respondents’ (not having job security) gender and age revealed that 63% of them were female, and 59% of them were over 41 years old. These two percentages were a fair representation of the population as indicated in Table 3.1. However, it has to be admitted that the preceding analysis about job security has limitations due to the fact that there was no further examination of respondents’ year of teaching and employer (private language schools or schools operated by tertiary institutes).

#### *Fringe benefits, resources and physical working environment*

Although fringe benefits were rated the lowest in importance but with a positive reward perception, surprisingly, it had a rather similar number of instances (four respondents out of 50) mentioned to that of resources (four respondents) and physical working environment (three respondents).

The main recommendations regarding fringe benefits are quite straightforward, such as: “More holiday and annual leave” (Q39) and “More sick leave” (Q65).

For resources, most respondents just wrote: “More resources” (Q56); “More resources for games [teaching materials]” (Q65); or “Curriculum guidelines” (Q75). A subsequent interview with one of the respondents, who asked for more resources, revealed that resources could be “photocopier being taken away...lack of paper” (Q56/I3).

Regarding physical working environment, respondents simply asked for “A more serviceable working environment” (Q46) and “healthier classroom - natural light and fresh air” (Q47).

### *Student and colleague relationships*

Both student relationship and colleague relationship had two respondents who gave recommendations to improving, for example:

“Good communications between students and me.” (Q14)

“More interaction with students outside class...build up trust and friendliness in the class so students enjoy learning together.” (Q43)

“Workmates to share experience.” (Q53/I4)

As for the recommendations about colleague relationship, they were vague and asked for “support from colleagues and supervisors” (by Q49 & Q62).

Unsurprisingly, four respondents took chances on that question for further expressing their satisfaction in their jobs:

“I 'm really very happy about everything.” (Q13)

“Already feeling positive of self-worth and being validated in my work place.” (Q19)

“This question is too touch-feeling for me. I enjoy my job and I don't sit around worrying about my feelings.” (Q67)

In summary, reflecting the importance of intrinsic factors, respondents gave a relatively high number of recommendations (22 out of 82) for improvement of their feelings (motivation) with intrinsic items; for example, more time and opportunities for learning and training. They also asked for more personal challenges such as varieties of teaching.

Some major suggestions made by the 50 respondents included: less administrative work to reduce the workload; more involvement with policy making; being respected; and enhancement in communication. However, the worst items such as job security and work autonomy were relatively less commented on. Respondents' requests were quite straightforward: a permanent job and a free-hand in teaching. It might be a concern that teachers had been feeling "uselessness" in dealing with these issues, and "leaving" was an option taken by some of them. Salary increase was a rather common suggestion; however, a lack of further exploration limited findings about the level of dissatisfaction.

Fringe benefits, physical working environment and relationships with students and colleagues had comparatively fewer mentions.

#### **4.5 Chapter summary**

In this chapter, the three research questions were addressed. The analysis of data, gathered by a mix-methods methodology, was informed by descriptive quantitative and qualitative content analysis approaches. Descriptive quantitative analysis was employed to address Research Question One and Two: identifying significant factors affecting ESL teacher motivation and their current degree of motivation. Qualitative content analysis was carried out to address Research Question Three: identifying measures for improving or sustaining ESL teacher motivation. During the process of analysis, findings were triangulated, complemented, initiated and expanded by the qualitative data such as the respondents' citing of favourable and unfavourable incidents.

Limitations relating to data collection and analysis of the present study were:

- Although sampling was robust, only a sub-section of ESL teachers were investigated. For example, those who worked in colleges (secondary schools) or Community-based teachers of adult migrants and refugees were not included. Hence, findings of the present study cannot apply to these teachers



- Limited number of journal keepers (seven) and interviewees (three) out of the 72 questionnaire returnees; hence, restraints of triangulation and further exploration of findings
- The administration of simplistic statistical analysis of means and percentage, without further employment of more sophisticated skills such as factor analysis, might have affected the accuracy of findings

Despite these limitations, a number of key findings within the context of the present study can be highlighted:

- Research Question One
  - Apart from five, 27 items were seen to be important: in general, intrinsic items were found to be perceived as more important motivating factors than extrinsic items
  - Among these motivating factors, some were rated to be playing more significant roles, either positively or negatively, for example: helping students to learn English; personal development and enjoyment; managerial policy and fairness; work autonomy; relationships with others; and a new theme of ethnicity and gender issues
- Research Question Two
  - Regarding the degree of motivation or de-motivation judged by discrepancies between importance and rewards, most intrinsic items had discrepancy scores of about 10%
  - Job security and work autonomy, which had the worst discrepancy scores of nearly 30%, might be considered to be the possible de-motivating factors
  - The majority of the respondents said they would not change career or job even if there were opportunities
- Research Question Three
  - Recommendations suggested for improving participants' feelings about teaching were mostly concerned with more professional training, or

fair treatment in the areas of less workload, more respect, better communication and less restrictions in teaching

- Job security and salary were mentioned less frequently but might be having grave concern as reflected by the qualitative data

The next chapter will discuss the significance of these findings, followed by the conclusions.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION and CONCLUSIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the key findings of the study and then presents the conclusions. Related to the first research question, Section 5.2 deals with key findings concerning the factors which affect English language teachers' motivation/de-motivation. Section 5.3 focuses on the second research question and discusses key findings related to the degree of ESL teacher motivation. Research Question Three sought to investigate how the motivation of English language teachers can be sustained or nurtured and Section 5.4 examines suggestions put forward by participants. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key findings, followed by the implications of the study, a review of the study's limitations and recommendations for further research.

#### **5.2 Factors affecting teacher motivation**

The first research question sought to identify the important factors that affected teacher motivation. Almost all items (factors) listed in the questionnaire were rated by participants to be important, except five which were regarded as somewhat unimportant. After analyzing the data, the key findings in addressing the first research question were found to be:

- Intrinsic factors might be regarded as more important than extrinsic factors; and among the intrinsic factors, helping students and job related factors stood out as the most prominent
- Among the extrinsic factors, institutional factors such as fairness, management policy, work autonomy and relationships with others were rated the more salient factors
- Issues relating to ethnicity and gender were raised and considered to be de-motivating factors by participants

### *Intrinsic factors*

A key finding was that intrinsic factors appeared to play a more significant role in motivating teaching, as identified by many previous studies on general and ESL teachers. Among the seven items reflecting intrinsic factors, five of them were regarded as *very important* and two *somewhat important*. This is in line with most studies about general and ESL teaching reviewed in the Literature Review chapter (for example, Dinham & Scott, 2000; Pennington, 1995); but contrary to the study about ESL teacher in general schools in England by Senior (2006) who suggests that extrinsic factors were the most significant.

For the present study, “Really helping my students to learn English” was rated as the most important item and received the highest mean of 4.88. This finding seems to lend support to the suggestion in the literature that, in general teaching, educating people and imparting knowledge are dominant motivating factors (Dörnyei, 2001; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Poppleton, 1989). For example, Dörnyei (2001) noted that teaching was the major intrinsic motive for teachers. The significance of intrinsic motivation was vividly illustrated in the present study by Q56/I3 who said “imparting knowledge” was the main reason for pursuing the career of teaching, and this was also supported by other teachers who commented:

“Students told me of how things we have practiced/learned did happen in their IELTS exam and they were able to cope because of what I had taught.” (Q49)

“Earlier this year all 13 FCE students passed the test, I felt that I must have taught them well.” (Q70)

“...general feelings of satisfaction when students make good progress and are happy with results.” (Q74)

The next three very important intrinsic items, and one somewhat important item, reflecting intrinsic aspect of work, all related to *employment*. These items were “Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating” (mean = 4.83); “Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential” (mean = 4.67); “Having a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability” (mean = 4.65); and the slightly less significant “Having a challenging job” (mean = 4.22). The importance of

meaningful and fulfilling employment was also illustrated in the comments made by participants:

“When one of my students passed IELTS and was accepted to university...I cried with joy when he came in and told me. He flung his arms around me and we danced around the floor.” (Q12)

“Enjoy the variety and challenge.” (Q3/J1)

“Felt most satisfied...to create and experiment successfully.” (Q73)...

It is worth noting that the above findings concerning intrinsic factors indicate that the motivations which relate to serving students’ needs and to self satisfaction or self development, might be identified as relating to *individuals*; that is, individual students and the individual teacher self. As indicated in the surveyed items, the self included teachers’ personal interests such as personal enjoyment, personal development and personal challenge. In contrast, factors reflective of a wider societal perspective, were rated comparatively lower. Among the intrinsic items, “Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment” (mean = 4.17) and “Providing service to society” (mean = 4.11) were rated the lowest among the seven intrinsic items, and were only regarded as only *somewhat important*. This finding appears to be in contrast to the literature (Dörnyei, 2001; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Poppleton, 1989), which suggests factors such as achieving higher moral grounds, offering service to society or advancing a community are key motivating factors in teaching. In other words, participants of the present study gave greater importance to “individuals” or “personal feelings” than to the wider benefits for society.

There is a possibility that, because of teachers’ lack of control over policies and curriculum, teachers regarded their contributions as only possible at an individual level, rather than exerting any effect in the much wider aspect of society. This speculation has some support from Crookes (1997), who suggests that in many cases teachers have no control over the curriculum as this is mandated by higher authorities, or teaching is determined by the need to pass examinations. In the present study, teachers were in fact required to be accountable to their immediate administrator. For example, in the journal and subsequent interview, Q49 expressed frustration over having no control over curriculum in the journal and subsequent interview. There was supporting evidence from comments made by others:

“Someone from management who does not know and gives instructions.” (Q14)

“Lack of involvement in academic decisions...” (Q45)

“[Feeling good when]...very supportive of giving me the *flexibility* that I need.” (Q22, emphasis added)

As shown in the above comments, the expression of teachers’ desire for challenge, flexibility and experimentation in teaching might be considered, to a large extent, a reflection of their dissatisfaction over their lack of autonomy, and their lack of agency over a wider context such as the school management. Therefore, it is understandable the issue of autonomy was rated as significant by participants. This finding is addressed further in the discussion of extrinsic factors.

### *Extrinsic factors*

A second key finding was that among the extrinsic items, fair treatment and work autonomy were perceived to have very important effects on participants’ motivation. In addition, a new theme of ethnicity and gender not discussed in the literature emerged from the data.

“Being fairly treated in my organization” was rated the third most important item (mean = 4.81). However, this theme of fairness was mentioned, only twice, in the qualitative data for the present study and it was not discussed in the related research studies reviewed previously in the Literature Review chapter. It is possible that the theme of “fairness” was reflected in items such as work autonomy, job security, salary, workload, resources or physical working environment, which were extensively investigated in the motivational studies of both general and ESL teachers, and were reported to be crucial factors (for example, Dinham & Scott, 2000; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Nias, 1989; Walker, 2007). In fact, these items were rated as significant by participants in the present study and are discussed respectively below.

Work autonomy which was reflected in the items “Having the freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching” (mean = 4.74), and “Able to work independently and use my own initiative” (mean = 4.67) were both perceived by participants as very important. The finding that work autonomy plays a significant

role in teacher motivation appears to be in agreement with Dinham and Scott's (2000) study of general teachers (including New Zealand) who found that motivation declines when there is a lack of work autonomy.

Job security (mean = 4.51) was also rated just above the very important level. In one of the journals, Q6/J6 commented: "*They gave me another 4-weeks contract. It's pathetic!*" This comment did indeed reflect the view of the 22 participants (out of 72 participants) who indicated in the questionnaire that they did not have job security (as discussed in section 4.4, p. 90).

Other important extrinsic factors were workload and physical working environment. They were rated with overall means at the level above 4.4. It has to be noted that findings from the present study might have revealed the link between workload and salary, though salary only received a mean of 4.22 which placed it as less significant and only somewhat important. In fact, participant Q6/J6 vividly related workload with salary and fairness: "*Paperwork's not finished. Takes so long – and the time's unpaid. That's not fair!!!*" Nevertheless, the comparatively lower rating of the importance of salary might reflect the unresolved argument in the literature as to whether salary is a prominent motivating factor. For example, studies by Spear et al. (2000) and Galton and MacBeath's (2008) suggest that salary has not been a major factor, but Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) and Pennington (1995) argue otherwise.

However, in the New Zealand context at least, the present findings appear to confirm Walker's (2007) study of New Zealand language teachers who expressed their concerns about: poor management, excessive workload with 52% respondents feeling stress in their work, only 39% having job security and 33% enjoying fair salary.

Furthermore, for the present study, work autonomy, job security and workload were among the items to be discussed in the key findings addressing Research Questions Two and Three. Job security and work autonomy were rated the most unsatisfactory items revealed in Question Two. Less workload was frequently recommended by participants when they answered Question Three.

Apart from the materialistic factors that were considered, another major theme derived from the findings was building rapport with students, colleagues and management. Goal-setting theory states that the more feedback from work or more participation in goal setting, the more motivated employees will become (Locke, 2003). The present study seems to provide evidence to confirm that theory. “Having a friendly relationship with my students”, “Having a good relationship with the person I report to” and “Having good relationships with colleagues” were both rated above overall means of 4.5, and were very important. In addition, the qualitative data from open-ended questions in the questionnaire provides further evidence. Participants considered themselves motivated by 43 incidents of positive feedback and communications from management, where there were 67 incidents of positive feedback from students as motivating. The importance of such rapport with students and working relationships were illustrated by the following comments:

“Being invited to accompany my HOS on an appointment at another [institute]...feeling positive about both my abilities and relationship.” (Q73)

“Cherry good word from a colleague...made me happy.” (Q49/J2)

### *Ethnicity and gender*

A further de-motivating finding, raised by participants in the qualitative data, involved the influence of ethnicity and gender. This affected the relationships between the teacher and students, and between students, as well as impacting negatively on the classroom atmosphere. Significantly, 10% of participants, that is, seven participants, when asked to reflect on unfavourable incidents with students, responded with ethnicity and gender issues. Examples mentioned included racial conflicts between students (Q58); a student who did not like females (Q66); a class full of males can be intimidating (Q48); [certain ethnic] students leaving early (Q6/J6) or sleeping in classes (Q22); and a student request for a male teacher (Q13).

Teachers seemed to express a sense of helplessness on how to handle these situations. It appears that Crookes (1997), in discussing the influences on second language teachers and their teaching, has rightly criticized the lack of training in “theories of culture or intercultural contact” (p. 71). This finding also appears to lend support to Holmes’ (2005) suggestion, after studying 57 language teachers in New Zealand



language schools, secondary schools and universities, that funding should be provided to train language teachers to equip them in the multicultural classroom. Although many programmes offering second language teaching qualifications in New Zealand do include an intercultural component, this finding further highlights the importance of culture (and of gender) in the language teaching classrooms.

In brief, the above discussion has highlighted the key factors that motivate or demotivate ESL teachers, which link mostly with findings of the studies about general teaching and language teaching reviewed in the Literature Review chapter. Similar to some findings from the literature, this study suggests that most important were intrinsic factors such as imparting knowledge to students and helping them to learn a second language, and job-related self enjoyment and challenges. However, ESL teachers in the present survey seemed to be more concerned about self and students' interests rather than aiming in advancing a community, which might not conform to some previous studies. Extrinsic factors were also important however. These include the role of managerial policy, and being treated fairly which includes work autonomy, job security, salary, workload and access to resources as pointed out by the literature. In contrary, a new theme of ethnicity and gender was found in the present study. This new theme also highlighted the importance of ESL teachers in multicultural settings developing a greater degree of intercultural awareness and an understanding of how to manage relationships in the multicultural classroom.

### **5.3 Current degree of motivation**

Building on the identification of key motivating factors, the second research question investigated the degree of teacher motivation. As noted by Dörnyei (1998) and Nakanishi (2002), motivation is difficult to gauge or quantify. There have been different approaches for the investigation of motivation. For example, the General Teaching Council for England (2000) study asked teachers directly whether their motivation had deteriorated since joining the profession. Pennington (1992, 1995) approached this issue of motivation through the perspective of job satisfaction. Walker and Barton (1987) measured teacher motivation by surveying teachers' plans to stay or leave the profession. For the present study, the degree of teacher motivation

was studied through the perspectives of, first, job satisfaction; and secondly, any intention of career or job changing. The following are the key findings:

- Job satisfaction
  - Most of the more important items reflecting aspects of work had comparatively low levels of satisfaction
  - The intrinsic items' levels of dissatisfaction were moderate compared with most extrinsic items where extrinsic factors such as work autonomy, job security and workload were found to be the most unsatisfactory
- Career or job changing
  - The majority of the respondents planned to stay in their present job or career.

### **5.3.1 Job satisfaction**

By initially examining the items' rewards in means score, it was found that the teachers appeared to be only "half satisfied with their job": 16 of the 32 items surveyed were agreed by respondents to be satisfactory in job rewards. That is, 16 items received overall means higher than 4.0 (*agreed* when asked whether they had the reward). Among these 16 items, four were intrinsic items. The remaining 16 items indicated less satisfaction (means less than 4.0), of which three of them were intrinsic.

Among the 16 satisfactory items, most were related to personal feelings and rapport with students, colleagues or management. For example, the statement "Having a friendly relationship with my students" was the only item that was *strongly agreed* by respondents. Another two items related to students were "helping students to learn English" and "receiving positive evaluation from students". Another eight satisfactory items were related to colleagues or management, such as "having good relationships" and "having team work". It is interesting to note that "work autonomy" and "fairly treated" were still rated as satisfactory, as these two factors were frequently identified by respondents as measures in improving their motivation, and will be further elaborated in Section 5.4.

In contrast to the abovementioned satisfactory items, which concerned personal feelings and relationships with others, most of the 16 unsatisfactory items were related to material or tangible rewards such as the physical working environment, salary, workload, working hours and, worst of all, job security (reward mean = 3.22), prospects for promotion (reward mean = 3.15), and fringe benefits (reward mean = 2.92).

However, it might be premature to draw any possible conclusion from the above discussion that teachers were *half* satisfied and *half* dissatisfied with their jobs. Their degree of motivation could not be determined accurately by only looking at their ratings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The approach by Kassabgy et al. (2001), on which the questionnaire for the present study was informed, was to investigate teacher motivation through the application of the 'fit hypotheses'. According to the 'fit hypothesis', people "who attach the most importance to specific rewards will be happiest if they get them and unhappiest if they do not" (ibid, p. 215). Consequently, for this study, comparing teachers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their values of an item may well provide further insights about the degrees of motivation. For example, for "job security", teachers perceived it as very important with a very high means of importance but its means of rewards (or satisfaction) was 29% lower. From this perspective, it might then be argued that teachers were de-motivated.

By referring to Figures 4.1 and 4.2 in the previous chapter, it was found that out of the 32 items, 28 items had means of rewards less than means of importance. In addition, the top 19 important items all had such discrepancy (hereafter "discrepancy" to be referred as an item's mean of rewards is smaller than the corresponding item's mean of importance). A further examination of individual items reflecting aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic will likely provide more insights.

### *Intrinsic factors*

As discussed previously, intrinsic items (factors) were revealed to be probably more important than extrinsic items. Therefore, *if* it was found that respondents had got

what they wanted in those items, such key finding in satisfaction would lend support to the suggestion that they were job-satisfied, and thus, possibly were motivated.

However, after comparing the means of rewards and importance of those seven intrinsic items (refer to Table 4.10 in the previous chapter) a key finding was that their means of rewards were lower than their means of importance. In other words, it may be interpreted that respondents did not get what they wanted, hence, were unhappy or de-motivated.

Among those intrinsic items, the most important one rated by respondent: “Really helping my student to learn English” had a 10% discrepancy with the corresponding item of “I know that I am helping my students to learn English”. Three other intrinsic items had a rather similar discrepancy percentage; but “Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential” had the highest discrepancy of 14%. Understandably, the theme of personal and professional development was mentioned frequently in their suggestions for improvement in their feelings about teaching, and is discussed in Research Question Three.

In contrast, the overall means for “Having a challenging job” and “My job is challenging” were almost congruent, that is, had the least discrepancy of only 2%. This near congruence provides a possible explanation of the findings from the previous section, that respondents felt restrained by managerial policy and curriculum, from the previous section. Therefore, their jobs were perceived to be challenging as they had to deal with such restraints. For example, Q49/J2 commented in the journal that he/she “...doesn’t always follow the plan...curriculum adjusted...”, and Q47/J5 welcomed the experience of a “very interesting spontaneous lesson...[topic of]...Samoa earthquake.” However, respondents still mentioned “having more challenges” as a means for improving their feelings about teaching (as addressed in Research Question Three). It might be speculated that the need for personal challenges is merely human nature. This speculation seems to be supported by Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2009b) claim that motivation is a part of one’s identity/self, and conforms to participants’ requests for more personal development and professional training.

### *Extrinsic factors*

Among the top rated 13 items (refer to Figure 4.1), “Being fairly treated in my organization” was rated as the most important extrinsic item, and it has a 15% discrepancy. Other important extrinsic items reflecting factors such as “work independence”, “professional development” and “job security” had discrepancy percentages of 28, 14 and 29 respectively. It is important to note that the high discrepancies in work autonomy and job security align with findings from most studies on general teaching, and especially with the findings on New Zealand ESL teachers by Walker (2007). In his study, Walker reported that teachers in New Zealand language schools were concerned about inadequate physical working conditions and poor management. The problem of job security was also highlighted as only 39% of those surveyed enjoyed job security as teachers were likely to be on short-term contracts or hourly rates according to cyclical movements. Though comparatively less important, other items such as “being included in the goal setting process”, and “workload” had discrepancy percentages of 17 and 20 respectively. Some comments by teachers reflected the de-motivating effect: “Sometimes it is too tiring, we have continuous enrolment.” (Q15); “Really tired...usual stuff, too much to do” (Q6/J6). The workload issue revealed for the present study agrees with Walker’s (2007) findings that 52% of his respondents felt stress in their job, and only 33% considered their pay fair.

In short, when job satisfaction is singled out to judge teacher motivation, the findings seem to reveal a rather gloomy picture about the degree of teaching motivation. Having said that and though most items had rewards less than their importance, the above discussion appears to suggest that respondents have less dissatisfaction for the more important intrinsic factors, that is, comparatively less difference in discrepancies. In other words, one possible interpretation is that language teaching offers more intrinsic than extrinsic rewards. Although the negative effect from the unsatisfactory extrinsic factors cannot be neglected, indeed, much of the literature reviewed suggests that teachers value the intrinsic aspects of work more.

According to some literature, intrinsic factors are regarded as the more influential motive, offsetting de-motivating effects from extrinsic factors (Dinham, & Scott, 2000; Pennington, 1995) and identified as key factors in maintaining teaching

motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Nias, 1989; Poppleton, 1989). With the discrepancy in intrinsic factors, though comparatively moderate, it might be claimed that respondents' persistence against any de-motivating extrinsic factors would be highly questionable.

However, it is worth noticing that according to the 'fit hypothesis' (Kassabgy et al., 2001), there is no mention of any criteria (extent of that discrepancy percentage) to ascertain the degree of motivation or de-motivation. For example, for the present study, most intrinsic items had a 10% discrepancy, but would that discrepancy rate still be acceptable to respondents, and not yet de-motivating? Therefore, it is likely the above discussion could only establish that respondents were, mostly, not getting what they want. They might be unhappy with most items, however, this does not warrant any conclusion about their degree of motivation/de-motivation. Therefore, an examination of their intention of leaving their jobs or career might provide further insights.

### **5.3.2 Career or job changing**

The second approach to finding out degree of teacher motivation is by surveying respondents' intentions of changing their career or job if they have the opportunity to do so. The finding that the majority of them intended to stay at their present career or job would show a much brighter picture, if it could be assumed that those who planned to stay were motivated.

When asked if they might change their teaching career, 71 teachers responded. A majority 62% or 44 of the 71 respondents replied that they would not; they disagreed with the statement of "I will change my career..." Among these 44 respondents, 14 (20%) expressed their strong commitments to their teaching career by strongly disagreeing with the statement. Regarding intention of changing their job, there was a similar majority of 54% (39 respondents) who replied with a "no" answer. The above data indicate a much higher rate of commitment in teaching career or jobs by ESL teachers in the present study, than those found in two dated research in the context of general teaching in the U.K. and the U.S. (Walker & Barton, 1987; Pennington, 1995), which suggested that only 20% to 30% were planning to be in the profession in five years' time. It has to be noted that, for the present study, no time frame was

given. However, the more recent survey by the General Teaching Council for England in 2002 found that only 34% of teachers in Britain planned to leave. In other words, more than 60% might be assumed to plan to stay and were motivated. This figure also conforms to the findings of the present study.

The above results seem to suggest that, though different contexts are involved, teacher motivation (judging by their commitment to their profession) here in New Zealand at the time of the present study is much higher than 20 years ago in the U.K. and the U.S.

In summary, the findings of the present study allow examination of the degree of teacher motivation from two main perspectives which provide rather different but inconclusive insights:

- 28 out of the 32 items surveyed were found to be unsatisfactory in rewards (means of rewards less than means of importance) which might indicate their de-motivating effects, and hence, a less than satisfactory degree of teacher motivation
- The majority of the teachers intended to stay in their teaching career or job which likely indicates a more satisfactory degree of teacher motivation

#### **5.4 Measures to sustain or nurture motivation**

The third research question explored any measures that might sustain or nurture teacher motivation. Respondents were asked in the questionnaire to name any measures they thought could improve their feelings about teaching and explain why. For the present study, there were a total of 82 responses from 50 respondents, which were coded to become 14 measures. Understandably, frequently mentioned measures related to more important factors, especially those unsatisfactory items. The key findings were found to be:

- Two measures reflecting intrinsic aspects of work were mentioned by half of respondents, amongst them, more professional training and personal challenges were most frequently named
- For extrinsic factors, though fairness was not directly mentioned, many related measures were named such as more acceptable managerial policy, improvements for respect, better communication and lesser workload
- Surprisingly, job security and salary were comparatively infrequently mentioned

#### **5.4.1 Intrinsic factors**

##### *Professional training*

The intrinsic item “Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential” had a high discrepancy percentage of 14%. That is, it was the most unsatisfactory intrinsic item. Consequently, professional training was the most frequent suggestion found in the data. 16 of the 50 respondents asked for work-related improvements related to training such as: (1) more information about professional training; (2) more professional development opportunities; (3) more time given for training; (4) availability of stress or management workshops; and (5) provision of teacher refresher courses. Though the requests were sometimes vague, participants’ voices were clear that there was a lack of opportunities for professional development. This expressed desire for self improvement aligns with more recent theories of teacher motivation, in which expectation of a “future better self” is a key factor (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009b; White & Ding, 2009). Drawing on a more social explanation of teacher motivation, White and Ding (2009) suggest that “teacher self” is an important catalyst for motivation. Similarly, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009b) note that teachers are motivated to avoid an “ought-not-to be bad self” and are motivated to change to a future “better self”. The present finding also seems to lend support to Pennington’s (1992, 1995) urging for the enhancement of ESL teacher motivation through personal growth and upward mobility.



### *Challenges*

As discussed previously, the findings related to Research Question One have shown that the three key intrinsic factors that motivated respondents were: imparting knowledge to their students, job-related self enjoyments and challenges. However, after coding, another measurement reflecting intrinsic factor, that is, more personal challenge that touched on one of these three factors, was named. It might still be reasonable to assume that the desire for professional training mentioned in the previous paragraph, actually, covers teachers' ability to better impart knowledge to students, as well as fulfilling self enjoyment. Regarding challenges, six respondents mentioned that and most related to wanting the chance to teach different levels of students or being able to mentor other teachers. However, it might be argued that other suggested items reflecting extrinsic factors, such as involvement in managerial policy or work autonomy could be related to challenges and self-enjoyment.

#### **5.4.2 Extrinsic factors**

As discussed previously, major influencing extrinsic factors include managerial policy, being treated fairly (work autonomy, workload, job security and salary), and student and institutional relationships. Furthermore, most of the items reflecting these factors had high discrepancy percentages (unsatisfactory rates). Predictably, measures related to these factors were named frequently by respondents except work autonomy and job security.

#### *Managerial policy*

Eight respondents wanted improvement in managerial policy. The named measures included: (1) involvement in goal setting; (2) involvement in academic decisions; (3) appropriate student placement in courses; (4) appreciation of teachers' judgement; and as detailed as (5) students be informed of rules. The above findings seem to align with Pennington's (1995) suggestions that management should be sensitive and humanistic in setting its policy.

Another related measure is improvement of communication with management. The same number of respondents (eight) asked for respect, trust, regular and honest dialogues with established clear communication channels.

### *Workload*

Regarding reducing workload, nine respondents named motivating measures as: reduction of extra or unnecessary work, adjustment of overloading programs, and acknowledgement of preparation time. Respondents' desire for time for preparation may be represented by Q53/J4 who commented that "I felt a bit unprepared to explain the textbook exercises...I worry that I didn't seem so professional and prepared as I should be."

### *Work autonomy*

For work autonomy, which had a second highest unsatisfactory rate of 28%, interestingly, only six respondents raised suggestions for improvement. They suggested having a freer hand to experiment in teaching. As indicated in sections 4.4 and 5.4.1, some teachers were already doing that by adapting teaching within classes.

### *Job Security*

Surprisingly, measures to deal with the worst rewarded item, job security, were only named by five respondents. Their suggestions were simple: permanent position instead of short term contract. The infrequent mention might be explained, partly, by their helplessness in the market situation. This explanation might be supported by Q40 asking for government assistance, and Q64 commenting that "Jobs in reputable institutions always seem scarce and insecure." Another explanation might be that teachers were seeking other means such as personal or professional development to strengthen their "market value"; or simply "giving up" by moving overseas as demonstrated by two teachers Q3 and Q49 for the present study. This conjecture might be supported by examining the questionnaire data of the 24 respondents who replied with job insecurity, 19 of them did not name measures related to job security, but mainly asked for personal challenge or development.

### *Salary*

Another interesting item is salary. It was mentioned previously in Section 5.2 that it is arguable whether salary was a major factor. This argument seems to be supported by the mention of this issue by the surprisingly small number of six teachers. This comparatively small number appears to be in contrast to the opinion of a person in-charge of a private language school who, when initially approached about the study,

commented that there was no need to study teacher motivation and that the best way to motivate teachers was to raise salaries. In addition, teachers' seemingly disinterest in salary did not conform to Li's (2003) study of 40 students in two New Zealand private language schools which suggests that ESL teachers are "money-makers". For the present study, six respondents mainly suggested improvement for the issue of salary by having: higher pay, yearly pay rise, paid for preparation or marking papers; or as simple as "decent salary". However, the present study did not inquire about the present level of salary or what level of salary would be considered 'decent'.

#### *Fringe benefits and resources*

Though fringe benefits was rated the least important motivating factor, four participants did raise this. The suggestions focused on increases for holidays, annual leave and sick leave. Interestingly, a total of seven respondents asked for more resources, such as teaching materials and curriculum guidelines, and for a better physical working environment.

#### *Student and collegial relationships*

Another four respondents mentioned student and collegial relationships. However their suggestions were very general, such as better communication with students and more support from colleagues. However, Q63 suggested that to de-isolate teachers, there should be more opportunities to: "discuss teaching methods with colleagues."

After examining the findings in addressing Research Question Three, amongst the many suggestions, there might be some "unrealistic" requests, especially those related to commercial and financial decisions. For example, Q58 commented that management should stop "treating students as commodity...erosion of academic standards in the face of market forces." As argued by Crookes (1997), "In private schools, the interests of the organization involve making a profit" (p. 69), so clearly there will be conflicts between the goals and expectations of teachers and schools. Unfortunately, similar to other professions, the issues of monetary returns, job security or conditions caused by fiscal restraints (workload included) are often inevitable. Moreover, they are frequently difficult to be resolved to complete and mutual satisfaction. It would be easy to just suggest measures such as increasing salary, reducing work load, or adjusting intakes of students to resolve the problems.

However, it might be deemed as impractical or infeasible for the present study to put forward suggestions related to such fiscal restraints, hence, it is not covered in the further discussion of implications in section 5.7.

In summary, the preceding sections have discussed the findings of the study with a view of addressing the three research questions, and consideration also given in relation to a number of studies reviewed in the Literature Review chapter.

The study found that intrinsic factors appear to have greater influence on ESL teacher motivation/de-motivation than extrinsic factors, which aligns with the findings of some studies, mainly about general and language teaching, reviewed in the literature. Among these intrinsic factors, helping students to learn English, job-related enjoyment and personal and professional challenges were the most significant. For extrinsic factors, it was found that managerial policy, being treated fairly including work autonomy and the additional item that related to ethnicity or gender were also important. However, the important factor of salary as mentioned by the studies about general teaching was regarded by ESL teachers in the present study as comparatively less significant.

Determining ESL teachers' degree of motivation or de-motivation proved inconclusive. First, findings suggested that respondents were satisfied with rewards from half of the 32 items surveyed. Secondly, after comparing items' rewards with their ratings of importance, findings suggested that respondents could not get what they wanted from most items, hence, were unlikely to be satisfied with their current employment. Therefore, teachers might be considered to be having a certain degree of de-motivation. On the other hand, findings also indicated that the majority of respondents did not plan to change career or job, suggesting some degree of job satisfaction.

Regarding measures to sustain or nurture teacher motivation, findings from the present study aligned with the claims in much of the literature which suggest professional training was important. Other important measures to improve their feelings about teaching included: fairer managerial policies, better communication and respect, reduction of workload and other material rewards. However, the two most

unsatisfactory factors, a lack of both work autonomy and job security, were not equally emphasized by respondents in their suggestions for improvements.

## **5.5 Conclusions**

The present study investigates the uncharted area of ESL teacher motivation in New Zealand language schools. The main objectives were to identify the factors affecting motivation; to find out teachers' degree of motivation or de-motivation; and to seek teachers' opinions on how to sustain or nurture their motivation.

In reviewing the literature, it was argued that research on teachers' motivations has focused largely on teachers in general education with scarce research on language teachers. The literature on the motivation of ESL teachers, in particular, is even scarcer and fragmented. In the context of New Zealand, despite a growing body of research on ESOL provision in New Zealand, and a limited amount of research on New Zealand language schools and their management, there is still a large gap in research on the perspectives of ESL teachers, and in particular on their motivations for teaching. The present study attempts to address the gap.

A further rationale for the present study concerned the benefits of the findings. As teacher motivation is crucial in facilitating better student outcomes, the findings from the study offer insights into the practices of ESL professionals and for industry employers in relation to improvements in work conditions or services provided. Understanding teachers' motivation is useful because the standard of ESOL provision by language schools in New Zealand is important both to New Zealand's export education and to programmes which focus on adult immigrants and refugees with English as L2.

The present study surveyed 72 current ESL teachers employed in 26 private sector institutions and state funded tertiary intuitions (excluding community-based provision) from six cities in New Zealand. The study employed a mixed-method approach, which included a questionnaire with Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions, journal keeping by seven participants and semi-structured interviews with three journal keepers. The quantitative data collected provided breadth, while the

qualitative data complemented the findings by adding flesh to the bone and by providing a participant voice.

### *Summary of key findings*

Research Question One addressed the factors affecting ESL teacher motivation. The study found that intrinsic factors might be regarded as generally more important than extrinsic factors. This finding seems to align with most literature reviewed in this study. Among the more significant intrinsic factors, items such as helping students to learn English, along with teachers' professional development or personal enjoyment were found to play very significant roles. In contrast, these teachers' concerns about students and personal interests were not similarly reflected in teachers' attitude to the wider perspective of advancing a community. This finding might not be unexpected given the additional findings that teachers were rather helpless in affecting management policy or work autonomy. Management policy and work autonomy were categorised as extrinsic factors, and these too played an important role in influencing teachers' motivations. Other significant extrinsic factors discussed in the literature such as job security, workload and salary were, though still important, all rated at a lower ranking in the present study. In addition, it was found that ethnicity and gender emerged as de-motivating factors, in that they gave rise to unfavourable experiences such as contributing to negative classroom incidents.

The Research Question Two investigated ESL teachers' degree of motivation/de-motivation. However, the findings were inconclusive. First, when asked to rate the rewards of 32 items, participants were satisfied with half of the 32 items. In other words, teachers were only satisfied with half of the major factors reflecting aspects of work. Secondly, when addressing this issue by the 'fit hypothesis', the finding was rather negative. According to the 'fit hypothesis', a teacher would be happy (motivated) if an item reflecting aspects of work was perceived to be important and the rating of rewards could match this importance. The finding shows that 28 of the 32 items were perceived to have rewards less than importance (discrepancy). In addition, most perceived important items had about or more than 10% discrepancy. However, it could not be concluded that a discrepancy of about 10% necessarily reflected any degree of de-motivation. Nevertheless, there were items with even higher discrepancy rates. Important items such as job security and work autonomy

were reported as lacking in their rewards with the highest discrepancies of 28% and 29%. Thirdly, when asked if they would change their career or job if there was an opportunity to do so, only about 20% said they would, while a majority of about 60% of them replied that they had no intention of changing their career or job. If judged by their intention of staying in the teaching profession, such a high percentage of 60 suggests that the degree of motivation was high for the majority of the teachers.

The Research Question Three sought to explore measures of sustaining or nurturing ESL teacher motivation. When asked to name measures that could improve their feelings about teaching, 50 respondents identified 82 recommendations of which 22 related to intrinsic factors. Such a comparatively high number probably reflects the importance of intrinsic factors as found out in the first research question. To improve their feelings regarding intrinsically-motivated aspects of work, teachers asked for, amongst others, more time and opportunities for professional development, and more personal challenges such as teaching different levels of students. On the other hand, regarding extrinsic factors, teachers suggested less administrative work, more involvement with policy making, more respect from management, and enhancement of communication. It is worth noticing that there were fewer comments about the worst rewarded items such as job security and work autonomy. This lack of emphasis might be worrying as it could indicate teacher's feelings of "impotence" in dealing with these issues, and could take the option of "leaving" the teaching profession. Regarding the issue of salary, which was claimed to be an important factor in most of the literature, only six teachers in the study asked for an increase. However, the present study did not inquire about their present salary levels or any increase that would be considered reasonable.

## **5.6 Implications**

Though the findings of the study were inconclusive in determining the degree of teacher motivation/de-motivation, the study provides some insights into what is important for teachers in sustaining and nurturing their motivation. Being treated fairly by management, having a degree of work autonomy, having job security, and having access to further opportunities for professional development were all identified as key factors in motivation, and rated by teachers to be less than satisfactory. Such

concerns of ESL teachers will be of interest to the management of teaching institutions in that their redress will, in both the short term and the long term, motivate teachers and in turn facilitate better outcomes for students.

The findings also confirmed that intrinsic factors seemed to be more significant in affecting teacher motivation. Hence, taking into consideration the significance of intrinsic factors, the important affecting factors, the fiscal restraints faced by ESL providers, and the suggested measures from teachers on how to nurture and sustain motivation, the following implications may offer some practical insights for ESL teachers and language school management for creating a better work environment and facilitating positive student outcomes.

#### *Teacher level*

- More professional development:

Most respondents expressed a desire for on-going professional training. The probable channels would likely be printed or electronic materials related to teaching and learning, or to curriculum. These could be online or in hardcopy journals and kept in an onsite preparation area. Workshops or training courses also provide professional development opportunities, as does participation in conferences such as the bi-annual Community Languages and English to Speakers of Other Languages (CLESOL). ESL teachers should also be encouraged and given support to pursue further qualifications related to second language teaching and learning. Further studies, for example, could be pursuing a Master Degree in Language Teaching or Applied Language Studies. Of course, professional development time is also required to pursue development or make full use of such resources.

- Room for autonomy:

The lack of work and curriculum autonomy was a major de-motivating factor. Undoubtedly, many of these concerns are beyond the control of teachers, such as the pre-set purposes of the language courses, continuous enrolment procedures adopted by management and mixed level classes. However, many teachers experimented and were creative in attempts to deal with the lack of autonomy, for example: (1) adjusting of the curriculum to suit students' needs;



(2) expanding teaching and learning beyond classrooms; (3) introducing impromptu teaching materials; or (4) using educational games. Therefore, allowance, encouragement and the imparting of the 'know-how' may be provided for teachers to experiment and create within the confines of work and curriculum, with assistance from colleagues, management or any professional training.

- Awareness of the need for self-motivation:

Teachers should constantly be mindful of any factors that are likely to strengthen intrinsic motivation, such as developing rapport with students and practising self-reflection. As suggested by Mann (2005), reflection can inform awareness of practice, and journal keeping is a productive form of reflection. The value of reflective practice is supported by two journal keepers for the present study who commented that it “was an interesting lesson for me” and it “allowed me a chance to be reflective.”

- Reduction of isolation:

As identified in the now classic study of general school teachers by Lortie (1975), isolation can be a key feature of educational institutions. Thus, to reduce isolation, collaboration and cooperation between teachers/peers in classroom, outside the classroom or even beyond school help support a better work environment.

### *Managerial level*

- As mentioned previously, schools might have fiscal restraints and hence have possible limitations in any measures for improving extrinsic items, such as material rewards or reduction of workload. However, the results of the present study show that intrinsic factors exert more significant effect upon teacher motivation. Therefore, a management focus on addressing, for example, respect, communication, and involvement in policy making is practical and relevant. Consequently, the setting up and effective implementation of the following policies and/or systems would be of benefit:
  - Regular or scheduled communication and collaboration between management and teachers (including appreciation and respect for teachers such as consultation of policies)
  - Team work and collaboration between teachers

- Findings of the study seem to suggest that: 1) teachers seek self-improvement to compensate the lack of extrinsic rewards; 2) teachers might lack certain skills such as dealing with the ethnicity and gender issues. Therefore, the facilitating or supporting teachers' self or profession development, including teachers who might be on short term contracts, will be of eventual mutual benefit.

However, as all teaching is local, systems developed cannot be of a one-size-fits-all approach (Leach, Zepke, Haworth, Isaacs & Nepia, 2009); hence, appropriate procedures require an appreciation of the particular context of individual teachers, managers and/or employers.

## **5.7 Limitations of the study**

Though the present study managed to successfully implement a mixed-method approach with a comparatively satisfactory sample size of 72 participants, there were limitations:

- Only seven participants in the survey questionnaire took part in journal keeping; and due to logistic and time constraints only three out of the seven journal keepers were able to be interviewed. Consequently, triangulation between quantitative and qualitative data was compromised.
- Although measures were taken to be inclusive of a wide range of ESL teaching institutions nationwide, participants were contacted through the persons in-charge of language schools, hence, might be selective. Moreover, participants were self-selected, hence, a possibility exists that the study did not obtain a representative sample.
- Only ESL teachers in private and tertiary operated language schools were surveyed. A range of data from ESL teachers in community contexts such as those employed by English Language Partners (formerly ESOL Home Tutors), or those involved with Adult Community Education was not collected. Consequently, findings may only be generalizable to the sector investigated, namely teachers employed in private English language schools, or in other

tertiary institutions.

- The use of simplistic statistical analysis of means and percentage, without further use of more sophisticated statistical procedures such as factor analysis, might have affected the accuracy of findings.

## **5.8 Recommendations for further research**

The results of the study have provided some insights into the motivation of ESL teachers in New Zealand and in this respect have helped address the research gap. However, in the present study, the degree of motivation/de-motivation cannot be ascertained, though, some factors reflecting the more negative aspects of teachers' work were identified. In this regard, the findings of the study were limited. Further research would likely contribute to a fuller understanding of the issue of ESL teacher motivation.

For the present study, some triangulation and in-depth data were available through a mixed-method approach. However, a similar design with a larger sample size (and longer duration) in both journal keeping and interviews would be of more value. In addition, methods other than questionnaire, journal keeping and interviews may offer data from a different perspective. For example, a research design incorporating classroom observation or physiological responses, as suggested by Dörnyei (2001), may provide another objective measure of teachers' motivation.

As mentioned, this study has been inconclusive in determining ESL teacher motivation/de-motivation though some numerical descriptions, such as dissatisfaction with rewards through the application of the 'fit hypothesis', and intention of staying in teaching, were found. Further research which approaches teacher motivation from a socio-cultural perspective, incorporating the notions of 'identity' and 'self' found in Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009a) edited book entitled *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, would complement studies which are situated in self-determination theory and draw primarily on the intrinsic/extrinsic distinction. As Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009, p.3) claim, a theory of 'possible selves' "represent[s] individuals ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid

of becoming”. Studies employing such a theoretical framework might offer richer insights into the motivation of ESL teachers.

Further research on ESL teacher motivation in New Zealand could also focus on more particular contexts. This thesis studied ESL teachers in private language schools and tertiary institutions. However, these two educational settings have different educational environments and operate under different constraints. Future research could study, for example, ESL teachers in private language schools only which have been suggested to be of greater concern in regard to the quality of English language provision. However, the present study has found no evidence of ‘unscrupulous’ ESOL teachers with little or no motivation to improve outcomes in their students, as suggested in some of the literature. Further research might also want to explore teacher motivation in the school sector, or in community-based ESOL provision. An examination of the particularity of ESOL provision would provide ‘local understandings’ (Johnson, 1999) of ESOL teacher motivation and further enrich our understandings. Furthermore, future research might investigate teacher motivation by age and gender in which the present study has not examined in detail. An insight into a specific age or gender group of teachers might be necessary as indicated in Table 3.1 (p. 47) that more than 60% of the participants for the present study were female or over 41 years old. Moreover, of the 24 respondents who expressed that they had no job security in section 4.4 (p. 87), about 60% of them were female or age over 41.

In having the final word, Oxford and Shearin (1994, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998, p. 125) comment that “without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?” That comment underpins the importance of further educational research on teacher motivation and in particular ESL teacher motivation.

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# Participant Information Sheet (questionnaire)



Date Information Sheet Produced: 30 March 2009

Project Title:

Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools

Invitation:

Allow me to briefly introduce myself. My name is Hay-yiu, Yau, and I am studying for my Master's degree at AUT. For my thesis, I am studying factors of motivation and de-motivation which are affecting language teachers in New Zealand language schools.

As an English language teacher in a New Zealand language school, you are invited to take part in this research project. If you agree to participate, you may withdraw yourself or any information that you have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

Purpose of this research:

I intend to answer the following research questions:-

1. What is the current degree of motivation/de-motivation amongst New Zealand language school teachers?
2. What factors/reasons affect their motivation/de-motivation?
3. What can be done to sustain or nurture their motivation?

The findings may be published in language journals and presented at conferences. Participants and language institutions will not be identified.

How are participants chosen?

Language (English) teachers in major language schools in New Zealand are being invited to participate. You may either be contacted by me directly or through a contact person.

What is required of the participants?

A participant will be asked to answer a questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions. Questionnaires can be returned by mail or email to the researcher. Contact details are provided at the end of this Information Sheet.

What are the discomforts and risks and how will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

Please feel free to not answer any questions that you feel uncomfortable with or feel unable to answer. In addition, you may approach my supervisor and AUTECH (contact details are provided at the end of this Information Sheet) if you have any concerns. You may also withdraw yourself or any information that you have provided for this project at any time prior to the completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

What are the benefits?

All participants are likely to benefit from the process by having a chance to reflect on their role and work in language teaching. Furthermore, they will have access to the findings which might be helpful in their future career.

How will privacy be protected?

Participants' questionnaires (without any traceable identity) will be returned directly to the researcher. Only the researcher will be allowed access to any data. Therefore, data is confidential and participants' employers (language schools) **will not** be aware of the data. Furthermore, names of participants **will not** appear in the data collection, results and in any published papers or conference papers. Consent forms (with names) will be locked in a cabinet in the supervisor's office (Professor John Bitchener, WT 1004, AUT) at all times.

What are the costs of participation?

Most participants will take part in the questionnaires only. It is estimated that it will take 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

**What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?**

After receiving my invitation and considering the information provided on this sheet, you are requested to forward your acceptance/non-acceptance within 1 week.

**How do I agree to participate in this research?**

If you agree to participate, you will need to sign and return the attached Consent Form (Questionnaire) to me directly by fax 09-5336028 or by mail:



Hay-yiu Yau  
c/o: Professor John Bitchener (Mail no. D-71)  
Auckland University of Technology  
School of Languages  
Private Bag 92006  
Auckland 1142  
New Zealand

**What is the process of participation?**

You may be approached by the researcher or a contact person in your school to consider this invitation to participate. After reading this information sheet, you have the opportunity to ask the researcher or the contact person any questions. If you agree to participate, please sign and forward the consent form as advised in the previous section. Then, you are requested to complete the questionnaire and return it directly to the researcher (by email: [hyyau56@hotmail.com](mailto:hyyau56@hotmail.com)). You can choose to stop participating at any time.

**Will I receive the results of this research?**

The results of this research will be available to you after its completion (estimated to be around early 2010). If you are interested in receiving a copy, please indicate in your consent form, or email the researcher.

**What do I do if I have concerns about this research?**

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to my Project Supervisor, *Professor John Bitchener*, (email: [john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz](mailto:john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz), phone: 9219999 ext 7830).

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTECH, Madeline Banda, [madeline.banda@aut.ac.nz](mailto:madeline.banda@aut.ac.nz), 921 9999 ext 8044.

**Contact persons (for further details of this research project and any correspondence):**

**The researcher:** Hay-yiu, Yau  
( email: [hyyau56@hotmail.com](mailto:hyyau56@hotmail.com), phone 021-1170213)

**Project supervisor:** Professor John Bitchener  
(email: [john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz](mailto:john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz), phone: 9219999 ext 7830)

**Thank You** Approved by: Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee  
on 28 May 2009

**Ref. No 09/58**

## Appendix B: Consent form (Questionnaire)

<b>Consent Form</b> (Questionnaire)	 <b>AUT</b> UNIVERSITY TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU
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Title of Project: **Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools**

Project Supervisor: **Professor John Bitchener** (email: john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz)

Researcher: **Hay-yiu, Yau** (email: hyyau56@hotmail.com)

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Information Sheet dated 30 March 2009).
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including correspondence, and questionnaires, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- I agree to take part in this research by answering and returning the questionnaire.
- I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research. Yes ( ☐ )  
No ( ☐ )

Participant name:

Signature:

Participant contact email:

Phone:

Language School:

Date:

**Approved by: Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28 May 2009**

**Ref. No 09/58**

Reminder: If you agree to participate in this survey by answering the questionnaire, please sign and forward this Consent Form (Questionnaire) to me directly by fax 09-5336028 or by mail: Hay-yiu Yau, c/o Professor John Bitchener (mail no. D-71), Auckland University of Technology, Department of Languages, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, New Zealand.

## Appendix C: Questionnaire

<h1>Questionnaire for Language Teaching Motivation</h1>	 <b>AUT</b> UNIVERSITY <small>TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU</small>
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This questionnaire for English language teachers in private, Polytechnic and University English language schools aims to i) find out the teachers' degree of motivation/de-motivation; ii) investigate the reasons for these and iii) suggest possible solutions where de-motivation is concerned. No known risks are associated with any participation in this research. Strict anonymity will be followed and names (participants and language schools) will not be connected to any reports/publications of the findings. Participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to not answer any questions that you feel uncomfortable with or feel unable to answer.

This questionnaire consists of four sections. The first and second consist of statements to be responded to according to a five-point scale. The third one is open-ended and you are invited to answer in as much detail as you wish. The last one is a brief personal information section.

Your participation is greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, please contact:

- H Y Yau (researcher) at email: [hyyau56@hotmail.com](mailto:hyyau56@hotmail.com) or
- Professor John Bitchener (supervisor) at email: [john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz](mailto:john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz)

### Section 1 (Close-ended questions, please tick/cross)

Rate each of the following according to how important this aspect of work is to you personally. Indicate your response by placing a tick/cross on the scale beside each item:

	Very important	Somewhat important	No opinion	Somewhat unimportant	Unimportant at all
Earning a good salary					
Having flexible working hours					
Job security					
Fringe benefits					
Having a manageable work load					
Working for a reputable organization					
Having a profession that is prestigious					
Being promoted to a senior supervisory job at some point in					

my career					
Being fairly treated in my organization					
Having the freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching					
Having clear rules and procedures					
Having support from other teachers					
Being included in the goal setting process					
Having contact with professionals in the field of English language teaching					
Able to work independently and use my own initiative					
Having good relationships with colleagues					
Having a friendly relationship with my students					
Having a good relationship with the person I report to					
Working with colleagues as a team					
Having an adequate and comfortable physical working environment					
Having a person I report to who is responsive to suggestions and grievances					
Having a job in which I can learn and develop my abilities to my full potential					
Having a job in					

which I can perform to the best of my ability					
Having a challenging job					
Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to					
Frequent feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from my students					
Being evaluated positively by my students					
Being evaluated positively by the person I report to					
Being recognized for my teaching accomplishment					
Really helping my students to learn English					
Providing service to society					
Having a job that is enjoyable and stimulating					

**Section 2 (Close-ended questions, please tick/cross)**

Read the following statements and think about each in relation to your current job.

Indicate your response by placing a tick/cross on the scale beside each item:

	<b>Strongly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>No opinion</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>
I have a satisfactory salary					
I have flexible working hours					
I have good job security					
I have good fringe benefits					
I have manageable work load					
I work for a reputable organization					
Teaching English is a prestigious profession					
I have prospects for promotion					
I am fairly treated in my organization					
I am allowed sufficient freedom to do what is necessary in performing good teaching					
There are clear rules and procedures at work					
I have support from other teachers					
I am included in my organization's goal setting process					
I have sufficient opportunities for contact with professionals in the field of English teaching					
Independence and initiative are rewarded					
I have good relationships with colleagues					
I have a friendly relationship with my students					
I have a good relationship with the person I report to					
I have team work at school					
I have an adequate and comfortable physical working environment					
The person I report to is responsive to suggestions and grievances					
My job provides scope for					

me to learn and develop to my full potential					
I have a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability					
My job is challenging					
I receive frequent enough feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from a person I report to					
I receive frequent enough feedback about the effectiveness of my performance from my students					
My students evaluated me positively					
The person I report to evaluates me positively					
Teaching accomplishments are recognized					
I know that I am helping my students to learn English					
I know that I am providing service to society					
My job that is enjoyable and stimulating					
I am relaxed when I enter the classroom to teach					
I am truly satisfied with my present job					
I will change my career if I have the opportunity to do so					
I will change my job if I have the opportunity to do so					
I am proud of my job					

### Section 3 (Open-ended questions)

1. Think of a time when, in your relationship with those you report to, something very **favourable and positive** happened that made you feel good about your teaching and your relationship with them, and explain this below.

Ans:

2. Think of a time when, in your relationship with those you report to, something very **unfavourable and negative** happened that made you feel bad about your teaching and your relationship with those you report to, and explain this below.

Ans:

3. Think of a time when, during classroom teaching or dealing with your students, something very **favourable and positive** happened that made you feel good about your teaching, and explain this below.

Ans:

4. Think of a time when, during classroom teaching or dealing with your students, something very **unfavourable and negative** happened that made you feel bad about your teaching, and explain this below.

Ans:

5. Name any measures that you think could **improve** your feelings about teaching, and explain these below.

Ans:

### Section 4

General Information (Please feel free to complete as much as you wish by writing/ticking/crossing which situation applies to you)

1. **Gender:** Male ( ) Female ( )

2. **Age:** 20-30 ( ) 31-40 ( ) 41-50 ( ) 51 & over ( )

3. **Ethnicity:** ( )

4. **English:** your first language: ( )  
your second language: ( )

5. **Your academic degrees/diplomas/certificates:**

6. **Your qualification for teaching English:**

7. **Which situation applies to you?**

( ) I am employed full time in one language school.

( ) I am employed as a casual teacher in one language school.



- (        ) I am employed as a casual teacher in two or more language schools.  
(        ) I am employed full time in one language school plus casual at other school(s).

**8. Total number of years of language teaching experience:** (        )

**9. Duration of most language courses you teach:**

- |                 |            |
|-----------------|------------|
| 1 – 3 months    | (        ) |
| 4 – 6 months    | (        ) |
| 7 – 8 months    | (        ) |
| 9 months & over | (        ) |

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

Please return this questionnaire to H Y Yau:                      by email **hyyau56@hotmail.com**  
or by fax: **09-5336028**

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28  
May 2009**

**AUTEC Reference number:                      09/58**

# Participant Information Sheet

## (Diary reporting & interview)



Date Information Sheet Produced: 30 March 2009

Project Title:

Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools

Invitation:

Allow me to briefly introduce myself. My name is Hay-yiu, Yau, and I am studying for my Master's degree at AUT. For my thesis, I am studying factors of motivation and de-motivation which are affecting language teachers in New Zealand language schools.

As an English language teacher in a New Zealand language school, you are invited to take part in this research project. If you agree to participate, you may withdraw yourself or any information that you have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

Purpose of this research:

I intend to answer the following research questions:-

4. What is the current degree of motivation/de-motivation amongst New Zealand language school teachers?
5. What factors/reasons affect their motivation/de-motivation?
6. What can be done to sustain or nurture their motivation?

The findings may be published in language journals and presented at conferences. Participants and language institutions will not be identified.

How are participants chosen?

Language (English) teachers in major language schools in New Zealand are being invited to participate. You may either be contacted by me directly or through a contact person.

What is required of the participants?

After completing and returning the questionnaires, some participants will be asked to keep a diary and some of these participants will also be asked to take part in an interview. If you agree to keep a diary, you will be asked to record over a period of four weeks your teaching/incidents that affect your motivation/de-motivation. Diary entries will be emailed at regular intervals to the researcher.

If you are asked to take part in an interview, you will be asked to further elaborate and explain the content presented in the diary reports - about teaching/incidents that affect your motivation/de-motivation. Interviews will be conducted in private and at a place and time convenient to participants.

What are the discomforts and risks and how will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

I have avoided by all means any likely discomforts and risks. However, you may approach my supervisor and AUTECH (contact details are provided at the end of this Information Sheet) if you have any concerns. You may also withdraw yourself or any information that you have provided for this project at any time prior to the completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

What are the benefits?

All participants are likely to benefit from the process by having a chance to reflect on their role and work in language teaching. Furthermore, they will have access to the findings which might be helpful in their future career.

How will privacy be protected?

Participants' diary reports will be emailed directly to the researcher. Any possible follow-up interviews will be conducted in private and at participants' convenience. Only the researcher will be allowed access to any data.

Therefore, data is confidential and participants' employers (language schools) **will not** be aware of the data. Furthermore, names of participants **will not** appear in the data collection, results and in any published papers or conference

papers. Consent forms (with names) will be locked in a cabinet in the supervisor's office (Professor John Bitchener, WT 1004, AUT) at all times.

**What are the costs of participation?**

For respondents participating in the diary reporting, an estimated 5 minutes per day during the recording period of four weeks will be required.

Furthermore, these participants may also be invited to take part in an interview in order to discuss key points in more detail.

**What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?**

After receiving my invitation and considering the information provided on this sheet, you are requested to forward your acceptance/non-acceptance within 1 week.

**How do I agree to participate in this research?**

If you agree to participate, you will need to sign and return the attached Consent Forms (diary & interview) to me directly by fax 09-5336028 or by mail:

Hay-yiu Yau  
c/o: Professor John Bitchener (Mail no. D-71)  
Auckland University of Technology  
School of Languages  
Private Bag 92006  
Auckland 1142  
New Zealand

**What is the process of participation?**

You may be approached by the researcher or a contact person in your school to consider this invitation to participate. After reading this information sheet, you have the opportunity to ask the researcher or the contact person any questions. If you agree to participate, please sign the consent forms and return them directly to the researcher as advised in the previous section. The researcher will proceed with and arrange further procedures with you. You can choose to stop participating at any time.

**Will I receive the results of this research?**

The results of this research will be available to you after its completion (estimated to be around early 2010). If you are interested in receiving a copy, please indicate in your consent form, or email the researcher.

**What do I do if I have concerns about this research?**

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to my Project Supervisor, *Professor John Bitchener*, (email: *john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz*, phone: 9219999 ext 7830).

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTECH, Madeline Banda, *madeline.banda@aut.ac.nz* , 921 9999 ext 8044.

Contact persons (for further details of this research project and any correspondence):

**The researcher: Hay-yiu, Yau**

**( email: *hyyau56@hotmail.com*, phone 021-1170213)**

**Project supervisor: Professor John Bitchener**

**(email: *john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz*, phone: 9219999 ext 7830)**

**Thank You**

**Approved by: Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28 May 2009**

**Ref. No 09/58**

## Appendix E: Consent form (Diary reporting)

# Consent Form (Diary reporting)



Title of Project: **Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools**

Project Supervisor: **Professor John Bitchener** (email: john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz)

Researcher: **Hay-yiu, Yau** (email: hyyau56@hotmail.com)

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Information Sheet dated 30 March 2009).
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including correspondence and diary reports or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- I agree to take part in this research by providing diary reports within a period of 4 weeks.
- I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research. Yes ( ☐ )  
No ( ☐ )

Participant name:

Signature:

Participant contact email:

Phone:

Language School:

Date:

**Approved by: Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28 May 2009**

**Ref. No 09/58**

Reminder: If you agree to participate in this survey by providing diary reports, please sign and forward this Consent Form (Diary reporting) to me directly by fax 09-5336028 or by mail: Hay-yiu Yau, c/o Professor John Bitchener (mail no. D-71), Auckland University of Technology, Department of Languages, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, New Zealand.

## Appendix F: Consent form (Interview)

<h1>Consent Form</h1> <h2>(Interview)</h2>	 <p><b>AUT</b> UNIVERSITY TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU</p>
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Title of Project: **Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools**

Project Supervisor: **Professor John Bitchener** (email: john.bitchener@aut.ac.nz)

Researcher: **Hay-yiu, Yau** (email: hyyau56@hotmail.com)

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Information Sheet dated 30 March 2009).
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including correspondence, tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- I agree to take part in this research by being interviewed and the contents be taped.
- I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research. Yes ( )  
No ( )

Participant name:

Signature:

Participant contact email:

Phone:

Language School:


Date:

**Approved by: Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28 May 2009**

**Ref. No 09/58**

Reminder: If you agree to take part in an interview, you will be asked to sign this form before the interview.

## Appendix G: Journal guidance

<h1>Guidelines for respondents to write diaries</h1>	 <p><b>AUT</b> UNIVERSITY TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU</p>
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Project Title: Language teacher motivation: A study of English language teachers in New Zealand language schools

Researcher: Hay yiu, Yau

Supervisor: Professor John Bitchener

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Please spend some time at the end of the day (within the designated 2-week period) think about any information (if there is any) relevant to the following situations and email to the researcher by [hyyau56@hotmail.com](mailto:hyyau56@hotmail.com):

1. Any incident (incidents) at your school today that has been **favourable and positive** that made you feel good about your teaching, and explain why.
2. Any incident (incidents) at your school today that has been **unfavourable and negative** that made you feel bad about your teaching, and explain why.
3. Any incident (incidents) at home today that has been **favourable and positive** that made you feel good about your teaching, and explain why.
4. Any incident (incidents) at home today that has been **unfavourable and negative** that made you feel bad about your teaching, and explain why.

Thank you

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28  
May 2009      AUTECH Reference number:      09/58



## Appendix H: Interview protocol

### Interview protocol - general questions

- Why did you choose to become a language teacher?
- Was there any time in your career that you want to change your career? (What happened?)
- [The questions are, to a great extent, seeking elaboration or clarification.] Participants with questionnaire replies indicating that “they **will change** their job or career” will be asked about “major factors leading to that decision”.
- For participants who have chosen **NOT to change** their job or career, they will be asked what factors leading to that decision.
- Any measurements you recommend that you think may likely attract more international language students to come to New Zealand?
- Any measurements you recommend that you think may likely attract more people to become language teachers like you in New Zealand?
- Do you think you are a motivated/de-motivated language teacher? Why (factors)?
- Do you think you can still be motivated/de-motivated in 1 year time? Why?
- What can change that?

### **Specific questions for individual participant:**

#### Participant no. Q49/J1/I1

- Leaving New Zealand for an overseas offer
- Different curriculum taught in classes
- 

#### Participant no. Q3/J2/I2

- From the close-ended questions, it seems that the only dissatisfaction she encounters at work is “having contact with professionals in the field of English language teaching”. She regards that as “Very important” but she disagrees that she has “sufficient opportunities in that aspect”.
- Why leaving NZ and the present job for an overseas offer
- 

#### Participant no. Q56/J3/I3

- Seemed to be very negative in completing the questionnaire: with dissatisfaction in salary, job security, workload and team work
- Change career but not job

## Appendix I: Incidents related to students

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Feedback from students	Positive	Negative
(in class or teaching)	44	25
(outside contact)	11	3
(success in learning English)	9	5
(success in Exam)	3	4
Teacher own problem	0	15
Ethnicity & gender issues	0	7
Colleague support	1	1

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